Developing a predictive risk model for first-line antiretroviral therapy failure in South Africa

Julia K Rohr, Prudence Ive, C Robert Horsburgh, Rebecca Berhanu, Kate Shearer, Mhairi Maske, Lawrence Long, Ian Sanne, Jean Bassett, Osman Ebrahim and Matthew P Fox

Abstract

Introduction: A substantial number of patients with HIV in South Africa have failed first-line antiretroviral therapy (ART). Although individual predictors of first-line ART failure have been identified, few studies in resource-limited settings have been large enough for predictive modelling. Understanding the absolute risk of first-line failure is useful for patient monitoring and for effectively targeting limited resources for second-line ART. We developed a predictive model to identify patients at the greatest risk of virologic failure on first-line ART, and to estimate the proportion of patients needing second-line ART over five years on treatment.

Methods: A cohort of patients aged ≥18 years from nine South African HIV clinics on first-line ART for at least six months were included. Viral load measurements and baseline predictors were obtained from medical records. We used stepwise selection of predictors in accelerated failure-time models to predict virologic failure on first-line ART (two consecutive viral load levels >1000 copies/mL). Multiple imputations were used to assign missing baseline variables. The final model was selected using internal-external cross-validation maximizing model calibration at five years on ART, and model discrimination, measured using Harrell’s C-statistic. Model covariates were used to create a predictive score for risk group of ART failure.

Results: A total of 72,181 patients were included in the analysis, with an average of 21.5 months (IQR: 8.8–41.5) of follow-up time on first-line ART. The final predictive model had a Weibull distribution and the final predictors of virologic failure were men of all ages, young women, nevirapine use in first-line regimen, low baseline CD4 count, high mean corpuscular volume, low haemoglobin, history of TB and missed visits during the first six months on ART. About 24.4% of patients in the highest quintile and 9.4% of patients in the lowest quintile of risk were predicted to experience treatment failure over five years on ART.

Conclusions: Age, sex, CD4 count and having any missed visits during the first six months on ART were the strongest predictors of ART failure. The predictive model identified patients at high risk of failure, and the predicted failure rates over five years closely reflected actual rates of failure.

Keywords: antiretroviral therapy; predictive model; prognostic score; treatment failure; South Africa; resource-limited settings; public health.

Introduction

South Africa has the world’s largest HIV epidemic, with approximately 6.8 million people living with HIV in 2014 [1]. Over a period of 10 years after South Africa launched its national HIV programme in 2004, a substantial number of patients have failed first-line and require second-line antiretroviral therapy (ART). Clinical studies from South Africa show that after five years on treatment, approximately 14% of patients on first-line ART experience virologic failure [2]. Individual predictors of first-line failure have been identified, such as CD4 count, sex, age, clinic attendance, ART adherence and general health [2–10], yet few studies in resource-limited settings have been large enough to model the interactions between factors necessary for appropriate predictive modelling, and the relative impact of each predictor has not been thoroughly investigated.

The aims of this study are to estimate absolute first-line ART failure risk over five years on treatment as a function of a baseline profile of demographic, clinical and immunologic factors and their interactions, and to develop a predictive model that can be applied to other South African clinic populations, giving estimates of proportion of patients needing second-line ART over time. At the population level, this model can provide long-term estimates of the need for second-line ART in South Africa over five years for patients who remain in care, given characteristics of the population beginning ART. At the individual level, this model provides risk groups for treatment failure for patients who begin treatment, which
can be used to identify patients at the highest risk. Identifying high-risk patients allows for targeted adherence interventions and counselling, ideally avoiding treatment failure and the need for second-line, or potentially third-line ART, and more powerful drugs.

Methods
Data source and study population
We conducted an observational cohort study using routinely collected medical record data from the Right to Care clinical HIV cohort, which includes patients who had initiated treatment between 2004 and 2013 from nine HIV clinics in South Africa that follow national treatment guidelines (seven in Gauteng and two in the Mpumalanga Province). Clinics used an electronic medical record system that records basic information on demographics (e.g. date of birth, sex), clinical information (e.g. height, weight), date of visits, lab results, diagnoses and HIV treatment. We labelled each clinic letter A through I. Retrospective analysis of the Right to Care cohort was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand. Boston University provided permission for analysis of de-identified data.

We included treatment-naïve adult patients (aged ≥ 18 years) initiating standard first-line HIV treatment who had received at least six months of ART. A standard first-line regimen was defined as two nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs) ( stavudine (d4T), zidovudine (AZT) or tenofovir (TDF) plus lamivudine (STC) or emtricitabine (FTC)) and one non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor (NNRTI) (either efavirenz (EFV) or nevirapine (NVP)).

Study variables
Predictors
Predictor variables came from clinic data at ART initiation, including age, sex, year of ART initiation, clinic, CD4 count, World Health Organization (WHO) stage, body mass index (BMI), haemoglobin, total lymphocytes, mean corpuscular volume (MCV), red blood cell count (RBC), creatinine, creatinine clearance, alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), blood pressure, history of tuberculosis, peripheral neuropathy, NRTIs and NNRTI in first-line regimen, history of alcohol and history of smoking. Having any missed visits by more than seven days prior to our start of follow-up at six months on ART was also included as a predictor. Baseline lab measures were taken from the test closest to ART initiation, using values 90 days before to seven days after ART initiation.

Outcomes
Follow-up time began at six months after ART initiation at the time of the first scheduled viral load. If patients had an earlier viral load measurement (at three to six months on ART), follow-up time began at the time of viral load measurement for these individuals. Our primary outcome was virologic failure after first-line initiation. Date of virologic failure was defined as the date of the second of the two consecutive viral load measurements >1000 copies/mL. Person-time ended on the occurrence of any of the following: first-line treatment failure, switch to second-line ART (defined as switch to a protease inhibitor (PI)-based regimen plus addition of at least one new NRTI), loss to follow-up, death, transfer to another clinic or date of dataset closure (April 2014). Loss to follow-up was defined as not visiting the clinic within six months of closure of the study, and the date of loss to follow-up was the date of the last visit.

Statistical methods
Model development
Distributions of all baseline variables were examined in summary and stratified by the year of ART initiation. The overall failure rate and rates by clinic were examined with Kaplan-Meier curves. The predictive model for ART failure was developed using validation of accelerated failure-time survival models, since these parametric models allow for direct calculation of predicted probabilities of survival at specific time points [11,12]. First, unadjusted models were run for each predictor. Akaikes information criteria (AIC) scores were used to compare continuous variables and categorizations of variables to find the optimal version of each predictor. Unadjusted models were run using all data, and also stratified by clinic, to look for site-specific predictors. Year and clinic were investigated in unadjusted models but not in the final model in order to make the model applicable for future use and outside clinics. Models with estimates adjusted for year and clinic were later considered in the final candidate model to determine if adjustments would improve predictive value. Candidate multivariate predictive models were developed using stepwise selection with a value of p < 0.2, and later evaluated for predictive value. Biologically plausible multiplicative interactions between predictors with p < 0.2 were considered in final candidate models. Multiple imputation was used for missing predictor variable data [13,14]. Variables with >50% baseline values missing were not used [15]. The imputation model included all baseline variables that were possible predictors, as well as the indicators for failure, loss to follow-up, switch to second-line ART, transfer to another clinic, or death, and a variable for time to failure. No outcome variables were imputed. Seven dataset imputations were created and were combined using the proc mianalyze procedure in SAS.

Model fit
The best candidate predictive models were selected based on several model fit measures. AIC scores assessed overall model fit. In addition, statistics to measure model discrimination and calibration were calculated in a cross-validation procedure. Cross-validation was used to ensure high predictive value of the models, since the model giving the best prediction on data used to develop it may not have the best performance on independent data [11,16,17].

We used internal-external cross-validation (IECV), where each candidate predictive model was developed on all clinics excluding one, and model performance was tested on independent data using the excluded clinic [11]. IECV was repeated nine times to test performance in all nine clinics, and average model discrimination and calibration statistics weighted by the clinic population were calculated. Harrell’s C-statistic, a survival analysis approximation to the C-statistic which measures the proportion of all subject pairs where prediction of an earlier time to event is consistent with actual
outcomes, was used as the measure of model discrimination [11,18,19]. Predicted five-year survival was compared with actual five-year survival in the IECV procedure to assess model calibration. When selecting the best predictive model, clinical validity (results from IECV) was prioritized over statistical validity (AIC score), and discrimination (C-statistic) was prioritized over model calibration (difference between actual and predicted five-year survival).

The final model was used to assess the impact of individual baseline predictors and interactions between predictors on absolute risk of treatment failure. Since model discrimination is especially relevant for those who initiated care more recently, we also evaluated the C-statistic for the subset of the population that initiated ART in recent years (2011 and later). Outcomes from this model include scores to calculate a failure risk group based on an individual’s baseline variables, and calculation of absolute risk of failure at one through five years on ART based on an individual’s baseline variables.

**Risk score**

Scoring for a predicted risk group was directly generated from beta estimates of the final predictive model. A survival estimate can be calculated from the Weibull model at any time point based on a transformation of the summation of beta estimates \( S(t) = \exp\left(-[t^{\exp(-\sum(b_j x_j))}])^{(1/s)}\right) \), where \( t = \) time and \( s = \) the scale parameter. We used the summation of beta estimates for each individual to determine the relative likelihood of failure, and created risk groups based on quintiles of these scores. To simplify risk group calculation for use in clinics, we transformed the beta estimates for all predictors by setting the lowest risk group as the reference category, removing the intercept (baseline hazard), multiplying each beta estimate by 10 and rounding to the nearest digit. This transformation created a whole number for each predictor that would allow summation of all risk factors to calculate a risk score.

**Sensitivity analyses**

First-line failure could not occur if death or switch to second-line ART occurred first. The impact of these competing risks was assessed graphically [20]. Patients who remained in care but had a reasonable chance of having been misclassified as non-failures, such as patients who experience death in care without documented treatment failure, and patients who switched to second-line ART before documented failure, were considered to have treatment failure in a sensitivity analysis. In addition, to investigate the impact of missing viral loads, a sensitivity analysis was performed in which person-time was defined as time in treatment with regular viral load measurements, with patients without a viral load for more than one year being censored. Lastly, analyses excluding clinics with much higher or lower rates of failure than average were also performed.

**Results**

**Study sample**

There were 72,181 adult patients who initiated a standard first-line ART regimen after 2003, and had at least six months of follow-up. Most were aged between 30 and 39 years (43.7%), female (65.0%) and had a first-line ART regimen containing d4T (60.0%) and EFV (86.9%). Follow-up time ended in treatment failure for 9.5% of patients, death for 4.8%, switch to second-line ART for 3.5%, loss to follow-up for 19.7%, clinic transfer for 25.1% and censoring for the remaining 37.5% at the end of the study period. Median follow-up time was 21.5 months (IQR: 8.8–41.5). After 5.5 years on treatment, >15% of subjects experienced first-line treatment failure. The failure rate was similar in all clinics except for Clinic E, which showed a much higher rate, and Clinic I, which had a lower rate.

**Variable frequencies**

Values of potential predictor variables by the year of ART initiation are shown in Table 1. TDF became more commonly prescribed over d4T starting in 2011, as guidelines changed. EFV was prescribed more often than NVP, especially in recent years. Patients initiating treatment became slightly healthier over time, with decreasing TB (25.1% in 2004, 8.2% in 2013), higher initiating CD4 counts (22.4% <50 cells/mm³ in 2004, 12.4% in 2013) and fewer underweight patients in later years (12.2% in 2004, 7.7% in 2013). Visit adherence worsened over time, with 6.0% having missed visits in the first six months on treatment in 2004 and 35.4% in 2013. Most patients had five to six scheduled visits, and 84% who missed visits missed only one visit.

**Multivariate adjusted failure-time models**

Fit diagnostic graphs and Cox-Snell residuals indicated the Weibull model fit the data best. The final predictors from stepwise selection of predictors in the non-imputed model included age, sex, missed visits during the first six months on treatment, TB history, NNRTI, CD4, MCV and haemoglobin, and interactions between NNRTI and CD4, haemoglobin and CD4, and sex and CD4. When this model was fit to imputed baseline data, all variables still had \( p < 0.2 \) and hazard ratios remained the same. When other predictors and interactions were added back into the model using imputed data, blood pressure and interactions between age and sex, sex and haemoglobin and sex and NNRTI had \( p < 0.2 \). These model variations were considered in IECV.

**Cross-validation of models**

We tested 12 models. The selected model (Table 2) had the highest Harrell’s C-statistic (60.1) and one of the lowest differences in five-year survival prediction (\(< 0.01%\) difference between overall actual and predicted failure at five years on ART). Adding BMI or blood pressure values and adjusting parameters for year and clinic did not improve model performance. The model chosen as the predictive model maximized the C-statistic, but when weaker predictors were removed from the model, we found that CD4 count, age, sex and having missed visits in the first six months on treatment could account for most of the model’s discrimination. Without NNRTI, MCV, haemoglobin and history of TB, the C-statistic dropped slightly to 59.7. Among the subset of the population that initiated ART in 2011 and later, the final model was very predictive, with a C-statistic of 64.0.
Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the study population stratified by year of ART initiation

| Year | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| N    | 2025 | 3998 | 6616 | 7298 | 9535 | 11,361 | 11,312 | 8820 | 7314 | 3902 |
| Female | 68.5 | 68.1 | 65.3 | 66.0 | 66.5 | 65.6 | 63.6 | 65.5 | 63.2 | 64.1 | 61.7 |
| Age (years) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18–24.9 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 5.9 | 6.4 | 5.9 | 6.8 | 7.4 |
| 25–29.9 | 17.3 | 16.6 | 14.8 | 15.8 | 15.6 | 15.6 | 16.2 | 16.0 | 16.2 | 18.1 |
| 30–34.9 | 25.3 | 24.7 | 24.3 | 24.1 | 22.3 | 22.4 | 21.8 | 21.7 | 21.8 | 21.8 |
| 35–39.9 | 21.2 | 21.3 | 20.5 | 21.2 | 21.4 | 20.6 | 20.9 | 21.5 | 20.9 | 20.3 |
| 40–44.9 | 14.4 | 15.0 | 16.0 | 14.6 | 14.8 | 14.6 | 14.6 | 14.6 | 14.3 | 13.3 |
| 45–49.9 | 9.2 | 8.8 | 9.4 | 9.1 | 9.5 | 10.2 | 10.0 | 9.7 | 9.3 | 9.4 |
| 50–54.9 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 5.4 | 5.5 | 5.6 | 5.5 | 5.4 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 5.2 |
| ≥55 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 3.8 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 4.6 |
| TB positive | 25.1 | 21.7 | 14.4 | 12.1 | 12.4 | 18.2 | 17.4 | 13.9 | 9.2 | 8.2 |
| NRTI in first-line ART | | | | | | | | | | |
| TDF | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 3.1 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 49.6 | 85.5 | 86.3 | 92.5 |
| AZT | 8.4 | 6.7 | 6.5 | 7.1 | 7.4 | 6.0 | 6.9 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 3.3 |
| D4T | 90.9 | 92.4 | 92.0 | 89.8 | 87.9 | 88.5 | 43.5 | 10.2 | 9.3 | 4.2 |
| NNRTI in first-line ART | | | | | | | | | | |
| EFV | 86.7 | 88.0 | 87.0 | 83.4 | 80.3 | 84.8 | 87.2 | 89.4 | 92.7 | 96.7 |
| NVP | 13.3 | 12.0 | 13.0 | 16.6 | 19.7 | 15.2 | 12.8 | 10.6 | 7.3 | 3.3 |
| Missed visits in the first six months on treatment | 6.0 | 10.1 | 15.6 | 19.0 | 20.4 | 22.8 | 25.6 | 26.5 | 33.8 | 35.4 |
| WHO stage | | | | | | | | | | |
| Stage 1 | 63.1 | 63.9 | 68.0 | 66.5 | 66.5 | 70.5 | 73.4 | 77.9 | 83.1 | 84.8 |
| Stage 2 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.7 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| Stage 3 | 31.4 | 29.5 | 23.3 | 22.6 | 22.4 | 23.4 | 21.6 | 18.0 | 13.7 | 12.9 |
| Stage 4 | 4.0 | 5.2 | 7.3 | 9.3 | 8.4 | 4.7 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 2.6 | 1.7 |
| BMI (kg/m²) | | | | | | | | | | |
| <18.5 | 12.2 | 13.6 | 12.0 | 12.5 | 11.2 | 12.2 | 10.9 | 9.1 | 8.0 | 7.7 |
| 18.5–24.9 | 41.4 | 41.2 | 38.7 | 38.0 | 42.7 | 46.3 | 42.4 | 42.6 | 39.5 | 39.6 |
| 25–29.9 | 11.6 | 10.9 | 10.7 | 11.9 | 13.8 | 15.0 | 16.2 | 17.3 | 18.3 | 18.5 |
| ≥30 | 5.4 | 4.3 | 4.5 | 5.2 | 6.8 | 6.8 | 9.0 | 10.0 | 12.3 | 11.6 |
| Missing | 29.5 | 30.1 | 34.1 | 32.5 | 25.5 | 19.8 | 21.6 | 21.1 | 21.9 | 22.6 |
| CD4 count (cells/mm³) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 0–24 | 12.1 | 13.3 | 12.9 | 11.5 | 10.6 | 8.5 | 8.5 | 7.5 | 6.3 | 6.7 |
| 25–49 | 10.3 | 9.6 | 8.8 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 7.7 | 7.1 | 6.4 | 5.2 | 5.7 |
| 50–99 | 18.5 | 13.9 | 14.7 | 15.3 | 14.9 | 14.7 | 13.5 | 12.0 | 9.0 | 10.1 |
| 100–199 | 21.6 | 27.0 | 25.3 | 29.6 | 31.1 | 30.1 | 27.9 | 24.0 | 19.8 | 20.9 |
| 200–349 | 4.4 | 5.3 | 5.6 | 7.5 | 10.3 | 12.9 | 19.1 | 20.7 | 28.6 | 27.8 |
| ≥350 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 4.1 | 3.0 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 9.6 |
| Missing | 31.9 | 29.7 | 30.9 | 24.7 | 21.9 | 22.0 | 21.1 | 25.2 | 25.7 | 19.2 |
| Haemoglobin (g/dL) | | | | | | | | | | |
| <12 | 37.7 | 38.1 | 39.7 | 40.3 | 40.9 | 42.6 | 43.3 | 40.1 | 38.6 | 37.1 |
| ≥12 | 32.4 | 28.9 | 28.0 | 27.6 | 28.8 | 31.0 | 32.5 | 35.6 | 40.6 | 41.0 |
| Missing | 30.0 | 33.0 | 32.3 | 32.1 | 30.3 | 26.4 | 24.2 | 24.3 | 20.8 | 21.9 |
| Creatinine clearance (mL/minute) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Normal (≥90) | 1.8 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 11.1 | 24.0 | 34.7 | 50.9 | 56.8 | 61.6 | 61.7 |
| Mild (60–89) | 1.1 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 5.1 | 7.8 | 12.3 | 9.7 | 10.3 | 9.5 | 8.7 |
| Moderate (30–59) | 0.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.9 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 2.3 |
| Severe (<30) | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 1.1 |
| Missing | 96.3 | 94.0 | 91.3 | 82.3 | 65.8 | 49.5 | 35.4 | 29.6 | 25.7 | 26.4 |
At a population level, this study goes beyond other study estimates for treatment failure by providing a model for estimating the long-term need for second-line ART among specific populations. For example, the five-year failure rate would drop by 9% if the entire population began treatment at a CD4 count of 200–349 cells/mm$^3$ compared with if everyone in the population began treatment at a CD4 count $<$25 cells/mm$^3$, all other factors remaining equal. As CD4 counts at ART initiation increase over time, we expect this will have a positive impact on long-term failure rates. During the time period for this study, guidelines for ART initiation were never above a CD4 threshold of 350 cells/mm$^3$, and individuals initiating ART in this CD4 range may qualify for other health issues like TB or high WHO stage. Individuals initiating ART at high CD4 counts with no health complications may encounter even less failure than this model suggests.

At the individual level, this model can be used to identify patients at the highest risk of treatment failure. Clinicians can effectively resort to adherence counselling and behavioural interventions early, before virologic indication of treatment failure. Ideally, interventions would prevent elevated viral loads in patients with a high risk of failure, which would in turn limit accumulation of drug resistance mutations, poor clinical outcomes and the need for more expensive drugs.

**Predictors of treatment failure**
CD4 count, sex and age group were the most influential baseline predictors of ART failure, and haemoglobin and history of TB were weaker predictors of treatment failure (Table 2).

Survival prediction
The simplified version of the predictive score based on quintiles of the population’s predicted risk of failure from the final model is displayed in Table 3. Baseline CD4 count along with sex and age group were the most influential components of the risk score. According to the hazard ratios derived from the model, individuals with CD4 count $<$25 cells/mm$^3$ had a 73% increase in hazards of failure compared with individuals with CD4 counts of 100–199 cells/mm$^3$ at ART initiation. Individuals who missed visits in the six months following ART initiation were at a significantly higher risk of failure compared with those who missed no visits (HR = 1.41, 95% CI = 1.33, 1.49), and individuals on NVP rather than EFV had increased hazards of treatment failure (HR = 1.33, 95% CI = 1.24, 1.42). MCV, haemoglobin and history of TB were weaker predictors of treatment failure (Table 2).

Figure 1a displays actual failure on treatment for individuals in the study population by risk group, compared with model prediction of failure by risk group (Figure 1b). The model predicts that treatment will fail for 24.4% of patients in the high-risk group and 9.4% of patients in the low-risk group in five years’ time (Table 4).

**Discussion**
Through five years on ART, 15% of patients experienced treatment failure, consistent with previous estimates of treatment failure in South Africa [2]. The scale parameter in the Weibull model was slightly greater than one (1.16), indicating that the hazards of failure were fairly constant and suggesting that the need for regular viral load monitoring does not decrease over time.

**Table 1 (Continued)**

|          | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 |
|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| N        | 2025 | 3998 | 6616 | 7298 | 9535 | 11,361 | 11,312 | 8820 | 7314 | 3902 |
| Blood pressure |      |      |      |      |      |       |       |      |      |      |
| Low      | 1.0  | 0.6  | 0.7  | 0.9  | 1.0  | 0.8   | 1.0   | 0.8  | 0.7  | 0.7  |
| Normal   | 23.3 | 23.6 | 22.8 | 24.9 | 29.0 | 32.2  | 29.8  | 26.1 | 28.3 | 30.8 |
| Borderline high | 19.2 | 17.2 | 17.6 | 18.9 | 22.8 | 28.2  | 28.1  | 29.5 | 31.6 | 33.0 |
| Stage 1 hypertension | 7.1  | 6.7  | 7.2  | 7.0  | 10.2 | 13.6  | 14.9  | 18.5 | 17.8 | 15.9 |
| Stage 2 hypertension | 3.5  | 3.9  | 4.3  | 4.0  | 4.6  | 7.2   | 8.0   | 10.7 | 9.7  | 8.4  |
| Missing  | 46.0 | 48.1 | 47.4 | 44.4 | 32.4 | 18.0  | 18.1  | 14.5 | 11.8 | 11.2 |

BMI: body mass index; NNRTI: non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor; NRTI: nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor.
Table 2. Final Weibull model estimates to predict first-line virologic ART failure after six months on treatment

| Variable | Weibull model beta estimate (95% confidence limits) | p | HR |
|----------|---------------------------------------------------|---|-----|
| Intercept | 9.97 (9.83, 10.11) | <0.0001 | |
| Age (years) | | | |
| 18–24.9 | -0.45 (-0.58, -0.32) | <0.0001 | 1.47 |
| 25–29.9 | -0.23 (-0.33, -0.13) | <0.0001 | 1.22 |
| 30–34.9 | Ref. | | |
| 35–39.9 | 0.20 (0.09, 0.31) | 0.000 | 0.84 |
| 40–44.9 | 0.25 (0.12, 0.38) | 0.000 | 0.80 |
| 45–49.9 | 0.34 (0.19, 0.50) | <0.0001 | 0.74 |
| 50–54.9 | 0.29 (0.10, 0.49) | 0.004 | 0.78 |
| ≥ 55 | 0.36 (0.13, 0.59) | 0.003 | 0.73 |
| Sex | | | |
| Male | -0.14 (-0.26, -0.01) | 0.028 | 1.12 |
| Female | Ref. | | |
| NNRTI | | | |
| NVP | -0.33 (-0.41, -0.25) | <0.0001 | 1.33 |
| EFV | Ref. | | |
| CD4 count (cells/mm³) | | | |
| 0–24 | -0.63 (-0.73, -0.54) | <0.0001 | 1.73 |
| 25–49 | -0.40 (-0.50, -0.30) | <0.0001 | 1.41 |
| 50–99 | -0.26 (-0.35, -0.17) | <0.0001 | 1.25 |
| 100–199 | Ref. | | |
| 200–349 | 0.16 (0.05, 0.27) | 0.006 | 0.87 |
| ≥ 350 | 0.37 (0.15, 0.59) | 0.002 | 0.73 |
| MCV (fL) | | | |
| <80 | Ref. | | |
| 80–95 | -0.15 (-0.24, -0.06) | 0.002 | 1.14 |
| ≥ 95 | -0.28 (-0.41, -0.14) | 0.000 | 1.27 |
| Haemoglobin (g/dL) | | | |
| <12 | -0.11 (-0.18, -0.04) | 0.001 | 1.10 |
| ≥ 12 | Ref. | | |
| History of TB | | | |
| Yes | -0.06 (-0.13, 0.02) | 0.131 | 1.05 |
| No | Ref. | | |
| Missed visits | | | |
| Yes | -0.40 (-0.46, -0.33) | <0.0001 | 1.41 |
| No | Ref. | | |
| Sex and age (years) | | | |
| Female & 18–25 | 0.20 (-0.12, 0.53) | 0.224 | 0.84 |
| Male & 18–25 | 0.15 (-0.05, 0.35) | 0.144 | 0.88 |
| Male & 35–40 | -0.14 (-0.31, 0.03) | 0.099 | 1.13 |
| Male & 40–45 | -0.19 (-0.38, 0.00) | 0.048 | 1.18 |
| Male & 45–50 | -0.33 (-0.55, -0.10) | 0.004 | 1.33 |
| Male & 50–55 | -0.12 (-0.41, 0.16) | 0.393 | 1.11 |
| Male & ≥ 55 | -0.17 (-0.49, 0.16) | 0.314 | 1.16 |

Scale | 1.16

MCV: mean corpuscular volume; NNRTI: non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor.

Table 3. Approximation of ART failure risk group score based on final model parameters

| Score calculation | Score | Risk group | Predicted risk of failure at five years |
|-------------------|-------|------------|----------------------------------------|
| 1. Sex and age (years): | | | |
| Females: Age: | | | |
| 14–17 | Medium-high | 18.0% |
| 18–24.9 | 12–13 | 14.8% |
| 25–29.9 | 9–11 | Medium-low | 12.3% |
| 30–34.9 | 6–8 | Low | 9.4% |
| 35–49.9 | 2 | | |
| 50 | + | 0 |
| Males: Age: | | | |
| 18–24.9 | +7 | | |
| 25–29.9 | +6 | | |
| 30–34.9 | +5 | | |
| 35–49.9 | +4 | | |
| ≥ 50 | +3 | | |
| 2. NNRTI: | | | |
| NVP | +3 | | |
| EFV | +0 | | |
| 3. CD4 count (cells/mm³): | | | |
| 25–49 | +8 | | |
| 50–99 | +6 | | |
| 100–199 | +4 | | |
| 200–349 | +2 | | |
| ≥ 350 | +0 | | |
| 4. MCV (fL): | | | |
| <80 | +0 | | |
| 80–95 | +1 | | |
| ≥ 95 | +3 | | |
| 5. Haemoglobin (g/dL): | | | |
| <12 | +1 | | |
| ≥ 12 | +0 | | |
| 6. History of TB: | | | |
| Yes | +1 | | |
| No | +0 | | |
| 7. Missed visits during the first six months on treatment: | | | |
| Yes | +4 | | |
| No | +0 | | |

Score is calculated by summation of the seven predictors. Variables are measured at ART initiation except for missed visits, which is measured over the first six months on ART.

Other predictors, including low CD4, history of TB, NVP rather than EFV use and low haemoglobin have previously been associated with treatment failure and death [2–5]. Although associations with treatment outcomes and haemoglobin are common, MCV has not previously been shown to predict failure. A model excluding MCV was considered in cross-validation analysis, but inclusion of MCV offered slightly better model discrimination. MCV can become elevated with AZT use over time on treatment, but when the model was stratified by NRTI, the association remained consistent for patients irrespective of their NRTI. Elevated MCV values may
reflect macrocytosis caused by food insecurity (folate or vitamin B12 deficiency) or alcohol intake [30].

Although year was not included as a predictor, so that the model may be used in the future, we saw higher failure rates in recent years. The reason for increased failure may be related to poorer patient management and worse visit adherence with more patients in care, or due to differences in laboratory procedures for viral load testing. If trends towards increasing treatment failure continue, the model may under-estimate failure. Similarly, if patient retention improves over time, more treatment failures may occur prior to loss to follow-up, in which case this model would also under-estimate the absolute need for second-line ART.

Model performance
Cross-validation of candidate models ensured that the chosen model would be most useful with respect to identifying patients at a high risk of failure when applied to external data. Many interaction terms were statistically significant in the model initially but did not offer improved model discrimination or calibration when applied to external data, with the exception of the interaction between age and sex.

The ability of the model to discriminate failure times between individual patients (Harrell's C-statistic) was lower than desired (60%), but the model had good calibration, with a five-year predictive risk equivalent to the actual failure at five years. Risk groups of patients were identified using quintiles of calculated risk of failure in the population, and failure estimates from the model by risk group matched the actual failure by risk group over time.

Table 4. Cumulative per cent of patients for whom treatment is predicted to fail during the first five years on ART

| Risk group        | Years on ART |
|-------------------|--------------|
|                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| High (%)          | 3.8| 10.1| 15.4| 20.1| 24.4|
| Medium-high (%)   | 2.7| 7.3| 11.2| 14.7| 18.0|
| Medium (%)        | 2.2| 5.9| 9.1| 12.1| 14.8|
| Medium-low (%)    | 1.8| 4.9| 7.5| 10.0| 12.3|
| Low (%)           | 1.4| 3.7| 5.7| 7.6| 9.4|

Study strengths, weaknesses and future direction
The main weakness of the study is the low discrimination score for the predictive model. The C-statistic of 60% implies that the model correctly identifies a patient is at higher risk than another patient 60% of the time in independent data. Including clinic site could improve model discrimination but could not be done in a predictive model intended for external use. Although not tested outside of South Africa, this model may be applied to other populations with similar demographic and clinical profiles. Future work could identify clinic settings that share predictors of ART failure for developing setting-specific models. The low discrimination score also indicates that treatment failure is a complex event, likely having determinants based on individual behaviour and external circumstances, and therefore cannot be very precisely identified through a model of baseline clinic, lab and demographic variables. Missing data were also a weakness of the study. Multiple imputations were used so that patients with missing predictor variables could be included. Impact of missing or misclassified outcomes was explored in sensitivity analyses.

The main strength of the model is its ability to provide insight into factors associated with the risk of treatment failure and their relative influence, and to identify risk groups of patients most likely to fail. Practically, the identification of high-risk groups for treatment failure has an important application in clinical settings, where high-risk patients could be monitored more closely and receive treatment adherence counselling or other interventions [31]. The large sample size was also a strength of this study and allowed for modelling of interaction terms.

Conclusions
Our treatment failure model was able to identify patients at risk of failure; estimate the proportion of patients failing treatment over time for those who remain in care; and emphasized the importance of CD4 count, age, sex and visit adherence in determining patients at risk of failure. Future work could expand the model to account for patients who are lost to care, since estimating outcomes for all patients regardless of whether or not they stay in care would be helpful for public health planning. In addition, further research into best practices for ART adherence interventions.
is an important next step in order to effectively improve outcomes for high-risk patients.

Authors’ affiliations
1Center for Global Health & Development, Boston University, Boston, MA, USA; 2Clinical HIV Research Unit, Department of Internal Medicine, School of Clinical Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa; 3Department of Epidemiology, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA; 4Health Economics and Epidemiology Research Office, Department of Internal Medicine, School of Clinical Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa; 5Right to Care, HIV Testing Center, Johannesburg, South Africa; 6Witkoppen Health and Welfare Centre, Johannesburg, South Africa; 7Department of Medical Microbiology, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa

Competing interests
The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors’ contributions
JR, PI, CRH and MF conceived the study. JR and MF designed the statistical analyses. KS, MM, LL, IS, JB and OE coordinated data collection and implementation at clinic sites. JR did the statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript. PI, CRH, RB, MM and LL provided technical input. All authors interpreted the data, revised the manuscript and reviewed the final paper.

Acknowledgements and funding
This work was funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) through the following agreement: 674-A-12-00029.

The authors’ views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the USAID or the US government.

References
1. UNAIDS. HIV and AIDS estimates, South Africa [Internet]. 2014. (cited 2015 Sep 1). Available from: http://www.unaids.org/en/regionscountries/countries/southafrica
2. Boule A, Van Cutsen G, Hilderbrand K, Cragg C, Abrahams M, Shaheed M, et al. Seven-year experience of a primary care antiretroviral treatment programme in Khayelitsha, South Africa. AIDS. 2010;24:563–72. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/QAD.0b013e32833fb7
3. Barth RE, Tempelman HA, Moraba R, Hoepelman AI. Long-term outcome of an HIV-treatment programme in rural Africa: viral suppression despite early mortality. AIDS Res Treat. 2011;2011:434375. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2011/434375
4. Fox MP, Van Cutsem G, Giddy J, Maskew M, Keiser O, Prozesky H, et al. Predictors and correlates of adherence to combination antiretroviral therapy in a resource-limited setting. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2012;60(4):428–37. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e3182257885
5. Doty MJ, Boule A, Mant D, Yutkin P. Associations with virologic treatment failure in adults on antiretroviral therapy in South Africa. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2010;54(5):489–95. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e31819d1788
6. Greig JE, du Cros RM, Mills C, Ugoeseruchukwu W, Estetowaghan A, Grillo A, et al. Predictors of raised viral load during antiretroviral therapy in patients with and without prior antiretroviral use: a cross-sectional study. PLoS One. 2013;8(8):e71407. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0071407
7. Bastard M, Pinoges L, Balkan S, Szumilin E, Ferreyra C, Pujades-Rodriguez M. Timeliness of clinic attendance is a good predictor of virological response and resistance to antiretroviral drugs in HIV-infected patients. PLoS One. 2012;7(11):e49091. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0049091
8. El-Khatib Z, Katzenstein D, Marrone G, Laher F, Mohapi L, Petzold M, et al. Adherence to drug-refill is a useful early warning indicator of virologic and immunologic failure among HIV patients on first-line ART in South Africa. PLoS One. 2011;6(3):e17518. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0017518
9. Brennan AT, Maskew M, Sanne I, Fox MP. The importance of clinic attendance in the first six months on antiretroviral treatment: a retrospective analysis at a large public sector HIV clinic in South Africa. J Int AIDS Soc. 2010;13:49. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1758-2652-13-49
10. Ford N, Darder M, Spelman T, Maclean E, Mills E, Boulle A. Early adherence to antiretroviral medication as a predictor of long-term HIV virological suppression: five-year follow up of an observational cohort. PLoS One. 2010;5(5):e000460. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0000460
11. May M, Rosyton P, Egger M, Justice AC, Sterne JAC. Development and validation of a prognostic model for survival time data: application to prognosis of HIV positive patients treated with antiretroviral therapy. Statist Med. 2004;23(19):2375–98. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.1825
12. May M, Boulle A, Phiri S, Messou E, Myer L, Wood R, et al. IeDEA Southern Africa and West Africa. Prognosis of patients with HIV-1 infection starting antiretroviral therapy in sub-Saharan Africa: a collaborative analysis of scale-up programmes. Lancet. 2010;376:469–77. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60666-6
13. Von Huppendi P. Regression with missing Ys: an improved strategy for analyzing multiply imputed data. Sociol Methodol. 2007;37(1):83–117. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9531.2007.00180.x
14. Allison PD. Multiple imputation for missing data: a cautionary tale. Socio Methods Res. 2000;28(3):301–9. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/009496300028003003
15. Rosyton P. Multiple imputation of missing values. Stata J. 2004;4(3):227–41.
16. Rosyton P, Sauerbrei W. A new measure of prognostic separation in survival data. Statist Med. 2004;23:723–48. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.1621
17. Rosyton P, Parmar MKB, Sylvester R. Construction and validation of a prognostic model across several studies, with an application in superficial bladder cancer. Statist Med. 2004;23:907–26. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.1669
18. Harrell FE, Lee KL, Mark DB. Tutorial in biostatistics: multiple prognostic models: issues in developing models, evaluating assumptions and adequacy, and measuring and reducing errors. Statist Med. 1996;15:361–87. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0258(19960229)15:4<361:AID-SIM168>3.0.CO;2-y
19. Liu L, Forman S, Barton B. Fitting Cox model using PROC PHREG and beyond in SAS. SAS Global Forum 2009: Statistics and Data Analysis; Paper 236. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.
20. Lin G, So Y, Johnston G. Analyzing survival data with competing risks using SAS software. SAS Global Forum 2012: Statistics and Data Analysis; Paper 344. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.
21. Vinikoor MJ, Schuttner L, Moyo C, Li M, Musonda P, Hlaachaambwa LM, et al. Late refills during the first year of antiretroviral therapy predict mortality and program failure among HIV-infected adults in urban Zambia. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses. 2014;30(1):74–7. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/aid.2013.0167
22. Fatti G, Meintjes G, Shea J, Eley B, Grimwood A. Improved survival and antiretroviral treatment outcomes in adults receiving community-based adherence support: 5-year results from a multicentre cohort study in South Africa. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2012;61:e50–8. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e318262aaee
23. Nachega JB, Mills EJ, Schechter M. Antiretroviral therapy adherence and retention in care in middle-income and low-income countries: current status of knowledge and research priorities. Curr Opin HIV AIDS. 2010;5(7):70–7. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/COH.0b013e32833ad61
24. Nachega JB, McIver VC, van Zyl GU, Gardner EM, Wolfgang P, Hong SY, et al. HIV treatment adherence, drug resistance, virologic failure: evolving concepts. Infect Disord Drug Targets. 2011;11:67–174. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.2174/18712561179588663
25. Vrijens B, Goetghebeur E, de Klerk E, Rode R, Mayer S, Urquhart J. Modelling the association between adherence and viral load in HIV-infected patients. Statist Med. 2005;24:2719–31. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.2130
26. Ouyai J, Byakka-Tusime J, Charliebois ED, Kityo C, Mugerwa R, Mugyenyi P, et al. Multiple validated measures of adherence indicate high levels of adherence to generic HIV antiretroviral therapy in a resource-limited setting. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2004;36:S. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.AID.0b013e32821f0014
27. Langebeek N, Gissolf EH, Reiss P, Vervoort SC, hafsteinsson T, Richter C, et al. Predictors and correlates of adherence to combination antiretroviral therapy [ART] for chronic HIV infection: a meta-analysis. BMC Med. 2014;12:142. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1741-7015-12-142
28. Mills EJ, Nachega JB, Bangsberg DR, Singh S, Rachlis B, Wu P, et al. Adherence to HAART: a systematic review of developed and developing nation patient-reported barriers and facilitators. PLoS Med. 2006;3:e438. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0030438

29. El-Khatib Z, Ekstrom AM, Coovadia A, Abrams EJ, Petzold M, Katzenstein D, et al. Adherence and virologic suppression during the first 24 weeks on antiretroviral therapy among women in Johannesburg, South Africa: a prospective cohort study. BMC Public Health. 2011;11:88. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-88

30. Aslinia F, Mazza JJ, Yale SH. Megaloblastic anemia and other causes of Macrocytosis. Clin Med Res. 2006;4(3):236-41. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.3121/cmr.4.3.236

31. Bärnighausen T, Chaiyachati K, Chimbindi N, Peoples A, Haberer J, Newell ML. Interventions to increase antiretroviral adherence in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review of evaluation studies. Lancet Infect Dis. 2011;11(12):942-51. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(11)70181-5