

(UNIKIN), Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)

²University Institute of Sciences and Technologies of Abéché, Abéché, Tchad

Journal of HIV and AIDS

Research Article

Volume: 1.1

ISSN 2380-5536

Received date: 18 March, 2015; Accepted date: 16 April, 2015; Published date: 21 April, 2015.

Open Access

Citation: Kamangu EN, Chatte A, Susin F, Boreux R, Kalala RL, et al. (2015) Genetic Diversity and Antiretroviral Drug Resistance among Drug-Naïve HIV Type 1 Infected Patients attending Clinics in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. J HIV AIDS Volume1.1: http://dx.doi.org/10.16966/2380-5536.101

Copyright: © 2015 Kamangu EN et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

³AIDS Réference Laboratory (ARL), Centre Hospitalier Universitaire-Université de Liège (CHU-Lg), Liège, Belgique

⁴Clinical MicrobiologyLaboratory, Centre Hospitalier Universitaire-Université de Liège (CHU-Lg), Liège, Belgique

Genetic Diversity and Antiretroviral Drug Resistance

among Drug-Naïve HIV Type 1 Infected Patients

attending Clinics in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic

Erick Ntambwe Kamangu^{1*}, Adawaye Chatté², Fabrice Susin³, Raphael Boreux⁴,

Richard Lunganza Kalala¹, Georges Lelo Mvumbi¹, Patrick De Mol⁴, Dolores Vaira³

¹Molecular Biology Unit, Department of Basic Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Kinshasa

Corresponding author: Erick Ntambwe Kamangu, Molecular Biology Unit, Department of Basic Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Kinshasa (UNIKIN), Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC); **E-mail:** erick.kamangu@unikin.ac.cd or erickamangu@gmail.com

Abstract

of Congo

and Marie-Pierre Hayette^{3,4}

Background: The massive use of antiretroviral (ARV) created the emergence of mutant strains resistant to treatment. Thus, the World Health Organization (WHO) recommends epidemiological monitoring for newly infected patients with the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). The objective of this study is to determine the genetic diversity of HIV Type 1 and the prevalence of mutations associated with resistance to ARV in treatment-naïve patients in Kinshasa.

Methods: One hundred fifty-three subjects diagnosed positive for HIV Type 1 voluntarily participated in this study. They were recruited in different centers in Kinshasa. The inclusions were conducted from August 2013 to February 2014. Five milliliters (5 ml) of blood were collected in a tube with anticoagulant EDTA. Five hundred microliter of plasma was sent for analysis to the AIDS Reference Laboratory of the University Hospital of Liège (CHU-Liège) in Belgium. RNA was extracted from 140 µl of plasma using the QIAamp RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN®). A Reverse Transcriptase PCR and Nested PCR enabled amplification of the regions of interest on the Protease and Reverse Transcriptase (RT) for subsequent sequencing.

Results: The mean age of patients was 37 years, ranging from 18 to 65 years. The median values of Viral Loads (VL) and rate of CD4 lymphocytes were respectively 5.68 log₁₀ RNA copies/ml and 180 cells/ml. Protease and RT were amplified and sequenced, respectively, for 130 (84.9%) and 145 (94.8%) patients out of 153. Subtype A was dominant with 35 cases (22.9%); followed by CRF02_AG (11.1%), C (9.8%), G (9.8%), K (9.8%), D (7.8%), H (7.8%) and J (5.0%).

Conclusion: The results of our study confirm the high diversity of HIV Type 1 in Kinshasa. It reveals the heterogeneity and the dynamic of the virus, and the presence of transmitted resistance associated with antiretroviral drugs.

Keywords: HIV-1; Genetic Diversity; ARV Resistance; Naïve patients; Kinshasa

Introduction

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is classified according to the types of the viruses, groups, subtypes, sub-subtypes and Circulating Recombinant Forms (CRFs) [1-3]. This classification has the advantage of better choose the type of treatment appropriate to the infected patient [2,3]. In Sub-Saharan Africa, molecular epidemic is very diverse and heterogeneous; it is dominated by the subtypes A, C, G and different CRFs [1-6].

The introduction of Antiretroviral drugs (ARVs) reduced the morbidity and mortality associated with HIV infection [7]. But also, its massive and disproportionate use caused the emergence of mutant strains resistant to treatment. Thus, the World Health Organization (WHO) recommended epidemiological monitoring for newly infected patients with HIV [7]. This includes monitoring the prevalence of different circulating strains and the search for mutations associated with treatment in the population. access to the treatment [8]. In the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the recommended therapy is a combination of 2 Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NRTI) and 1 Non-Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitor (NNRTI) for the first-line treatment [9]. For the second-line treatment, it is of 1 Protease Inhibitor (PI) and 2 NRTI [9]. The most commonly used molecules for NRTI are: Abacavir (ABC), Didanosine (ddI), Lamivudine (3TC), Stavudine (d4T) and Zidovudine (ZDV); for NNRTI: Efavirenz (EFV) and Nevirapine (NVP); and for PI: Lopinavir boosted by Ritonavir (LPV/r) [10]. LPV/r is introduced only in the second intension treatment [9,10]. In Kinshasa, the variants A (34.3%) dominated the epidemiology in the literature; they are followed by variants G (17.3%), D (11.2%), C (7.4%), CRF01_AE (4.9%), F (4.8%), H (3.9%) and U (3.5%) [11].

below 5% for the 5 past years [8]. Introduced in 2002, access to ARVs

is still near to the ground, less than 15% of the eligible population has

The objective of this study is to determine the genetic diversity of HIV Type 1 and the prevalence of mutations associated with resistance to antiretrovirals (ARVs) in treatment-naïve patients in Kinshasa.

Kinshasa is a city with moderately low HIV prevalence; it has been

Copyright: © 2015 Kamangu EN et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.



Methods

Population

One hundred and fifty-three (153) subjects diagnosed positive for HIV Type 1 voluntarily participated in this study. They were recruited in different centers of Kinshasa [10]. The inclusion criteria for subjects were: (i) be diagnosed HIV-1 positive according to national guidelines [9], (ii) be over 18 years old at the inclusion, (iii) be eligible for the Antiretroviral therapy (ART) in the monitoring center and (iv) be naive to ART according to the records of the centers. Nested PCR DNA was used to confirm HIV positivity for the patients in the laboratory of Molecular Biology at the University of Kinshasa [12]. The patient's demographic, clinical and laboratory information were recorded on standardized sheets pre-tested for the study. All patients signed an informed consent form for participation in the study. The inclusions were conducted from August 2013 to February 2014.

Blood samples

Five milliliters (5 ml) of blood were collected in a tube with anticoagulant EDTA from the vein of the elbow crease. The collected blood was centrifuged at 1000 g for 10 minutes to obtain a clear separation in 3 phases (plasma, buffy coat and Cullot). One milliliter of plasma (supernatant) was transferred into a microtube previously labeled and sent to the laboratory of Molecular Biology of the Faculty of Medicine for analysis. Samples were aliquoted into 2 tubes of 500μ l each. One tube was used to determine the Viral Load (VL) of patients at baseline in Kinshasa [13]. The other tube was sent to the AIDS Reference Laboratory of the University Hospital of the University of Liège (CHU-ULg) in Liège, Belgium for sequencing.

CD4 count was done with the Facs Count (Becton Dickinson Immunocytometry Systems) at the respective centers for patients.

RNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

RNA was extracted from plasma 140 μ l using the QIAamp RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN^{*}) at the LRS CHU-Ulg [14]. The extracted samples were stored at -80°C until use.

After extraction, a Reverse Transcription PCR (RT-PCR) and Nested PCR were performed to amplify the regions of interest on the Protease and Reverse Transcriptase (RT) for subsequent sequencing. PCR were performed under the conditions of cycles and temperatures previously described by Steegen (Table 1) [15]. Each sample was amplified on the Protease and Reverse Transcriptase in the sense and antisense. The primers used for PCR assays are presented in Table 2. For the samples which were not amplified with the first primers (Normals), other PCR were done with Alternatives primers (ATL) previously described in the literature [15].

The amplified fragments obtained are approximately 500 base pairs for the protease and 800 base pairs for the RT. These fragments were sequenced by the Sanger sequencing method. They were purified by the ExoSAP-IT technique to eliminate the residual products of the PCR amplification and sequenced by the purified fragment. A second purification of the product was done before the reading of the sequence.

The pairing of the resulting fragments (sense and antisense) was performed with the software Vector NTI Advance^{*} 11.5 (Invitrogen, Life Technologies) and compared with the Stanford University database (hivdb.stanford.edu) [16], that of the French National Agency for Scientific Research (ANRS - www.hivfrenchresistance.org) and that of the Max Plank (www.geno2pheno.org) for identification of the subtypes of HIV-1 and possible mutations. Minor adjustments of the bases were performed if necessary to align the sequences.

Statistics

The Friedman test was used to analyze differences in the groups variants and different mutations. The probability p value <0.05 was considered significant. Viral load is expressed in decimal logarithm per ml.

Results

One hundred and fifty three (153) patients infected with HIV Type 1 were selected for this study. Our population is composed of 61 (39.9%) men and 92 (60.1%) women; is a sex ratio of 1.5 women per man (p<0.05). The average age was 37 years, ranging from 18 and 65 (Table 3). The median values of Viral Loads (VL) and rate of CD4 lymphocytes were respectively 5.68 \log_{10} RNA copies/ml and 180 cells/ml (Table 3).

Subtyping

Protease and Reverse Transcriptase were amplified and sequenced, respectively, for 130 (84.9%) and 145 (94.8%) patients. Hundred twenty three (123) samples were amplified with the normal primers and 7 with alternatives to the region of the protease, respectively. Hundred and twenty five (125) samples were amplified with normal primers and 20 with alternatives for the region of RT, respectively. Subtype A is dominant with 35 cases (22.9%); followed by CRF02_AG (11.1%), C (9.8%) G (9.8%) K (9.8%), D (7.8%), H (7.8%) and J (5.0%) as described in Table 4 and Figure 1. There is not a large difference in the distribution of subtype by sex; it is mostly dominated by female except for the subtype B and D (Figure 2). The distribution of subtype by age interval is presented in Figure 2.

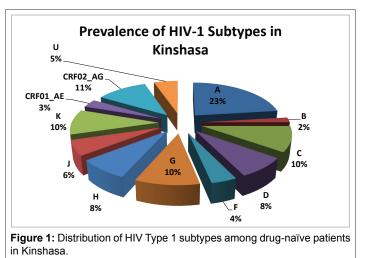
Mutations associated with protease inhibitors (PIs)

Mutations associated with resistance to protease inhibitors can be

| Stone | RT-PCR | | Nested PCR | |
|------------------------------|-------------|------|-------------|------|
| Steps | Temperature | Time | Temperature | Time |
| Reverse Transcription | 50°C | 30' | N/A | |
| Initial Denaturation | 94°C | 2' | 94°C | 12' |
| Denaturation per cycle | 94°C | 30" | 94°C | 30" |
| Hybridation per cycle | 55°C | 30" | 55°C | 30" |
| Elongation per cycle | 68°C | 90" | 72°C | 120" |
| Final Elongation | N/A | | 72°C | 7' |
| Hold | 4°C | ∞ | 4°C | ∞ |
| Number of Cycles | 40 | | 40 | |

N/A: Not Applicable for this amplification; 30' = 30 minutes; 30" = 30 seconds.

 Table 1: Reverse Transcriptase and Nested PCR Cycles (Temperature per cycle)





classified into majors or minors. In our study, we observed several mutations associated with protease inhibitors (Figure 3). The most significant major mutations are: L90M (2.0%), D30N (1.3%), V32I (1.3%), V82A (1.3%) and I84V (1.3%). The most common minor mutations are: K20I/RT/M (28.1%), L10I (27.5%), I47R/IM (6.5%), V11I (5.2%), V32E/L (4.6%), G48R (3.3%) and A71T/V (2.0%).

Associated mutations Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (RTI)

We also observed mutations associated with Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NRTI) and Non-Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NNRTI) (Figure 4). The most frequent mutations for NRTI are: V75I/D/L/M (18.3%), K70E/N/R (9.8%), D67G/ E/N (9.2%), M184V/L/K/R (9.2%), T215F/N/I/L (9.2%), Y115F (7.8%), M41L (7.2%), T69P/N (5.2%) and L74V/M/I (3.9%). The most recurrent mutations for NNRTI are: V179F/T/D (9.8%), K103N/I/NRS (8.5%), V106I/A (7.2%), Y181K/C (5, 8%), V90I/GIS (5.8%), A98G/GPR (5.2%), V108I/KN (5.2%), Y188C/L/D (4.6%) and F227C/L (4.6%).

Discussion

The aim of this study was to determine the genetic diversity of HIV Type 1 and the prevalence of mutations associated with resistance to Antiretroviral drugs (ARVs) in treatment-naïve patients in Kinshasa. Our population consisted of 61 (39.9%) men and 92 (60.1%) women; a sex ratio of 1.5 women per man (p<0.05). The age group most represented age is that of 26 to 35 years with 42 patients (27.45%), followed by 36 to 45 years with 40 patients (26.14%). The same socio-demographic information about the infected population are found in different studies in our environment [8,9,17,18].

Out of 153 patient's naïve of Antiretroviral Treatment (ART), we amplified 130 samples (84.9%) on the region of the protease and 145 samples (94.8%) in the region of the Reverse Transcriptase (RT). This

gives us an amplification rate higher than 85% for the two regions. This difference in amplification was also observed in various conditions; samples are more easily amplified on the Reverse Transcriptase than the protease because of the size of the gene of interest [19,20]. Amplification failures can be due to the high diversity of the amplification site of HIV type 1 variants that exist in Kinshasa [11]. They can also be caused by low Viral loads (VL) or under the detection limit [15,19]. Indeed, all 7 samples (4.6%) who had a VL less than 3.0 \log_{10} RNA copies/ml did not give any amplification.

Subtype A is dominant in Kinshasa, up to 22.9% of the study population. It is followed by CRF02_AG (11.1%), C (9.8%) G (9.8%) K (9.8%), D (7.8%), H (7.8%) and J (5.0%) as described in Table 4. Our results are consistent with the different subtypes found in the Central African countries [4,11,21] and in the neighboring countries of Western Africa [4,11,20-22]. Apart from the high prevalence of CRF02_AG, our results are consistent with the literature reported in the past for Kinshasa [11,22-24]. The strong presence of the recombinant form CRF02_AG reflects the dynamism of HIV in Kinshasa. This can originate from rural population movement to the metropolitan city, but also from the return of expatriates and immigrants in the capital city; thus bringing more diversity in the city. The distribution of the subtypes by sex and by age presents an interesting mosaic. Subtype B is mostly found in male and in the age interval of 36 to 45 years and that of 56 to 65 years. Most of the others are presented according to the sex-ratio and the age. There is no significant association between HIV-1 subtypes and age or sex in our population of study.

Several primary resistance were observed for PI; major and minor mutations. Genetic barrier is high for this class of drugs; one major mutation for PI can lead to irreversible resistance for the specific PI. While it takes an accumulation of several minor mutations to lead to irreversible resistance for PI. The most major mutations observed are: L90M (2.0%), D30N (1.3%), V32I (1.3%), V82A (1.3%) and I84V (1.3%).

| Assay and primer name | Nucleotide sequence | Fragment size (bp | |
|-----------------------|---|-------------------|--|
| Regular Primers | | | |
| RT-PCR Prot | | | |
| 5' prot 1 | 5'-TAATTTTTTAGGGAAGATCTGGCCTTCC-3' | 594-652 | |
| 3' prot 1 | 5'-GCAAATACTGGAGTATTGTATGGATTTTCAGG-3' | | |
| Nested PCR Prot | | | |
| 5' prot 2 | 5'-TCAGAGCAGACCAGAGCCAACAGCCCCA-3' | 458-514 | |
| 3' prot 2 | 5'-AATGCTTTTATTTTTCTTCTGTCAATGGC-3' | | |
| RT-PCR RT | | | |
| MJ3 | 5'-AGTAGGACCTACACCTGTCA-3' | 900-940 | |
| MJ4 | 5'-CTGTTAGTGCTTTGGTTCCTCT-3' | | |
| Nested PCR RT | | | |
| A(35) | 5'-TTGGTTGCACTTTAAATTTTCCCATTAGTCCTATT-3' | 742-804 | |
| NE1(35) | 5'-CCTACTAACTTCTGTATGTCATTGACAGTCCAGCT-3' | | |
| Alternative Primers | | | |
| RT-PCR Alt Prot | | | |
| 5' eprB | 5'-AGAGCTTCAGGTTTGGGG-3' | 600-680 | |
| 3' eprB | 5'-GCCATCCATTCCTGGCTT-3' | | |
| Nested PCR AtlProt | | | |
| 5' prB | 5'-GAAGCAGGAGCCGATAGACA-3' | 490-530 | |
| 3' prB | 5'-ACTGGTACAGTTTCAATAGG-3' | | |
| RT-PCR Atl RT | | | |
| RT1 | 5'-CCAAAAGTTAAACAATGGCCATTGACAGA-3' | 950-1020 | |
| RT4 | 5'-AGTTCATAACCCATCCAAAG-3' | | |
| Nested PCR Alt RT | | | |
| RT18 | 5'-GGAAACCAAAAATGATAGGGGGAATTGGAGG-3' | | |
| RT21 | 5'-CTGTATTTCTGCTATTAAGTCTTTTGATGGG-3' | 800-850 | |

Prot: Protease; RT: Reverse Transcriptase; Alt: Alternative primers

 Table 2: Oligonucleotide sequences of primers used for the PCR



Open Access

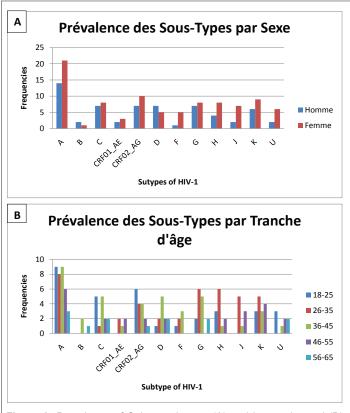


Figure 2: Prevalence of Subtypes by sex (A) and by age interval (B). (n=145)

| Characteristics | Patients |
|------------------------------|-------------------|
| Sex (n = 153) | |
| Male | 61 (39.87%) |
| Female | 92 (60.13%) |
| Age (years) (n = 153) | |
| Range | 18 – 65 years |
| Mean | 37 years |
| 18-25 | 32 (20.92%) |
| 26-35 | 42 (27.45%) |
| 36-45 | 40 (26.14%) |
| 46-55 | 26 (16.99%) |
| 56-65 | 13 (8.50%) |
| Viral Load (log 10 copies of | RNA/ml) (n = 153) |
| Range | 0.37 – 7.95 |
| Median | 5.68 |
| CD4 cells count (Cells/ml) | (n = 92) |
| Range | 8 – 915 |
| Median | 180 |

Table 3: Characteristics of patients

The most minor mutations are: K20I/RT/M (28.1%), L10I (27.5%), I47R/M (6.5%), V11I (5.2%), V32E/L (4.6%), G48R (3.3%) and A71T/V (2.0%). PIs are used in the DRC only for the second line as recommended by the national program [9]. These high frequencies of minor mutations transmitted ART-naïve patients are alarming especially since they can impart to patients resistant to treatment in second intension in the case of regime change. If the first line of treatment failure, almost 2.0% of patients will develop an irreversible resistance to second-line ART regimen that includes Lopinavir boosted by Ritonavir (LPV/r); implying a failure to this line of treatment too.

The transmitted mutations associated with the most NRTI found in our study population were: V75I/D/L/M (18.3%), K70E/N/R (9.8%), D67G/E/N (9.2%), M184V/L/K/R (9.2%), T215F/N/I/L (9.2%), Y115F (7.8%), M41L (7.2%), T69P/N (5.2%) and L74V/M/I (3.9%). For NNRTI we found: V179F/T/D (9.8%), K103N/I/NRS (8.5%), V106I/A (7.2%), Y181K/C (5.8%), V90I/GISV (5.8%), A98G/GPR (5.2%), V108I/KN (5.2%), Y188C/L/D (4.6%) and F227C/L (4.6%). For NRTI, mutation T69P/N (5.2%) is associated with resistance to all NRTI's drugs; the

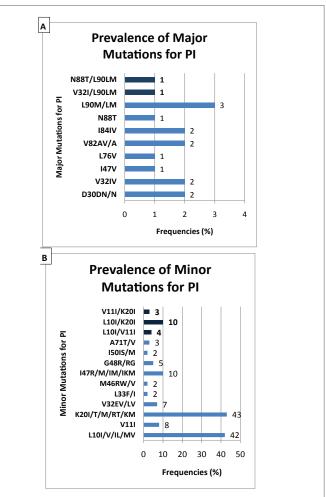


Figure 3: Prevalence of mutations associated with Resistance to Protease Inhibitors. A) Major Mutations associated to resistance; B) Minor Mutations associated to resistance.

| Subtypes | Frequency (%) | |
|----------|---------------|--|
| Α | 35 (22.87%) | |
| В | 3 (1.96%) | |
| С | 15 (9.80%) | |
| D | 12 (7.84%) | |
| F | 6 (3.92%) | |
| G | 15 (9.80%) | |
| Н | 12 (7.84%) | |
| J | 9 (5.88%) | |
| к | 15 (9.80%) | |
| CRF01_AE | 5 (3.27%) | |
| CRF02_AG | 17 (11.11%) | |
| U | 8 (5.23%) | |

 Table 4: Distribution of HIV Type 1 subtypes among drug-naïve patients in Kinshasa



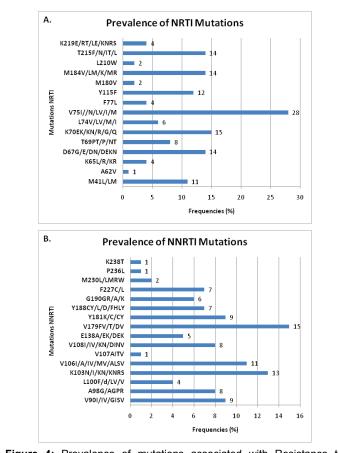


Figure 4: Prevalence of mutations associated with Resistance to Reverse Transcriptase. A) Mutations associated to NRTI; B) Mutations associated NNRTI

K65R mutation (2.6%) is associated with resistance to Stavudine (d4T), Abacavir (ABC), Lamivudine (3TC), Tenofovir (TDF) and Didanosine (ddI); the K70E/N/R (9.8%) is associated with the TDF; the L74V/M/I (3.9%) with ddI and ABC; the V75I/D/L/M (18.3%) with d4T; the Y115F (7.8%) with ABC; the M184V/L/K/R (9.2%) with 3TC; and T215F/N/I/L (9.2%) with Zidovudine (ZDV) and d4T [25-36]. For NNRTI, mutation A98G (5.2%) is associated with resistance to Nevirapine (NVP) and the E138A/K (3.3%) is documented for the resistance to Efavirenz (EFV); the L100F/V (2.6%), the K103N (8.5%), the V106I/A/M (7.2%), the Y181K/C (5.8%), the Y188C/L/D (4.6%), the G190R/A (3.9%) and M230L (1.3%) are all associated with resistance to both NVP and EFV [28,32,35,37-40]. We noticed that at this point, nearly 10% of naive patients have a predisposition to first-line treatment failure as recommended for the DRC (ZDV + 3TC + NVP) due to transmitted mutations.

The most incriminated mutations for resistance to first-line ART in DRC have varying prevalence: V75I (18.3%), K70E (9.8%), D67N (9.2%), M184V (9.2 %), T215F (9.2%), Y115F (7.8%), M41L (7.2%), T69P (5.2%) and L74VI (3.9%) for the NRTI; V179F (9.8%), K103N (8.5%), V106A (7.2%), Y181C (5.8%), V90I (5.8%), A98G (5.2%), V108I (5.2%), Y188C (4.6%) and F227C (4.6%) for NNRTI; and: L90M (2.0%), D30N (1.3%), V32I (1.3%), V82A (1.3%) and I84V (1.3%) for PI.

Conclusion

The results of our study show a strong diversity of HIV Type 1 in Kinshasa. It reveals heterogeneity and dynamic of the virus, and presence of primary resistance associated with antiretroviral drugs. Several major and minor resistances associated with protease inhibitors, as well as mutations associated with reverse transcriptase inhibitors were detected in patient's naïve of antiretroviral therapy. This demonstrates that genotyping tests must be made before starting patients on treatment and before the decision to change the treatment for better care for patients.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicting interest.

Authors' contribution

EK, AC and DV conceived the study. MPH, RK, PDM and GM participated in the study design. EK coordinated data collection. EK, AC and FS performed laboratory work, data analysis and interpretation of results. FS and RB participated in laboratory analysis. DV coordinated laboratory analysis. FS, RB, AC and DV participated in interpretation of results. EK drafted the manuscript. All authors contributed to the writing, read and approved the final manuscript.

References

- 1. Robertson DL, Anderson JP, Bradac JA, Carr JK, Foley B, et al. (2000) HIV Type 1 Nomenclature Proposal. Science 288: 55-56.
- 2. McCutchan FE (2000) Understanding the genetic diversity of HIV-1. AIDS 14: S31-S44.
- Peeters M, Toure-Kane C, Nkengasong JN (2003) Genetic Diversity of HIV in Africa: Impact on Diagnosis, Treatment and Vaccine development and trials. AIDS 17: 2547-2560.
- Papathanasopoulos MA, Hunt GM, Tiemessen CT (2003) Evolution and diversity of HIV-1 in Africa: a review. Virus Genes 26: 151-163.
- Hemelaar J, Gouws E, Ghys PD, Osmanov S (2006) Global and regional distribution of HIV-1 genetic subtypes and recombinants in 2004. AIDS 20: W13-W23.
- Shao Y, Williamson C (2012) The HIV-1 epidemic: Low- to Middle-Income countries. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med 2: a007187.
- Bertagnolio S, Sutherland D (2005) WHO Approach to track HIV Drug resistance emergence and transmission in countries scaling up HIV treatment. AIDS 19: 1329-1330.
- Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) (2012) Campagne de communication: lutte contre le VIH/SIDA, l'urgence ignorée (notes explicative). Janvier 2012.
- Programme National de Lutte contre le VIH/SIDA et les Infections Sexuellement Transmissibles (PNLS) (2008) Ministère de la Santé Publique, République Démocratique du Congo. Guide National de traitement de l'infection à VIH par les ARV chez l'adolescent et l'adulte.
- Kamangu NE, Kalala NH, Mesia KG (2012) Profile of Antiretroviral treatment centers in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo [Poster 388]. In proceedings of the 1st International African Society of Laboratory Medicine (ASLM) Conference. 1-7 December 2012; Cape Town, South Africa 377.
- Kamangu NE, Kabututu ZP, Mvumbi LG, Kalala LR, Mesia KG (2013) Genetic Diversity of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 in the Democratic Republic of Congo: a review of available data. International Journal of Collaborative Research on Internal Medicine and Public Health 5: 295-309.
- Kamangu NE, Mayemba C, Mbikayi S, Ndarabu A, Kalala LR, et al. (2014) Implementation of a Classic Nested PCR DNA for HIV Diagnosis in Kinshasa. International Journal of Collaborative Research on Internal Medicine and Public Health 6: 145-151.
- Kamangu NE, Adawaye C, Boreux R, Kalala LR, Mvumbi LG, et al. (2014) Mise en place d'une PCR Quantitative Temps Réel pour la détermination de la Charge Virale VIH à Kinshasa. Journal de Recherche BioMédicale 1: 7-12.



- 14. QIAGEN (2010) QIAamp® RNA Mini and Blood Mini Handbook. 3rd Edition 27-29.
- Steegen K, Demecheleer E, De Cabooter N, Nges D, Temmerman M, et al. (2006) A sensitive in-house RT-PCR genotyping system for combined detection of plasma HIV-1 and assessment of drug resistance. J Virol Methods 133: 147-145.
- Tang WM, Liu FT, Shafer WR (2012) The HIVdb System for HIV-1 Genotypic Resistance Interpretation. Intervirology 55: 98-101.
- Desclaux A, Desgrées du Lou A (2006) Population et Sociétés. Les Femmes Africaines face à l'épidémie du SIDA, November 428: 1-4.
- 18. Ministère du Plan et Suivi de la Mise en œuvre de la Révolution de la Modernité et Ministère de la Santé Publique (2014) République Démocratique du Congo Enquête Démographique et de Santé 2013-2014. Rapport Annuel Préliminaire sur la Prévalence du VIH.
- Jordan MR, Winsett J, Tiro A, Bau V, Berbara RS, et al. (2013) HIV Drug Resistance Profiles and Clinical Outcomes in Patients with Viremia Maintained at Very Low Levels. World J AIDS 3: 71-78.
- Loukou YG, Zinzendorf NY, Kouadio H, Dje L, Cablan MA, et al. (2012) Genetic Diversity and Antiretroviral Drug Resistance among Drug-Naïve HIV-1 Infected Pregnant Women Attending Antenatal Clinics in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire. World J AIDS 2: 57-63.
- Vidal N, Peeters M, Mulanga-Kabeya C, Nzilambi N, Robertson D, et al. (2000) Unprecedented degree of Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 (HIV-1) group M genetic diversity in the Democratic Republic of Congo suggest that HIV-1 pandemic originated in Central Africa. J Virol 74: 10498-5507.
- Yang C, Li M, Mokili J, Winter J, Lubaki NM, et al. (2005) Genetic diversification and recombination of HIV Type 1 Group M in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 21: 661-666.
- Vidal N, Mulanga C, Bazepeo SE, Mwamba JK, Tshimpaka JW, et al. (2005) Distribution of HIV-1 variants in the Democratic Republic of Congo suggests increase of subtype C in Kinshasa between 1997 and 2002. J AIDS 40: 456-462.
- 24. Vidal N, Mulanga C, Nzila N, Delaporte E, Peeters M (2000) Identification of a Complex *env* subtype E HIV Type 1 virus form the Democratic Repblic of Congo, recombinant with A, G, H, J, K and Unknown subtypes. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 16: 2059-2064.
- Garcia-Lerma (2001) Increased ability for selection of Zidovudine resistance in a distinct class of wild-type HIV-1 from drug-naive persons. PNAS 98: 13907-13912.
- Calvez V, Costagliola D, Descamps D, Yvon A, Collin G, et al. (2002) Impact of Stavudine phenotype and thymidine analogs mutations on viral response to Stavudine plus lamivudine in ALTIS 2 ANRS trial. Antivir Ther 7: 211-218.
- Stone C, Ait-Khaled M, Craig C, Griffin P, Tisdale M (2004) Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 Reverse Transcriptase mutation selection during in vitro exposure to Tenofovir alone or combined with Abacavir or Lamivudine. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 48: 1413-1415.
- Margot NA, Lu B, Cheng A, Miller MD (2006) Resistance development over 144 weeks in treatment-naive patients receiving Tenofovir Disoproxil Fumarate or Stavudine with Lamivudine and Efavirenz in

Study 903. HIV Med 7: 442-450.

- Kagan RM, Lee TS, Ross L, Lloyd RM Jr, Lewinski MA, et al. (2007) Molecular basis of antagonism between K70E and K65R Tenofovirassociated mutations in HIV-1 Reverse Transcriptase. Antiviral Res 75: 210-218.
- Sluis-Cremer N, Sheen CW, Zelina S, Torres PS, Parikh UM, et al. (2007) Molecular mechanism by which the K70E mutation in Human Immunodeficiency Virus Type 1 Reverse Transcriptase confers resistance to nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 51: 48-53.
- Miller V, Ait-Khaled M, Stone C, Griffin P, Mesogiti D, et al. (2000) HIV-1 Reverse Transcriptase (RT) genotype and susceptibility to RT inhibitors during Abacavir monotherapy and combination therapy. AIDS 14: 163-171.
- 32. Moyle GJ, De Jesus E, Cahn P, Castillo SA, Zhao H, et al. (2005) Abacavir once or twice daily combined with once-daily Lamivudine and Efavirenz for the treatment of antiretroviral-naive HIV-infected adults: results of the Ziagen Once Daily in Antiretroviral Combination Study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 38: 417-425.
- Wirden M, Roquebert B, Derache A, Simon A, Duvivier C, et al. (2006) Risk factors for selection of the L74I reverse transcriptase mutation in human immunodeficiency virus type 1-infected patients. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 50: 2553-2556.
- García-Lerma JG, Mac Innes H, Bennet D, Reid P, Nidthas S, et al. (2003) A novel genetic pathway of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 resistance to Stavudine mediated by the K65R mutation. J Virol 77: 5685-5693.
- 35. Sungkanuparph S, Manosuthi W, Kiertiburanakul S, Saekang N, Pairoj W, et al. (2008) Prevalence and risk factors for developing K65R mutations among HIV-1 infected patients who fail an initial regimen of fixed-dose combination of Stavudine, Lamivudine, and Nevirapine. J ClinVirol 41: 310-313.
- Wirden M, Lambert-Niclot S, Marcelin AG, Schneider L, Ait-Mohand H, et al. (2009) Antiretroviral combinations implicated in emergence of the L74I and L74V resistance mutations in HIV-1-infected patients. AIDS 23: 95-99.
- Harrigan PR, Mo T, Wynhoven B, Hirsch J, Brumme Z, et al. (2005) Rare mutations at codon 103 of HIV-1 reverse transcriptase can confer resistance to non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. AIDS 19: 549-554.
- Brenner B, Turner D, Oliveira M, Moisi D, Detorio M, et al. (2003) A V106M mutation in HIV-1 clade C viruses exposed to Efavirenz confers cross-resistance to non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. AIDS 17: F1-F5.
- Deshpande A, Jauvin V, Magnin N, Pinson P, Faure M, et al. (2007) Resistance mutations in subtype C HIV type 1 isolates from Indian patients of Mumbai receiving NRTIs plus NNRTIs and experiencing a treatment failure: resistance to AR. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 23: 335-340.
- 40. Azijn H, Tirry I, Vingerhoets J, de Béthune MP, Kraus G, et al. (2010) TMC278, a next-generation Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitor (NNRTI), active against wild-type and NNRTI-resistant HIV-1. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 54: 718-727.