

Original article

Low body weight and tenofovir use are risk factors for renal dysfunction in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients. A prospective 18-month observation study



Daisuke Mizushima^{a, b, *}, Junko Tanuma^a, Nguyen Thi Dung^c, Nguyen Hoai Dung^c,
Nguyen Vu Trung^c, Nguyen Tien Lam^c, Hiroyuki Gatanaga^{a, b}, Yoshimi Kikuchi^a,
Nguyen Van Kinh^c, Shinichi Oka^{a, b}

^a AIDS Clinical Center, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

^b Center for AIDS Research, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto, Japan

^c National Hospital of Tropical Diseases, Hanoi, Viet Nam

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 13 July 2014

Received in revised form

12 August 2014

Accepted 14 August 2014

Available online 7 October 2014

Keywords:

Renal dysfunction

Human immunodeficiency virus

Tenofovir

Vietnamese

Low body weight

ABSTRACT

Background: The use of tenofovir has been rapidly increasing in Vietnam. Several studies identified low body weight as a risk factor for tenofovir-induced nephrotoxicity. However, little is known about the impact of tenofovir on renal function in HIV-infected Vietnamese with generally low weight.

Methods: An observational single-center cohort of adult HIV-infected patients on antiretroviral therapy at National Hospital of Tropical Diseases, Hanoi. Patients on tenofovir or with creatinine clearance ≤ 60 ml/min at baseline were excluded. The incidence of renal dysfunction was compared between patients who switched to tenofovir and those who did not. Renal dysfunction was defined as 25% decline of creatinine clearance from baseline. Time to renal dysfunction was analyzed by the Kaplan–Meier method between the two groups. The Cox hazard model was used to determine risk factors for renal dysfunction in uni- and multivariate analyses.

Results: Of 556 patients enrolled in this study, 403 were non-tenofovir group while 153 were the tenofovir-switched group. Renal dysfunction occurred at a higher rate in the tenofovir-switched group (92.5 per 1000 person-years) than the non-tenofovir group (47.8 per 1000 person-years) ($p = 0.023$, Log-rank test). Multivariate analysis confirmed that tenofovir use, low body weight and glucosuria were significant risk factors for renal dysfunction (hazard ratio = 1.980; 95% confidential interval, 1.094–3.582, HR = 1.057; 95%CI, 1.016–1.098, HR = 5.202; 95%CI, 1.245–21.738, respectively).

Conclusions: Tenofovir use, low body weight and glucosuria were significant risk factors for renal dysfunction. We suggest close monitoring of renal function in patients with these risk factors even in resource-limited setting.

© 2014, Japanese Society of Chemotherapy and The Japanese Association for Infectious Diseases. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Key points

Treatment with TDF and low body weight were significant risk factors for renal dysfunction in Vietnamese HIV-treated patients. Given that the average body weight of Vietnamese is small, close monitoring of renal function in HIV-1-infected patients is important during treatment with TDF.

* Corresponding author. AIDS Clinical Center, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, 1-21-1, Toyama, Shinjuku, Tokyo 162-0052, Japan.

Tel.: +81 3 3202 7181; fax: +81 3 3207 1038.

E-mail address: dmizushi@acc.ncgm.go.jp (D. Mizushima).

1. Introduction

Although renal dysfunction is an important cause of morbidity and mortality in HIV-infected patients [1–7], only limited information is available on renal function in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients. Along with the 2010 WHO guidelines which phased out stavudine and recommended tenofovir (TDF) (URL: http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2010/9789241599764_eng.pdf), the use of TDF had been increasing in Vietnam in recent years.

TDF-associated nephrotoxicity is well known adverse effect. However, a meta-analysis study that evaluated the safety of TDF concluded that TDF-associated nephrotoxicity can be considered negligible and thus there is no need to restrict TDF use even when regular observation of renal function is not feasible [8]. Other experimental and clinical studies, however; provide a different scenario: one study of rhesus macaques described a dose-dependent nephrotoxic effect for TDF [9] and several studies reported cases of TDF-associated nephrotoxicity in low-body-weight HIV-infected patients [10,11]. Our group also reported that low body weight and use of TDF were significantly associated with chronic kidney dysfunction in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients in a cross-sectional study [12]. Since Vietnamese have a considerably smaller body weight compared with Caucasians, and the use of TDF in Vietnam is increasing throughout the country, the potential risk for TDF-related nephrotoxicity is a concern in Vietnam. This is also true in all countries in the region since the Asian population is, in general, of low body weight. To examine this issue in more detail, we conducted a longitudinal study to evaluate the incidence of renal dysfunction in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients and the risk factors of such morbidity, including use of TDF and low body weight.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Study design

We performed a prospective observational study of a single-center cohort of Vietnamese HIV-infected patients on antiretroviral therapy (ART) to evaluate the impact of TDF and low body weight on renal function. This cohort was established in 2007 at the National Hospital of Tropical Disease (NHTD) in Hanoi, one of the biggest outpatient clinics for HIV infected-patients in Vietnam. The population of the cohort consists of Vietnamese HIV-infected patients on ART aged more than 17 years referred to NHTD.

To evaluate renal function, serum creatinine had been measured since October 2011, which is the baseline of this study. Entry criteria were patients who were registered in this cohort on October 2011. Patients taking TDF or with serum creatinine clearance (Crcl) of ≤ 60 ml/min at baseline were excluded. Also excluded from the study were patients whose creatinine was not obtained twice at least. The follow-up period was 18 months (between October 2011 and April 2013). All patients of this cohort received ART at baseline. ART included Zidovudine (AZT)/Lamivudine (3 TC), Stavudine (d4T)/3 TC or TDF/3 TC as nucleoside/nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs) in combination with efavirenz (EFV), Nevirapine (NVP) or ritonavir boosted lopinavir (LPV/r). To estimate the incidence of renal dysfunction in this population, patients were divided into those who switched to TDF and those who did not. Laboratory data, including serum creatinine, were measured twice a year (in April and October) in this cohort. The study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of NHTD. Each patient included in this study provided a written informed consent for the clinical and laboratory data to be used for publication. The study was conducted according to the principles expressed in the Declaration of Helsinki.

2.2. Measurements

Clinical and laboratory data included demographic variables (age, sex and weight), serum creatinine (mg/dl, measured by Jaffe method), CD4 cell count (cell/mm³, measured by flow cytometry), plasma HIV-RNA (copies/ml, measured by the Roche COBAS Taq-Man HIV monitor assay), complete history of ART, use of cotrimoxazole, date of HIV diagnosis, and presence of other comorbidities such as hepatitis B and C virus, diabetes mellitus and AIDS defining diseases. Renal dysfunction was defined as 25% decline in Crcl estimated by the Cockcroft–Gault formula, relative to the baseline.

2.3. Statistical analysis

Baseline characteristics were compared between case patients and control patients by the Student's *t*-test for continuous variables and by either the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables. The time from baseline to renal dysfunction was analyzed by the Kaplan–Meier method for patients who switched to TDF and those who did not, and the log-rank test was used to determine the statistical significance. Censored cases represented those who died, dropped out, or were referred to other facilities before the end of follow-up period. The Cox proportional hazards regression analysis was used to estimate the impact of TDF use on the incidence of renal dysfunction. The impact of basic demographics, baseline laboratory data, and other medical conditions was also estimated with univariate Cox proportional hazards regression. Variables significantly associated with renal dysfunction in univariate analysis ($p < 0.05$) were entered into multivariate analysis. Statistical significance was defined at two-sided p value < 0.05 . We used the hazard ratio (HR) and 95% confidence interval (95%CI) to estimate the association of each variable with renal dysfunction. All analyses were performed in SPSS (version 22.0).

3. Results

At baseline, 793 Vietnamese HIV-infected patients on ART were registered in this study. However, 237 patients were excluded from the study due to existing renal dysfunction at baseline (Crcl < 60 ml/min, $n = 72$), had already been treated with TDF at baseline ($n = 143$), and lack of repeated measurements of Crcl ($n = 22$). Thus, 556 patients who received ART met the study criteria and were included in the study. Of these, 153 patients were switched to TDF during the study period, while 403 patients continued treatment with non-TDF-containing regimen. The criteria for switch to TDF were adverse event caused by ART or induction of treatment for chronic hepatitis B virus infection.

Table 1 compares the baseline demographics and clinical variables of patients of the TDF-switched group and the non-TDF group. The TDF-switched group was significantly more likely to be males, hepatitis B virus S antigen-positive and hepatitis C virus antibody-positive compared to the non-TDF group. The TDF-switched group had marginally significant trend to be older and have diabetes mellitus. Body weight, serum creatinine, CD4 count, HIV RNA viral load, duration of ART, frequency of proteinuria and glucosuria, use of ritonavir boosted lopinavir (LPV/r) and cotrimoxazole, and history of AIDS-defining disease were not significantly different between the two groups. The mean CD4 count was > 300 /mm³ and the mean HIV RNA load was < 100 copies/ml in both groups.

During the observation period, renal dysfunction, defined as 25% decline in Crcl, was observed in 19 (12.4%) of the TDF-switched group and 27 (6.7%) of the non-TDF group, with an estimated incidence of 92.5 and 47.8 per 1000 person-years, respectively. Fig. 1 depicts the time from the baseline to the development of

Table 1
Baseline characteristic of Vietnamese patients treated with or without TDF.

Variables	Without TDF	With TDF	P value
Number of patients (%)	403 (72.5)	153 (27.5)	
Age, years	35.6 ± 7.0	36.9 ± 6.8	0.064
Women, n (%)	167 (41.4)	45 (29.4)	0.009
Body weight	55.7 ± 8.3	56.5 ± 8.2	0.284
Serum creatinine, mg/dl	0.93 ± 0.13	0.93 ± 0.12	0.668
CD4+ cell count, cell/μl	394 ± 197	385 ± 166	0.651
Log 10 HIV-RNA level, copies/ml	1.48 ± 0.55	1.42 ± 0.41	0.190
Proteinuria, n (%)	48 (11.9)	21 (13.7)	0.522
Glucosuria, n (%)	3 (0.7)	2 (1.3)	0.617
HBVAg (+), n (%)	22 (5.5)	29 (18.9)	<0.001
HCVAb (+), n (%)	153 (38.0)	69 (45.1)	0.014
Duration of ART, years	1.14 ± 1.35	1.20 ± 1.47	0.650
Use of ritonavir boosted lopinavir, n (%)	7 (1.7)	5 (3.3)	0.326
Use of cotrimoxazole drug, n (%)	136 (33.7)	45 (29.4)	0.330
Prior AIDS defining disease, n (%)	36 (8.9)	12 (7.8)	0.683
Diabetes mellitus (+), n (%)	31 (7.7)	19 (12.4)	0.082

Data are expressed as mean ± SD.

ART = Antiretroviral therapy; TDF = tenofovir.

renal dysfunction by Kaplan–Meier method in the two groups. The incidence of renal dysfunction was significantly higher in the TDF-switched group, compared with the non-TDF group ($p = 0.023$, Log-rank test). With regard to the time of switch to TDF, 109 (71.5%) patients of the TDF-switched group switched their nucleoside/nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs) to TDF within 3 months from the baseline and additional 31 (20.0%) switched between 3 and 6 months. Furthermore, of the 19 patients of the TDF-switched group who developed renal dysfunction, 13 (71.2%) switched to TDF within 3 months from the baseline and additional 5 (23.5%) switched to TDF between 3 and 6 months.

Table 2 shows the results of the Cox proportional hazards regression model. Univariate analysis identified body weight per 1 kg-decrement, use of TDF, and glucosuria as factors significantly associated with renal dysfunction. After adjustment by multivariate analysis, body weight per 1 kg-decrement (HR = 1.057; 95%CI, 1.016–1.098; $p = 0.006$), use of TDF (HR = 1.980; 95%CI, 1.094–3.582; $p = 0.024$), and glucosuria (HR = 5.202; 95%CI, 1.245–21.738; $p = 0.024$) were still associated significantly with renal dysfunction.

We also compared the incidence of renal dysfunction in the TDF-switched group according to body weight. Fig. 2 shows the time from baseline to renal dysfunction in patients with body weight of <55 kg, representing the average weight of this study population, and in those with ≥55 kg of the TDF-switched group by Kaplan–Meier method. Patients of the <55 kg group were significantly more likely to develop renal dysfunction [12/66 cases (18.2%), 145.3/1000 person-year] compared to patients of the ≥55 kg group [7/87 cases (8.0%), 57.0/1000 person-year] ($p = 0.040$, Log-rank test).

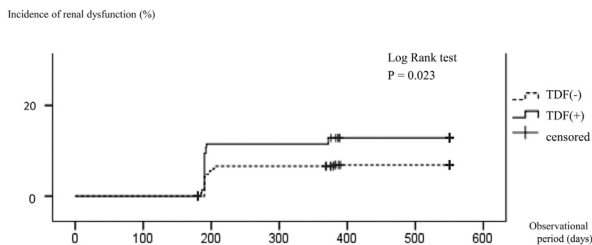


Fig. 1. Kaplan–Meier curve showing the time to renal dysfunction in patients of TDF-switched group and non-TDF-containing groups. Compared to patients of the non-TDF group, those of the TDF-switched group were significantly more likely to develop renal dysfunction ($p = 0.023$, Log-rank test).

Table 2
Risk factors for 25% decline in creatinine clearance estimated by uni- and multivariate analyses.

	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
	HR	95%CI	P value	HR	95%CI	P value
Age, per year	1.022	0.984–1.061	0.259			
Women	1.484	0.832–2.646	0.181			
Body weight per 1 kg decrease	1.053	1.013–1.094	0.008	1.057	1.016–1.098	0.006
Serum creatinine >1.1 mg/dl	0.397	0.096–1.636	0.201			
CD4+ cell count per cell/μl	1.001	0.999–1.002	0.227			
HIV-RNA level per log 10 copies/ml	0.887	0.446–1.764	0.733			
Proteinuria	0.474	0.147–1.528	0.211			
Glucosuria	5.372	1.301–22.176	0.020	5.202	1.245–21.738	0.024
HBVAg (+)	1.466	0.622–3.458	0.382			
HCVAb (+)	0.949	0.521–1.728	0.864			
Duration of ART per year	1.151	0.970–1.367	0.108			
Use of tenofovir	1.927	1.071–3.465	0.029	1.980	1.094–3.582	0.024
Use of ritonavir boosted lopinavir	2.024	0.491–8.349	0.329			
Use of cotrimoxazole	0.663	0.337–1.305	0.234			
Prior AIDS defining disease	0.043	0.000–4.144	0.177			
Diabetes mellitus (+)	0.952	0.341–2.654	0.925			

HR = hazard ratio; CI = confidence interval; ART = antiretroviral therapy.

The mean serum creatinine was higher in the TDF-switched group compared with the non-TDF group, and the difference in the mean serum creatinine between the two groups increased from 0 mg/dl at baseline, to 0.4 mg/dl at 6 month, 0.5 mg/dl at 12 months and 0.6 mg/dl at 18 months from the baseline.

4. Discussion

In this 18-month prospective study of a single-center cohort, we evaluated the impact of TDF on renal function in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients with low body weight of approximately 55 kg. The Kaplan–Meier curve showed that the cumulative incidence of renal dysfunction was significantly higher among the patients who switched to TDF than among those who did not ($p = 0.023$). Cox proportional hazards regression model identified the use of TDF, low body weight and glucosuria as significant high risk factors for renal dysfunction. In sub-analysis of the TDF-switched group, we confirmed that the cumulative incidence of renal dysfunction was significantly higher in patients with body weight <55 kg compared to those weighing ≥55 kg.

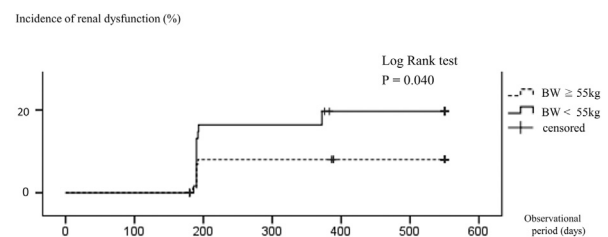


Fig. 2. Kaplan–Meier curve showing the time to renal dysfunction in patients of TDF-switched group classified according to body weight. Compared to patients with body weight ≥55 kg, those weighing <55 kg were significantly more likely to develop renal dysfunction ($p = 0.040$, Log-rank test).

We reported previously that low body weight and TDF use were factors significantly associated with chronic kidney disease in a cross-sectional study of this cohort in Hanoi [12]. The present study confirmed that TDF exposure and low body weight bear a causative relationship to renal dysfunction. We also reported low body weight (<59 kg) as a risk factor for renal dysfunction in Japanese patients treated with TDF [10], whereas high body weight of >67 kg was not the risk, similar to the body weight of the patients reported by Cooper et al. [8]. In light of the fact that the average body weight of the patients in this cohort was 55 kg, which is around 30 kg lighter than that of average American males (88 kg) (URL:<http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nhsr/nhsr010.pdf>), the impact of these risk factors on renal function remain unknown in patients with low body weight in the long-run, thus, observational studies will need to be continued for a longer term.

In addition to low body weight, the presence of glucosuria at baseline was identified as a risk factor for renal dysfunction. This result is consistent with the most recent WHO guidelines which suggest urinary glucose as one of the cost-effective screening test for serious TDF-induced kidney injury (URL: http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/85321/1/9789241505727_eng.pdf). Since the number of patients with glucosuria was small in this study (about 1% of total population), and glucosuria was not followed until the end of the observation period, further evaluation of this factor is necessary.

Other risk factors for renal dysfunction described in previous studies, such as cotrimoxazole, LPV/r, hepatitis C virus co-infection and diabetes mellitus [13–16] were not identified as risk factors in this study. This discrepancy could be explained by the fact that patients who could be affected by these factors were already excluded according to the study design, which excluded patients with renal dysfunction. With regard to the use of LPV/r, which is known as a risk for renal dysfunction [14,17], especially in cases of co-use with TDF, a number of patients with LPV/r were excluded from the study since most of the patients with LPV/r were co-treated with TDF at baseline. Thus, the impact of co-use of LPV/r and TDF on renal function could be underestimated in this study. Given that LPV/r is used as a salvage regimen and often administered with TDF in Vietnam, long-term monitoring of renal function is required in patients treated with both LPV/r and TDF.

The present study has several limitations. First, data on hypertension, which is a risk factor for renal dysfunction, were not available in this study. Although the average age of patients in this study was around 36 years and the prevalence of hypertension may not high, measurement of blood pressure could lead to better management of renal dysfunction and hypertension should be evaluated for potential risk. Regarding diabetes mellitus as well, the degree of diabetes mellitus was not checked in detail. However, severe patients such as insulin dependence were not in this study, thus, the lack of data could be limited. Second, the observation period of 18 months is relatively short to evaluate long-term adverse event for renal function as mentioned above. Some studies advocated stabilization of decline in eGFR later after the first 6 months of TDF exposure [18] and reversibility of eGFR decline after cessation of TDF therapy [19], while several studies argued incomplete reversibility of eGFR decline following TDF exposure [20–22]. In this study, most of the patients who developed the decline in CrCl continued the same ART regimen because of their moderate and/or stabilized renal dysfunction. However, the observational period of the present study is relatively short compared to other studies, thus, whether or not the stabilization and reversibility will be observed in this cohort of averagely small body weight should be evaluated in the longer period.

Third, the timing of switch to TDF and total duration of ART were not unified in the present study, since the study was an

observational cohort in which patients were already on ART at enrollment. The reasons for switch to TDF were mainly related to adverse events caused by d4T and AZT or treatment for HBV infection, thus the timing of switch to TDF was not strictly controlled. However, more than 70% and 90% of the patients were switched to TDF within 3 and 6 months from baseline, respectively, thus influence of this limitation on the result of this study could be restricted.

Despite concern on nephrotoxicity, TDF remains an important drug with enough anti-HIV potency and less mitochondrial toxicity among NRTIs. In order to use it safely in the long term, serum creatinine should be monitored in patients with aforementioned risk factors even in resource-limited situations. Further longitudinal studies are required to determine the impact of TDF, low body weight and glucosuria on renal function in Vietnamese and other Asian people with low body weight.

Conflict of interest

S.O. has received honoraria and research grants from MSD K.K., Abbott Japan, Co., Janssen Pharmaceutical K.K., Pfizer, Co., and Roche Diagnostics K.K.; received honoraria from Astellas Pharmaceutical K.K., Bristol-Myers K.K., Daiichisankyo, Co., Dainippon Sumitomo Pharma, Co., GlaxoSmithKline, K.K., Taisho Toyama Pharmaceutical, Co., Torii Pharmaceutical, Co., and ViiV Healthcare. H.G. has received honoraria from MSD K.K., Abbott Japan, Co., Janssen Pharmaceutical K.K., Torii Pharmaceutical, Co., and ViiV Healthcare, Co. All other authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Ms. Keiko Saito and Ms. Nguyen Thi Huyen for the excellent assistance. The authors also thank all the clinical staff at the National Hospital of Tropical Diseases for their help in the completion of this study. Financial support for this study was provided by Japan Initiative for Global Research Network on Infectious Diseases (J-GRID).

References

- [1] Wyatt CM, Winston JA, Malvestutto CD, Fishbein DA, Barash I, Cohen AJ, et al. Chronic kidney disease in HIV infection: an urban epidemic. *AIDS* 2007;21:2101–3.
- [2] Mocroft A, Kirk O, Gatell J, Reiss P, Gargalianos P, Zilmer K, et al. Chronic renal failure among HIV-1-infected patients. *AIDS* 2007;21:1119–27.
- [3] Deti EK, Thiebaut 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 Med* 2010;11:308–17.
- [4] Menezes AM, Torelly Jr J, Real L, Bay M, Poeta J, Sprinz E. Prevalence and risk factors associated to chronic kidney disease in HIV-infected patients on HAART and undetectable viral load in Brazil. *PLoS One* 2011;6:e26042.
- [5] Wyatt CM, Arons RR, Klotman PE. Acute renal failure in hospitalized patients with HIV: risk factors and impact on in-hospital mortality. *AIDS* 2006;20:561–5.
- [6] Franceschini N, Napravnik S, Eron Jr JJ, Szczech LA, Finn WF. Incidence and etiology of acute renal failure among ambulatory HIV-infected patients. *Kidney Int* 2005;67:1526–31.
- [7] Schwartz EJ, Szczech LA, Ross MJ, Klotman ME, Winston JA, Klotman PE. Highly active antiretroviral therapy and the epidemic of HIV+ end-stage renal disease. *J Am Soc of Nephrol JASN* 2005;16:2412–20.
- [8] 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. *Clin Infect Dis* 2010;51:496–505.
- [9] Van Rompay KK, Durand-Gasselin L, Brignolo LL, Ray AS, Abel K, Cihlar T, et al. Chronic administration of tenofovir to rhesus macaques from infancy through adulthood and pregnancy: summary of pharmacokinetics and biological and virological effects. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 2008;52:3144–60.
- [10] Nishijima T, Komatsu H, Gatanaga H, Aoki T, Watanabe K, Kinai E, et al. Impact of small body weight on tenofovir-associated renal dysfunction in HIV-infected patients: a retrospective cohort study of Japanese patients. *PLoS One* 2011;6:e22661.

- [11] Chaisiri K, Bowonwatanuwong C, Kasettrat N, Kiertiburanakul S. Incidence and risk factors for tenofovir-associated renal function decline among Thai HIV-infected patients with low-body weight. *Curr HIV Res* 2010;8:504–9.
- [12] Mizushima D, Tanuma J, Kanaya F, Nishijima T, Gatanaga H, Lam NT, et al. WHO antiretroviral therapy guidelines 2010 and impact of Tenofovir on chronic kidney disease in Vietnamese HIV-infected patients. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e79885.
- [13] Peters L, Grint D, Lundgren JD, Rockstroh JK, Soriano V, Reiss P, et al. Hepatitis C virus viremia increases the incidence of chronic kidney disease in HIV-infected patients. *AIDS* 2012;26:1917–26.
- [14] Ryom L, Mocroft A, Kirk O, Worm SW, Kamara DA, Reiss P, et al. Association between antiretroviral exposure and renal impairment among HIV-positive persons with normal baseline renal function: the D:A:D study. *J Infect Dis* 2013;207:1359–69.
- [15] Kalayjian RC, Lau B, Mechekano RN, Crane HM, Rodriguez B, Salata RA, et al. Risk factors for chronic kidney disease in a large cohort of HIV-1 infected individuals initiating antiretroviral therapy in routine care. *AIDS* 2012;26:1907–15.
- [16] Choi AI, Li Y, Parikh C, Volberding PA, Shlipak MG. Long-term clinical consequences of acute kidney injury in the HIV-infected. *Kidney Int* 2010;78:478–85.
- [17] Mwafongo A, Nkanaunena K, Zheng Y, Hogg E, Samaneka W, Mulenga L, et al. Renal events among women treated with tenofovir/emtricitabine in combination with either lopinavir/ritonavir or nevirapine: analysis from the AIDS clinical trial group A5208 trial. *AIDS* 2014;28:1135–42.
- [18] Gallant JE, Moore RD. Renal function with use of a tenofovir-containing initial antiretroviral regimen. *AIDS* 2009;23:1971–5.
- [19] Bonjoch A, Echeverria P, Perez-Alvarez N, Puig J, Estany C, Clotet B, et al. High rate of reversibility of renal damage in a cohort of HIV-infected patients receiving tenofovir-containing antiretroviral therapy. *Antiviral Res* 2012;96:65–9.
- [20] Jose S, Hamzah L, Campbell LJ, Hill T, Fisher M, Leen C, et al. Incomplete reversibility of estimated glomerular filtration rate decline following Tenofovir disoproxil fumarate exposure. *J Infect Dis* 2014;213:363–73.
- [21] Wever K, van Agtmael MA, Carr A. Incomplete reversibility of tenofovir-related renal toxicity in HIV-infected men. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* 2010;55:78–81.
- [22] Yoshino M, Yagura H, Kushida H, Yonemoto H, Bando H, Ogawa Y, et al. Assessing recovery of renal function after tenofovir disoproxil fumarate discontinuation. *J Infect Chemother* 2012;18:169–74.