RENAL MANIFESTATIONS OF HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS IN THE ERA OF ANTIRETROVIRAL TREATMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

DR SHIRELLE ASSARAM

993210127



A dissertation submitted to the College of Health Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Medical Sciences (Internal Medicine)

Durban

2016

RENAL MANIFESTATIONS OF HUMAN IMMUNODEFICIENCY VIRUS IN THE ERA OF ANTIRETROVIRAL TREATMENT IN SOUTH **AFRICA**

DR SHIRELLE ASSARAM

993210127

2016

A dissertation submitted to the College of Health Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Medical Sciences (Internal Medicine)

This is to certify that the contents of this thesis are the original research work of Dr Shirelle Assaram

As the candidate's supervisor, I have approved this thesis for submission

Supervisor:

-----Name: Prof Nombulelo P Magula Date: 30.03.20/7

Co-supervisor:

Name: Dr Tivani P Mashamba-Thompson Date:-28 March 2017--

ABSTRACT

Background:

Sub-Saharan Africa carries the global burden of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection. Renal disease is a well-recognized and closely associated complication of HIV infection. The burden of kidney disease in Africa is aggravated by poor socio-economic factors and by the lack of access to healthcare and to resources. Most of what is known regarding HIV related kidney disease has come from research done in high income countries.

Aim: Demonstrating the current stance on renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa in the era of antiretroviral treatment (ART).

Study design: This is a cross-sectional study. Mixed data acquisition methods using qualitative and quantitative research approaches were applied in this study in order to achieve the objectives. These included a systematic scoping review and a retrospective chart review.

Data collection and analysis: The systematic scoping review began with a database search of published literature based on studies conducted in South Africa. The following databases: Google Scholar, PubMed, Medline, Cochrane Library, Worldcat.org and EBSCO host were searched to obtain relevant literature. We formulated a standardized data extraction table according to the PICO model. We presented a narrative account of the findings by performing a thematic content analysis of the included studies. For the chart review we extracted data from medical records of all new patients initiated on ART from April 2010 to December 2013. The sample size was 350 patient records. We collected data at baseline (pre-ART) and then at 6, 12, 18 and 24 months on ART. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the characteristics of HIV-related renal manifestations at the King Edward VIII Hospital ART clinic.

Results: The results of the systematic scoping review showed that normal renal function occurred in 28.4% to 79% of patients, mild renal impairment occurred in 19% to 57.1% and moderate renal impairment in 2% to 14.4%. Only 1.3% of patients had severe renal impairment. Both the Cockcroft-Gault equation (after correcting for bias) and the 4-variable Modification of Diet in Renal Disease equation (without the ethnicity factor for African Americans) have been validated for the estimation of glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) in Black South Africans. HIV-associated nephropathy was the most prevalent histology seen (57.2%). Older age, a lower CD4 count, a low haemoglobin and a detectable viral load were linked to renal impairment. Renal function improved in the first year of commencing ART.

With regards to the chart review, 64% of the cohort was female, 99% were African and the mean age was 36.9±9.7 years. At baseline, 10 patients had hypertension, 6 had diabetes, 61 were co-infected with tuberculosis (TB) and 157 patients had a high body mass index (BMI) with 25.4% being categorized as

overweight and 19.4% obese. Regarding baseline renal function, the majority of the patients had a

normal renal function: 90.4% (95% confidence intervals (CI):86%-93%); 7.0% (CI:5%-10%) had

moderate renal impairment; 1.3% (CI:0%-3%) had severe renal impairment; and 1.3% (CI:0%-3%) had

kidney failure. The risk of renal impairment increased by 1.06 (CI: 1.03 – 1.10) times as BMI increased

by one unit. The association of hypertension (HPT) with abnormal renal function was found to be

insignificant, p>0.05. The majority of patients were initiated on tenofovir disoproxil fumarate (TDF)

(90.6%), in combination with lamivudine (3TC) (100%) and either efavirenz (EFV) (56.6%) or

nevirapine (NVP) (43.4%).

Conclusion: The scoping review highlights age, CD4 cell count, haemoglobin, detectable viral load as

factors associated with renal impairment and the improvement in renal function with use of ART. As

more patients are started on ART according to the 'test and treat' approach to HIV prevention and

management in South Africa, it is possible that the benefit may extend to the burden of kidney disease,

however, hypertension, diabetes and obesity may reduce these benefits. The chart review found a low

prevalence of baseline renal impairment in HIV-infected ART-naïve outpatients. An improvement in

renal function after the commencement of ART has been demonstrated among this population.

However, the long-term outcomes of patients with HIV-related renal disease is not known.

Keywords: Renal manifestations; HIV; antiretroviral treatment; South Africa

iii

DECLARATION 1 – PLAGIARISM

DECLARATION

I......DR SHIRELLE ASSARAM......declare that

(i) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.

(ii) This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

(iii) This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless

specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

(iv) This dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being

sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:

a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been

referenced;

b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks,

and referenced.

A.

(v) Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am an author, co-author or editor, I have indicated

in detail which part of the publication was actually written by myself alone and have fully referenced

such publications.

(vi) This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless

specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation and in the References

sections.

	Wy Joran		
Signed:	- 1	Date: 28 March 2017	

DECLARATION 2 – PUBLICATIONS & CONTRIBUTIONS

 HIV Renal Manifestations during the Antiretroviral Era in South Africa: A Systematic Scoping Review

Contribution: Dr Shirelle Assaram contributed to the project by developing the proposal, carrying out data collection, data analysis, interpretation of the results as well as manuscript preparation and writing under the supervision of Prof NP Magula and Dr TP Mashamba-Thompson. Dr Suman Mewa Kinoo contributed in the abstract, full article screening and the quality assessment of the included studies.

2. Risk Factors and Co-Morbidities Associated with Changes in Renal Function among ARTnaïve Adults in South Africa: A Chart Review

Contribution: Dr Shirelle Assaram contributed to the project by developing the proposal, carrying out data collection, data analysis, interpretation of the results as well as manuscript preparation and writing under the supervision of Prof NP Magula and Dr TP Mashamba-Thompson.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to give thanks to the following people:

- My supervisors Prof Nombulelo P Magula and Dr Tivani Mashamba-Thompson for their mentorship, encouragement and knowledge.
- The study collaborators and co-investigator Dr Suman Mewa Kinoo.
- The College of Health Sciences for the receipt of a grant to assist with my study.
- My data collector, Sister Yeni.
- My family for their support and encouragement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTR	ACT	ii
DECLA	ARATION 1 – PLAGIARISM	iv
DECLA	ARATION 2 – PUBLICATIONS & CONTRIBUTIONS	v
ACKNO	OWLEDGEMENTS	vi
TABLE	OF CONTENTS	vii
DEFINI	ITION OF TERMS	viii
ACRON	NYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	ix
LIST O	F TABLES	X
LIST O	F FIGURES	xi
СНАРТ	ER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.	Background	1
1.2.	Problem statement	3
1.3.	Research questions	3
1.4.	Aims and objectives of this study	4
1.5.	Overview of this thesis	5
1.6.	Literature Review: Renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa	6
1.7.	Methodology: Renal Manifestations of HIV in the era of ART in South Africa	11
CHA	PTER 2: A SYSTEMATIC SCOPING REVIEW	21
CHA	PTER 3: A CHART REVIEW	60
	PTER 4: SYNTHESIS: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND	6.0
RECO	OMMENDATIONS	80
APPF	ENDICES	86

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Chronic kidney disease - The presence of 3 months or more of kidney damage or a glomerular filtration rate (GFR) of <60mL/min/1.73m² irrespective of cause. Kidney damage can be detected by the presence of albuminuria, defined as albumin-to-creatinine ratio >30mg/g in two of three spot urine specimens.

Hypertension - Persistent elevation of blood pressure (BP) \geq 140/90. Repeat measurements should be performed on 3 separate occasions within a period of 2 months, to determine whether a diagnosis of hypertension is valid.

Incidence – Incidence is the rate of new (or newly diagnosed) cases of the disease. It is generally reported as the number of new cases occurring within a period of time.

Prevalence - Prevalence is the actual number of cases alive with the disease either during a period of time (period prevalence) or at a particular date in time (point prevalence). It is most meaningfully reported as the number of cases as a fraction of the total population at risk.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome

ARF Acute renal failure

ART Antiretroviral treatment
ATN Acute tubular necrosis

BP Blood pressure CG Cockcroft-Gault

CKD Chronic kidney disease

d4T Stavudine EFV Stocrin

eGFR Estimated glomerular filtration rate

FDC Fixed dose combination
GFR Glomerular filtration rate

HAART Highly active antiretroviral treatment

HIV Human immunodeficiency irus HIVAN HIV-associated nephropathy

HPT Hypertension

HSRC Human Science Research Council

MDRD Modification of diet in renal disease

MMAT Mixed methods appraisal tool

NRTI Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor

NNRTI Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor

NSP National Strategic Plan

NVP Nevirapine

PI Protease inhibitor

PMTCT Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission

TB Tuberculosis

TDF Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate

3TC Lamivudine

WHO World Health Organization

UNAIDS Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 2. 1: CHARACTERISTICS OF INCLUDED STUDIES.	30
TABLE 2. 2: EVIDENCE OF RENAL DYSFUNCTION IN HIV-INFECTED PATIENTS I	N
SOUTH AFRICA IN THE ERA OF ART	43
TABLE 3. 1: STAGING OF CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE	65
TABLE 3. 2: CLASSIFICATION OF HYPERTENSION	66
TABLE 3. 3: CLASSIFICATION OF BMI	66
TABLE 3. 4: BASELINE DEMOGRAPHICS	67
TABLE 3. 5: CATEGORIES OF RENAL IMPAIRMENT (RI) FROM BASELINE TO 24	
MONTHS	69
TABLE 3.6: RISK FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH ABNORMAL RENAL FUNCTION.	71
TABLE 3.7: LOST TO FOLLOW-UP.	72

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 2. 1: LITERATURE SEARCH AND SELECTION OF STUDIES	28
FIGURE 3. 1: BASELINE BMI CATEGORIES	68
FIGURE 3. 2: BASELINE HPT CATEGORIES	68
FIGURE 3. 3: DISTRIBUTION OF ART AT BASELINE	70

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection affects multiple organs and its manifestations in the kidney are variable (1). The incidence of kidney disease is higher in low income countries than in high income countries (2). Most of the data regarding renal involvement in HIV infection has come from research done in high-income countries. However, the presentation of renal disease in Africa is different to that reported in high income countries (3).

In high income countries the burden of the cost of dialysis is carried by the government e.g. the Medicare Chronic Kidney Disease program in the United States which allows for close to universal access to treatment for chronic kidney disease (CKD) (4). The availability and accessibility of dialysis and transplantation in Africa varies and is limited due to the high costs involved and the scarcity of donors (2). Also in the United States, due to the production and early increased access to antiretroviral treatment (ART), the incidence of HIV-associated renal disease progressing to end stage renal disease has remained steady or has decreased (5). On the other hand, Mayosi et al. reports for instance a 67% increase in deaths related to nephritis or nephrosis in South Africa from 1999 to 2006 (6). The increase in the prevalence of kidney disease may be causally linked to the rising burden of HIV infection and HIV related kidney disease in South Africa (3). Those affected are mainly young black adults who present with severe opportunistic infections mainly tuberculosis (TB) and who have no past history of illness (3). The estimated number of nephrologists per million population in the United Kingdom is 5.3 (7) as opposed to Nigeria and South Africa where the number of nephrologists per million population is estimated to be 0.6 and 1.1, respectively. This suggests that Africa has the lowest number of nephrologists per million population globally (8, 9). The third leading cause of end stage renal disease among Black American men aged 20 to 64 years old was found to be HIV associated nephropathy (HIVAN) (10, 11). The peak prevalence of CKD in Nigeria is between 30 and 50 years of age (12, 13). HIVAN is the most common pattern of renal disease seen in South Africans based on renal biopsies performed on HIV infected individuals in Cape Town between January 2000 and December 2009 (8). The early detection of acute and chronic renal failure is delayed by the lack of routine screening of renal function due to overburdened clinics and laboratory facilities in the public health sector (3) and by the limited access to renal biopsies in parts of Africa (8).

Access to health care including to ART varies in Sub-Saharan Africa due to socio-economic and political factors (1, 3). Therefore, a study in a single country in Sub-Saharan Africa cannot be used to make deductions about the epidemic in the entire region (1). The data on the incidence, prevalence

and causes of HIV-related renal disease in Africa thus far have been unreliable because there have been no large epidemiological studies in this region (3, 8). Recently, several reports have emerged which emphasize the lack of knowledge about renal disease in Africa and the need for further research in this continent (1).

1.2. Problem statement

Most of what is known regarding the renal involvement in HIV infection has come from research done in high income countries. At some stage of their HIV infection, 10% of patients will develop HIV-related renal disease, according to data from the United States (14). Extrapolating this to the South African context, suggests that an estimated 650 000 patients may develop HIV-related renal disease (14). A large burden of CKD would place immense pressure on the resource strained health system (15). There has been an increase in mortality in South Africa related to CKD (6). Early detection of renal disease and quick referral to a nephrologist is crucial in the management of the disease but a lack of resources and finances hinders this process in low income countries such as South Africa (15). Although Sub-Saharan Africa carries the global burden of HIV infection, there is a lack of research in this region particularly with respect to HIV-related kidney disease (16). Mapping published peer reviewed evidence and demonstrating the current stance on renal manifestation of HIV in South Africa in the era of ART could help identify the research gaps and novel ideas for future research. This could also produce evidence to guide health policy makers and implementer of health interventions on the most appropriate intervention for reducing renal manifestations of HIV in high disease burdened settings.

1.3. Research questions

Main research question

What are the renal manifestations of HIV infection in South Africa in the era of ART?

Specific research questions

- 1. What is the research gap on the renal manifestations of HIV infection in South Africa in the era of ART?
- 2. What is the current pattern of HIV-related renal manifestations reported in South Africa in the era of ART?

1.4. Aims and objectives of this study

Main aim

Demonstrating the current stance on renal manifestations of HIV infection in South Africa in the era of ART.

Objectives

- 1. To conduct a scoping review in order to identify the literature available on the renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa in the ART era.
- 2. To conduct a retrospective chart review focussing on the following renal manifestations:
 - Change in estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) from baseline to 24 months on ART
 - Change in blood pressure (BP) from baseline to 24 months on ART
 - Urine dipstick abnormalities documented in patients who had the test done
 - Risk factors and co-morbidities associated with abnormal renal function.

1.5. Overview of this thesis

This thesis consists of four chapters (including the current chapter):

Chapter 1: This chapter presents the background, aim, objectives and significance of the study as well as providing a general outline of the thesis and its structure and the literature review and methodology.

Chapter 2: This chapter presents the results of the systematic scoping review, aimed at investigating the renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa in the era of antiretroviral treatment (ART). The manuscript is presented in the form of a journal article entitled 'HIV Renal Manifestations during the Antiretroviral Era in South Africa: A Systematic Scoping Review'. This manuscript is currently under review at the BMC: Systematic Reviews Journal.

Chapter 3: This chapter presents a retrospective chart review aimed at determining the risk factors and co-morbidities associated with renal impairment in an HIV-cohort to influence changes in policy and to guide future research. The chapter is presented in the form of a manuscript entitled: 'Risk Factors and Co-Morbidities Associated with Changes in Renal Function among ART-naïve Adults in South Africa: A Chart Review'. The manuscript is currently under review at the South African Journal of Infectious Diseases.

Chapter 4: This chapter is a discussion of study findings, strengths and limitations as well as a conclusion which contains some observations on the findings of this study, suggests future plans and makes recommendations for future research, based on the findings of this study.

1.6. Literature Review: Renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa

1.6.1 Introduction

Tackling the HIV and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) pandemic is the world's most challenging public health issue (17). Thomas Quinn described HIV/AIDS as "our modern day plague" (18). In 2003, two thirds of the worlds' people living with HIV were from Africa (17). The early stages of the epidemic in South Africa was limited to a few hundred cases among men who had sex with men and recipients of unsafe blood transfusions (19). However, heterosexual transmission came to the forefront in the early 1990's and the epidemic grew exponentially, extending to newborns and children through perinatal transmission (19). The government at the time was subjected to intense criticism both locally and internationally for the denial of the causal relationship between HIV and AIDS (20). In 2006, 34% of AIDS related deaths globally occurred in South Africa (21). South Africa had the highest number of people living with HIV worldwide, estimated at 5.3 million as of December 2007 (10, 22).

The National HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI) National Strategic Plan (NSP) was implemented to tackle this epidemic. The primary objectives of this plan were to reduce HIV incidence by 50% and to expand the availability and access of ART to 80% of the population who required it (22). An amount of R8.4 billion was budgeted in 2010-2011 for the expansion of the ART and Prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT) programmes, for the promotion of HIV and tuberculosis (TB) treatment integration and for greater investments in HIV prevention (23). For the ART rollout in South Africa to reach full circle, an understanding of patient knowledge, attitudes and behaviours was essential because cultural factors can influence attitudes toward medication and health care practices (24, 25). Between August and October 2002, Nachega et al. conducted such a study in Soweto, South Africa and revealed good knowledge (averaging 86%) of the study population about HIV/AIDS (24). The media plays a vital role in education and awareness of the disease and this needs to be continually reinforced. However, the low rate of disclosure of HIV status to sexual partners, family and friends suggests that HIV/AIDS related stigmatization is rife and could play a role in impeding access to ART and affect compliance to ART (25).

According to the Human Sciences Research Council's (HSRC's) National HIV Prevalence, Incidence and Behaviour Survey, the number of South Africans infected with HIV increased from 10.6% in 2008 to 12.2% in 2012 taking the total number of people infected with HIV in South Africa to 6.4 million in 2012 (26). The increased prevalence of HIV in 2012 can be contributed to a combination of the effects of new infections and a successful ART programme (resulting in decreased mortality amongst infected individuals) (26). Females continue to bear the brunt of the disease with the

incidence rate in females aged between 15 to 24 years of age being 3.1% as opposed to their male counterparts at 1.3% (in 2012) (27). The population knowledge on the basics of HIV/AIDS decreased from 2008 to 2012 suggesting a shift in the holistic management of HIV to biomedical interventions such as ART and less on the social and behavioural aspects (26). A domino effect is evident in the increase in risk seeking behaviour and the resultant high rate of new HIV infections in 2011. Sub-Saharan Africa accounted for 71% of new infections in adults and children worldwide (27). In 2015 the HIV prevalence rate in South Africa was estimated at 7 million people living with HIV according to the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), with 19.2% of adults aged 15 to 49 years being HIV infected (28). In this review, the ART regimes, renal disease and renal manifestations of HIV infection with a specific focus on South Africa will be discussed.

1.6.2 ART in South Africa

It has been globally acknowledged that combination Antiretroviral Treatment (ART) improves the quality of life for infected individuals, reduces opportunistic infections and AIDS related mortality (29). There is growing scientific evidence that supports the use of early ART for both prevention of HIV transmission and clinical care.

In 1983 the first case of AIDS was diagnosed in South Africa (19). The National ART programme in South Africa was launched in April 2004 (30, 31). This delay in access to ART for the many infected South Africans resulted in the death of more than 300 000 people living with HIV (19). Initially South Africa had difficulty procuring ART for its population infected with HIV due the costs involved (24, 32). Wood et al. in their study in 2000 found that the cost of treating 25% of HIV infected South Africans with triple ART would be more than \$19 billion (32). This was soon rectified as a result of a combination of reduction in drug prices, private donations, the availability of generic drugs and the establishment of the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis (TB) and Malaria (24).

The South African ART guidelines are based on the World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines which has two treatment regimens: a first line regimen that includes two nucleoside reverse transcriptase enzyme inhibitors (NRTI) with a non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase enzyme inhibitor (NNRTI); and a second line regimen that contains two NRTI'S with a protease enzyme inhibitor (PI) (31). Stavudine (D4T) was the NRTI widely used in the first line as part of the 2004 ART guidelines (31). This drug was implicated in causing peripheral neuropathy, hyperlactataemia and lipodystrophy (33, 34). Boulle et al.'s study found that almost all drug substitutions due to drug toxicity in patients on a longer duration of ART, occurred in patients who were on D4T (33). In April 2010, tenofovir replaced D4T as the NRTI in first line treatment (35). On 1 April 2013, tenofovir in the form of a fixed dose combination (FDC) tablet was made universally available (36). All patients on D4T were changed to the FDC tablet and ART naïve patients were initiated on FDC as per the national guidelines (36). By mid-2011 adult ART coverage was close to 80% of all HIV-infected patients

eligible for ART (37). The number of patients who started ART in 2010/2011 was in excess of the number of people who became eligible to receive ART over the same period, thereby exceeding the targets set in the 2007-2011 NSP (37). In 2012, the number of HIV infected people on ART in South Africa increased to 31.2% from 16.6% in 2008 (26).

The other notable change in the guidelines over the years has been the CD4 count threshold for initiation of ART. This was initially set at a CD4 count < 200 μ l in 2004 (31) and was increased to a CD4 count of \leq 350 μ l in 2013 (36). Granich et al. proposed that by expanding ART to CD4 < 500 μ l, there would be a significant decrease in death, disability and expenditure on HIV/AIDS over 40 years, an assumption based on a well-run ART programme (38). This supports South Africa's decision to adopt this policy and expand its ART programme to include patients with a CD4 count \leq 500 μ l (39). As of September 2016, South Africa has adopted the WHO policy and has initiated all HIV infected individuals on ART irrespective of CD4 count (40). This will help ensure that the South African ART programme reaches targets set by the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS to have 90% of all people tested for HIV, treated and virologically suppressed by 2020 (40). Currently, South Africa has the largest ART programme in the world.

1.6.3 Renal disease in the general population

Worldwide the incidence of CKD is increasing at an annual growth rate of 8% (2). CKD is defined as the presence of 3 months or more of kidney damage or an eGFR of <60mL/min/1.73m² irrespective of cause (41). eGFR can be calculated from calibrated serum creatinine and estimated equations such as the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) and Cockcroft-Gault (CG) equations which have been suggested to most closely approximate GFR in many African populations (41).

South Africa is experiencing a double burden of disease with an increase in infectious diseases namely HIV/AIDS and TB along with an increase in non-communicable diseases such as hypertension (HPT), diabetes and cancer (6). The risk factors for renal disease include communicable diseases e.g. HIV, infectious glomerulonephritis, schistosomiasis, non-communicable diseases such as HPT, diabetes and the use of traditional/herbal medication (42). In their systematic analysis, Stanifer et al. found that CKD is a prevalent and potentially growing disease in Sub-Saharan Africa with 24% of hypertensives, 18.9% of diabetics and 10% of HIV infected patients having co-morbid chronic kidney disease (42). HPT was the most common cause of end-stage renal disease in Black South Africans (43). As per the South African Hypertension Guidelines, HPT is defined as a persistent elevation of blood pressure (BP) ≥ 140/90 (44). In South Africa in the year 2000, elevated BP was the second leading risk factor for deaths following sexually transmitted disease (45).

1.6.4 Renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa

Fabian et al. described the clinical spectrum of renal disease seen in the course of HIV infection, as acute renal failure (ARF), electrolyte disturbances, intrinsic renal diseases e.g. co-morbid hypertension or diabetes mellitus and the group of HIV-associated glomerulonephropathies that may present with acute or chronic renal failure (46). It is this group of glomerulonephropathies that contribute to the burden of CKD in HIV infection (46).

Due to the large number of people infected and living with HIV in South Africa, the prevalence of CKD has increased (3). At the Groote Schuur Hospital in Cape Town, South Africa, acute dialysis for HIV infected patients has become the most common indication for acute dialysis since January 2009 (3). The commonest cause of ARF in HIV infected patients is acute tubular necrosis secondary to sepsis, hypotension, dehydration or nephrotoxic drugs (3, 46). Although ARF is potentially reversible with treatment, it carries a high mortality in the HIV population (11). Morbidity from acute kidney injury is significant in black communities where HIV infected individuals seek the herbal treatment offered by traditional healers to assist them with AIDS related symptoms (3).

In April 2010, the National ART programme in South Africa added tenofovir disoproxil fumarate (TDF) to the first line ART regimen (35). TDF is excreted from the kidneys by glomerular filtration and active proximal tubular secretion and it can accumulate in the proximal tubular cells causing renal toxicity and renal failure (47). It is therefore now imperative for all patients to be screened for renal dysfunction prior to starting ART, as any patient with pre-existing renal impairment would need alternative ART (35, 48). The recent South African ART guidelines recommend doing a serum creatinine and creatinine clearance at baseline (prior to ART initiation) and then at 3 months, 6 months, 12 months and annually thereafter for patients on TDF (35).

Ultrasound to assess kidney size are available at most public hospitals in South Africa but renal biopsy facilities are limited to tertiary level institutions (3). In a retrospective review by Gerntholtz et al. of 104 renal biopsies performed at Chris Hani Baragwanath Hospital in South Africa, classic HIVAN was found in 30% of the reviewed biopsies while about 20% were classified as "HIV immune complex kidney disease" (16). This emphasizes the key role of renal biopsy in diagnosing HIV-associated renal disease, as only one third of the biopsies met the criteria for classic HIVAN (1). The lack of resources for renal biopsy precludes many patients from accurate diagnosis and proper treatment.

The data from another study in South Africa, Han et al. suggested that HIVAN is possible in patients without overt nephrotic syndrome and in patients who have only microalbuminuria. Therefore microalbuminuria can be considered an early marker of HIVAN (10). The data on urinary screening by Fabian et al. showed that urinary abnormalities are common in the HIV infected and ART naïve

outpatients, and routine urinary screening of all new patients at ART clinics should be standard practice (49). Stanifer et al. showed that the prevalence of proteinuria when measured in people with HIV, HPT or diabetes is substantial. However the best method of urine protein detection is unknown (42).

1.6.5 Discussion

The HIV prevalence in children under 14 years old has declined over the past decade suggesting the success of the PMTCT programme (26, 50). Mayosi et al. reported that mortality related to HIV/AIDS has declined by 20% in adults and 43% in children respectively and life expectancy has increased by 6 years as a result of the successful ART programme in South Africa (51). South Africa has made significant progress with the ART programme since its implementation in 2004. The longer life expectancy on ART has implications for other chronic diseases, the burden of which will surely increase. Until recently, the MDRD and CG equations to estimate GFR had not been validated in the South African population or in HIV infected patients (1, 42). This is important to note as GFR can be affected by diet and creatinine clearance can be altered by factors such as intake of meat and protein, muscle mass, medication and concurrent illness (important factors for patients in sub-Saharan Africa) (1). The extensive rollout of TDF, a potentially nephrotoxic drug, in first line ART in South Africa implies aggressive screening for baseline renal dysfunction and continued renal function monitoring whilst on TDF. However, access for patients to services such as renal ultrasound, renal biopsy and nephrology assessment is limited.

1.6.6 Conclusion

The increased burden of HIV infection and other non-communicable diseases, will require the integration of the care of both communicable and non-communicable diseases. Improved urine diagnostics that are cheap and accessible to even rural areas are needed to detect renal dysfunction early so that potentially nephrotoxic ART can be avoided and patients can be timeously referred to nephrologists/CKD clinics. Dedicated CKD clinics should be established and accessible to patients in rural and urban areas to access specialised services e.g. renal biopsy and dialysis. More research is necessary to determine the association between baseline renal insufficiency and ART outcomes in patients on TDF.

More patients on ART will probably result in a further increase in chronic disease in South Africa, mainly CKD, hypertension and diabetes. The impact of this burden of chronic disease on the already resource strained healthcare system is not known. However, with a lack of dedicated CKD clinics and specialist renal services particularly in the rural settings, as well as a deficiency in knowledge on the long term impact of ART on CKD, a further strain on the health systems is anticipated.

1.7. Methodology: Renal Manifestations of HIV in the era of ART in South Africa

Theoretical Framework

We considered the various systematic approaches available for reviewing published literature and chose to undertake a systematic scoping review of published literature as the best method to map the renal manifestations of HIV infection in South Africa in the era of ART. Scoping review methodology is particularly useful for examining a broadly covered topic to comprehensively and systematically map the literature and identify key concepts, theories, evidence, or research gaps. Unlike systematic reviews or meta-analyses, scoping reviews do not narrow the parameters of the review to research trials or require quality assessment. It is rigorous and methodical in its approach to examining the extent, range and nature of research activity in a particular field while encompassing both empirical and conceptual research with broadly framed questions (52). Arksey and O'Malley's scoping review framework outlines a five stage approach (53) with each stage listed below:

- Stage One Identifying the research question: maintain a broad scope to research questions to summarize a breadth of evidence.
- Stage Two Identifying relevant studies: breadth and comprehensiveness of scoping studies are important and must be balanced with the feasibility of resources.
- Stage Three Study selection: entails post hoc inclusion and exclusion criteria based on the research question and new information on the subject through reading the studies.
- Stage Four Charting the data: a data-charting form is developed for use to extract data from
 each study. A 'narrative review' or 'descriptive analytical' method is used for data
 extraction.
- Stage Five Collating, summarising and reporting the results: this involves a descriptive numerical summary and a thematic analysis.

We have adapted the Arksey and O'Malley's conceptual framework to suit our study. The broad nature of the research question can create a deficiency in the clarity, direction and focus required to inform subsequent stages of the research process such as study inclusion (54). Levac et al. 2010 suggest combining the broad research question with clear articulation considering the concept, target population and health outcomes of interest to clarify the focus of the scoping study and establish an effective search strategy (54). This is the approach we chose to adopt to assist our search strategy. We assembled a scoping review team to enhance Stage 2 by providing the methodological and context expertise required when making decisions regarding breadth and comprehensiveness. In Stage 3 of Arksey and O'Malley's framework, they do not indicate a team approach for this step (53). However,

other researchers found a multidisciplinary team approach more practical and vigorous in study selection (54, 55) as did we. We developed a data extraction table according to the patient, population or the problem, intervention, comparison and outcome (PICO) model for clinical questions (56). Two reviewers performed a quality assessment of the included studies using the mixed methods appraisal tool (MMAT) for mixed methods studies to evaluate the risk of bias (57). In our scoping review study we performed thematic content analysis to identify patterns of renal manifestations in the included studies. We chose to replace Stage 6 of Arksey and O'Malley's framework which is the consultation with major key holders with a retrospective chart review. We believed that the chart review would provide a higher quality of evidence as opposed to the consultation process which provides mainly subjective data. The systematic scoping review will provide a broad overview and will highlight key concepts and deficiencies that will guide the chart review (58).

The retrospective chart review uses existing data (medical records) that have been documented for reasons other than research (59). Conducting a chart review is an inexpensive method of analysing readily accessible data. It allows for the study of rare occurrences and it facilitates the formation of hypotheses which can be tested prospectively(58).

Study Design

Mixed data acquisition methods using qualitative and quantitative research approaches were applied in this study in order to achieve the objectives. These were a systematic scoping review and a retrospective chart review.

Study setting

We assessed literature on the renal manifestations of HIV infected patients in South Africa. The chart review was that of patients attending the ART clinic in King Edward VIII Hospital in Durban.

1.7.1. Objective 1: To conduct a scoping review in order to identify the literature available on the renal manifestations of HIV infection in South Africa in the ART era.

Criteria for considering studies for this review:

- HIV infected patients in South Africa only with evidence of renal manifestations
- Studies published from 2004 to 2015
- Adult patients (≥18 years old) with evidence of renal manifestations
- English language publications

• Articles on South African data only

Exclusion Criteria:

- Patients <18 years of age
- Literature from outside South Africa
- Non-English literature
- Pregnant females with renal disease

Search methods for identification of studies

The study began with a database search of published literature based on patients in South Africa. We developed a list of primary and secondary search terms along with filtering methods. The primary search terms related to the kidney specifically (i.e. kidney, renal, nephrology). The secondary terms were manifestations, renal failure, complications, South Africa, antiretroviral treatment, proteinuria, glomerular filtration rate and hypertension. In order to direct the search to our research question, we used the filtering method which included the data range (2004 to 2015), human subjects, English language and adult patients (≥18 years old). MESH terms were also used.

Electronic search

We made use of the following databases: Google Scholar, PubMed, Medline, Cochrane Library, Worldcat.org and EBSCO host.

Data source and analysis

The research team formulated the search strategy to be implemented and two reviewers independently perused eligible studies for trial study selection. Various publications, including academic journals on the subject were used to collect the relevant data. Information was gathered from studies that included randomized controlled trials, non-randomized controlled trials, observational studies, review articles, case reports and systematic reviews. Only literature published from the year 2004 to 2015 was used for this review.

Selection of studies

This occurred in 2 stages. First one reviewer conducted a comprehensive screening of titles and decided on eligibility based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. For example, titles stating research carried out in countries other than South Africa were excluded. If the reviewer was uncertain of the eligibility of a title, it was not excluded but rather carried on to the next stage of the selection process. All literature search results were uploaded to EndNote X7 software and duplicates were

removed. In the second stage of study selection, 2 independent reviews of the titles and abstracts using inclusion and exclusion criteria were undertaken. Where differences of opinion arose, a third reviewer was involved to reach consensus. The study selection procedure is illustrated using a PRISMA chart.

Charting the Data

We formulated a standardised data extraction table according to the PICO model. The table included bibliographic details, study design and setting, sample size, aim of the study, interventions, comparisons, outcomes and conclusions. Two reviewers performed a quality assessment of the included studies using the mixed methods appraisal tool for mixed methods studies to evaluate the risk of bias (57).

Collating, summarizing and reporting results

We presented a narrative account of the findings by performing a thematic content analysis on the extracted literature. Results were structured into the following themes: urine analysis, estimated glomerular filtration rate, renal biopsy, risk factors for renal dysfunction and clinical and histological responses to ART. The findings were scrutinised in relation to the overall aim of the study. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations for future research and clinical advancement were suggested.

1.7.2. Objective 2: To conduct a retrospective chart review focussing on the following renal manifestations:

- Change in GFR from baseline to 24 months on ART
- Change in BP from baseline to 24 months on ART
- Urine dipstick abnormalities in patients who had the test done
- Risk factors and co-morbidities associated with abnormal renal function.

Data sources

We collected data from the clinical charts of patients attending the ART clinic at King Edward VIII Hospital.

Sampling

We selected medical records of all new patients initiated on ART from April 2010 (as this was when TDF was commenced in first line ART regimens) to December 2013. We have selected a convenient sample size of 350 patient records. We collected data over a period of 24 months on ART.

Variables

The study variables were defined and determined by the nature of the investigation which was guided by the scoping review. They included the following:

- Demographic data: name, age, gender, ethnic group
- Medical history: history of diabetes, hypertension, tuberculosis, pregnancy.
- Medication history: ART regimen
- Clinical data: weight, height, body mass index (BMI), BP, urine dipstick (was evaluated in patients who had the test done), fingerprick glucose.
- Laboratory data: CD4, HIV viral load, full blood count, urea and electrolytes, glomerular filtration rate, plasma glucose, hepatitis B and C, cholesterol and triglycerides.

Variables were collected at baseline and thereafter at months 6, 12, 18 and 24 on ART.

Data Analysis

Data was analyzed during the research timeline. Analysis was rigorous, consistent and structured in a way which that matched the standards for quality assurance. Data was entered in the Excel database at the UKZN office in Durban, and was cleaned until there were no longer any discrepancies.

Descriptive statistics which included frequency distribution, percentages and percentiles, means and standard deviations and cross-tabulations were used to describe the characteristics of HIV-related renal manifestation at King Edward VIII Hospital ART clinic.

1.7.3. Ethical Considerations

Risk to participants

This study consists of a scoping review and a retrospective chart review. Therefore, it did not pose any physical, biological or emotional risk to participants.

Benefits

To identify gaps in research and to generate a hypothesis for a prospective study.

To describe the magnitude of HIV or ART related renal complications in the local population.

Confidentiality/De-identifying data

We have not disclosed patient identification details.

Consent

None needed as there was no interaction with patients.

Permissions

- King Edward Hospital, Family Clinic, Department of Internal Medicine
- Biomedical Research and Ethics Committee (BREC), reference number BE486/15 and
- KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health

References

- 1. Cohen SD, Kimmel PL. HIV-associated renal diseases in Africa—a desperate need for additional study. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2007;22(8):2116-9.
- 2. Alebiosu C, Ayodele O. The global burden of chronic kidney disease and the way forward. Ethnicity and Disease. 2005;15(3):418.
- 3. Arendse CG, Wearne N, Okpechi IG, Swanepoel CR. The acute, the chronic and the news of HIV-related renal disease in Africa. Kidney international. 2010;78(3):239-45.
- 4. K/DOQI clinical practice guidelines for chronic kidney disease: evaluation, classification, and stratification. American journal of kidney diseases: the official journal of the National Kidney Foundation. 2002;39(2 Suppl 1):S1-266.
- 5. Eggers PW, Kimmel PL. Is there an epidemic of HIV infection in the US ESRD program? Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. 2004;15(9):2477-85.
- 6. Mayosi BM, Flisher AJ, Lalloo UG, Sitas F, Tollman SM, Bradshaw D. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. The Lancet. 2009;374(9693):934-47.
- 7. UK Renal Registry.org[Internet]. The Fifth Annual Report. United Kingdom; 2002. Available from https://www.renalreg.org/reports/2002-the-fifth-annual-report/.
- 8. Swanepoel CR, Okpechi IG. HIV and renal disease in Africa: the journey so far and future directions. Port J Nephrol Hypert. 2011;25(1):11-5.
- 9. Katz IJ, Gerntholtz T, Naicker S. Africa and nephrology: the forgotten continent. Nephron Clinical Practice. 2011;117(4):320-7.
- 10. Han T, Naicker S, Ramdial P, Assounga A. A cross-sectional study of HIV-seropositive patients with varying degrees of proteinuria in South Africa. Kidney international. 2006;69(12):2243-50.
- 11. D'Agati V, Appel GB. HIV infection and the kidney. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. 1997;8(1):138-52.
- 12. Alebiosu C. Detrimental effects of late referral for dialysis. African journal of health sciences. 2000;8(1-2):89-92.
- 13. Akinsola W, Odesanmi W, Ogunniyi J, Ladipo G. Diseases causing chronic renal failure in Nigerians--a prospective study of 100 cases. African journal of medicine and medical sciences. 1989;18(2):131-7.
- 14. Bihl G. HIV-related renal disease-A clinical and practical approach in the South African context. SAMJ. 2003 Feb;:11-14
- 15. Fabian J. Chronic kidney disease in HIV infection: early detection and preventive strategies. Continuing Medical Education. 2007;25(8).
- 16. Gerntholtz T, Goetsch S, Katz I. HIV-related nephropathy: a South African perspective. Kidney international. 2006;69(10):1885-91.
- 17. Organization WH. The World health report: 2004: Changing history. 2004.
- 18. Quinn TC. Global burden of the HIV pandemic. The Lancet. 1996;348(9020):99-106.
- 19. Karim SA, Karim QA. HIV/Aids in South Africa: Cambridge University Press; 2010.

- 20. Benatar SR. Health care reform and the crisis of HIV and AIDS in South Africa. New England Journal of Medicine. 2004;351(1):81-92.
- 21. Organization WH. AIDS epidemic update, December 2006: World Health Organization; 2007.
- 22. Rehle TM, Hallett TB, Shisana O, Pillay-van Wyk V, Zuma K, Carrara H, et al. A decline in new HIV infections in South Africa: estimating HIV incidence from three national HIV surveys in 2002, 2005 and 2008. PloS one. 2010;5(6):e11094.
- 23. National Department of Health. Annual Report 2010/2011. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2011. Available from www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/DoH Annual Report 2010 11.pdf.
- 24. Nachega JB, Lehman DA, Hlatshwayo D, Mothopeng R, Chaisson RE, Karstaedt AS. HIV/AIDS and antiretroviral treatment knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and practices in HIV-infected adults in Soweto, South Africa. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2005;38(2):196-201.
- 25. Meiberg AE, Bos AE, Onya HE, Schaalma HP. Fear of stigmatization as barrier to voluntary HIV counselling and testing in South Africa. East African Public Health Association. 2008. Available from https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/handle/1807/39182.
- 26. Shisana O, Rehle, T, Simbayi LC, Zuma, K, Jooste, S, Zungu N, Labadarios, D, Onoya, D et al. South African National HIV Prevalence, Incidence and Behaviour Survey, 2012. Cape Town: HSRC Press; 2014. 195

p.

- 27. (UNAIDS) JUNPoHA. UNAIDS Report on the global AIDS epidemic | 2012. In: UNAIDS, editor. 2012.
- 28. UNAIDS.org[Internet]. South Africa: HIV and AIDS estimates (2015). Available from www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/southafrica.
- 29. Louwagie GM, Bachmann MO, Meyer K, Booysen FR, Fairall LR, Heunis C. Highly active antiretroviral treatment and health related quality of life in South African adults with human immunodeficiency virus infection: A cross-sectional analytical study. BMC Public Health. 2007;7(1):244. Available from https://bmcpublichealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2458-7-244.
- 30. SciELO Public Health.org[Internet]. Boulle A, Bock P, Osler M, Cohen K, Channing L, Hilderbrand K, et al. Antiretroviral therapy and early mortality in South Africa. Bulletin of the World Health Organization. 2008;86(9):678-87. Available from www.scielosp.org/scielo.php?pid=50042-9686200800900011&script=sci.arttext.
- 31. Health Systems Trust.org[Internet]. South African National Antiretroviral Treatment Guidelines. 1st edition. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2004. Available from www.hst.org.za/uploads/files/sa_ART_Guidelines1.pdf.
- 32. Wood E, Braitstein P, Montaner JS, Schechter MT, Tyndall MW, O'Shaughnessy MV, et al. Extent to which low-level use of antiretroviral treatment could curb the AIDS epidemic in sub-Saharan Africa. The Lancet. 2000;355(9221):2095-100.

- 33. Boulle A, Orrell C, Kaplan R, Van Cutsem G, McNally M, Hilderbrand K, et al. Substitutions due to antiretroviral toxicity or contraindication in the first 3 years of antiretroviral therapy in a large South African cohort. 2007.
- 34. Cochrane Library. Magula N, Dedicoat M. Low dose versus high dose stavudine for treating people with HIV infection. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews 2015(1). Available from onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/14651858.CD007497.pub2/pdf.
- 35. Health Systems Trust.org[Internet]. South African National Antiretroviral Treatment Guidelines. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2010. Available from www.hst.org.za/publications/south-african-antiretroviral-treatment-guidelines-2010.
- 36. Health Systems Trust.org[Internet]. South African National Antiretroviral Treatment Guidelines. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2013. Available from www.hst.org.za/publications/art-guidelines-2013-0.
- 37. Johnson LF. Access to antiretroviral treatment in South Africa, 2004-2011: original article. Southern African Journal of HIV Medicine. 2012;13(1):22-7.
- 38. Granich R, Kahn JG, Bennett R, Holmes CB, Garg N, Serenata C, et al. Expanding ART for treatment and prevention of HIV in South Africa: estimated cost and cost-effectiveness 2011–2050. PLoS One. 2012;7(2):e30216.
- 39. South African HIV Clinicians Society.org[Internet]. National Consolidated Guidelines. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2015. Available from www.sahivsoc.org/Files/ART%20Guidelines%2015052015.pdf.
- 40. HIV/AIDS JUNPo, HIV/Aids JUNPo. 90-90-90: an ambitious treatment target to help end the AIDS epidemic. Geneva: UNAIDS. 2014.
- 41. Levey AS, Eckardt K-U, Tsukamoto Y, Levin A, Coresh J, Rossert J, et al. Definition and classification of chronic kidney disease: a position statement from Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). Kidney international. 2005;67(6):2089-398.
- 42. Stanifer JW, Jing B, Tolan S, Helmke N, Mukerjee R, Naicker S, et al. The epidemiology of chronic kidney disease in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. The lancet global health. 2014;2(3):e174-e81.
- 43. Naicker S. End-stage renal disease in sub-Saharan Africa. Ethnicity & disease. 2009;19(1):13.
- 44. Seedat YK, Rayner BL, Veriava Y. South African hypertension practice guideline 2014. Cardiovascular journal of Africa. 2014;25(6):288-94.
- 45. Norman R, Gaziano T, Laubscher R, Steyn K, Bradshaw D, Collaboration SACRA. Estimating the burden of disease attributable to high blood pressure in South Africa in 2000. South African Medical Journal. 2007;97(8):692-8.
- 46. Fabian J, Naicker S. HIV infection and the kidney. Southern African Journal of HIV Medicine. 2008;9(1):12-17.
- 47. Zimmermann AE, Pizzoferrato T, Bedford J, Morris A, Hoffman R, Braden G. Tenofovir-associated acute and chronic kidney disease: a case of multiple drug interactions. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2006;42(2):283-90.
- 48. Brennan A, Evans D, Maskew M, Naicker S, Ive P, Sanne I, et al. Relationship between renal dysfunction, nephrotoxicity and death among HIV adults on tenofovir. AIDS (London, England). 2011;25(13):1603.

- 49. Fabian J, Naicker S, Venter WD, Baker L, Naidoo S, Paget G, et al. Urinary screening abnormalities in antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected outpatients and implications for management--a single-center study in South Africa. Ethnicity & disease. 2009;19(1):80.
- 50. Pillay Y, Dinh, T., Goga, A. and Jackson, D. Impact and Effectiveness of South

Africa's PMTCT Programs on Perinatal HIV Transmission, 2010-2011: Using data

to improve program implementation, and policy. Oral presentation during the XIX

International AIDS Conference held in Washington DC, USA 22–27 July, 2012. 2012.

- 51. Mayosi BM, Lawn JE, van Niekerk A, Bradshaw D, Karim SSA, Coovadia HM, et al. Health in South Africa: changes and challenges since 2009. The Lancet. 2012;380(9858):2029-43.
- 52. Grimshaw JM, Eccles MP, Lavis JN, Hill SJ, Squires JE. Knowledge translation of research findings. Implement Sci. 2012;7(1):50.
- 53. Arksey H, O'Malley L. Scoping studies: towards a methodological framework. International journal of social research methodology. 2005;8(1):19-32.
- 54. Levac D, Colquhoun H, O'Brien KK. Scoping studies: advancing the methodology. Implementation Science. 2010;5(1):69.
- 55. Anderson S, Allen P, Peckham S, Goodwin N. Asking the right questions: scoping studies in the commissioning of research on the organisation and delivery of health services. Health research policy and systems. 2008;6(1):7.
- 56. Higgins J. Green S. Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions. Version 5.1. 0. The Cochrane Collaboration; 2011. 2013.
- 57. Pluye P, Robert, E., Cargo, M., Bartlett, G., O'Cathain, A., Griffiths, F., Boardman, F., Gagnon, M.P., & Rousseau, M.C. (2011). Proposal: A mixed methods appraisal tool for systematic mixed studies, http://www.webcitation.org/5tTRTc9yJ rRodfhmpcAbWa.
- 58. Gearing RE, Mian IA, Barber J, Ickowicz A. A methodology for conducting retrospective chart review research in child and adolescent psychiatry. Journal of the Canadian Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry. 2006;15(3):126.
- 59. Hess DR. Retrospective studies and chart reviews. Respiratory care. 2004;49(10):1171-4.

CHAPTER 2: A SYSTEMATIC SCOPING REVIEW

Chapter 1 presented the background, aim, objectives and significance, as well as the literature review and methodology followed in this study. The literature review provided an overview of HIV, ART and HIV-related renal disease in South Africa. In order to get a closer look at the literature on the renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa during the ARV era, a systematic scoping review was conducted.

This chapter responds to objective 1 of this study viz. to conduct a systematic scoping review to identify the literature available on the renal manifestations of HIV infection in the era of ART in South Africa. This study was guided by Asksey and O' Malley's scoping review framework and revealed gaps in the research as well as helping to guide future research on HIV and renal disease in South Africa. The chapter is presented in the form of a manuscript entitled 'HIV Renal Manifestations during the Antiretroviral Era in South Africa: A Systematic Scoping Review'. This manuscript is currently under review at the BMC: Systematic Reviews Journal.

Renal Manifestations of HIV during the Antiretroviral Era in South Africa: A Systematic Scoping Review

Shirelle Assaram 1 , Nombulelo P. Magula 1 , Suman Mewa Kinoo 2 , Tivani P. MashambaThompson 3

¹Department of Internal Medicine, Nelson R. Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

²Department of General Surgery, Nelson R. Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

³Department of Public Health Medicine, School of Nursing and Public Health, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

Corresponding Author: Shirelle Assaram

Address: 3rd Floor Department of Internal Medicine, Nelson R Mandela Medical School,

University of KwaZulu-Natal, 719 Umbilo Road, Congella, 4013, South Africa

Email address: shirelleassaram@gmail.com

Abstract

Background: It is estimated that 650 000 patients may develop human immunodeficiency virus

(HIV) related renal disease in South Africa. South Africa has recently adopted the World Health

Organisation (WHO) policy, stipulating that all HIV-infected patients have access to antiretroviral

treatment (ART) irrespective of CD4 cell count. The aim of this study is to explore the evidence

of renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa in the era of ART.

Methods: We searched Google Scholar, PubMed, Medline, Cochrane Library, Worldcat.org and

EBSCO host databases for articles pertaining to renal manifestations of HIV infection in South

Africa. We independently reviewed the articles for quality. Thematic content analysis was

performed to identify patterns of renal manifestations from the included studies. The risk of bias

(e.g. internal validity) in the included studies was evaluated using the mixed methods appraisal

tool.

Results: Eleven out of 21 studies were eligible for data extraction. The incidence of urine

abnormalities on urine dipsticks was high but had poor sensitivity and specificity for detecting

renal impairment. Normal renal function occurred in 28.4% to 79% of patients, mild renal

impairment occurred in 19% to 57.1% and moderate renal impairment in 2% to 14.4%. Severe

renal impairment occurred in 1.3% of patients. Both the Cockcroft-Gault equation (after correcting

for bias) and the 4-variable Modification of Diet in Renal Disease equation (without the ethnicity

factor for African Americans) have been validated for the estimation of glomerular filtration rate

(eGFR) in Black South Africans. HIV-associated nephropathy was the most prevalent histology

seen (57.2%). Older age, a lower CD4 count, a low haemoglobin and a detectable HIV viral load

were associated with renal impairment. Renal function improved in the first year of commencing

ART as evidenced by the regression of proteinuria and the increase in eGFR.

Conclusion: Evidence show that more patients on ART will probably result in a further increase

in chronic disease in South Africa, mainly chronic kidney disease (CKD), hypertension and

diabetes. The findings of the review have implications for the recently adopted 'test and treat'

approach to HIV prevention and management.

PROSPERO registration number: CRD42016039270

23

Keywords: HIV; Antiretroviral treatment; Renal failure; South Africa

Background

South Africa recently (01 September 2016) adopted the World Health Organization(WHO) "test and treat" approach, which was introduced as a possible means of controlling the global HIV epidemic (3). This approach entitles every patient who tests positive for HIV to a lifelong antiretroviral therapy (ART) regardless of their CD4 count or clinical staging (3). With the successful rollout of ART in South Africa, the lifespan of people living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) has been prolonged thereby transforming HIV into a disease of chronicity (1), adding to the burden of infectious and non-communicable diseases (2). Renal disease is a recognised complication of HIV infection and its incidence can be perpetuated by drug induced toxicity, comorbid diseases such as diabetes and hypertension and infectious diseases (3). Data from the United States suggest that at some stage of their HIV infection, 10% of patients will develop HIV-related renal disease (4). If this is extrapolated to the South African context, it is estimated that 650 000 patients may develop HIV-related renal disease (4). This large burden of chronic kidney disease (CKD) would place immense pressure on our resource-strained health system where access to renal biopsy, renal replacement therapies and nephrologists is limited (5).

Mayosi et al. report a 67% increase in deaths related to nephritis/nephrosis in South Africa from 1999 to 2006 causally linked to the increasing HIV prevalence (2). In their systematic analysis, Stanifer et al. found that CKD is a prevalent and potentially growing disease in Sub-Saharan Africa with 24% of hypertensives, 18.9% of diabetics and 10% of HIV-infected patients having comorbid CKD (6). The guidelines published by the Infectious Diseases Society of America (IDSA) in 2005, recommended that all individuals be assessed for kidney disease at the time of HIV diagnosis by way of a screening urinalysis for proteinuria and a calculated estimate of renal function (7) in order to detect renal disease early. The South African ART guidelines incorporate this policy and the recent implementation of ART initiation irrespective of CD4 count allows for earlier access to ART before the onset of advanced disease (3).

Despite the earlier initiation of ART and the screening for urinary abnormalities, renal disease in HIV infected patients is still prevalent (7, 9). In addition, HIV associated nephropathy (HIVAN)

has become the third leading cause of end stage renal disease amongst HIV infected African-American patients (9, 10). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic scoping review that attempts to investigate the renal manifestations of HIV infected in South Africa in the ART era. In light of the current upsurge of research and publications on the topic (9, 11-14), the contribution of a systematic scoping review gains importance and relevance by demonstrating the current data in order to identify research gaps and suggest novel ideas for future research.

Methods

Study design

The protocol of this study is registered in PROSPERO with registration number: CRD42016039270 and available via this website:

http://www.crd.york.ac.uk/PROSPERO/display_record.asp?ID=CRD42016039270.

In this study, we chose to undertake a systematic scoping review of published reviews as the best method to map the renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa in the era of ART. Guided by Arksey and O'Malley's scoping review framework (15), we searched cross-sectional studies, randomised controlled trials, non-randomised controlled trials, observational studies, review articles, case reports and systematic reviews that examined renal manifestations on HIV-infected patients in South Africa.

Literature search

We conducted a systematic literature search in the following databases: Google Scholar, PubMed, Medline, Cochrane Library, Worldcat.org and EBSCO host, for articles pertaining to renal manifestations of HIV in South Africa. The primary search terms related to HIV and the kidney specifically (i.e. kidney, renal, nephrology). The secondary terms were manifestations, renal failure, complications, South Africa, antiretroviral treatment, proteinuria and glomerular filtration rate. In order to direct the search to our research question, we used the filtering method which included the data range (2004 to 2015), human subjects, English language and adult patients (≥18 years old). Medical subject headings (MeSH) terms were also used.

Eligibility criteria

Inclusion criteria

- Evidence of renal manifestations in HIV infected patients in South Africa
- Evidence from the period 2004 to 2015
- Evidence of renal manifestations in adult HIV infected patients (≥18 years old)
- English language publications

Exclusion criteria

- Evidence of renal manifestations in HIV infected patients outside South Africa
- Studies reporting on other HIV manifestations
- Studies before freely available ART in the public sector of South Africa
- Non-English language studies

Study selection occurred in two stages. First a single reviewer went through the titles from the database search and decided on eligibility based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. For example, titles stating research carried out in an ineligible country would be excluded. If a reviewer was uncertain of the eligibility of a title, it was not excluded but rather carried onto the next stage of the selection process. In the second stage, two independent reviews of the titles and abstracts, using inclusion and exclusion criteria, was undertaken. Where differences of opinion arose, a third reviewer would be consulted to reach consensus. The remaining articles were then assessed for eligibility for data extraction. A PRISMA flow diagram (Figure 1) shows the process involved in obtaining eligible studies.

Quality of the evidence

The risk of bias (e.g. internal validity) in the included studies was evaluated using the mixed methods appraisal tool (MMAT) for mixed methods studies (16). The risk of bias scale scored studies was based on 14 criteria. Studies were assessed by the following domains: representativeness of population; selection of exposed and non-exposed cohorts drawn from the same population; confidence in the assessment of exposure; confidence that the outcome of interest was not present at the start of the study; matching exposed and unexposed variables for all those that are associated with the outcome of interest or the adjustment of statistical analysis for these prognostic factors; confidence in the assessment of the presence or absence of prognostic factors;

confidence in the assessment of outcome; adequacy of the follow up of cohorts; and the adequacy and similarity between groups of co-interventions. Studies were allocated scores per domain. Two reviewers (SA and SMK) independently performed each quality assessment. Differences in ratings were resolved through discussion.

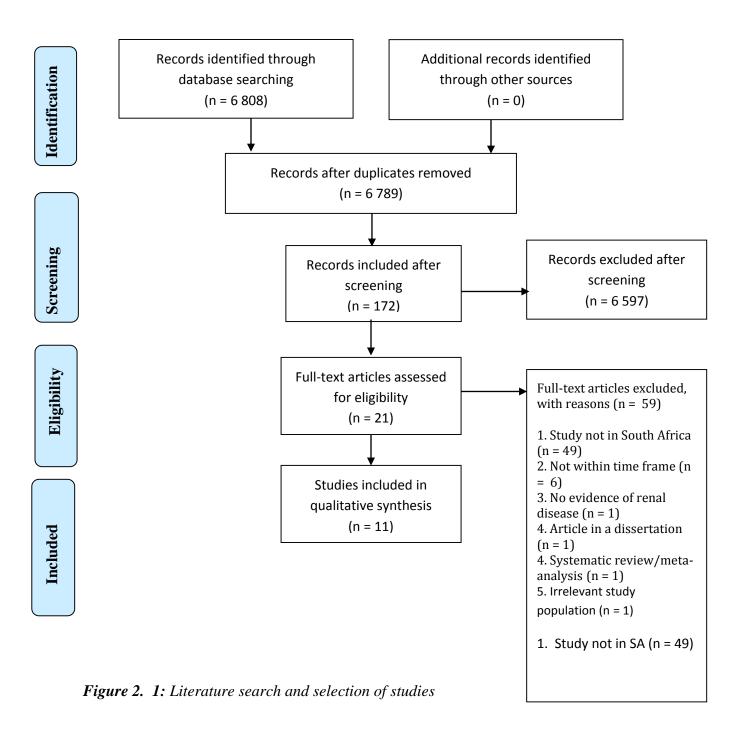
Thematic analysis

Thematic content analysis was performed to identify patterns of renal manifestations from the included studies. The included manuscripts were manually coded into categories which were grouped into the following five themes:

- Urine analysis
- Estimated glomerular filtration rate
- Renal biopsy
- Risk factors for renal dysfunction
- Clinical and histological responses to ART

Results

A total of 6 808 articles were retained from our initial search. Applying our exclusion criteria reduced the number of studies to 11 (Figure 2.1). The level of agreement between reviewers was 80% versus 50% expected by chance. This constitutes moderate to substantial agreement, with estimated kappa statistic =0.22 95% (confidence interval [CI] 0.70; 0.26) (Appendix C).



Characteristics of included studies

Eleven out of the 21 reviewed articles were eligible for data extraction (Table 2.1). All 11 studies were published in English and they were conducted in South Africa. Of these, eight were conducted in an urban setting (12, 13, 17-22) and three were carried out in a rural setting (23-25).

All included studies were published between 2008 and 2015. Study participants were predominantly female (total female percentage 57.9%) in all included studies except two (19, 20). The total sample size of all 11 studies was 6 595 participants. The sample size in each study was 100 participants or more. The average age in all the included studies was 35 years. The study designs of the included studies were as follows: four retrospective chart/cohort reviews (17, 19, 21, 22); one cohort study (26); one descriptive study (13); two prospective studies (12, 20); one combined retrospective chart review and prospective cohort study (23); one case control study (18); and one cross-sectional analysis of patient records (27).

All the included studies were aimed at assessing the renal status, risk factors and renal outcomes in HIV-infected patients either before ART, whilst on ART or both. Seven of the 11 studies (63.6%) assessed for the prevalence of renal impairment in HIV-infected patients (13, 17, 19, 22, 23, 26, 27); two studies (18.1%) analysed renal biopsies to evaluate the clinical and histological responses of HIV-associated kidney disease to ART (12, 21); one study (9%) assessed the performance of the 4-variable Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (4-v MDRD) and Cockcroft-Gault (CG) equations for estimating glomerular filtration rate (eGFR)/creatinine clearance in South African Black patients (20); and one study (9%) extracted genomic DNA from kidney samples to determine the prevalence of APOL1 risk variants and their effect on CKD in Black South Africans (18). General and specific characteristics of all included studies are summarised in Table 2.1. From Table 2.1 we extracted data specific to the evidence of renal dysfunction among HIV infected patients in South Africa during the ARV era and formulated Table 2.2.

A total of 6 758 studies were excluded as they did not meet the inclusion criteria for this study. Of those, 10 underwent a full manuscript review and were found to have no valuable data for analysis in this study for the following reasons: not within the specified time frame (9, 14, 28-31); outcomes of chronic haemodialysis (32); systematic review and meta-analyses of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (6); irrelevant study population (33); and a dissertation published at a later stage (34).

Table 2. 1: Characteristics of included studies

AHR = adjusted hazards ratio; AIDS = Aquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome; AKI = acute kidney injury; aOR = adjusted odds ratio; ART = antiretroviral treatment; CG = Cockcroft-Gault; CI = confidence interval; CKD = chronic kidney disease; CVD = cardiovascular disease; eGFR = estimated glomerular

Author	Setting	Sample	%Male	%Female	Average	Intervention	Compariso	Outcome	Aim of the	Study Design	Conclusion
and date	(rural/	number			age		n (if		study		
	urban/	(n)					applicable)				
	semi-										
	urban)										
Brennan	Urban	890	26.5%	73.5%	37.1	Either newly	ART	Of 890 patients	Analyse	Retrospective	All patients
et al.,						initiated	outcome	initiated on tenofovir,	relationship	cohort	need to be
2011						patients on	(nephrotoxic	573 (64.4%) had	between	analysis	screened for
						TDF or	ity and	normal renal function	renal		baseline renal
						patients	death) by	(>90ml/min), 271	dysfunction		dysfunction
						switched to a	48-months	(30.4%) had mild	at TDF		to decrease
						TDF	of followup	renal dysfunction	initiation,		nephrotoxicit
						containing	stratified by	(60–89ml/min) and 46	nephrotoxic		y and
						regimen	renal	(5.2%) had moderate	ity and		improve
							function at	renal dysfunction	mortality		outcomes
							TDF	(30–59ml/min). 2.4%			
							initiation	experienced			
								nephrotoxicity, 7.8%			
								died and 9.7% were			
								lost during 48-months			
								of follow-up. Patients			
								with mild or moderate			
								renal dysfunction			
								were at greatest risk			
								of nephrotoxicty,			
								while those with mild			

		I		I	I	I		or moderate renal		T .	I
								dysfunction vs.			
								normal renal function			
								were at highest risk of			
								death by 48-months.			
Fabian et	Urban	578	37.5%	62.5%	37	Urine	None	84% of the screened	To detect	Descriptive	Urine
al., 2009						dipsticks on		population had AIDS	early	study	abnormalities
						all ART		(CD4 count, 200	kidney		in ART naïve
						naïve, HIV		cells/mm3), and the	disease in		HIV
						infected		incidence of	ART naïve		outpatients
						outpatients		abnormalities on	HIV		are common.
						was done		urinary dipstick	infected		Routine urine
								testing was high: 30%	patients by		screening of
								had leukocyturia,	screening		all new
								33% had microscopic	for		patients
								hematuria, and 44%	proteinuria		attending
								had			ART clinics
								microalbuminuria/pro			in South
								teinuria. In patients			Africa should
								with leukocyturia, an			be
								infective organism			compulsory
								was cultured in only			
								29.1% of cases,			
								predominantly			
								Escherichia coli			
								(70%) with sterile			
								leukocyturia			
C'1,			1 6		TTX / A N / 1		C	leukocyturia	IIII IOD		1 6' '

filtration rate; HIV = human immunodeficiency virus; HIVAN = human immunodeficiency virus associated nephropathy; HIV-ICD = human immunodeficiency virus immune complex disease; HR = hazards ratio; IQR = inter-quartile range; MDRD – Modification of Diet in Renal Disease; OR = odds ratio; SD = standard deviation; STI = sexually transmitted infection; TB = tuberculosis; TDF = tenofovir disoproxal fumarate; WHO = World Health Organization

								comprising the			
								remainder.			
Fabian et	Urban	20 renal	55%	45%	37	Kidney	Renal	There was a rapid	То	Prospective	Demonstrated
al., 2013		biopsies				biopsies were	histology	immunological and	prospective	cohort study	a rapid
		performe				performed	pre-ART	renal response to	ly		virological
		d out of				before and	compared to	ART. The renal	document		and renal
		the 578				after	renal	response was	the clinical		response to
		patients				initiation of	histology	reflected by a	and		ART in HIV
		screened				ART to	following	significant rise in the	histological		infected
						assess	initiation of	estimated glomerular	responses		South
						clinical and	ART (at	filtration rate (eGFR)	of biopsy		Africans with
						histological	variable	and rapid regression	proven		histologically
						response to	times on	of proteinuria. The	HIV-		documented
						treatment	ART)	histological patterns	associated		HIV
								were highly variable,	renal		associated
								ranging from non-	lesions to		renal disease
								specific lesions such	ART		irrespective
								as mesangial			of the
								hyperplasia and			histology
								interstitial nephritis to			
								HIV-immune			
								complex disease			
								(HIV-ICD) with or			
								without features of			
								HIV-associated			
								nephropathy			
								(HIVAN). In the			
								follow-up biopsies,			
								the histological			

Franey et al., 2009	Rural	2189 in the retrospec tive review and 149 in the prospecti ve study	31.2%	68.8%	36	1.Retrospecti ve review of medical records. 2. Single blood pressure reading, random glucose and urine analysis performed on the cohort of patients initiating ART	None	response to treatment was variable with a combination of no change, progression or regression of lesions 1. Moderate renal impairment was more frequent (287/2189), low prevalence of severe renal impairment (29/2189).Age >40yrs, male gender and CD4<100 associated with significant renal impairment. 2. Urine analysis had poor sensitivity and specificity for detecting renal impairment	1.A review of the prevalence and risk factors for renal impairment in patientss initiating ART 2.To assess the utility of urine analysis for the detection of impaired renal function in pts initiating ART	1.Retrospecti ve chart review 2. Prospective cohort study	1. Significant renal impairment is uncommon in patients initiating ART in that rural setting. 2. Urine analysis alone may be inadequate for identification of those with impaired renal function where resources for biochemistry are limited
---------------------	-------	---	-------	-------	----	--	------	---	--	---	---

Kamkue	Urban	1092	38%	62%	34	Data was	Change in	Majority had normal	To assess	Retrospective	Renal
mah et						from HIV-	eGFR over	renal function pre-	the	review of	function
al., 2015						infected	the 12-	ART (79%), 19% had	prevalence	medical	improved in
						patients	month	mildly reduced eGFR,	and	records	HIV-infected
						initiating	period	and 2% had moderate	incidence		adults
						TDF. Renal		renal impairment.	of renal		initiating
						function was		Older age, more	impairment		ART in this
						assessed for		advanced WHO stage	in a		primary
						the first 12		and anaemia were	primary		healthcare
						months on		independently	care setting		setting during
						ART by		associated with	in sub-		the first year
						estimating		prevalent renal	Saharan		on ART.
						glomerular		impairment. On	Africa.		While
						filtration rate		average, estimated			monitoring of
						(eGFR)		glomerular function			renal function
						calculated		improved over the			is
						using the		first year on tenofovir.			recommende
						Cockroft-		Male gender, anaemia			d in the first 4
						Gault		and			months on
						equation		immunosuppression			ART, renal
								(WHO Stage III/IV			impairment
								and CD4 cell counts			appears
								<100 cells/mm3)			uncommon
								were associated with			during the
								lower average eGFR			first 12
								levels over time.			months of
								Overall, 3%			tenofovir
								developed eGFR <50			containing
								ml/min/1.73 m2			ART in
								during this period.			

								Serum creatinine tests			primary care
								conducted before 4			populations
								months on ART had			
								low predictive value			
								for predicting change			
								in eGFR after a year			
								on ART.			
Kasembe	Urban	228	42.9%	57.1% HIV	36.1 HIV	Genomic	Comparison	79% of patients with	То	Case control	HIV-positive,
li et al.,			HIV	with CKD,	with	DNA was	s were made	HIV-associated	determine	study	antiretroviral
2015			with	72% HIV	CKD,	extracted	between	nephropathy and 2%	the		therapy-
			CKD,	controls,	38.8 HIV	from	HIV-	of population controls	prevalence		naïve South-
			28%	41.9% HIV	positive	formalin-	positive	carried two risk	of APOL1		African
			HIV	negative	controls,	fixed	patients and	alleles. In a recessive	risk		blacks with
			control	controls,	36.4 HIV	paraffin-	HIV-	model, individuals	variants		two APOL1
			s,	55.6%	negative	embedded	positive	carrying any	and the		risk alleles
			58.1%	population	CKD,	kidney	controls and	combination of two	effect of		are at very
			HIV	s controls	38.5	samples, and	between	APOL1 risk alleles	these		high risk for
			negativ		populatio	a modified in	HIV-	had 89-fold higher	variants on		developing
			e CKD,		n	house salting-	negative	odds of developing	HIVAN		HIV-
			44.4%		controls	out procedure	patients and	HIV-associated	and CKD		associated
			populat			was used to	population	nephropathy	in black		nephropathy
			ion			extract	controls,	compared with HIV-	South		
			control			genomic	comparing	positive controls.	Africans in		
			s			DNA from	the	Population allele	a setting of		
						peripheral	distribution	frequencies were	high HIV-1		
						blood	of two risk	7.3% for G1 and	prevalence.		
						samples.	alleles	11.1% for G2.			
							(explanatory	APOL1 risk alleles			
							exposure) to	were not significantly			

	1						zero or two	associated with other			1
							risk alleles	forms of CKD			
							(no				
							exposure)				
Madala	Rural	302	45.4	54.6	47.1	Reviewed	None	290 (96%) were black	To describe	Cross-	Diabetes and
et al.,						records, kept		African. Mean age ±	the	sectional	HIV are
2014						at the CKD		SD was 47.1 ± 17.0	prevalence	analysis of	prevalent in
						clinic, of all		years. Approximately	of CKD	patient	CKD patients
						patients seen		86.4% of females and	and CVD	records	at
						from 31st		54.5% of males were	risk factors		primary/regio
						January 2008		overweight/ obese.	and		nal level
						to 31st		Dyslipidaemia was	determine		healthcare in
						January 2011		observed in 47.9%	factors		South Africa.
								females and 29.2%	associated		With registry
								males (P < 0.001).	with CKD		data lacking,
								Estimated glomerular	severity in		dedicated
								filtration rate (eGFR)	patients		CKD clinics
								was <30 ml/min/1.73	presenting		at lower
								m2 in 50.6% patients.	at a CKD		healthcare
								CKD risk factors	clinic		levels may
								observed were:			provide
								hypertension (77.8%),			valuable data
								diabetes (29.8%),			on CKD
								HIV (28.5%),			epidemiology
								glomerulonephritis			including
								(7.0%) and			changes in
								tubulointerstitial			aetiology.
								diseases (5.6%).			There is a
											need for

											nephrology
											outreach
											programs.
Vachiat	Urban	101	55%	45%	38 ±	Review of	HIV	Ninety-nine (98%) of	Reviewing	Retrospective	HIV-positive
et al.,					9.9yrs	101 HIV-	negative	HIV-positive patients	data of	review of	patients,
2013						positive anti-	patients with	were black and 56	HIV-	patients	compared
						retroviral	acute kidney	(55%) were male,	positive		with the HIV-
						therapy	injury	with mean age 38 ±	patients		negative
						(ART)-naïve		9.9 years (range 21–	with renal		group,
						patients		61 years). HIV-	failure and		presented
						presenting		positive patients	primarily		with AKI at a
						with renal		demonstrated severe	compared		younger age
						failure from 1		immunosuppression,	HIV-		and at an
						October 2005		with mean CD4 count	positive		advanced
						to 30		of 135 cells/μL Fifty-	and HIV-		stage of
						September		seven (56%) HIV	negative		immunosuppr
						2006 was		positive patients	patients		ession. HIV-
						undertaken		presented with AKI,	with AKI		negative
								21 (21%) with acute-	presenting		patients were
								on-chronic kidney	in the same		older and
								disease and 23 (23%)	period,		presented
								with CKD; seven	matched as		with more
								patients with AKI	closely as		chronic
								were excluded due to	possible		comorbidities
								lack of records. The	with regard		such as
								causes of AKI in the	to age and		hypertension
								HIV-positive group	gender,		and diabetes.
								included sepsis	selected as		
								(60%), volume	monthly		

								depletion and	consecutive		
								haemodynamic	referrals		
								instability (19%),	after the		
								·			
								toxins (9%),	HIV-		
								urological obstruction	positive		
								(7%) and	patients.		
								miscellaneous (14%).			
								Forty-four per cent of			
								HIV positive and 47%			
								of HIV-negative			
								patients with AKI			
								demised; P=0.45.			
								Hyponatraemia (P =			
								0.018), acidosis			
								(P=0.018), anaemia			
								(P=0.019) and			
								hyperphosphataemia			
								(P=0.003) were			
								predictors of mortality			
								in HIV-positive			
								patients with AKI.			
Van	Urban	100	51%	49%	47	Measurement	Ethnicity	The Spearman	To evaluate	Prospective	Both the 4-v
Deventer						of GFR and	factor	correlation coefficient	the	study	MDRD
et al.,						serum	established	between measured	performanc		equation,
2008						creatinine in	for African	and estimated GFR	e of the 4-v		without the
						HIV infected	Americans	for both equations	MDRD and		ethnicity
						patients with	in the 4-v	was similar. Using the	CG		factor of
						varying		4 vMDRDequation	equations		1.212, and
								with the ethnicity	for		the

						degrees of	MDRD	factor of 1.212 as	estimating		Cockcroft-
						renal function	equation.	established for	GFR in		Gault
								African Americans	black South		equation,
								resulted in a median	Africans		after
								positive bias of 13.1	against		correcting for
								(95% CI 5.5 to 18.3)	measured		bias, can be
								mL/min/1.73m2.With	GFR and to		used for
								out the ethnicity	assess the		estimating
								factor, median bias	appropriate		GFR in black
								was 1.9 (95% CI_0.8	ness for the		South
								to 4.5)	local		Africans.
								mL/min/1.73m2.	population		
									of the		
									ethnicity		
									factor		
									established		
									for African		
									Americans		
									in the 4-v		
									MDRD		
									equation.		
Wearne	Urban	192	48.75%	51.25%	34	Analysis of	None	HIV-associated	Analysis of	Retrospective	Early
et al.,	Ciban	172	40.7570	31.2370	34	renal biopsies	TVOIC	nephropathy	kidney	analysis of	detection of
2012						to determine		(HIVAN) was the	biopsies to	kidney	HIV
2012						outcomes and		most common	describe the	biopsies and	associated
						prognostic		histology. ART	histological	prospective	renal diseases
						indicators		reduced the mortality	spectrum,	thereafter	and initiation
						based on		in those with any	develop	mercaner	of ART in the
						histology and		feature of HIVAN by	clinical		setting of
						mstology and		Teature of The Air by	Cilineal		setting of

			clinical	57%. Of those	correlations	HIVAN is of
			features.	patients with HIVAN	and	paramount
				who died, 79% died	prognostic	importance.
				of renal failure as	indicators	ART
				registered on their	and	dramatically
				death certificate.	determine	improves
				Proteinuria and	outcomes	outcome in
				microcysts were	based on	any patient
				shown to be poor	histological	demonstratin
				prognostic indicators	findings.	g any of the
				In patients with		histological
				HIVAN alone		features of
				followed for up to 2		HIVAN (with
				years on ART,		or without
				estimated glomerular		immune
				filtration rate		complex
				remained stable and		disease) on
				there was a trend		renal biopsy.
				towards decreased		Renal biopsy
				proteinuria. ART		is thus
				improved survival in		essential to
				patients with isolated		correctly
				immune complex		document
				disease.		renal disease
						in the HIV-
						positive
						population.
						r

Wensink	Rural	903	31%	69%	40	HIV-infected	Patients who	The median duration	To provide	Cohort study	Glomerular
et al.,						adult patients	had been on	since HIV diagnosis	epidemiolo		filtration rate
2015						were	ART for at	was 26 months and	gical data		was well
						randomly	least six	787 (87%) received	on the		conserved,
						selected and	months	antiretroviral therapy.	prevalence		while
						data on HIV-		Thirty-six (4%) of the	of		albuminuria
						infection and		subjects were shown	decreased		was common
						cardiovascula		to have diabetes and	GFR and		amongst HIV
						r risk factors		205 (23%)	albuminuri		infected
						were		hypertension. In the	a.		patients in
						collected.		cohort, 21% had	Additionall		rural South
						Glomerular		albuminuria and 2%	y, to		Africa. Both
						filtration rate		an eGFR <60	describe the		cardiovascula
						(eGFR) was		mL/min/1.73m2.	association		r and HIV-
						estimated		Albuminuria was	of		specific
								associated with	cardiovascu		variables
								hypertension, total	lar and		were
								cholesterol, eGFR and	HIV-		associated
								detectable viral load.	related		with
									factors with		albuminuria.
									albuminuri		Improved
									a among		cardiovascula
									HIV-		r risk
									positive		prevention as
									patients in		well as
									a rural		adequate
									population		virus
									in South		suppression
									Africa as		might be the
									an essential		key to escape

				first step	the vicious
				towards the	circle of renal
				identificati	failure and
				on of	cardiovascula
				factors	r disease and
				amenable	improve the
				to	long-term
				therapeutic	prognosis of
				interventio	HIV-infected
				n.	patients

Table 2.2. Evidence of renal dysfunction among HIV infected patients in South Africa during the ARV era

AUTHOR	MARKERS FOR RENAL	DEFINITION OF RENAL DISEASE	RESULTS
	IMPAIRMENT	DISEASE	
Brennan et al, 2011 ⁽¹⁷⁾	Creatinine clearance using Cockcroft-Gault (CG) equation.	Nephrotoxicity defined as any decline in kidney function from baseline (acute or chronic) that is secondary to a toxin (including drugs) documented within 48 months of initiating tenofovir (TDF). Normal renal function (>90ml/min), mild renal dysfunction (60-89ml/min) and moderate renal dysfunction (30-59ml/min)	The risk of nephrotoxicity and death by 48 months increased with decreasing renal function at initiation of TDF. Patients switched onto TDF had a higher risk of nephrotoxicity and death compared to ART naïve patients. Median time to nephrotoxicity after TDF initiation is 3.6 months confirming the importance of the month 3 creatinine clearance.
Fabian et al, 2009 ⁽¹³⁾	Urine dipstick for proteinuria and microalbuminuria	Microalbuminuria: microalbumin-to-creatinine ratio 3.4-33.9mg/mmol independent of sex; Overt proteinuria: protein-to- creatinine ratio of 0.03- 0.3g/mmol; Nephritic range proteinuria: protein-to-creatinine ratio >0.3g/mmol.	18.5% had microalbuminuria, 6.4% had overt proteinuria and 2.4% had nephrotic range proteinuria.
Fabian et al 2013 ⁽¹²⁾	Urine dipstick for proteinuria. Estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) using both CG and 4 variable Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) formulae. Renal biopsy	Persistent microalbuminuria: microalbumin-to-creatinine ratio of 3.4-33.9mg/mmol; Persistent overt proteinuria: protein-to-creatinine ratio of 34mg/mmol-0.3g/mmol; Nephrotic proteinuria: protein-to-creatinine ratio >0.3g/mmol.	68% had microalbuminuria, 23% had overt proteinuria and 9% had nephrotic proteinuria. There was an improvement in eGFR on antiretroviral treatment (ART). There was partial or complete remission of proteinuria in response to treatment. Despite the rapid clinical response to ART, there was relative lack of histological resolution.
Franey et al, 2009 ⁽²³⁾	Urine dipstick for proteinuria. eGFR using the four variable MDRD equation. Urine dipstick for proteinuria	Severe renal impairment: eGFR <30mls/min/1.73m ² ; Moderate renal impairment: eGFR 30-60mls/min/1.73 ² ; Mild renal impairment: eGFR 60-90mls/min/1.73 ² . Proteinuria ≥ 1+ protein on dipstick. Renal dysfunction defined as either reduced eGFR and/or proteinuria/haematuria.	Severe renal impairment was uncommon while moderate and mild renal impairment were more common. Mild and moderate renal impairment improve on ART. Urine analysis may not be sufficiently sensitive to be used as a single screening test for renal disease at baseline.
Kamkuemah et al, 2015 ⁽³⁵⁾	eGFR calculated using CG equation	Severe renal function reduction was defined as	79% had normal renal function at baseline, 19% had mildly reduced renal function and 2 % had

		eGFR <30 ml/min/1.73 m ² , moderate reduction as eGFR of 30–59 ml/min/1.73 m ² and mild reduction as an eGFR of 60– 89 ml/min/1.73 m ² .	moderate renal impairment at basleine. Overall renal function improved over the first year after starting TDF-containing ART regimens.
Madala et al, 2014 ⁽²⁴⁾	Urine dipstick for proteinuria. eGFR calculated using the MDRD equation for ≥ 18 years and the Schwartz equation for < 18 years old.	Chronic kidney disease (CKD) defined by eGFR < 60ml/min/1.73m² and/or proteinuria and/or abnormal renal ultrasound, persistent for ≥ 3 months.	eGFR was < 30ml/min/1.73m ² in 50.6% of patients as this was a CKD clinic. Main risk factors for CKD were diabetes, hypertension and HIV.
Vachiat et al, 2013 ⁽¹⁹⁾	Urine for proteinuria either dipstick or spot urine protein creatinine ratio. Serum creatinine levels.	Acute kidney injury (AKI) defined as an improvement in admission serum creatinine of > 50%. They were further subdivided using the rifle criteria: Risk – serum creatinine < 194μmol/L; Injury – serum creatinine 195 to 291μmol/L; and Failure – serum creatinine > 291μmol/L.	Majority had AKI 56%, followed by CKD 23% and 21% had acute on chronic kidney disease. Proteinuria did not predict recovery or death in HIV-infected patients with AKI. AKI was common in HIV-infected patients and occurred at a younger age than HIV negative patients.
Wearne et al, 2012 ⁽²¹⁾	Renal biopsy Serum creatinine Urine protein creatinine ratio	HIV-associated nephropathy (HIVAN) defined as a constellation of glomerular, interstitial and tubular abnormalities and there must be epithelial cell hyperplasia if only tubular or interstitial disease was present.	For patients with HIVAN there was an improvement in proteinuria and stabilization of renal function after commencing ART. Renal biopsy is essential to diagnose renal disease in HIV-infected patients.
Wensink et al, 2015 ⁽²⁵⁾	Urine for albuminuria eGFR calculated using MDRD and CKD Epidemiology Collaboration formula	Moderately increased albuminuria: albumin creatinine ratio 30 to 299mg/g; Severely increased albuminuria: albumin creatinine ratio > 300mg/g.	Albuminuria occurred in 20% of patients while only 2% had eGFR < 60ml/min/1.73m². Higher eGFR was significantly linked to lower prevalence of albuminuria. Albuminuria was linked to higher frequency of diabetes, hypertension, high total cholesterol and decreased eGFR.

Risk of bias assessment

The studies' quality scores ranged from 16 to 20 out of a maximum score of 28 (Appendix D). Four of the ten included studies scored the highest quality score with an estimated average score of 10 in each study (13, 21, 23, 25). The two studies scoring the lowest had an average score of 8 each (12, 18). Overall the body of evidence was considered at serious risk of bias due to the

following: description of randomisation; allocation concealment; retention percentage in study; minimising selection bias; and selection and comparativeness of the control groups.

Findings of the study

Kidney disease is a complication of HIV infection and can present as acute kidney injury (AKI) or CKD. Only one study assessed AKI in HIV-infected ARV naïve patients (19). Their findings demonstrated that 56% had AKI, 21% had acute or chronic kidney disease and 23% had CKD (19). The causes of AKI included sepsis, volume depletion, haemodynamic instability, toxins, urological obstruction and miscellaneous causes (19).

We identified patterns of renal manifestations from the included studies and grouped them into the following five themes: urine analysis; estimated glomerular filtration rate; renal biopsy; risk factors for renal dysfunction; and clinical and histological responses to ART.

Urine analysis

The incidence of urine abnormalities on urine dipsticks was high: 30% to 57% had leukocyturia (13, 19), 16% to 40% had microscopic haematuria (13, 19, 23) and 20% to 44% had microalbuminuria/proteinuria (12, 13, 23, 26). Two studies investigated the cause of leukocyturia and detected an infective organism, mainly E.Coli, in 29.1% of culture positive cases in one study (ART naïve outpatients) (13) and in 8.9% of culture positive cases in the other study (ART naïve outpatients with renal failure) (19). Franey et al. performed urine dipstick analysis on 149 patients who were initiating ART in a rural clinic, to assess its utility to detect impaired renal function (23). They concluded that urine dipsticks analysis alone had poor sensitivity and specificity for detecting impaired renal function (PPV 0.22) (23).

In three studies on ART naïve patients, positive proteinuria on dipsticks was quantified by sending the specimen for a spot protein:creatinine ratio (PCR) (12, 13, 19). If the dipsticks were negative for protein they were screened for microalbuminuria which, if positive, were then sent for a spot microalbumin-to-creatinine ratio test (MCR) (12, 13). In their study, Fabian et al. found that, of the 253 dipsticks positive for proteinuria on ART naïve patients, only 193 were confirmed by the laboratory (13). Wensink et al. (26) submitted random urine samples directly to the lab for the

albumin:creatinine ratio (ACR), bypassing urine dipsticks analysis. Two studies quantified the degree of proteinuria using either the MCR (12) or the ACR (26). Microalbuminuria (MCR 3.4-33.9 mg/mmol) occurred in 68% of patients, overt proteinuria (MCR 34 mg/mmol-0.3 g/mmol) in 23% and nephrotic proteinuria (MCR >0.3 g/mmol) in 9% of ART naïve patients (12). Similar figures were noted in the study that quantified the ACR in a mixed study population predominantly on ART (87% on ART): 20% of patients had moderately increased albuminuria (ACR 30–299 mg/g) and 1% had severely increased albuminuria (ACR >300 mg/g) (26). In the same study, a detectable HIV viral load, hypertension, total cholesterol and eGFR were all independently associated with albuminuria (26).

Estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR)

Six studies utilised eGFR as a marker of renal dysfunction (12, 17, 20, 22, 23, 26). eGFR was calculated using the CG equation (17, 22), the 4-v MDRD equation (23), comparing the CG and 4-v MDRD equations (12, 20) or comparing the 2009 Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) formula and the 4-v MDRD equation (26). Both the CG equation (after correcting for bias) and the 4-v MDRD equation (without the ethnicity factor for African Americans), have been validated for the estimation of eGFR in Black South Africans (20).

The eGFR was classified as follows: severe renal impairment eGFR <30mls/min/1.73 m², moderate renal impairment eGFR 30–59mls/min/1.73 m², mild renal impairment eGFR 60–89mls/min/1.73 m² and normal renal function eGFR >90mls/min/1.73 m². Using the aforementioned classification, baseline (before ART initiation) renal function was documented as follows: normal renal function occurred in 28.4% to 79% of patients, mild renal impairment occurred in 19% to 57.1% and moderate renal impairment in 2% to 14.4% (17, 22, 23). Baseline severe renal impairment occurred in 1.3% of ART naïve patients in the study by Franey et al. (23). Wensink et al. had a mixed study population of ART naïve patients and HIV-infected patients on ART and the majority of patients had normal renal function, 2% had moderate renal impairment and 10% had mild renal impairment (26).

Brennan et al. confirmed the importance of the 3 month creatinine clearance by demonstrating that the median time to nephrotoxicity after tenofovir disoproxil fumarate (TDF) initiation was 3.6

months (17). A study by Kamkuemah et al. showed that early serum creatinine testing at months 1 and 2 after initiation of TDF may not be useful in predicting those at risk for renal dysfunction (22).

Renal Biopsy

Renal histological findings have been inconsistently classified in patients on ART (21). HIV-associated nephropathy (HIVAN) was the most prevalent histology seen (57.2%) followed by HIVAN with immune complex glomerulonephritis (ICGN) at 21.8%; without HIVAN or ICGN (12.5%); and ICGN in isolation (8.3%) (21). However, in another study by Fabian et al., there was a paucity of HIVAN lesions on histology (12).

Risk factors for renal dysfunction

Two studies were unanimous that abnormal renal function at baseline was associated with older age, World Health Organisation (WHO) stage III/IV disease and a lower CD4 count (22, 23, 35). In addition to these variables, a low haemoglobin and a detectable HIV viral load were also associated with abnormal renal function in a mixed cohort of ART naïve patients and patients on ART (17, 22). In the same study, patients who were switched onto TDF from another regimen had a higher risk of nephrotoxicity and death, than ART naïve patients initiated on TDF (17). Younger age and advanced immunosuppression were found to be risk factors for AKI (19). There was no consensus regarding gender as a risk factor for renal dysfunction, as one study found women to be at greater risk (22) whilst another found men to be at greater risk (23). The APOL1 risk allele found on chromosome 22 occurred in more than 30% of African American individuals with HIVAN (36). Kasembeli et al. showed that 79% of Black patients with HIVAN carried two copies of APOL1 risk alleles as opposed to 2% in the general population, suggesting that ART naïve Black South Africans were at high risk of developing HIVAN(18). CKD (defined as eGFR < $60\text{ml/min/}1.73\text{m}^2$ and/or proteinuria and/or abnormal renal ultrasound persistent for ≥ 3 months) risk factors which were noted in two studies of South African patients attending CKD clinics, were: hypertension (36% to 77.8%), diabetes (25% to 29.8%) and HIV (20% to 28.5%) (20, 27). It is interesting to note that 51.1% of these patients had more than one CKD risk factor (27).

Clinical and histological response to ART

In the majority of patients, renal function improved in the first year of commencing ART, as evidenced by the regression of proteinuria and the increase in eGFR (12, 21, 22). However, there was no significant change in morphology noted on histology before and after ART initiation to explain the improvement in proteinuria (12).

Discussion

A systematic scoping review of the available literature on the renal manifestations of HIV in the era of ART in South Africa was conducted. This review provided a general overview of renal impairment (diagnostics, histological features and risk factors) in South African HIV-infected patients mainly prior to ART initiation. Most of what we know about HIV-related kidney disease has come from research performed in high income countries where the patient profiles and demographics are discordant to that of South Africa. The salient points unravelled by our review indicate a paucity of data on ART-related renal complications, specifically TDF nephrotoxicity; a deficiency of research on the impact of ART on AKI and CKD and the long term outcomes of renal disease for patients on ART; and a relatively unknown prevalence of HIV-related kidney disease for patients on ART in South Africa. Bearing in mind that South Africa recently (1 September 2016) adopted the WHO "test and treat" approach to HIV prevention and management (3), these findings have major implications for the near future.

TDF is widely used as first line ART in South Africa. A biopsy series revealed that TDF nephrotoxicity is essentially a reversible form of toxic acute tubular necrosis with features of mitochondrial injury (37). Numerous studies have demonstrated a decrease in kidney function with TDF usage and suggest monitoring of renal function to prevent TDF nephrotoxicity (17, 38-40). Early detection of proteinuria using accurate screening tests is important to decrease nephrotoxicity and improve outcomes in HIV-infected individuals (17). The current South African ART guidelines recommend routinely performing urine dipstick analysis on patients before and while on ART, as well as assessing the serum creatinine and eGFR at baseline (prior to ART initiation) and then at 3 months, 6 months, 12 months and annually thereafter for patients on TDF. The rate of compliance to these guidelines however, is not known.

The use of urine dipsticks alone as a screening tool has become a contentious issue with research both locally (23) and overseas (41) suggesting the poor validity of urine dipsticks in detecting proteinuria. Data from another South African study, Han et al., suggested that HIVAN is possible in patients without overt nephrotic syndrome and in patients who have only microalbuminuria. Therefore microalbuminuria can be considered an early marker of HIVAN (9). Szczech et al. concluded that miroalbuminuria predicts the development of proteinuria in HIV-infected patients (42). Stanifer et al. showed that the prevalence of proteinuria when measured in people with HIV, hypertension or diabetes is substantial. However the best method of urine protein detection is unknown (6). Currently, our urine dipstick analyses detect proteinuria only (not microalbuminuria). In other countries, alternate methods of urine analysis are already being sought. In a recent study set in Mexico City, a comparison was made between the protein reagent strip (PRS) and the urinary protein/creatinine ratio (uPCR) to detect proteinuria. It was concluded that there was a high concordance between the detection of urine protein by PRS and uPCR and therefore the PRS could be useful in low income countries to detect proteinuria (43).

Two South African studies in our review demonstrated the importance of an early creatinine clearance, prior to 4 months after the initiation of TDF (17, 22). Both the CG equation (after correcting for bias) and the 4-v MDRD equation (without the ethnicity factor for African Americans) have been validated for the estimation of eGFR in Black South Africans (20). The production of creatinine is determined mainly by muscle mass and dietary intake (44). Therefore, using the ethnicity factor in the 4-v MDRD equation overestimates the eGFR in Black South Africans (20) due to differences in diet, muscle mass and body composition between Black South Africans and African Americans (20). In the current review, the majority of the patients had mild to moderate renal dysfunction with a low prevalence of severe renal impairment prior to ART initiation. Similar findings were seen in a study by Overton et al. set in Washington (45). The prevalence of significant renal impairment in a South African study (23) was slightly higher than that of a Kenyan study (46), possibly because of the differences in the two African populations and because the eGFR method used in the South African study has not been validated for use in other African countries. Though the prevalence of chronic renal failure is low in the HIV-infected population, it has been shown to be higher than that of the general population in an American study (45). One South African study showed that approximately 6% of ART naïve outpatients who

presented with proteinuria had HIV-related kidney disease (9) and another study of 99 in-patients who underwent renal biopsy showed that 27 patients (27.3%) had HIVAN, only 3 of which were on ART (14).

In the current review, HIVAN was the most common histology seen on renal biopsy (12, 21). Other histologies have been documented in various studies both locally (9, 14, 21, 30) and overseas (47). The third leading cause of end stage renal disease (ESRD) in African Americans aged between 20 to 64 years was found to be HIVAN (10). HIVAN is commonly found in HIV-infected Black patients, suggesting a role of genetics in the development of HIVAN (10). Kasembelli et al. proved that Black South Africans who carried two copies of the APOL1 risk alleles were at higher risk of developing HIVAN (18). Lucas et al. demonstrated that ART can prevent or reduce the risk of developing HIVAN and, should it occur, patients on ART may have a slower course and lower mortality than patients not on ART (48). Following the diagnosis of HIVAN, patients can progress to end stage renal failure within months (14). In a South African study over a 10 year period of renal biopsies, the incidence of HIVAN increased from 6.6% in 2000 to 25.7% in 2009 (30). Furthermore, of the 27 patients diagnosed with HIVAN on renal biopsy in a study in South Africa, only 3 were on ART (14). This reaffirms the importance of renal biopsy in accurately diagnosing renal disease, particularly HIVAN (9, 14, 47), and that ART can be initiated early to improve outcomes. Sadly, due to a lack of resources and specialists, access to renal biopsy is limited to urban tertiary hospitals in South Africa.

From September 2016, when ART was to have been made universally available to all HIV-infected South Africans in accordance with WHO ART guidelines (3), even patients with undiagnosed HIVAN would have been initiated on ART. We know from studies in other countries that renal function improves with ART. In a randomised ART trial in Uganda and Zimbabwe, there was stabilisation or a slight improvement in renal function after the initiation of ART (49). Another study demonstrated the resolution of renal disease with ART and the recurrence of renal disease after stopping ART (50). TDF-induced renal toxicity usually resolves after TDF cessation, but the TDF related renal damage is not always completely reversible (51). Our systematic scoping review demonstrated that renal function essentially improved on ART (12, 21, 22). However, data on the long term outcomes of renal function and CKD for patients on ART in South Africa is lacking. It

was noted that 2015 had the most publications applicable to the topic of our scoping review, indicating a recent increase in interest on this subject in South Africa.

Recommendations for future research

The majority of the included studies were conducted in an urban setting where access to healthcare and laboratories was readily available. However, research shows high HIV prevalence and fewer patients on ART, in rural South Africa (52). Females bear the brunt of the HIV epidemic in South Africa having a significantly higher prevalence of HIV than their male counterparts (52). In the current review, consensus was not reached regarding gender as a risk factor for renal dysfunction possibly because females predominated in most studies. Therefore, comparative studies to determine the differences in renal manifestations between HIV infected males and females, preferably in rural settings, during the ART era, are recommended. More males need to be recruited to participate in research.

Currently, our urine dipstick analyses, detect only proteinuria, and not microalbuminuria. This suggests a novel idea for research: looking at the significance of microalbuminuria versus proteinuria in our HIV-infected population, the outcome of which could guide future urine diagnostics in baseline screening for renal disease. Cost effective methods for urine screening and estimating GFR are needed, especially for rural areas where access to laboratories is limited.

Considering that the majority of South African HIV-infected patients are Black and with a genetic predisposition to HIVAN, we anticipate that the prevalence of undiagnosed HIVAN will be significant. As far as we know, there are no prospective randomised controlled trials in South Africa investigating treatment options for HIVAN and no data on the actual prevalence of HIVAN.

Data on TDF nephrotoxicity and its impact on long term renal function are lacking in South Africa. Prospective clinical trials focussing on TDF nephrotoxicity and its long term renal outcomes are needed.

The overall prevalence of renal disease in South Africa is unknown. We urgently need epidemiological studies assessing the prevalence of renal disease and HIV-related renal disease in

South Africa in order to efficiently plan and sustain an effective CKD programme. The establishment of renal registries will assist with much needed statistics on the morbidity and mortality of renal disease in general and specifically to HIV and ART.

Implications for practice

Risk factors associated with proteinuria and albuminuria in HIV-infected patients (low eGFR, older age, diabetes and HPT) (25, 53) overlap with those for CKD patients (27, 54). Stanifer et al. found that 24% of hypertensives, 18.9% of diabetics and 10% of HIV-infected patients have comorbid CKD in Sub-Saharan Africa (6). With the high burden of HIV and non-communicable diseases such as CKD, hypertension and diabetes in South Africa, it would be wise for the Health Department to invest in CKD clinics in rural areas and nephrology outreach services as previously proposed by Madala et al. (27). All staff must be trained in screening for renal dysfunction and referral pathways and support systems must be in place for patients to access specialist care. In South Africa, the number of nephrologists per million population is estimated to be 1.1 (55). The lack of specialists must be addressed in order to have optimally functioning and widely accessible CKD facilities, as well as access to renal biopsy and renal replacement services. We must build on our current infrastructure.

Lastly, we need to empower our patients with knowledge regarding ART complications, and the monitoring and recognition of side effects. In over-burdened health facilities, it is not unusual for important management steps to be overlooked. Therefore, if we educate our patients, these can be avoided.

Strengths and Limitations

An important strength of this study is the exhaustive search for relevant studies. Scoping review methodology is rigorous and methodical in its approach to examining the extent, range and nature of research activity in a particular field (15). There are no limitations in this study.

Conclusion

The findings of the review are in keeping with that of international literature. South Africa has recently adopted the WHO policy and as of September 2016, all HIV-infected patients have access

to ART irrespective of CD4 cell count. Though this is a victory for the millions still awaiting ART in South Africa (in this context particularly patients with undiagnosed HIVAN), the impact on the current health infrastructure that this strategy will have, is unknown. More patients on ART may result in a further increase in chronic disease in South Africa, mainly CKD, hypertension and diabetes. Early initiation of ART can prevent HIVAN and improve outcomes for patients with HIVAN thereby potentially decreasing the incidence of CKD. With a lack of dedicated CKD clinics and specialist renal services particularly in the rural settings, as well as a deficiency in knowledge on the long term impact of ART on CKD, this may be a victory for which the healthcare system could be ill-prepared.

More research is urgently needed on the impact of ART on renal disease, ART-related renal complications and the prevalence of CKD, as well as cost effective methods for routine screening of renal disease in resource-poor settings

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Data Availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article and its supplementary information files.

Competing interests

None declared.

Funding

This study was funded by the University of KwaZulu-Natal, College of Health Sciences Research Scholarship.

Authors' contributions

SA, NPM and TPM-T conceptualised and designed the study. SA prepared the first draft of the study and SMK contributed in the abstract, full article screening and the quality assessment of the included studies. TPMT contributed in the synthesis of data and the design of the sifting and data extraction processes. TPMT and NPM assisted with the manuscript preparation. All authors reviewed draft versions of the manuscript and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the following institutions: College of Health Sciences and Library services at the University of KwaZulu-Natal for their support in providing us with resources to help with setting up and conducting this research study. The authors would also like to thank the librarians at Nelson R. Mandela Medical School (Mr Msizi Khumalo and Mrs Praba Naidoo) for assistance with retrieving studies for the review. This study was funded by the College of Health Sciences research scholarship.

Additional files

Additional file 1 (Appendix C): List of studies included for full article screening and reviewers' responses. All the studies that were reviewed independently by two reviewers to reach consensus on the articles eligibility for data extraction.

Additional file 2 (Appendix D): Quality assessment tool. Two reviewers used the MMAT format to assess the quality of the content of the included studies.

References

- 1. Kalyesubula R, Wearne N, Semitala FC, Bowa K. HIV-associated renal and genitourinary comorbidities in Africa. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2014;67:S68-S78.
- 2. Mayosi BM, Flisher AJ, Lalloo UG, Sitas F, Tollman SM, Bradshaw D. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. The Lancet. 2009;374(9693):934-47.
- 3. Msango L, Downs JA, Kalluvya SE, Kidenya BR, Kabangila R, Johnson WD, Jr., et al. Renal dysfunction among HIV-infected patients starting antiretroviral therapy. AIDS (London, England). 2011;25(11):1421-5.
- 4. Bihl G. HIV-related renal disease-A clinical and practical approach in the South African context. SAMJ. 2003 Feb;:11-14
- 5. Fabian J. Chronic kidney disease in HIV infection: early detection and preventive strategies. Continuing Medical Education. 2007;25(8).
- 6. Stanifer JW, Jing B, Tolan S, Helmke N, Mukerjee R, Naicker S, et al. The epidemiology of chronic kidney disease in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. The lancet global health. 2014;2(3):e174-e81.
- 7. Fabian J, Katz I, Gerntholtz T, Goetsch S, Naicker S. Chronic kidney disease in human immunodeficiency virus infection. Panminerva medica. 2007;49(2):51-66.
- 8. South African HIV Clinicians Society.org[Internet]. National Consolidated Guidelines. South Africa. National Department of Health; 2015. Available from www.sahivsoc.org/Files/ART%20Guidelines%2015052015.pdf.
- 9. Han T, Naicker S, Ramdial P, Assounga A. A cross-sectional study of HIV-seropositive patients with varying degrees of proteinuria in South Africa. Kidney international. 2006;69(12):2243-50.
- 10. D'Agati V, Appel GB. HIV infection and the kidney. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. 1997;8(1):138-52.
- 11. Cohen SD, Kimmel PL. HIV-associated renal diseases in Africa—a desperate need for additional study. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2007;22(8):2116-9.
- 12. Fabian J, Naicker S, Goetsch S, Venter WD. The clinical and histological response of HIV-associated kidney disease to antiretroviral therapy in South Africans. Nephrology, dialysis,

- transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association European Renal Association. 2013;28(6):1543-54.
- 13. Fabian J, Naicker S, Venter WD, Baker L, Naidoo S, Paget G, et al. Urinary screening abnormalities in antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected outpatients and implications for management-a single-center study in South Africa. Ethnicity & disease. 2009;19(1):80.
- 14. Gerntholtz TE, Goetsch SJW, Katz I. HIV-related nephropathy: A South African perspective. Kidney International. 2006;69(10):1885-91.
- 15. Arksey H, O'Malley L. Scoping studies: towards a methodological framework. International journal of social research methodology. 2005;8(1):19-32.
- 16. Pluye P, Robert, E., Cargo, M., Bartlett, G., O'Cathain, A., Griffiths, F., Boardman, F., Gagnon, M.P., & Rousseau, M.C. (2011). Proposal: A mixed methods appraisal tool for systematic mixed studies, http://www.webcitation.org/5tTRTc9yJ.
- 17. Brennan A, Evans D, Maskew M, Naicker S, Ive P, Sanne I, et al. Relationship between renal dysfunction, nephrotoxicity and death among HIV adults on tenofovir. AIDS (London, England). 2011;25(13):1603.
- 18. Kasembeli AN, Duarte R, Ramsay M, Mosiane P, Dickens C, Dix-Peek T, et al. APOL1 risk variants are strongly associated with HIV-associated nephropathy in black South Africans. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2015;26(11):2882-90.
- 19. Vachiat AI, Musenge E, Wadee S, Naicker S. Renal failure in HIV-positive patients—a South African experience. Clinical Kidney Journal. 2013:sft128.
- 20. van Deventer HE, George JA, Paiker JE, Becker PJ, Katz IJ. Estimating glomerular filtration rate in black South Africans by use of the modification of diet in renal disease and Cockcroft-Gault equations. Clin Chem. 2008;54(7):1197-202.
- 21. Wearne N, Swanepoel CR, Boulle A, Duffield MS, Rayner BL. The spectrum of renal histologies seen in HIV with outcomes, prognostic indicators and clinical correlations. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2012;27(11):4109-18.
- 22. Kamkuemah M, Kaplan R, Bekker LG, Little F, Myer L. Renal impairment in HIV-infected patients initiating tenofovir-containing antiretroviral therapy regimens in a Primary Healthcare Setting in South Africa. Tropical medicine & international health: TM & IH. 2015;20(4):518-26.
- 23. Franey C, Knott D, Barnighausen T, Dedicoat M, Adam A, Lessells RJ, et al. Renal impairment in a rural African antiretroviral programme. BMC infectious diseases. 2009;9(1):143.

- 24. Madala ND, Thusi GP, Assounga AG, Naicker S. Characteristics of South African patients presenting with kidney disease in rural KwaZulu-Natal: a cross sectional study. BMC nephrology. 2014;15(1):61.
- 25. Wensink GE, Schoffelen AF, Tempelman HA, Rookmaaker MB, Hoepelman AI, Barth RE. Albuminuria Is Associated with Traditional Cardiovascular Risk Factors and Viral Load in HIV-Infected Patients in Rural South Africa. PloS one. 2015;10(8):e0136529.
- 26. Wensink GE, Schoffelen AF, Tempelman HA, Rookmaaker MB, Hoepelman AIM, Barth RE. Albuminuria Is Associated with Traditional Cardiovascular Risk Factors and Viral Load in HIV-Infected Patients in Rural South Africa. PLoS ONE. 2015;10(8):1-14.
- 27. Madala ND, Thusi GP, Assounga AG, Naicker S. Characteristics of South African patients presenting with kidney disease in rural KwaZulu-Natal: a cross sectional study. BMC Nephrol. 2014:15:61.
- 28. Arendse C, Okpechi I, Swanepoel C. Acute dialysis in HIV-positive patients in Cape Town, South Africa. Nephrology. 2011;16(1):39-44.
- 29. Okpechi IG. Nephrotic syndrome in adult black South Africans: HIV-associated nephropathy as the main culprit. Journal of the National Medical Association. 2010;102(12):1193.
- 30. Okpechi I, Swanepoel C, Duffield M, Mahala B, Wearne N, Alagbe S, et al. Patterns of renal disease in Cape Town South Africa: a 10-year review of a single-centre renal biopsy database. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2010:gfq655.
- 31. van Rensburg BWJ, van Staden AM, Rossouw GJ, Joubert G. The profile of adult nephrology patients admitted to the Renal Unit of the Universitas Tertiary Hospital in Bloemfontein, South Africa from 1997 to 2006. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2009:gfp535.
- 32. Fabian J, Maher HA, Clark C, Naicker S, Becker P, Venter WD. Morbidity and mortality of black HIV-positive patients with end-stage kidney disease receiving chronic haemodialysis in South Africa. South African medical journal = Suid-Afrikaanse tydskrif vir geneeskunde. 2015;105(2):110-4.
- 33. Madala ND, Nkwanyana N, Dubula T, Naiker IP. Predictive performance of eGFR equations in South Africans of African and Indian ancestry compared with (9)(9)mTc-DTPA imaging. Int Urol Nephrol. 2012;44(3):847-55.
- 34. Kamkuemah M. Prevalence and incidence of renal dysfunction in patients initiating Antiretroviral Therapy at a Primary Health Care Centre in Gugulethu, Cape Town: a cohort study: University of Cape Town; 2013.

- 35. Kamkuemah M, Kaplan R, Bekker LG, Little F, Myer L. Renal impairment in HIV-infected patients initiating tenofovir-containing antiretroviral therapy regimens in a Primary Healthcare Setting in South Africa. Tropical Medicine & International Health. 2015;20(4):518-26.
- 36. Genovese G, Friedman DJ, Ross MD, Lecordier L, Uzureau P, Freedman BI, et al. Association of trypanolytic ApoL1 variants with kidney disease in African Americans. Science. 2010;329(5993):841-5.
- 37. Herlitz LC, Mohan S, Stokes MB, Radhakrishnan J, D'Agati VD, Markowitz GS. Tenofovir nephrotoxicity: acute tubular necrosis with distinctive clinical, pathological, and mitochondrial abnormalities. Kidney International. 2010;78(11):1171-7.
- 38. Cooper RD, Wiebe N, Smith N, Keiser P, Naicker S, Tonelli M. Systematic review and meta-analysis: renal safety of tenofovir disoproxil fumarate in HIV-infected patients. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2010;51(5):496-505.
- 39. Elias A, Ijeoma O, Edikpo NJ, Oputiri D, Geoffrey O-BP. Tenofovir Renal Toxicity: Evaluation of Cohorts and Clinical Studies—Part 2. Pharmacology & Pharmacy. 2014;2014.
- 40. Jafari A, Khalili H, Dashti-Khavidaki S. Tenofovir-induced nephrotoxicity: incidence, mechanism, risk factors, prognosis and proposed agents for prevention. European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2014;70(9):1029-40.
- 41. Siedner MJ, Atta MG, Lucas GM, Perazella MA, Fine DM. Poor validity of urine dipstick as a screening tool for proteinuria in HIV-positive patients. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2008;47(2):261-3.
- 42. Szczech LA, Menezes P, Quinlivan EB, van der Horst C, Bartlett JA, Svetkey LP. Microalbuminuria predicts overt proteinuria among patients with HIV infection. HIV Medicine. 2010;11(7):419-26.
- 43. De León JIL, Mata-Marín JA, Andrade-Fuentes K, Huerta-Garcia G, Domínguez-Hemosillo JC, Gaytán-Martínez J. Strong correlation between protein reagent strip and protein-to-creatinine ratio for detection of renal dysfunction in HIV-infected patients: a cross-sectional study. AIDS Research & Therapy. 2015;12(1):1-5.
- 44. Stevens LA, Coresh J, Greene T, Levey AS. Assessing kidney function--measured and estimated glomerular filtration rate. The New England journal of medicine. 2006;354(23):2473-83.
- 45. Overton ET, Nurutdinova D, Freeman J, Seyfried W, Mondy KE. Factors associated with renal dysfunction within an urban HIV-infected cohort in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy. HIV HIV Medicine. 2009;10(6):343-50.

- 46. Wools-Kaloustian K, Gupta SK, Muloma E, Owino-Ong'or W, Sidle J, Aubrey RW, et al. Renal disease in an antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected outpatient population in Western Kenya. Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association European Renal Association. 2007;22(8):2208-12.
- 47. Vali PS, Ismal K, Gowrishankar S, Sahay M. Renal disease in human immunodeficiency virus -- Not just HIV-associated nephropathy. Indian Journal of Nephrology. 2012;22(2):98-102.
- 48. Lucas GM, Eustace JA, Sozio S, Mentari EK, Appiah KA, Moore RD. Highly active antiretroviral therapy and the incidence of HIV-1-associated nephropathy: a 12-year cohort study. AIDS. 2004;18(3):541-6.
- 49. Reid A, Stohr W, Walker S, Ssali F, Munderi P, Gilks C, editors. on behalf of the DART trial. Glomerular dysfunction and associated risk factors following initiation of ART in adults with HIV infection in Africa. Fifth IAS Conference on HIV Pathogenesis, Treatment and Prevention; 2005.
- 50. Scialla JJ, Atta MG, Fine DM. Relapse of HIV-associated nephropathy after discontinuing highly active antiretroviral therapy. Aids. 2007;21(2):263-4.
- 51. Calza L, Trapani F, Tedeschi S, Piergentili B, Manfredi R, Colangeli V, et al. Tenofovir-induced renal toxicity in 324 HIV-infected, antiretroviral-naïve patients. Scandinavian Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2011;43(8):656-60.
- 52. Shisana O, Rehle, T, Simbayi LC, Zuma, K, Jooste, S, Zungu N, Labadarios, D, Onoya, D et al. South African National HIV Prevalence, Incidence and Behaviour Survey, 2012. Cape Town: HSRC Press; 2014. 195

p.

- 53. Longo AL, Lepira FB, Sumaili EK, Makulo JRR, Mukumbi H, Bukabau JB, et al. Prevalence of Low Estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate, Proteinuria, and Associated Risk Factors Among HIV-Infected Black Patients Using Cockroft—Gault and Modification of Diet in Renal Disease Study Equations. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2012;59(1):59-64.
- 54. Ando M, Yanagisawa N, Ajisawa A, Tsuchiya K, Nitta K. A simple model for predicting incidence of chronic kidney disease in HIV-infected patients. Clinical and experimental nephrology. 2011;15(2):242-7.
- 55. Katz IJ, Gerntholtz T, Naicker S. Africa and nephrology: the forgotten continent. Nephron Clinical Practice. 2011;117(4):320-7.

CHAPTER 3: A CHART REVIEW

Chapter 2 demonstrated the current stance on HIV-related renal disease in South Africa. It revealed research gaps in this area. With the universal access to ART for all HIV-infected South Africans, the burden of renal disease and other chronic diseases is anticipated to increase. Therefore, more research on the long term effects of ART on renal disease and on the morbidity and mortality of renal disease, is required. There are guidelines in place regarding monitoring of patients on ART but it is not known whether these guidelines are being adhered to. Guided by the results obtained in Chapter 2, a chart review was conducted in an HIV-infected cohort from the clinic medical records.

Chapter 3 presents a retrospective chart review aimed at addressing objective 2 of the study viz. to determine the risk factors and co-morbidities associated with renal impairment in a cohort of HIV-infected patients. The results of this will help to influence policy and guide future research on HIV management. The chapter is presented in the form of a manuscript entitled: 'Risk Factors and Co-Morbidities Associated with Changes in Renal Function among ART-naïve Adults in South Africa: A Chart Review'. The manuscript is currently under review at the South African Journal of Infectious Diseases.

Risk Factors and Co-Morbidities Associated with Changes in Renal Function among ART-naïve Adults in South Africa: A Chart Review

Shirelle Assaram¹, Tivani P. Mashamba-Thompson², Nombulelo P. Magula¹

Corresponding author: S Assaram

Address: 3rd Floor Department of Internal Medicine, Nelson R Mandela Medical School, University of KwaZulu-Natal, 719 Umbilo Road, Congella, 4013, South Africa

Email address: shirelleassaram@gmail.com

E-mail addresses of authors:

SA: shirelleassaram@gmail.com

NPM: Magulan@ukzn.ac.za

TPM-T:Mashamba-Thompson@ukzn.ac.za

¹Department of Internal Medicine, Nelson R. Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

²Department of Public Health Medicine, School of Nursing and Public Health, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Our systematic scoping review has demonstrated a research gap on antiretroviral treatment (ART) nephrotoxicity, as well as the long term outcomes of renal function for patients on ART in South Africa. Bearing in mind the high prevalence of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) in South Africa, this is of great concern. The aim of this study is to determine the risk factors and co-morbidities associated with changes in renal function in HIV infected adults in South Africa.

Methods: We conducted a retrospective study of 350 ART-naïve adult patients attending the King Edward VIII HIV clinic, Durban, South Africa. Data was collected at baseline (pre-ART), and at 6, 12, 18 and 24 months on ART. Renal function was assessed in the 24 month period using the modification of diet in renal disease (MDRD) equation and was categorised into normal renal function (estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) \geq 60), moderate renal impairment (eGFR 30-59), severe renal impairment (eGFR 15-29) and kidney failure (eGFR 15ml/min/1.73m²). Generalised linear models for binary data were used to model the probability of renal impairment over the 5 time periods, controlling for repeated measures within participants over time. Risk ratios and 95% confidence intervals were reported for each time point versus baseline.

Results: The cohort was 64% female and 99% were Black The mean age was 36.9 ± 9.7 years. At baseline, 10 patients had hypertension, 6 had diabetes, 61 were co-infected with tuberculosis (TB) and 157 patients had a high body mass index (BMI) with 25.4% being categorised as overweight and 19.4% obese. The majority of the patients (59.3%) were normotensive. At baseline the majority of the patients (90.4%) had a normal renal function (95% confidence intervals (CI):86%-93%), 7.0% (CI:5%-10%) had moderate renal impairment, 1.3% (CI:0%-3%) had severe renal impairment, and 1.3% (CI:0%-3%) had kidney failure. As BMI increased by one unit, the risk of renal impairment increased by 1.06 (CI: 1.03 – 1.10) times. The association of hypertension (HPT) with abnormal renal function was found to be insignificant, p>0.05. The vast majority of patients were initiated on tenofovir disoproxil fumarate (TDF) (90.6%), in combination with lamivudine (3TC) (100%) and either efavirenz (EFV) (56.6%) or nevirapine (NVP) (43.4%). Seven patients of the 29 patients (24%) with baseline renal impairment, had persistent renal impairment at 24 months on ART while the eGFR of 13 patients (44.8%) normalised at 24 months on ART.

Conclusion: This study reports a low prevalence of baseline renal impairment in HIV-infected ART-naïve outpatients. An improvement in renal function after the commencement of ART has been demonstrated among this population. However, the long-term outcomes of patients with HIV-related renal disease is not known.

Keywords: Renal failure; HIV; antiretroviral therapy; South Africa

BACKGROUND

South Africa accounts for approximately 18 % of global human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infections, with an estimated prevalence of 6.7 million HIV-infected people (1). There are almost 1000 new HIV infections, the majority of which are heterosexually transmitted (2). In an attempt to end the surge of HIV plaguing the African continent, the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), have established an ambitious but achievable target to have 90% of all people tested for HIV, and treated and virologically suppressed by 2020 (3). Providing antiretroviral treatment (ART) to all people living with HIV (PLHIV) irrespective of CD4 count can help prevent HIV-related illness, avert acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS)-related deaths and prevent new HIV infections (3). South Africa (SA) implemented the UNAIDS policy in September 2016 (4). This universal access to ART for PLHIV is likely to lead to an increase in the burden of chronic diseases in SA as people are living longer with HIV (5).

Stanifer et al.'s 2014 study has shown that chronic kidney disease (CKD) has been prevalent and at an increase in Sub-Saharan Africa with 24% of patients with hypertension, 18.9% of diabetes and 10% of HIV infected patients having co-morbid CKD (6). The use of long-term medication for chronic illnesses can pose a threat to the kidneys and the use of ART is no exception (7-9). Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate (TDF), a potentially nephrotoxic drug (10, 11), is widely utilised as first line ART in SA and screening for baseline renal dysfunction prior to TDF initiation is essential (12). The SA ART guidelines recommend a serum creatinine and creatinine clearance at baseline (prior to ART initiation) and then at 3 months, 6 months, 12 months and annually thereafter for patients on TDF (13).

Our systematic scoping review has demonstrated a research gap on ART nephrotoxicity, particularly with TDF, as well as the long-term outcomes of renal function for patients on ART in South Africa. This is of great concern because we do not know the burden of ART nephrotoxicity or morbidity that our population may experience. Further, with the current health infrastructure, access to nephrologists and dedicated renal services are limited to a few tertiary hospitals. In this study, we aim to determine the risk factors and co-morbidities associated with changes in renal function in HIV infected adults in South Africa. We anticipate that the results of this study will pave the way for prospective studies regarding the morbidity

and mortality of ART nephrotoxicity and influence the expansion of renal services offered in the public health sector.

METHODOLOGY

Design

We conducted a retrospective study of 350 ART-naïve adult patients (18 years and older) attending the King Edward VIII HIV clinic, Durban, South Africa.

Study population

Our study population was ART naïve HIV-infected adult patients who presented to us from across KwaZulu-Natal seeking initiation of ART. We included patients who were initiated on ART from April 2010 to December 2013 and followed up over a 24 month period. Patients already on ART who were transferred to the clinic were excluded.

Data extraction

Clinical data was extracted from medical records of patients attending the HIV clinic at King Edward VIII Hospital in the study period from April 2010 to December 2013. To minimise selection bias, we selected clinical charts sequentially for ART naïve patients. Data was collected at baseline (pre-ART), and at 6, 12, 18 and 24 months on ART. Data collected included socio-demographics, clinical parameters (weight, height, body mass index, blood pressure, pulse, finger prick glucose, urine dipstick analysis), history of co-morbidities (hypertension, diabetes, tuberculosis, pregnancy), laboratory data (serum creatinine and estimated glomerular filtration rate) and the type of ART regimen. We also documented patients who were lost to follow up.

Outcome measures

CKD was defined as either kidney damage or a glomerular filtration rate (GFR) of $<60\text{mL/min}/1.73\text{m}^2$ for ≥ 3 months irrespective of cause (14). Estimated GFR (eGFR) used in data analyses was calculated using the simplified modification of diet in renal disease (MDRD) equation without the ethnicity factor: eGFR (mL/min/1.73m²) = $175 \times [S_{cr}(\mu\text{mol/L})/88.4]^{-1.154} \times \text{Age}(\text{years})^{-0.203} \times (0.742 \text{ if female})$ (15) and was performed at the National Health Laboratory Services (NHLS) at King Edward VIII Hospital. The formula was adjusted to

correct for the use of µmol/L as the unit of measure for serum creatinine (15). For this study we modified the staging of chronic kidney disease from that of the Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiative (KDOQI) of the National Kidney Foundation (Table 3.1) (14) because the NHLS reports creatinine levels above 60µmol/L as >60µmol/L and does not specify the actual eGFR level. For those patients who did not have a documented eGFR from the lab either because the age or gender was not documented on the laboratory request form, we calculated the value using the MDRD equation above, with the age and gender captured during data collection. Proteinuria detected on urine dipstick analysis refers to the presence of protein of 1+ or more in the urine.

TABLE 3. 1: STAGING OF CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE

DESCRIPTION	eGFR ml/min/1.73m ²
Normal renal function	≥60
Moderate renal impairment	30 – 59
Severe renal impairment	15 - 29
Kidney failure	< 15
	(needs dialysis)

GFR – glomerular filtration rate

An adaptation of the CKD classification of the KDOQI of National Kidney Foundation

As per the South African Hypertension Guidelines, hypertension (HPT) is defined as a persistent elevation of blood pressure(BP) \geq 140/90 (16). The classification of HPT into 4 categories was made in accordance with the JNC8 guidelines (Table 3.2) (17). Body mass index (BMI) is an index of weight-for-height that is used to classify persons as underweight, normal, overweight or obese. BMI is calculated as the weight (kilograms) / height (metres) 2 . Classification of BMI was based on that of the World Health Organisation (WHO) (Table 3.3) (18).

TABLE 3. 2: CLASSIFICATION OF HYPERTENSION

Classification	Systolic blood		Diastolic blood
	pressure (mmHg)		pressure (mmHg)
Normal	<120	AND	<80
Prehypertension	120-139	OR	80-89
Stage 1	140-159	OR	90-99
Stage 2	≥ 160	OR	≥ 100

NB. BP should be categorised according to the highest level of BP whether systolic or diastolic.

Classification as per JNC8 guidelines.

TABLE 3. 3: CLASSIFICATION OF BMI

Classification	BMI
Underweight	<18.50
Normal Range	18.50 – 24.99
Overweight	≥ 25.00
Obese	≥ 30.00

BMI – body mass index = weight (kilograms) / height (meters). Classification as per WHO guidelines.

Statistical Analysis

IBM SPSS version 24 and Stata version 13 were used for data analysis. To assess the effect of time on ordinal outcomes, the outcomes were first categorised into binary variables indicating the presence or absence of a condition. eGFR categories were collapsed into normal (eGFR \geq 60), versus renal impairment (moderate to kidney failure, eGFR < 60). Blood pressure categories were dichotomised to normal versus hypertension – the latter included prehypertension. Generalised linear models for binary data were used to model the probability of renal impairment over the five time periods, controlling for repeated measures within participants over time. Risk ratios and 95% confidence intervals were reported for each time point versus baseline. A p value of <0.05 represented statistical significance.

Ethical approval

Full ethical approval was obtained from the Biomedical Research and Ethics Council (BREC) and permission to conduct the research was granted by King Edward VIII hospital management.

RESULTS

Demographics

The baseline characteristics of the 350 patients included in the analysis are illustrated in Table 3.4. Their mean age was 36.9 years with a standard deviation of 9.7 years. The range was from 18 years to 72 years. The cohort was 64% female and 99% were African. Of the women, 16% were pregnant at baseline. Also at baseline, 10 patients had hypertension, 6 had diabetes and 61 were on tuberculosis (TB) treatment. At baseline, 157 patients had a high BMI with 25.4% being categorised as overweight and 19.4% obese (Figure 3.1). Due to a lack of documentation of either the weight or height or both, 20 patients did not have a BMI documented at baseline. The majority of the patients (59.3%) were normotensive while 24.1% were classified as pre-HPT, 9.9% as stage 1 HPT and 6.7% as stage 2 HPT (Figure 3.2).

TABLE 3. 4: BASELINE DEMOGRAPHICS

		Count	Variable	95%
			(%)	Confidence
				intervals
				(CI)
Gender	Female	224	64.0	0.59 - 0.69
	Male	126	36.0	0.31 - 0.41
Race	African	348	99.4	0.98 - 1.00
	Indian	0	0.0	0.0
	White	0	0.0	0.0
	Coloured	2	0.6	0.00 - 0.02
HPT	No	340	97.1	0.95 - 0.98
	Yes	10	2.9	0.02 - 0.05
DM	No	344	98.3	0.96 - 0.99
	Yes	6	1.7	0.01 - 0.04
TB	No	288	82.5	0.78 - 0.86
	Yes	61	17.5	0.14 - 0.22
PREGNANT (women)	No	188	83.9	0.86 - 0.93
	Yes	36	16.1	0.07 - 0.14

HPT – hypertension; DM – diabetes; TB – tuberculosis

FIGURE 3. 1: BASELINE BMI CATEGORIES

 $Underweight-BMI<18.50; Normal-BMI~18.50~to~24.99; Overweight-BMI \geq 25; Obese-BMI \geq 30.$

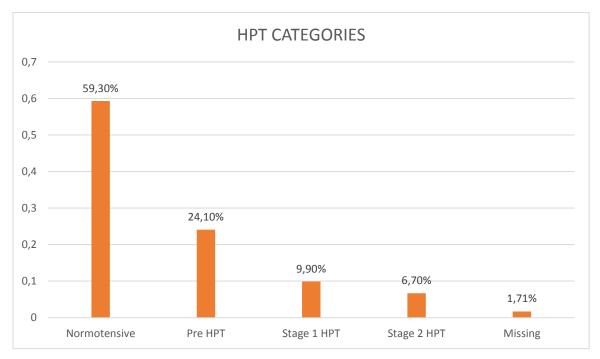


FIGURE 3. 2: BASELINE HPT CATEGORIES

Normotensive – BP <120 and <80; Pre HPT – BP 120 to 139 or 80 to 89; Stage 1 – BP 140 to 159 or 90 to 99; Stage $2 - BP \ge 160$ or ≥ 100 . Measurement of BP in mmHg.

Baseline renal function

At baseline, the majority of the patients had a normal renal function 90.4%, [95% confidence intervals (CI):86%-93%], 7.0% (CI:5%-10%) had moderate renal impairment, 1.3% (CI:0%-

3%) had severe renal impairment, and 1.3% (CI:0%-3%) had kidney failure (Table 3.5). The eGFR for 49 patients was not documented at baseline. Relative to baseline the risk of developing renal impairment decreased at the subsequent time points (Appendix E). At 6 months the risk of having renal impairment was 82% (CI:5%-72%) lower than baseline, at 12 months it was 56% (CI:22%-87%) lower, at 18 months 72% (CI:10%-77%) lower and at 24 months the risk was 49% (CI:29%-91%) lower than baseline.

TABLE 3. 5: CATEGORIES OF RENAL IMPAIRMENT (RI) FROM BASELINE TO 24 MONTHS

eGFR categories	Baseline	6 Months	12 Months	18 Months	24 Months
(eGFR	N (%)				
ml/min/1.73m ²)					
Normal	272	112	181	143	212
(eGFR > 60),	(90.4%)	(98.2%)	(95.8%)	(97.3%)	(95.1%)
95% Confidence	0.86-0.93	0.93-1.00	0.92-0.98	0.93-0.99	0.91-0.97
intervals (CI)					
Moderate RI	21	1	6	2	9
(eGFR 30 – 59),	(7.0%)	(0.9%)	(3.2%)	(1.4%)	(4.0%)
(CI)	0.05-0.10	0.00-0.06	0.01-0.07	0.00-0.05	0.02-0.08
Severe RI	4	0	1	0	1
(eGFR 15 – 29),	(1.3%)	(0.0%)	(0.5%)	(0.0%)	(0.4%)
(CI)	0.00-0.03	0	0.00-0.04	0	0.00-0.03
Kidney Failure	4	1	1	2	1
(eGFR < 15),	(1.3%)	(0.9%)	(0.5%)	(1.4%)	(0.4%)
(CI)	0.00-0.03	0.00-0.06	0.00-0.04	0.00-0.05	0.00-0.03
TOTAL	301	114	189	147	223

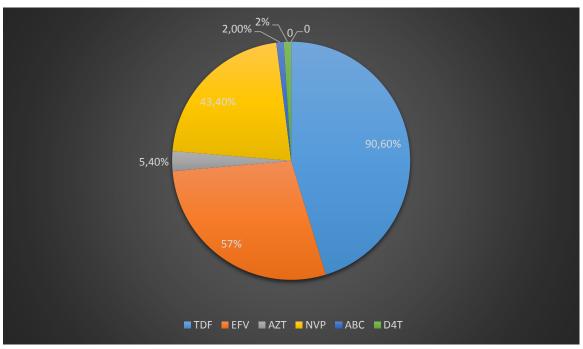
Missing data at various time points as data was not documented at these times possibly because clinicians were attending to large clinic numbers with a poorly kept paper filing system and these routine checks were missed.

Appendix F demonstrates the characteristics of the 29 patients with baseline renal impairment and depicts the trend of the eGFR over various time points. Of those patients with abnormal renal impairment at baseline, females predominated with renal impairment at 79%. 24% were

co-infected with TB while one patient had HPT. The average age of the 29 patients was 45 years. Seven patients of the 29 patients (24%) with baseline renal impairment, had persistent renal impairment at 24 months. Eight of the 29 patients did not have an eGFR done at 24 months. One patient was lost to follow up at 24 months. The eGFR of 13 patients (44.8%) normalised at 24 months.

In 2010, fixed dose combinations were unavailable in the public sector therefore patients were initiated on individual antiretroviral agents. The vast majority of patients were initiated on TDF (90.6%), in combination with lamivudine (3TC) (100%) and either efavirenz (EFV) (56.6%) or nevirapine (NVP) (43.4%). Twenty-three of the 29 patients with baseline renal impairment (eGFR's < 60ml/min/1.73m²), were commenced on a TDF based regimen. Of the 10 patients with a baseline eGFR <50ml/min/1.73m² who were commenced on TDF, 7 had a normalisation of eGFR by 24 months while three experienced a deterioration in renal function. Two of the patients had TDF discontinued at 18 months and replaced with ABC. The remaining patients with renal impairment were either initiated on abacavir (ABC) (3 patients), zidovudine (AZT) (2 patients) or stavudine (D4T) (1 patient). Fourteen of the 36 pregnant women were initiated on AZT whilst the remaining 22 were initiated on TDF. The remaining patients were initiated on either D4T, AZT or ABC by the attending clinician as first line treatment with no reason specified. Figure 3.3 demonstrates this distribution of ART at baseline.





TDF – tenofovir, EFV – efavirenz, AZT – zidovudine, ABC – abacavir, D4T – stavudine. All 350 patients were on lamivudine (3TC) at baseline in combination with 2 other ART.

Risk factors associated with abnormal renal function

The factors tested for association with abnormal renal function were age group, time, BMI, hypertension. The factors which remained significant in the model are shown in Appendix G and summarised in Table 3.6.

TABLE 3.6. RISK FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH ABNORMAL RENAL FUNCTION

Variables	Risk Ratio	P value	95% confidence
			interval
Time – 6 months	0.19	0.018	0.48 - 0.75
12 months	0.40	0.007	0.21 - 0.78
18 months	0.24	0.005	0.85 - 0.65
24 months	0.42	0.002	0.24 - 0.73
BMI	1.06	0.000	1.03 – 1.09
HPT	1.89	0.194	0.72 - 4.95
Age – 30 to 49 years	2.51	0.128	0.77 - 8.22
≥ 50 years	6.82	0.003	1.90 – 24.54

Compared to those under 30 years old, there was no significant difference in renal impairment in those aged 30 to 49 years, p>0.05 (CI: 0.77-8.22) while those aged ≥ 50 years were 6.8 (CI: 1.90-24.54) times more likely to develop renal impairment, p<0.05. Time still remained a significant predictor. As time increased, so the risk of abnormal renal function decreased. As BMI increased by one unit, the risk of renal impairment increased by 1.06 (CI: 1.03-1.10) times. The association of HPT with abnormal renal function was found to be insignificant, p>0.05. A total of 21 patients (6%) were lost to follow up over the two years and 94% were retained in care (Table 3.7). Of those patients who were lost to follow-up, there was no documentation regarding tracing of these patients therefore we do not know if any of these patients demised.

TABLE 3.7. LOST TO FOLLOW-UP

TIME	LOST TO FOLLOW-UP	RETENTION
	N (%)	N (%)
	95% CI	95% CI
Baseline	0 (0%),	350 (100%)
6 months	2 (0.6%), CI: 0.00-0.02	348 (99.4%), CI: 0.98-
		1.00
12 months	2 (0.6%), CI: 0.00-0.02	348 (99.4%), CI: 0.98-
		1.00
18 months	9 (2.6%), CI: 0.01-0.05	341 (97.4%), CI: 0.95-
		0.99
24 months	8 (2.3%), CI: 0.01-0.05	342 (97.7%), CI: 0.95-
		0.99

Urine dipstick analysis

Only 5 patients in the entire cohort had urine dipsticks performed at various time points (3 at baseline, 1 at 6 months and 1 at 12 months). The test strip was positive for proteinuria in 4 out of the 5 patients (80%) and 3 out of the 4 patients (75%) with proteinuria were on a TDF based regimen with a normal eGFR. The remaining patient had renal impairment and was on an ABC regimen.

DISCUSSION

We aimed to determine the risk factors and co-morbidities associated with changes in renal function in an adult cohort with HIV in SA. The cohort was mainly female and a large proportion of patients were either pregnant or co-infected with TB. The prevalence of renal impairment at baseline was found to be relatively low. Females predominated with baseline renal impairment and the majority of the patients were co-infected with TB. Of those patients with baseline renal impairment, the majority had a normalisation of their eGFR by 24 months. The risk of developing renal impairment decreased over the two year period while patients were on ART. Risk factors found to be significant for renal impairment were older age, p<0.05 and an increase in BMI, p<0.05. In this cohort HPT did not impact renal impairment

significantly, p>0.05. TDF was the ART of choice for ART initiation along with 3TC and either NVP or EFV in keeping with South African National ART guidelines (13). Surprisingly, one third of patients with baseline renal impairment were initiated on a TDF based regimen in contravention of the standard ART guidelines. These guidelines state that TDF should not be initiated in patients with an eGFR of <50 ml/min/1.73m². This probably reflects the practice in clinics that may be under-staffed where errors may have a tendency to occur.

Similar studies conducted in South Africa showed a low prevalence of baseline renal impairment in an HIV-infected cohort (12, 19, 20) and some showed the improvement in eGFR after starting ART (19, 21, 22). Similar findings were noted in an African study by Reid et al. carried out in Mozambique and Zimbabwe (23). As HIV has been shown to have a direct renal pathogenic role (24, 25), we can deduce that treating the disease with ART diminishes the renal pathogenic effect. However, there is a lack of information on the long term outcomes of renal disease in HIV-infected patients. Not all our patients experienced a resolution in their renal function as described earlier. Our cohort comprised mainly Black patients and therefore we were unable to compare the renal function of different ethnicities. Consensus regarding gender as a risk factor for renal dysfunction could not be determined, as some studies found women to be at greater risk (19, 26) whilst others found men to be at greater risk (20). Older age has been documented in numerous studies including ours as a risk factor for renal impairment (19, 20, 27). A low CD4 count, high viral load and low haemoglobin are other variables found to be associated with a lower eGFR (12, 19, 20, 27). We did not assess these variables in our study.

A high BMI has been documented in international literature as a modest risk factor for renal impairment over time (27). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first South African study to demonstrate BMI as a risk factor associated with changes in renal function in an HIV-infected cohort. This is a significant finding as a high BMI is also a risk factor for other chronic diseases such as HPT, diabetes and cardiovascular disease (28, 29) which in turn are risk factors for CKD (6). Although we did not find a significant link between HPT and renal impairment, this has been observed in other studies (26, 27). A possible explanation for our findings could be the duration we collected data (2 years) and ethnicity (our cohort mainly Black), whilst in the other studies the duration was 96 weeks and 31 months respectively in predominantly white cohorts (26, 27).

Several studies have described TDF associated nephrotoxicity as a pattern of renal injury involving the proximal renal tubule sometimes with Fanconi syndrome occurring together with a decreased renal function (7, 30). They recommend monitoring of renal function to prevent these outcomes (10, 30, 31). The South African ART guidelines recommend monitoring of renal function with urine dipsticks, a serum creatinine and eGFR levels at baseline, 6 months, 12 months and annually thereafter for patients on TDF (13, 32). The rate of adherence to these guidelines is not known. In our study we found missing serum creatinine and eGFR levels at 6 months, 12 months and 24 months. A possible explanation for this is that clinicians were attending to large clinic numbers with a poorly kept paper filing system and these routine checks were missed. In addition, clinicians were missing the 12 month serum testing because they calculated this test as one year from the 6 month blood test hence the blood was taken at 18 months. Of those patients initiated on TDF with an eGFR < 50 ml/min/1.73m², only a few patients had a deterioration in renal function resulting in the discontinuation of TDF. Most likely this is because the majority had a reversible cause for the renal impairment, for example dehydration rather than actual renal disease.

Urine analysis is important to detect proximal renal tubular damage in patients on TDF as well as undiagnosed HIVAN, yet they were rarely performed in our clinic setting, again, possibly due to large volumes of clinic patients combined with staff shortages and limited ablution facilities. Fabian et al. showed that urinary abnormalities were common in HIV-infected, ART naïve outpatients and recommended that routine urinary screening of all new patients at ART clinics should be practiced (33). However, urine dipstick usage as a solitary screening tool is a topic with much debate, as research both locally and internationally suggests their poor validity in detecting proteinuria (20, 34).

A study conducted in South Africa by Han et al. showed that microalbuminuria alone could be an early marker for HIV associated nephropathy (HIVAN) (35). HIVAN is the most common histology seen on renal biopsy in South African patients (21, 22). HIVAN is commonly found in Black patients who seem to have a genetic predisposition for the disease (36) and Kasembelli et al. documented this finding in a South African cohort (37). Therefore, by deferring urine analysis, we may be missing an opportunity to detect early HIVAN in our predominantly Black high-risk cohort. The best method for urine screening is not known (6). Relying solely on serum creatinine levels and eGFR is inappropriate for this group of patients as HIVAN can occur with a normal renal function (35).

A strength of this study we feel is that we had a good sample size of 350 patients and a good representation of the profile of patients who are currently attending ART clinics across SA. The main limitation of the study would be that of missing data, for example the weight, height, blood pressures and baseline serum creatinine were not documented in some patients. Another limitation is that renal impairment that occurred between the data collection months was not captured therefore episodes of acute renal impairment were not ascertained. Lastly, we cannot comment on the diagnosis of those with persistent renal impairment at 24 months as renal biopsies were not done.

Conclusion

This study shows a low prevalence of baseline renal impairment among HIV-infected ART naïve outpatients and an improvement in renal function after the commencement of ART. This highlights the possibility of HIV being the likely cause of the renal impairment at baseline or that there is a beneficial effect of ART on early HIVAN. Caution should be exercised when excluding TDF as an option at initiation due to renal impairment as most patients have a reversible cause for the renal dysfunction which can be corrected before ART initiation. Ultimately, TDF as part of a fixed dose combination is a once daily dose which greatly improves adherence. Long-term outcomes of patients with HIV-related renal disease are not known. BMI has been associated with the development of renal impairment in an HIV-infected cohort. With the recently introduced universal access to ART in SA, we anticipate the affliction of chronic diseases and their complications including renal disease to increase. Therefore, prospective studies targeting patients with HIV-related renal disease are needed in South Africa. Research on the most cost-effective and accurate urine diagnostics are also needed to detect early renal disease. Urine microalbumin screening is not routinely practiced at ART clinics despite being found to be an early marker for HIVAN (35). We need to improve and reinforce optimal primary care in our clinics including regular BP monitoring, anthropometry and urine analysis. Lastly, we need to explore the influence of a high BMI in our HIV-infected patients and its link to CKD and other chronic diseases in order to promote a healthy lifestyle and dietician services as part of holistic management of our patients (an area often neglected in clinical practice).

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethical approval from KZN Department of Health and Ethical approval from UKZN BREC Ethics Committee

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Data Availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article and its supplementary information files.

Competing interests

None declared.

Funding

This study was funded by the University of KwaZulu-Natal, College of Health Sciences Research Scholarship.

Authors' contributions

SA, NPM and TPM-T conceptualised and designed the study. SA prepared the first draft. TPMT contributed in the synthesis of data and the design of the sifting and data extraction processes. TPMT and NPM assisted with the manuscript preparation. All authors reviewed draft versions of the manuscript and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the following institutions: College of Health Sciences and Library services at the University of KwaZulu-Natal for their support in providing us with resources to help with setting up and conducting this research study. We would also like to thank our data collector Sister Yeni for her services. This study was funded by the College of Health Sciences research scholarship.

Additional Files

APPENDIX E- Risk of Developing Renal Impairment over time

APPENDIX F- Followup of eGFR of patients with baseline renal impairment

APPENDIX G- Risk factors and co-morbidities associated with abnormal renal function

REFERENCES

- 1. UNAIDS. The Gap Report. Geneva, Switzerland: Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), 2014 17 November 2015. Report No.: Contract No.: 18 November.
- 2. Nel A, Mabude Z, Smit J, Kotze P, Arbuckle D, Wu J, et al. HIV Incidence Remains High in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa: Evidence from Three Districts. Plos One. 2012;7(4).
- 3. HIV/AIDS JUNPo, HIV/Aids JUNPo. 90-90-90: an ambitious treatment target to help end the AIDS epidemic. Geneva: UNAIDS. 2014.
- 4. Bhimma R, Adhikari M, Asharam K, Connolly C. The spectrum of chronic kidney disease (stages 2–5) in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Pediatric Nephrology. 2008;23(10):1841-6.
- 5. Young F, Critchley JA, Johnstone LK, Unwin NC. A review of co-morbidity between infectious and chronic disease in Sub Saharan Africa: TB and diabetes mellitus, HIV and metabolic syndrome, and the impact of globalization. Globalization and health. 2009;5(1):9.
- 6. Stanifer JW, Jing B, Tolan S, Helmke N, Mukerjee R, Naicker S, et al. The epidemiology of chronic kidney disease in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. The lancet global health. 2014;2(3):e174-e81.
- 7. Kalyesubula R, Perazella MA. Nephrotoxicity of HAART. AIDS research and treatment. 2011;2011.
- 8. Izzedine H, Harris M, Perazella MA. The nephrotoxic effects of HAART. Nature Reviews Nephrology. 2009;5(10):563-73.
- 9. Daugas E, Rougier J-P, Hill G. HAART-related nephropathies in HIV-infected patients. Kidney international. 2005;67(2):393-403.
- 10. Jafari A, Khalili H, Dashti-Khavidaki S. Tenofovir-induced nephrotoxicity: incidence, mechanism, risk factors, prognosis and proposed agents for prevention. European Journal of Clinical Pharmacology. 2014;70(9):1029-40.
- 11. Herlitz LC, Mohan S, Stokes MB, Radhakrishnan J, D'Agati VD, Markowitz GS. Tenofovir nephrotoxicity: acute tubular necrosis with distinctive clinical, pathological, and mitochondrial abnormalities. Kidney International. 2010;78(11):1171-7.
- 12. Brennan A, Evans D, Maskew M, Naicker S, Ive P, Sanne I, et al. Relationship between renal dysfunction, nephrotoxicity and death among HIV adults on tenofovir. AIDS (London, England). 2011;25(13):1603.
- 13. Health NDo. South African Antiretroviral Treatment Guidelines 2010. In: Health Do, editor. 2010.
- 14. Levey AS, Eckardt K-U, Tsukamoto Y, Levin A, Coresh J, Rossert J, et al. Definition and classification of chronic kidney disease: a position statement from Kidney Disease: Improving Global Outcomes (KDIGO). Kidney international. 2005;67(6):2089-398.
- 15. van Deventer HE, George JA, Paiker JE, Becker PJ, Katz IJ. Estimating glomerular filtration rate in black South Africans by use of the modification of diet in renal disease and Cockcroft-Gault equations. Clinical chemistry. 2008;54(7):1197-202.

- 16. Seedat YK, Rayner BL, Veriava Y. South African hypertension practice guideline 2014. Cardiovascular journal of Africa. 2014;25(6):288-94.
- 17. Bell K, Twiggs J, Olin BR, Date IR. Hypertension: The Silent Killer: Updated JNC-8 Guideline Recommendations. Alabama Pharmacy Association, Montgomery, Ala, USA; 2015.
- 18. Organization WH. Physical status: The use of and interpretation of anthropometry, Report of a WHO Expert Committee. 1995.
- 19. Kamkuemah M, Kaplan R, Bekker LG, Little F, Myer L. Renal impairment in HIV-infected patients initiating tenofovir-containing antiretroviral therapy regimens in a Primary Healthcare Setting in South Africa. Tropical medicine & international health: TM & IH. 2015;20(4):518-26.
- 20. Franey C, Knott D, Barnighausen T, Dedicoat M, Adam A, Lessells RJ, et al. Renal impairment in a rural African antiretroviral programme. BMC infectious diseases. 2009;9(1):143.
- 21. Fabian J, Naicker S, Goetsch S, Venter WD. The clinical and histological response of HIV-associated kidney disease to antiretroviral therapy in South Africans. Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association European Renal Association. 2013;28(6):1543-54.
- 22. Wearne N, Swanepoel CR, Boulle A, Duffield MS, Rayner BL. The spectrum of renal histologies seen in HIV with outcomes, prognostic indicators and clinical correlations. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2012;27(11):4109-18.
- 23. Reid A, Stohr W, Walker S, Ssali F, Munderi P, Gilks C, editors. on behalf of the DART trial. Glomerular dysfunction and associated risk factors following initiation of ART in adults with HIV infection in Africa. Fifth IAS Conference on HIV Pathogenesis, Treatment and Prevention; 2005.
- 24. Krawczyk CS, Holmberg SD, Moorman AC, Gardner LI, Gerald McGwin J, Group HOS. Factors associated with chronic renal failure in HIV-infected ambulatory patients. Aids. 2004;18(16):2171-8.
- 25. Ross MJ, Klotman PE. Recent progress in HIV-associated nephropathy. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. 2002;13(12):2997-3004.
- 26. Déti EK, Thiébaut R, Bonnet F, Lawson-Ayayi S, Dupon M, Neau D, et al. Prevalence and factors associated with renal impairment in HIV-infected patients, ANRS C03 Aquitaine Cohort, France. HIV medicine. 2010;11(5):308-17.
- 27. Reid A, Stöhr W, Walker AS, Williams IG, Kityo C, Hughes P, et al. Severe renal dysfunction and risk factors associated with renal impairment in HIV-infected adults in Africa initiating antiretroviral therapy. Clinical infectious diseases. 2008;46(8):1271-81.
- 28. Field AE, Coakley EH, Must A, Spadano JL, Laird N, Dietz WH, et al. Impact of overweight on the risk of developing common chronic diseases during a 10-year period. Archives of internal medicine. 2001;161(13):1581-6.
- 29. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, Izzo Jr JL, et al. The seventh report of the joint national committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure: the JNC 7 report. Jama. 2003;289(19):2560-71.

- 30. Cooper RD, Wiebe N, Smith N, Keiser P, Naicker S, Tonelli M. Systematic review and meta-analysis: renal safety of tenofovir disoproxil fumarate in HIV-infected patients. Clinical Infectious Diseases. 2010;51(5):496-505.
- 31. Elias A, Ijeoma O, Edikpo NJ, Oputiri D, Geoffrey O-BP. Tenofovir Renal Toxicity: Evaluation of Cohorts and Clinical Studies—Part 2. Pharmacology & Pharmacy. 2014;2014.
- 32. Health NDo. South African Antiretroviral Treatment Guidelines. In: Health NDo, editor. 2015.
- 33. Fabian J, Naicker S, Venter WD, Baker L, Naidoo S, Paget G, et al. Urinary screening abnormalities in antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected outpatients and implications for management--a single-center study in South Africa. Ethnicity & disease. 2009;19(1):80.
- 34. Siedner MJ, Atta MG, Lucas GM, Perazella MA, Fine DM. Poor validity of urine dipstick as a screening tool for proteinuria in HIV-positive patients. JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes. 2008;47(2):261-3.
- 35. Han T, Naicker S, Ramdial P, Assounga A. A cross-sectional study of HIV-seropositive patients with varying degrees of proteinuria in South Africa. Kidney international. 2006;69(12):2243-50.
- 36. D'Agati V, Appel GB. HIV infection and the kidney. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology. 1997;8(1):138-52.
- 37. Kasembeli AN, Duarte R, Ramsay M, Mosiane P, Dickens C, Dix-Peek T, et al. APOL1 Risk Variants Are Strongly Associated with HIV-Associated Nephropathy in Black South Africans. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology: JASN. 2015.

CHAPTER 4: SYNTHESIS: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of our research findings, and assesses the strengths and limitations of this study. It also presents the conclusions, recommendations for improvement of existing services and offers suggestions for further research.

4.1 Background

The main aim of this study is to portray the current stance on the renal manifestations of HIV in SA in the era of ART. The significance of this study cannot be denied as South Africa carries the global burden of HIV infection and the rollout of ART has now been extended to all HIV infected individuals irrespective of CD4 count or clinical stage (1). As early as 2010, a South African study demonstrated an increase in the prevalence of CKD in HIV-infected individuals (2). We anticipate the domino effect of universal ART access to be further increases in the prevalence of CKD as well as HIV-related kidney diseases as HIV transforms into a disease of chronicity.

Recently, there has been an upsurge of research and publications on the topic (3-8), therefore the contribution of a systematic scoping review gains importance and relevance by demonstrating the current data in order to identify research gaps and suggest novel ideas for future research. The retrospective chart review gives an overview of what is being practised at an HIV clinic as well as a description of the presentation of renal impairment in an HIV cohort. Comparing these findings with that of the systematic scoping review, will unravel areas where research is lacking as well as indicate domains in clinical practice that need improvement or refinement. Ultimately, the conclusions drawn will benefit the millions living with HIV in SA and particularly those with renal disease.

4.2 Key Findings of the Study

The research questions needed answers on the gaps in research on HIV-related renal diseases in SA and the current volume of HIV-related renal manifestations reported in SA. Our study shared similarities with other studies demonstrating that the prevalence of baseline renal impairment in HIV-infected patients is low (8-10) and that renal function improves with ART (5, 11). However, the long-term effects of ART on renal disease is not known and the morbidity and mortality of those with CKD and HIV-related renal disease is not well documented. HIV cohorts in SA comprise mainly Black individuals who are at high risk for developing HIVAN due to a possible genetic predisposition to the disease (12). HIVAN was also the most common histological finding on renal biopsy (5, 11). HIVAN can occur with only microalbuminuria and a normal renal function (4). Therefore, urine dipstick analysis is essential for the early detection of renal impairment. The best method for urine protein detection is not known. However, as revealed by the chart review, urine analysis is rarely performed at

a clinic level; therefore we could be missing patients with undiagnosed renal disease. We do not know the actual prevalence or incidence of HIV-related kidney diseases and CKD in SA. We believe that our chart review was the first South African study to link a high BMI as a risk factor for renal impairment.

4.3 Strengths of the study

The systematic scoping review focussed on studies carried out in South Africa, a hyper-HIV burdened country. The strength of a systematic scoping review is undoubtedly its rigorous methodology. This included parallel screening of abstracts and full articles by two screeners and methodology quality assessment of included studies. Kappa statistics was employed to estimate the degree of agreement among screeners. The study team utilised Arksey and O'Malley's scoping review framework (13) and adapted it to suit the study based on recommendations made by Levac et al. in 2010 (14). This framework was best suited to answer the research questions as it involved 'mapping', a process that summarises a range of evidence to convey the breadth and depth of the research topic (14). It is systematic, transparent and replicable (15). This type of review is advantageous in that it provides a preliminary assessment of the potential size and scope of available research literature on a particular topic and identifies the nature and extent of research evidence (15). Ultimately, it is able to inform researchers if a full systematic review or primary research study should be undertaken (15). Even though renal function improves with ART, the long-term outcomes of renal disease for patients on ART is not well documented.

In order to ensure eligibility of the research question for this research method, the team formulated a data extraction table based on the PICO model (16). Bias was reduced throughout the scoping review process. Screening of literature was conducted by two independent researchers with a third for resolving discrepancies. In addition, all included studies were assessed for quality by use of the tried and tested mixed methods appraisal tool (17). Systematic reviews form part of evidence-based medicine (EBM) research methods, considered the gold standard of study design and which perch at the very top of the hierarchy of the evidence pyramid (18, 19).

The main strength of the retrospective chart review is that is utilises secondary data, that is data that has already been already collected for purposes other than research. This is advantageous as the data is readily accessible, economical, improves understanding of the problem and provides a basis for comparison of the data collected. A representative sample size of 350 medical records of patients attending the ART clinic in eThekwini, KwaZulu-Natal was used. The data was obtained from a high HIV pandemic region, eThekwini, KwaZulu-Natal is known as the epicentre of the HIV epidemic. The demographic profile of the study cohort is representative of other ART clinics across South Africa. Overall, the results of the chart review will impact and improve patient care as they unravel errors in clinical practice and adverse events (20).

4.4 Limitations of the study

Overall, the study has made significant findings. Nonetheless, there are some limitations that must be acknowledged. Most of the evidence obtained from the scoping review was derived from observational studies. Even though observational studies are an important source of data when randomised controlled trials are unavailable, they are prone to bias (21).

With regards to the retrospective chart review, there are a few limitations. Firstly one of the unavoidable limitation is that of missing data from the clinic charts. For example the weight, height, blood pressure, urine dipstick and baseline serum creatinine were not documented in some patients at the various data collection times. Episodes of acute renal failure that may have occurred between the data collection points were not documented. Though this missing data was not substantial it could possibly influence the results obtained. Lastly, we cannot distinguish between or account for the incidence of TDF nephrotoxicity versus HIV nephropathy at 24 months, as the study did not document renal biopsy or ultrasound findings in the cohort.

4.5 Conclusions

This study demonstrates the current stance on the renal manifestations of HIV in the era of ART in South Africa and illustrates the deficiencies in knowledge and their implications for the future. The findings of the study are in keeping with that of international literature. Universal access to ART for all HIV-infected South Africans will likely result in an increase in chronic diseases namely HIV, HPT, CKD and diabetes. The impact on the current health infrastructure that this strategy will have is unknown. There is a shortfall in knowledge and statistics on the incidence and prevalence of CKD, HIV-related renal diseases and ART related nephrotoxicity in SA currently. Furthermore, there is a deficiency in evidence on the long-term morbidity and mortality of HIV-infected patients with renal disease. This information is imperative to assist policymakers in management decisions as well as enhancing the health infrastructure to support patients with CKD. There is a lack of dedicated CKD clinics and specialist renal services particularly in the rural settings (22) as well as a shortage of nephrologists in SA (23). Though urine diagnostics are vital for the early detection of renal disease, it is not being routinely performed. The current South African ART guidelines also make no clear guidance on exactly when and how this test should be performed.

4.6 Recommendations

Based on the study conclusions, the following recommendations are suggested:

 Renal registries should be established which will assist with much needed statistics on the morbidity and mortality of both HIV-related and non-related renal disease as well as ART nephrotoxicity.

- 2. The National Department of Health should establish CKD clinics in rural areas and nephrology outreach services.
- 3. Clear guidelines for the use of urine dipstick analysis as routine screening for all patients attending ART clinics should be included in the National ART guidelines. The recommendation is for urine dipstick analysis at baseline, 3 months and 6 monthly thereafter.
- 4. Patients and clinical staff should be educated (and therefore empowered) about the importance of urine dipstick analysis, BP and glucose monitoring and anthropometry, which will ensure these routine screening tests are regularly performed in overburdened facilities.
- 5. Training on adherence to guidelines.

4.7 Dissemination of Research

Based on the study findings and the flaws detected by the chart review regarding poor adherence to ART guidelines, we recommend training all clinic staff timeously about ART guidelines and routine checks that must be performed at clinic visits. The conclusions from our research will be shared with the hospital management as well as the Provincial Department of Health. Both manuscripts will be published in reputable journals to further disseminate information.

4.8 Future Studies

Based on the study findings, the following areas of research are recommended:

- 1. More research to be carried out in rural areas where access to healthcare and laboratories is not easily accessible.
- 2. Comparative studies to determine the differences in renal manifestations between HIV infected males and females, preferably in rural settings, are recommended. More males must be recruited to participate in research.
- 3. Research into cost effective methods for urine screening microalbuminuria versus proteinuria as well as the development of an algorithm for screening and confirming proteinuria.
- 4. Comparative studies looking at microalbuminuria versus proteinuria on urine dipstick analysis as a more cost effective and accessible marker for early HIVAN.
- 5. A prospective randomised controlled trial investigating diagnosis options for HIVAN.
- 6. Cohort study focussing on TDF nephrotoxicity and its long term renal outcomes.
- 7. A survey to determine the prevalence of renal disease and HIV-related renal disease in South Africa in order to strengthen primary healthcare services to reduce the burden of CKD.
- 8. A cohort study to determine the link between high BMI and renal impairment (to confirm the findings of our study) vicious circle as it contributes to other chronic disease which are also risk factors for CKD.
- 9. Prospective study regarding the use of TDF in a patient with proteinuria. Should TDF be avoided?

REFERENCES

- 1. HIV/AIDS JUNPo, HIV/Aids JUNPo. 90-90-90: an ambitious treatment target to help end the AIDS epidemic. Geneva: UNAIDS. 2014.
- 2. Arendse CG, Wearne N, Okpechi IG, Swanepoel CR. The acute, the chronic and the news of HIV-related renal disease in Africa. Kidney international. 2010;78(3):239-45.
- 3. Cohen SD, Kimmel PL. HIV-associated renal diseases in Africa—a desperate need for additional study. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2007;22(8):2116-9.
- 4. Han T, Naicker S, Ramdial P, Assounga A. A cross-sectional study of HIV-seropositive patients with varying degrees of proteinuria in South Africa. Kidney international. 2006;69(12):2243-50.
- 5. Fabian J, Naicker S, Goetsch S, Venter WD. The clinical and histological response of HIV-associated kidney disease to antiretroviral therapy in South Africans. Nephrology, dialysis, transplantation: official publication of the European Dialysis and Transplant Association European Renal Association. 2013;28(6):1543-54.
- 6. Fabian J, Naicker S, Venter WD, Baker L, Naidoo S, Paget G, et al. Urinary screening abnormalities in antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected outpatients and implications for management--a single-center study in South Africa. Ethnicity & disease. 2009;19(1):80.
- 7. Gerntholtz TE, Goetsch SJW, Katz I. HIV-related nephropathy: A South African perspective. Kidney International. 2006;69(10):1885-91.
- 8. Kamkuemah M, Kaplan R, Bekker LG, Little F, Myer L. Renal impairment in HIV-infected patients initiating tenofovir-containing antiretroviral therapy regimens in a Primary Healthcare Setting in South Africa. Tropical medicine & international health: TM & IH. 2015;20(4):518-26.
- 9. Brennan A, Evans D, Maskew M, Naicker S, Ive P, Sanne I, et al. Relationship between renal dysfunction, nephrotoxicity and death among HIV adults on tenofovir. AIDS (London, England). 2011;25(13):1603.
- 10. Franey C, Knott D, Barnighausen T, Dedicoat M, Adam A, Lessells RJ, et al. Renal impairment in a rural African antiretroviral programme. BMC infectious diseases. 2009;9(1):143.
- 11. Wearne N, Swanepoel CR, Boulle A, Duffield MS, Rayner BL. The spectrum of renal histologies seen in HIV with outcomes, prognostic indicators and clinical correlations. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation. 2012;27(11):4109-18.
- 12. Kasembeli AN, Duarte R, Ramsay M, Mosiane P, Dickens C, Dix-Peek T, et al. APOL1 Risk Variants Are Strongly Associated with HIV-Associated Nephropathy in Black South Africans. Journal of the American Society of Nephrology: JASN. 2015.
- 13. Arksey H, O'Malley L. Scoping studies: towards a methodological framework. International journal of social research methodology. 2005;8(1):19-32.
- 14. Levac D, Colquhoun H, O'Brien KK. Scoping studies: advancing the methodology. Implementation Science. 2010;5(1):69.
- 15. Grant MJ, Booth A. A typology of reviews: an analysis of 14 review types and associated methodologies. Health Information & Libraries Journal. 2009;26(2):91-108.

- 16. Higgins J. Green S. Cochrane handbook for systematic reviews of interventions. Version 5.1. 0. The Cochrane Collaboration; 2011. 2013.
- 17. Pluye P, Robert, E., Cargo, M., Bartlett, G., O'Cathain, A., Griffiths, F., Boardman, F., Gagnon, M.P., & Rousseau, M.C. (2011). Proposal: A mixed methods appraisal tool for systematic mixed studies, http://www.webcitation.org/5tTRTc9yJ rRodfhmpcAbWa.
- 18. Hoppe DJ, Schemitsch EH, Morshed S, Tornetta P, Bhandari M. Hierarchy of evidence: where observational studies fit in and why we need them. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2009;91(Supplement 3):2-9.
- 19. Sackett DL, Rosenberg WM, Gray JM, Haynes RB, Richardson WS. Evidence based medicine. BMJ: British Medical Journal. 1996;313(7050):170.
- 20. Brennan TA, Leape LL, Laird NM, Hebert L, Localio AR, Lawthers AG, et al. Incidence of adverse events and negligence in hospitalized patients: results of the Harvard Medical Practice Study I. New England journal of medicine. 1991;324(6):370-6.
- 21. Manchikanti L, Datta S, Smith HS, Hirsch JA. Evidence-based medicine, systematic reviews, and guidelines in interventional pain management: part 6. Systematic reviews and meta-analyses of observational studies. Pain physician. 2008;12(5):819-50.
- 22. Madala ND, Thusi GP, Assounga AG, Naicker S. Characteristics of South African patients presenting with kidney disease in rural KwaZulu-Natal: a cross sectional study. BMC nephrology. 2014;15(1):61.
- 23. Katz IJ, Gerntholtz T, Naicker S. Africa and nephrology: the forgotten continent. Nephron Clinical Practice. 2011;117(4):320-7.

APPENDICES

APPENDICES: SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

APPENDIX A- Ethical approval from KZN Department of Health	87
APPENDIX B- Ethical approval from UKZN BREC Committee	88
APPENDIX C- List of studies included for full article screening and reviewers' responses	89
APPENDIX D- Quality Assessment Tool	91
APPENDIX E- Risk of Developing Renal Impairment over time	100
APPENDIX F- Follow-up of eGFR of patients with baseline renal impairment	101
APPENDIX G- Risk Factors and Co-morbidities associated with abnormal renal function	106

A.1 APPENDIX A- Ethical approval from KZN Department of Health



DIRECTORATE:

Physical Address: 330 Langalibalele Street, Pietermaritburg Postal Address: Private Bag X9051 Tel: 033 395 | 2805/ 3189/ 3123 | Fax: 033 394 3782

Health Research & Knowledge Management

Reference: 32/16 KZ_2015RP25_189

Date: 23 February 2016

Dear Dr S. Assaram

Email:

Approval of research

1. The research proposal titled 'Renal manifestations of HIV in the era of ART in South Africa' was reviewed by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health.

The proposal is hereby approved for research to be undertaken at King Edward VIII Hospital.

- 2. You are requested to take note of the following:
 - a. Make the necessary arrangement with the dentified facility before commencing with your research project.
 - b. Provide an interim progress report and final report (electronic and hard copies) when your research is complete.
- 3. Your final report must be posted to HEALTH RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT, 10-102, PRIVATE BAG X9051, PIETERMARITZBURG, 3200 and e-mail an electronic copy to hrkm@kznhealth.gov.za

For any additional information please contact Mr X. Xaba on 033-395 2805.

Yours Sincerely

Chairperson. Health Research Committee

Date: 23/04/b.

Fighting Disease, Fighting Poverty, Giving Hope

A.2 APPENDIX B- Ethical approval from UKZN BREC Ethics Committee



MESEARCH OFFICE
BIOMEDICAL RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION
GOVAN MEMORY BURGLING
Private Seg X 54001
Purtual
4000
Type (with Here), SOUTH I FROM
THE TIME AND THE TIME TO THE T

Telecules Hansi, SOUTH LAF BICA Tele 27 34 2004/789 - Part 27 31 260-4409 Email: <u>Especial Especial Control of Control of</u>

13 March 2017

Dr A Assaram (993210127) Discipline of Medicine School of Clinical Medicine shiretleassaram@gmail.com

Protocol: Renal manifestation of human immunodeficiency virus in the era of antiretroviral

therapy in South Africa.

Degree: MMedSc

BREC reference number: BE486/15

RECERTIFICATION APPLICATION APPROVAL NOTICE

Approved: 28 February 2017 Expiration of Ethical Approval: 27 February 2018

I wish to advise you that your application for Recertification dated 28 February 2017 for the above protocol has been noted and approved by a sub-committee of the Biomedical Research Ethics Committee (BREC) for another approval period. The start and end dates of this period are indicated above.

If any modifications or adverse events occur in the project before your next scheduled review, you must submit them to BREC for review. Except in emergency situations, no change to the protocol may be implemented until you have received written BREC approval for the change.

The approval will be ratified by the full Committee at a meeting to be held on 11 April 2017.

Yours sincerely

Mrs A Marimuthu

Senior Administrator; Biomedical Research Ethics

A.3 APPENDIX C- List of studies included for full article screening and reviewers' responses

Author and Date	Response: Reviewer 1	Response: Reviewer 2
Arendse et al., 2011	No	No
Brennan et al., 2011	No	Yes
Fabian et al., 2009	Yes	Yes
Fabian et al., 2013	Yes	Yes
Fabian et al., 2015	No	Yes
Franey et al., 2009	Yes	Yes
Kamkuemah, 2013	Yes	Yes
Kamkuemah et al., 2015	Yes	Yes
Kasembelli et al., 2015	Yes	Yes
Madala et al., 2014	No	Yes
Okpechi et al., 2010	No	No
Stanifer et al., 2014	No	No
Vachiat et al., 2013	Yes	Yes
Van Deventer et al., 2008	Yes	Yes
Wearne et al., 2012	Yes	Yes
Wensink et al., 2015	Yes	No
Gerntholz et al., 2006	No	No
Han et al., 2006	No	No
Okpechi et al., 2010	No	No
Van Rensburg et al., 2009	No	No
Madala et al., 2012	No	No

Expected

Agreement Agreement Kappa Std. Err. Z Prob>Z

80.95% 49.66% 0.6216 0.2143 2.90 0.0019

| Controls |

Total | 12 9 | 21

McNemar's chi2(1) = 1.00 Prob > chi2 = 0.3173

Exact McNemar significance probability = 0.6250

Proportion with factor

Cases .4761905

Controls .5714286 [95% Conf. Interval]

difference -.0952381 -.3250218 .1345456

ratio .8333333 .5826548 1.191863

rel. diff. -.2222222 -.7037382 .2592937

odds ratio .3333333 .0063495 4.151441 (exact

A.4 APPENDIX D- Quality assessment tool

Re	Aut	Qu	Ad	Qu	Α	Que	Ad	Qu	Α	Q	Α	Ques	Ad	Que	Ad	Questi	Α	Qu	Ad	Qu	Α	Qu	Α	Que	Α	Que	Ad	Qu	Add
vie	hor	esti	d	esti	dd	stio	d	esti	dd	ue	dd	tion	d	stio	d	on 8:	dd	est	d	est	dd	esti	dd	stio	dd	stio	d	est	comm
we	and	on	со	on	со	n 3:	со	on	co	sti	co	6: Is	co	n 7:	со	Are	со	ion	со	ion	co	on	co	n	co	n	со	io	ent to
rs	dat	1:	m	2:	m	Is	m	4:	m	on	m	ther	m	Are	m	measu	m	9:	m	10:	m	11:	m	12:	m	13:	m	n	questi
	e	Are	me	Do	m	ther	me	Is	m	5:	m	e	m	part	me	remen	m	In	m	Ar	m	Is	m	Is	m	Are	m	14	on 14
		the	nt	the	en	e a	nts	the	en	Ar	en	low	en	icip	nts	ts	en	the	en	e	en	the	en	the	en	mea	en	: Is	
		re	for	coll	t	clea	for	re	t	e	t	with	ts	ants	to	appro	t	gro	ts	the	t	sa	t	sam	t	sur	ts	th	
		cle	qu	ect	fo	r	qu	a	fo	th	to	draw	to	(org	qu	priate	to	up	to	re	to	mp	to	ple	to	eme	on	er	
		ar	est	ed	r	des	est	cle	r	er	qu	al/dr	qu	aniz	est	(clear	qu	S	qu	со	qu	ling	qu	rep	qu	nts	qu	e	
		qu	ion	dat	qu	crip	ion	ar	qu	e	es	op-	est	atio	ion	origin,	es	bei	est	mp	es	str	es	res	es	app	est	an	
		alit	1	a	es	tion	3	des	es	co	tio	out	io	ns)	7	or	tio	ng	io	let	tio	ate	tio	ent	tio	rop	io	ac	
		ati		allo	tio	of		cri	tio	m	n	(belo	n	recr		validit	n	со	n	e	n	gy	n	ativ	n	riat	n	ce	
		ve		W	n	the		pti	n	pl	5	W	6	uite		у	8	mp	9	ou	10	rel	11	e of	12	e	13	pt	
		an		add	2	ran		on	4	et		20%		d in		know		are		tco		eva		the		(cle		ab	
		d		res		do		of		e)?		а		n, or		d		me		nt		pop		ar		le	
		qu		S		miz		the		ou				way		stand		(ex		dat		to		ulat		orig		re	
		ant		the		atio		allo		tc				that		ard		pos		a		add		ion		in,		sp	
		itat		res		n		cati		0				min		instru		ed		(8		res		und		or		on	
		ive		ear		(or		on		m				imiz		ment;		VS.		0		S		erst		vali		se	
		res		ch		an		con		e				es		and		No		%		the		udy		dity		rat	
		ear		que		app		cea		da				sele		absen		n-		or		qua		?		kno		e	
		ch		stio		rop		lm		ta				ctio		ce of		exp		ab		ntit				wn,		(6	
		qu		n		riat		ent		(8				n		conta		ose		ov		ati				or		0	
		esti		(ob		e		(or		0				bias		minati		d;		e),		ve				stan		%	
		ons		ject		seq		bli		%				?		on		wit		an		res				dar		or	
		(or		ive)		uen		ndi		or						betwe		h		d,		ear				d		ab	
		obj		?		ce		ng		ab						en		int		wh		ch				inst		ov	
		ect		E.g.		gen		wh		ov						group		erv		en		que				rum		e)?	
		ive		,		erat		en		e)						S		ent		ap		stio				ent)			
		s*),		con		ion)		ap		?						when		ion		pli		n				?			
		or		sid		?		plic								appro		VS.		ca		(qu							
		a		er				abl								priate		Wi		ble		ant							
		cle		wh				e)?								J		tho		,		itat							
		ar		eth												regar		ut;		an		ive							
		mi	l	er			1						l	1	l	ding		cas		acc		asp			l		1		

	xed	the							the	es		ept	ec						
1	me	foll							expos	vs.		abl	of	-					
1	tho	ow-							ure/in	Co		e	th	ie					
	ds	up							terven	ntr	1	res	m	ix					
	qu	per							tion	ols		po	ec	i					
	esti	iod							and),		ns	m	e					
	on	is							outco	are		e	th						
	(or	lon							mes?	the		rat	ds						
	obj	g								par		e		ıe					
	ect	eno								tici		(6	st						
	ive	ugh								pa		0	n)						
	*)?	for								nts		%	11)	,.					
)·	the								co		or							
		out								mp		ab							
		co								ara ble,		ov							
		me										e),							
		to								or		or							
		осс								do		an							
		ur								res		acc							
		(for								ear		ept							
		lon								che		abl							
		gitu								rs		e							
		din								tak	1	foll							
		al								e		ow							
		stu								int		-							
		die								0	1	up							
		s or								acc	1	rat							
		stu								ou		e							
		dy								nt	1	for							
		co								(co		со							
		mp								ntr]	ho							
		one								ol	1	rt							
		nts								for		stu							
).)		die							
										the		s							
										diff		(d							
										ere		ep							
										nce		en							
										bet		din							
										we		g							
										en		on							
							l	i l		CII	1 '	011			1	1	1	1	

													the se gro up s?		the du rat ion of foll ow - up)?							
1	BR EN NA N 201	Yes	Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E	Yes	Yes	No	EX CL UD IN G PT S CA N IN TR OD UC E BI AS	Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	No	S M A LL SA M PL E SI ZE	Yes	Ye s		
2	BR EN NA N 201	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	Ye s	1 8	
1	FA BIA N 200 9	Yes	Yes	N/A	AL L NE W PT S	N/ A	N O T D O U	Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L	Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s		

					SC RE EN ED		BL E BL IN D E							GR O UP								
2	FA BIA N 200 9	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes		No	Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s	2 0	
1	FA BIA N 201 3	Yes	Yes	N/A	Ca se ser ies	N/ A	N ot do ub le bli nd ed	Ye s	No	Ra te 25 .9 %	No	Yes	N/ A	No co nt rol gr ou p	Ye s	Yes	No	S m all sa m pl e si ze	Yes	Ye s		
2	FA BIA N 201	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	No		No	Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	Ye s	1 6	
1	FR AN EY 200 9	Yes	Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN	Ye s	Yes		No	Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s		

								E D																
2	FR AN EY 200 9	Yes		Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes		No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s	2 0	
1	KA MK UE MA H 201	Yes		Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E	Ye s	No	RA TE 22 %	No	PR ON E TO SE LE CTI ON BI AS	Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s		
2	KA MK UE MA H 201	Yes		Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	No		No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	Yes		Yes	Ye s	1 8	
1	KA SE MB ELI 201 5	Yes		Yes	No		N/ A		Ye s	Yes		No		Yes	No		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A		
2	Kas em beli	Yes	Qu ant	Yes	No		N/ A	Th is is	Ye s	Yes		No	Co ntr ol	Yes	No	Co nt rol	Ye s	Yes	No	St ud y	Yes	N/ A	1 6	

	, 201 5		itat					a ca se co nt ro l st ud y				gro up pre su me d 'He alt hy" - ren al fun cti on not ass ess ed			gr ou p pr es u m ed he alt hy. So m e pt s on AR T an d ot he rs na ive				la ck ed su ffi ci en t nu m be rs			
1	MA DA LA 201 4	Yes		Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E	Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	No	S M A LL SA M PL E SI ZE	Yes	Ye s	

2	MA DA LA 201	Yes	Yes	No		N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	Ye s	1 8	
1	VA CHI AT 201 3	Yes	Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E	Ye s	Yes	No	NO T ID EA LL Y MA TC HE D	Yes	No	N OT ID EA LL Y M AT CH ED	Ye s	Yes	No	S M A LL SA M PL E SI ZE	Yes	Ye s		
2	VA CHI AT 201	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	No		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	Ye s	1 8	
1	VA N DE VE NT ER 200	Yes	Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E	Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	No	S M A LL SA M PL E SI ZE	Yes	Ye s		

2	VA N DE VE NT ER 200	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No	Yes	Ye s	1 8	
1	WE AR NE 201 2	Yes	Yes	N/A		N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	Yes	Yes	Ye s		
2	WE AR NE 201 2	Yes	Yes	N/A	CA SE SE RI ES	N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D E D	Ye s	Yes	No		Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	Yes	Yes	Ye s	2 0	
1	WE NSI NK 201 5	Yes	Yes	No		N/ A	N O T D O U BL E BL IN D	Ye s	Yes	No	RA ND OM SE LE CTI ON	Yes	N/ A	N O CO NT RO L GR O UP	Ye s	Yes	Yes	Yes	Ye s		

						E D												
2	WE NSI NK 201	Yes	Yes	No	N/ A		Ye s	Yes	No	Yes	N/ A	Ye s	Yes	Yes	Yes	Ye s	2 0	
			22				22	18		22		22	22	10	22	20		

A.5 APPENDIX E- Risk of Developing Renal Impairment over time

Generalized linear models No. of obs = 973

Optimization : MQL Fisher scoring Residual df = 968

(IRLS EIM) Scale parameter = 1

Deviance = 401.4853798 (1/df) Deviance = .4147576

Pearson = 972.9991345 (1/df) Pearson = 1.005164

Variance function: $V(u) = u^*(1-u/1)$ [Binomial]

Link function : g(u) = ln(u) [Log]

BIC = -6258.726

(Std. Err. adjusted for 348 clusters in STUDYNO)

Semirobust

GFR_binary | Risk Ratio Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]

------+-----+

time |

6 months | .1820932 .1277103 -2.43 0.015 .0460582 .7199133

12 months | .4393359 .1536724 -2.35 0.019 .2213403 .8720329

18 months | .2824302 .1451236 -2.46 0.014 .1031646 .7731993

24 months | .5142902 .1508526 -2.27 0.023 .2894223 .9138699

-

_cons | .0963455 .0170317 -13.24 0.000 .0681331 .1362401

A.6 APPENDIX F- Followup of eGFR of patients with baseline renal impairment

FILE		BASELINE	6MONTHS	12MONTHS	18MONTHS	24MONTHS
49/11	eGFR	54.79	Nd	>60	Nd	Nd
72yrs				75.04		
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 27.1						
205/11	eGFR	56.81	>60	>60	>60	>60
53yrs			78.51	69.05	60.68	60.68
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 28.7						
568/10	eGFR	49.00	nd	nd	nd	>60
51yrs						86.41
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi nd						
275/11	eGFR	50.46	Nd	Nd	>60	Nd
32yrs					124.02	
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 28.1						
371/11	eGFR	59.42	Nd	>60	>60	nd
36yrs				105.45	108.88	
Male, TB	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi nd						
567/11	eGFR	46.13	nd	nd	>60	40.61
59yrs					63.40	
Male	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 21.3						
578/11	eGFR	58.00	Nd	47.40	Nd	44.95

51yrs						
Female,	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
TB	AKI	TDI',51C,EI'V				
34.60						
587/11	eGFR	38.45	nd	>60	nd	>60
	eGrk	36.43	na		na	
56yrs				78.97		72.68
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 46.5						
788/11	eGFR	51.65	nd	nd	>60	Nd
40yrs					154.48	
Male	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
	AKI	TDF,51C,EFV				
Bmi 27						
1033/11	eGFR	47.95	nd	>60	nd	Nd
60yrs				90.18		
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi						
37.8						
1111/11	eGFR	52.59	>60	>60	>60	>60
36yrs			86.38	82.12	70.40	68.42
Female						
	ADT	TDF,3TC,NVP	TDF,3TC,EFV			
Bmi 26.4	ART	IDF,31C,NVP	IDF,31C,EFV			
1145/11	eGFR	57.81	nd	>60	>60	>60
50yrs				63.45	62.11	72.79
Male	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi						
20.7						
819/10	eGFR	3.68	4.01	nd	LTFU	LTFU
33yrs						
Male,	ART	ABC,3TC,EFV				
HPT						
	1	1	1	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

Bmi						
22.5						
51/12	eGFR	20.63	59.23	11.88	34.26	34.83
46yrs						
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV			ABC,3TC,EFV	
Bmi						
46.1						
150/12	eGFR	53.98	nd	>60	>60	Nd
42yrs				73.50	79.59	
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,NVP			AZT,3TC,Aluvia	
Bmi 27.0						
	CED	14.17	1	1	I (DELL	15.70
341/12	eGFR	14.17	nd	nd	LTFU	15.78
51yrs						
Male	ART	AZT,3TC,EFV	ABC,3TC,EFV			
Bmi						
32.3						
346/12	eGFR	25.33	nd	54.25	Nd	43,82
49yrs						
Male,	ART	ABC,3TC,EFV				
TB						
Bmi 25.1						
416/12	eGFR	51.18	nd	>60	Nd	>60
46yrs				71.06		80.80
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				FDC
Bmi						
45.6						
475/12	eGFR	37.98	nd	>60	Nd	>60
30yrs				83.84		117.48
Female,	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV			FDC	
TB						

Bmi						1
14.6						
843/12	eGFR	58.80	nd	>60	Nd	58.07
42yrs				61.12		
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV		FDC		
	AKI	IDF,51C,EFV		FDC		
Bmi 38.1						
431/12	eGFR	19.82	>60	nd	>60	>60
69yrs			77.02		71.96	73.17
Female, TB	ART	ABC,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 52.8						
476/12	eGFR	14.49	nd	>60	nd	>60
30yrs				83.84		101.81
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 14.6						
600/12	eGFR	49.38	nd	>60	nd	>60
44yrs				106.38		85.89
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				FDC
Bmi 42.5						
1039/10	eGFR	39.70	nd	nd	>60	>60
40yrs					69.91	76.59
Female	ART	AZT,3TC,NVP				
Bmi 24.8						
1266/10	eGFR	24.22	nd	24.82	nd	nd
49yrs						
Female, TB	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV			ABC,3TC,EFV	

Bmi 37.4						
1273/10	eGFR	51.55	LTFU	LTFU	LTFU	nd
47yrs						
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 47.5						
494/10	eGFR	50.48	nd	>60	nd	>60
26yrs				100.92		77.43
Female	ART	D4T,3TC,EFV		D4T,3TC,NVP		
Bmi 22.8						
1336/10	eGFR	56.99	nd	>60	nd	6.90
49yrs				99.80		
Female	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 21.3						
1339/10	eGFR	6.24	>60	nd	nd	>60
25yrs			110.06			125.36
Male, TB	ART	TDF,3TC,EFV				
Bmi 19.4						
Nal sastal					lumana indau ITEU	

Nd – not done, ART – antiretroviral treatment, TB – tuberculosis, BMI – body mass index, LTFU – lost to follow up, FDC – fixed dose combination

A.7 APPENDIX G- Risk factors and co-morbidities associated with abnormal renal function

```
Generalized linear models
                    No. of obs = 972
Optimization : MQL Fisher scoring
                               Residual df = 963
       (IRLS EIM) Scale parameter = 1
Deviance = 353.6712349
                           (1/df) Deviance = .3672598
Pearson = 991.4235583 (1/df) Pearson = 1.029516
Variance function: V(u) = u^*(1-u/1) [Binomial]
Link function : g(u) = In(u) [Log]
                    BIC = -6271.148
           (Std. Err. adjusted for 348 clusters in STUDYNO)
     Semirobust
GFR_binary | Risk Ratio Std. Err. z P>|z| [95% Conf. Interval]
-----+-----+------
   time |
 6 months | .1905768 .133623 -2.36 0.018 .0482225 .7531656
12 months | .4020471 .1349437 -2.71 0.007 .2082468 .7762033
18 months | .2356236 .1224814 -2.78 0.005 .0850646 .6526627
24 months | .4218433 .1191978 -3.05 0.002 .2424556 .7339563
    BMI | 1.060231 .0130867 4.74 0.000 1.03489 1.086194
    HPT |
   agegroup |
```

```
2 | 2.512881 1.519828 1.52 0.128 .767985 8.22226
3 | 6.822283 4.45519 2.94 0.003 1.896991 24.53546
|
_cons | .0066735 .0045581 -7.33 0.000 .0017497 .0254532
```