



Tuberculosis In HIV-Infected Patients

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ABSTRACT

The incident of tuberculosis (TB) is currently increasing in HIV-infected patients living in India and Southern India, where TB endemicity is high, reflecting this the acceptability of this group of patients to mycobacteria belonging to the TB group. In this population, extension of multiple resistance to anti-tuberculous drugs is also a matter of anxiety. HIV-induced immune suppression modifies the clinical presentation of TB, resulting in atypical signs and symptoms, and more frequent extra-pulmonary dissemination. The treatment of TB is also more difficult to manage in HIV-infected patients, particularly with regard to pharmacologic drug interactions secondary to inhibition or induction of cytochrome P450 enzymes by protease inhibitors with rifampin or efavirenz, respectively. The World Health Organization recommends initiating immediate therapy for MTB, in conjunction with ongoing or newly introduced anti-retroviral therapy. Vigilance is required to detect drug-induced organ injuries, and early-treatment-induced immunosuppression, inflammation or syndrome. Collaborating MTB and HIV activities in concentrated HIV epidemic settings hold become a high public health priority.

Keywords: AIDS, HAART, HIV, Mycobacterium, tuberculosis

INTRODUCTION

Air-borne transmission of Mycobacterium tuberculosis is responsible for primary tuberculosis (TB) infection which can evolve in immunocompetent, but more frequently in immune-compromised hosts into TB. The number of TB cases has increased dramatically worldwide, reflecting this the acceptability of HIV-infected patients to the M. tuberculosis is complex. Because of this, pulmonary TB was considered in the 1993 Centers for Disease Control classification of AIDS as a defining illness in HIV-infected patients, similar to Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia, cerebral toxoplasmosis or extra-pulmonary system mycoses. However, in contrast to most of these other AIDS-classifying opportunistic infections, TB may occur relatively early in the course of HIV infection. It should be noted that there is mutual interaction between Tuberculosis and HIV. Indeed, the immune suppression induced by HIV modifies the clinical presentation of TB and its management, while immunosuppression induced by highly active anti-retroviral therapy (HAART) may be associated with paradoxical manifestations related to immunosuppression. On the other hand, TB influences the prognosis of HIV infection, and anti-tuberculous drugs in combination with anti-retroviral drugs, including protease inhibitors and non-nucleoside reverse-transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs). Different populations pose group-specific challenges in

response to detection and treatment. These populations include pediatric patients, antenatal HIV-infected patients, truckers, female sex workers, and men who have sex with men, refugees, and displaced populations. Other challenges exist in overcrowded settings such as mines, prisons, homeless shelters, and opioid substitution therapy centers. Social issues, including poverty, are woven into the fabric of clinical course of HIV–M TB coinfection. In this review, we emphasize early detection by effective implementation of provide reinstituted HIV testing and counseling in TB patients as well as intensified TB case finding among PLHIV and initiation of prompt treatment to minimize morbidity and mortality.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

TB results from infection by pathogen belonging to the *M.tuberculosis* is complex, primarily *M.tuberculosis* (Koch's bacillus), and rarely *Mycobacterium Bo vis* or *Mycobacterium Africanum*. After penetration into the respiratory tract, these bacilli infect macrophages, while CD4+T-lymphocytes and $\gamma\delta$ -lymphocytes produce interferon gamma (IFN- γ), interleukin-2, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α), and macrophage colony-stimulating factor, which activate macrophages and cytotoxic cells to inhibit their intracellular growth. TB appears when the immune response inducing granuloma is insufficient to limit the growth of mycobacteria. IFN- γ plays a pivotal role at this stage. Indeed, people inherit genetic defects that result in reduced production of either IFN- γ or cellular receptors that redevelop over and fatal TB. During HIV infection, IFN- γ production is decreased dramatically in parallel with the reduction of CD4+T-lymphocytes, which leads finally to a markedly increased risk of developing reactivation or reinfection by *M.tuberculosis* in these patients. Conversely, TB may also influence HIV evolution. Pro inflammatory cytokine production by tuberculous granulomas (in particular TNF α) has been associated with increased HIV viremia, which might accelerate the course towards severe immune suppression. The risk of death in HIV-infected patients with TB is twice that in HIV-infected patients without TB with matched CD4 cell counts, with most deaths caused by progressive HIV infection, rather than TB.

Pathogenesis of Mycobacterium tuberculosis–HIV Coinfection

The details of immune responses to TB, HIV, and coinfections have been described in recent reviews. It is important to note that MTB occurs earlier in HIV patients than another opportunistic infections (OIs) due to increased susceptibility of MTB-specific CD4+ T cells to HIV infection. We present the immune pathogenesis in relation to the intensity of the clinical presentation of TB with pre-existing HIV infection.

Tuberculosis infection is a result of the interplay between bacterial virulence and host resistance. The infection begins through inhalation of air droplets containing approximately 1–200 bacilli from an individual with active MTB (pulmonary) disease. The bacilli rapidly phagocytose by resident macrophages in the alveoli. This triggers an inflammatory cascade, followed by development of granuloma. Furthermore, cell-mediated immunity through activation of CD4–Lymphocytes is important in the prevention of MTB disease's acceleration and reactivation.

On the other hand, HIV transmitted primarily through genital fluids, blood, and mucosa interacts with different cells in the body and tends to suppress the host immune response against it, resulting in full-blown AIDS disease. Progression of HIV infection is a result of a combination of CD4+ Lymphocytes depletion and chronic state of immune inactivation. The repression of CD4+T cells and impairment to macrophages' activity in HIV/AIDS results in down-regulation of the body's immune response to infections, such as MTB. Mycobacteria are contained within granuloma as; however, the disruption leads to MTB bacterial growth and systemic disease in action to multiple organs. MTB has a negative impact on the immune response of the body to HIV by up-regulating the immune response of the host by activating T-cells. Studies have amongst rated that MTB enhances HIV viral replication by

increasing the expression receptors (e.g., CXCR4), which favors viral growth. The immune responses responsible for the vigorous TB infection in a HIV-coinfected host and irresponsible formulary and extra pulmonary presentations and its associated diagnostic dilemma. Studies aiming too but indirect evidence of disease progression have been limited due to economy reasons of HIV viral loads taxation, especially in countries where the incidence/ prevalence of HIV–MTB coinfection is high but has the short coming of resource constraints. As pointed out, the impact of MTB on HIV disease progression primarily involves up regulated HIV-1 viral load, including the development to few OIs. Interestingly, TB was found to exert significant effect on diminishing survival rates in subjects with more preserved immunological status (i.e., CD4cellcounts>200cells/μL).

Enhanced HIV-1 production has been demonstrated at local sites of MTB infection, for example, in Bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) fluid from TB involved, compared with uninvolved, lungs of patients with HIV-1/ TB coinfection. A clinical presentation of TB that is particularly observed in HIV-1-infected patients is pleural TB, common presentation in India-coinfected patients. These sites of active MTB infection act as foci of HIV replication and devolution of quasi-species, independent of systemic HIV-1 activity, and may be responsible for disseminated MTB infection in HIV-1-coinfected hosts.

Mycobacterium tuberculosis breaches the alveolar epithelium during the first phase of extra pulmonary dissemination. Molecular mechanisms for this cytolysis have been reported. For example, the par-in-binding he agglutinin in adhesion (HBHA) facilitates MTB to bind to sulfated glycol conjugates on epithelial cells. Two gene products of the MTB RD1 gene, early secretory antigenic target 6kDa (ESAT-6) and culture filtrate protein 10 kDa (CFP-10), have been causally linked to the cell lysis and extra pulmonary mycobacterial spread. The trafficking of mycobacteria to their goal lymph nodes, while essential for the development of protective T-cell-mediated immune response, is the first extra pulmonary site of migration for MTB. Bacteria there after disseminated through the blood stream and lymphatics lead to extra pulmonary tuberculosis (EPTB).

Lung granuloma as from MTB/HIV-1-coinfected patients release lower level so finite TNF production. Additionally, MTB–HIV-1-coinfected hosts have low circulating mannose-binding lectin levels. The complex interactions that take place between host T cells, Trigs, cytokine production, and overall paired T1 responses predispose to extra pulmonary infections in HIV-coinfected hosts. Several primary

immune deficiencies, including Mendelian susceptibility to mycobacterial infections, enhance the overall risk of EPTB. These aspects merit detailed studies in the future.

Complications Arising Out of Therapy for HIV–MTB Coinfection

Immune Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome

Transient exacerbation of respiratory signs and symptoms despite reduction in viral load and/ or radiological deterioration may develop in HIV–MTB-coinfected patients who are treated with anti-TB medications concomitantly with HAART. IRIS has dimorphic presentation: UN masking and paradoxical. Restoration of immune competence by administration of ART results in hyper immune response to TB bacilli and/or antigens. UN masking IRIS presents with active TB so on after ART is started. Paradoxical IRIS refers to the worsening of TB symptoms after ART is initiated in patients who are receiving TB treatment. Anti-inflammatory drugs and steroids are the main stay therapy for IRIS. Discontinuation of HAART is not warranted in most cases. Delaying initiation of ART for 2–8

weeks may reduce the incidence and severity of IRIS. However, this possible advantage of delayed ART must be weighed against the potential benefit of earlier ART in improving immune function and preventing progression of HIV disease and mortality. Importantly, immunization with ART may result in UN masking LTBI (i.e., conversion of previously negative TST to a positive TST or positive IGRA for MTB-specific proteins). A positive IGRA, similar to a positive TST, is indicative of LTBI in the absence of evidence of active TB disease. Because treatment for LTBI is indicated in the absence of evidence of active TB disease, these situations should be clinically recognized, especially in high risk groups.

Anti-Tuberculosis and Anti-Retroviral Drug Interaction

Rifampin are potent inducers of the hepatic cytochrome P (CYP) 450 enzyme. They are associated with significant interactions with PIs, some non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs), maraviroc (MVC), and raltegravir (RAL), leading to enhanced drug clearance and significant lowering in circulating anti-retroviral drugs. However, good virological, immunological, and clinical outcomes may be achieved with standard dose of efavirenz (EFV) and nevirapine (NVP) when combined with rifampin. Suboptimal HIV suppression or suboptimal response to TB treatments should prompt a search for assessment of drug adherence, sub-therapeutic drug levels (with consideration for the therapeutic drug monitoring), and acquired drug resistance.

Other Known Side Effects

Hepatic toxicity potentially rises from co-administration of anti-retroviral and antimycobacterial agents; therefore, continuous monitoring of liver function should be exercised. Symptoms of abdominal pain, jaundice, loss of appetite, fever, and nausea merit urgent clinical attention. Additionally, many of these patients may need additional treatment, for example, for drug dependence or HCV coinfection, which presents additional risk for coexisting liver diseases. Peripheral neuropathy, on the other hand, can occur with administration of INH, didanosine (ddI), or stavudine (d4T) or may be a main feature of the native HIV infection process. All patients receiving INH should be administered supplemental pyridoxine to reduce peripheral neuropathy. Other coexisting medical and behavioral conditions, such as tobacco smoking, alcoholism, malnutrition, and diabetes mellitus, may significantly impact disease management and outcomes.

CONCLUSIONS

The worldwide incidence of TB is increasing currently, particularly in areas of the southern hemisphere where HIV epidemics are devastating because anti-retroviral therapies are not available. HIV-infected patients are at extremely high risk for progression from latent TB to active disease, and unusual clinical manifestations of TB should not be missed in this high-risk group. Patients receiving HAART may have significant drug–drug interactions when rifampin is used with PIs or NNRTIs, and also risk developing every paradoxical reactions attributable to immune restoration. HIV infected patients with active TB diseases should receive treatment support, including adherence counseling and DOT, corresponding to their needs. In conclusion, MTB and HIV coinfection remains a diagnostic and therapeutic challenge worldwide.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that their search was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as potential conflict of interest.

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