

Obesity and HIV: a compounding problem

Chara Biggs^{a*} and Elizabeth Spooner^b

^aDiscipline of Dietetics and Human Nutrition, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa

^bDepartment of Paediatrics and Child Health, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

*Corresponding author, email: biggsc@ukzn.ac.za



Objectives: A cross-sectional study was undertaken at Lancers Road Clinic, Durban, South Africa to determine body composition, haemoglobin, serum albumin and serum high sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP) levels in asymptomatic ART-naive HIV positive adults. **Methods:** All eligible adults attending the clinic were sampled. Body composition was assessed using deuterium dilution. Descriptive statistics, Wilcoxon rank-sum test, chi-square test, Fisher's exact test and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient were used for data analysis. **Results:** A total of 84 participants (CD4 count: 542.5 ± 145 cell/mm³) enrolled. The mean body mass index (BMI) was $29.5 (\pm 6.4)$ kg/m² and the mean fat mass percentage was $44.9 (\pm 18.7)$. The prevalence of overweight (26.2%, 22/84) and obesity (46.4%, 39/84) was high. Mean haemoglobin (Hb) levels were 12.0 ± 1.6 g/dl. Mild, moderate and severe anaemia was present in 21.4% (18/84), 20.2% (17/84) and 1.2% (1/84) of patients, respectively. Mean albumin levels (36.2 ± 3.8 g/l) were on the borderline low range of normal with mildly depleted albumin levels being present in a third (32.1%, 27/84) of patients. The mean hs-CRP levels (5.5 ± 7.2 mg/l) were high. **Conclusion:** In this cohort of patients, wasting was not associated with HIV as the prevalence of overweight/obesity was high and followed the population trend in SA. This seemingly well, asymptomatic population of people living with HIV was at an increased risk of morbidity, progression and death due to the compounding factors of overweight/obesity, hypoalbuminemia, raised hs-CRP levels and anaemia.

Keywords: HIV, ART-naive, obesity, albumin, C-reactive protein

Introduction

South Africa (SA) is currently facing three devastating epidemics, that of HIV/AIDS,¹ obesity² and non-communicable diseases (NCDs).^{1,3} HIV/AIDS remains the leading single cause of mortality in SA, despite the number of HIV-related deaths having almost halved from 1997 to 2012.¹ The obesity epidemic has been a major factor associated with the rise in NCDs,⁴⁻⁶ which have become the leading group of causes of mortality in SA.¹

Historically, HIV/AIDS was described as the 'wasting' disease as weight loss was universally accepted as a prognostic marker of disease progression of HIV.⁷ This perception is so strong that it has shaped cultural beliefs amongst black South Africans. Higher body weights have been valued as they symbolise health and beauty, in contrast to weight loss or thinness which symbolises unhappiness and someone living with HIV/AIDS.⁸⁻¹⁰

Weight loss and wasting, as an inevitable outcome of HIV infection, has been challenged in developed countries as the rates of overweight and obesity are high amongst treatment-naive HIV-infected people. Rates appear to mimic that of the general population.¹¹⁻¹⁴ Although this trend has scarcely been investigated,¹⁴ preliminary data from developing nations support this hypothesis. In these studies, high rates of overweight (38.4%) and obesity (21.5%) have been reported amongst treatment-naive Nigerian adults¹⁵ as well as amongst treatment-naive black SA females where rates of overweight ranged from 28%¹⁶ to 32%⁸ and obesity from 20%⁸ to 37%.^{16,17}

Obesity potentially exacerbates the metabolic abnormalities associated with HIV and antiretroviral therapy (ART).¹⁸ In accordance with the WHO recommendations, the SA Department of Health (DOH) implemented the 'Universal Test and Treat' (UTT) guidelines from September 2016.¹⁹ Any individual, therefore, who tests positive for HIV, regardless of CD4 count, qualifies for

ART. The initiation of ART results in further weight gain^{12,20,21} and a higher prevalence of hypertension and metabolic syndrome.²² In SA, statistics from HIV clinics show a high prevalence of both overweight and obesity^{13,23} with a significant proportion of those initiating ART becoming overweight/obese within one year.⁸ As obesity contributes to the incidence of NCD, and those on ART are more susceptible to a range of NCDs,^{20,24-28} the synergistic effect is potentially devastating as both overweight and obesity is associated with an increase in multimorbidity in those receiving ART.²⁹

With the implementation of UTT, the prevalence of overweight and obesity in treatment-naive individuals in SA needs to be determined as the combination of ART and obesity may lower life expectancy further.²⁹

Methods

Study design and sample size determination

A data-set from a double-blind randomised controlled trial that investigated the effect of inulin supplementation on HIV progression was analysed.³⁰ During 2013,³¹ 100 HIV-infected ART-naive black male and female adults attending the eThekweni Lancers Road Clinic, in Durban, South Africa were enrolled in the trial. Complete data are available for 84 participants (74%). Fourteen adults were not eligible due to the exclusion criteria: pregnancy or lactation; WHO AIDS stage 2 to 4; isoniazid (INH) prophylaxis; or statin use due to the impact on hs-CRP.³² A clinician conducted the medical examination to ensure compliance with the exclusion criteria and to calculate the Karnofsky performance scale/score as a measure of health.

The Biomedical Research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (BFC145/010) as well as the eThekweni Health, Social Services Health Unit gave permission for this study. Written

informed consent was obtained from all participants who volunteered to be included in the study. Their anonymity was protected. They received their standard medical care during the study and were free to withdraw consent without consequences at any stage.

Data collection

Anthropometric measurements used the standardised methods of the International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry (ISAK). Participants were weighed in a fasted state after urination and in minimal clothing (underwear) to the nearest 0.01 kg using a calibrated Masskot scale (50 g to 150 kg) (MultiPark, Columbine Place, Industrial Place, Durban). Height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a stadiometer (Seca 213, Hamburg, Germany). All measurements were done in duplicate and averaged.

Body composition (fat and fat-free mass) was determined using the technique of deuterium dilution where participants drink a deuterium oxide solution and give saliva samples in accordance with the standard operating procedures (SOP) of the International Atomic Energy Agency.³³ The calculations in the SOP were used to calculate fat-free mass (kg), fat-free mass percentage, fat mass (kg) and fat mass percentage.³³

Body mass index was calculated as weight in kilograms divided by height in meters squared and interpreted using the WHO classification.³⁴ Body fat mass index was calculated as body fat mass in kilograms divided by the height in metres squared. Body fat-free mass index was calculated as fat-free mass in kilograms divided by the height in metres squared. As there are no reference tables for people living with HIV, the NHANES-1 tables for healthy adults were used to interpret the ratios.³⁵ As many of the published studies had not reported the fat mass or fat-free mass index this was calculated from the data in the publication.^{16, 36, 37}

Biochemical parameters included CD4 counts, high sensitivity C-reactive protein (hs-CRP), albumin and haemoglobin (Table 1). For CD4 counts, four millilitres (ml) of whole blood was drawn into an ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) containing endotoxin free tube (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) by venepuncture. For albumin and hs-CRP 4 ml of whole blood was drawn into a serum separator tube (BD Biosciences) by venepuncture. The samples were analysed by a SANAS accredited laboratory according to international standards.

Haemoglobin was analysed using the HemoCue® Hb201 (HemoCue AB, Ängelholm, Sweden) according to the manufacturer's instructions.³⁸ If the Hb level was below 10 g/dl, the test was repeated using another HemoCue® Hb201 to confirm the reading. Anaemia was defined as follows: mild anaemia 11–11.9 g/dl, moderate anaemia 8–10.9 g/dl and severe anaemia < 8 g/dl.³⁹

Table 1: Summary of the methods and equipment used

| Variable | Method | Equipment |
|------------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Body composition | Deuterium dilution | Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy |
| CD4 | Flow cytometry | BD FACSCalibur |
| hs-CRP | Latex immunoturbidimetric assay | Abbott Architect ci8200 |
| Albumin | Bromocresol purple assay | Abbott Architect ci8200 |
| Haemoglobin | Cyanmethemoglobin | HemoCue® Hb201 |

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis software (SAS) version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA) was used. Quantitative variables were examined for departure from normality using the skewness statistic and its standard error. Normally distributed quantitative variables were described using means, standard deviations (SD) and ranges. Groups were compared using independent sample t-tests in the case of two unmatched groups. Where the data are non-normally distributed the Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used. Categorical variables were described using frequency and relative frequency tables. Where the assumption of the chi-square test of large-cell frequencies had been violated, Fisher's exact test was used. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used for nonparametric data to assess the relationship between two variables, whether continuous or discrete; $p < 0.05$ indicated a significant difference.

Results

Characteristics of the participants

Of the 84 participants, most were female (77/84, 92%) with a mean age of 34.9 ± 9.2 years and a CD4 count of 548 ± 147 cells/mm³ compared with males (7/84, 8%; 38.2 ± 10.9 years; 485 ± 104 cells/mm³) (Table 2). Approximately half (44/84, 52.4%) had a CD4 count of > 500 cell/mm³. All were asymptomatic as reflected by a Karnofsky score of 100 (81/84, 96%) or 90 (3/84, 4%).

Body composition characteristics of the participants

In general, females were overweight (BMI 29.9 ± 6.4 kg/m², fat percent $47.0 \pm 17.8\%$) compared with normal-weighted males (BMI 24.2 ± 4.3 kg/m², fat percent $25.1 \pm 16.3\%$) (see Table 2). The mean BMI ($p = 0.02$) and fat mass percentage ($p = 0.03$) of the males was significantly lower. Females were mostly overweight (19/77, 24.7%) or obese (39/77, 50.7%) with only a quarter being of normal body weight (18/77, 23.4%) (Table 3). Males were of normal weight (3/7, 43.8%) or overweight (3/7, 43.8%). The mean fat mass index was significantly higher for females (15.0 kg/m²) ($p = 0.04$) when compared with males (5.83 kg/m²) while the mean fat-free mass index was significantly lower for females versus males (15.5 kg/m² versus 18.7 kg/m²) ($p = 0.03$). One female was severely malnourished and one male had mild malnutrition—both were unable to find employment and had no money for food.

Biochemical characteristics of the participants

The mean CRP (5.5 ± 7.2 mg/dl) was high (see Table 2). There was a weak negative correlation using the Spearman rank correlation test between the levels of albumin and CRP ($\rho = -0.204$; $p = 0.64$) although this did not reach significance.

The mean albumin levels (36.2 ± 3.8 g/l) were on the borderline low range of normal (35–50 g/l) (see Table 2) with mildly depleted albumin levels (25 to < 35 g/l) being present in a third (27/84, 32.1%), two (2/27, 7.4%) of which were males. Using the Spearman rank correlation test there was a weak positive correlation between the CD4 count and the albumin levels ($\rho = +0.175$; $p = 0.114$) although this did not reach significance.

The mean Hb levels (12.0 ± 1.6 g/dl) (see Table 2) were in the low range of normal (12.1–15.1 g/dl). Mild anaemia was present in 21.4% (18/84), moderate anaemia in 20.2% (17/84) and severe anaemia in 1.2% (1/84) of participants, respectively. Using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test there was no significant correlation between CRP and Hb levels ($p = 0.596$) or in mean CD4 count and Hb levels ($p = 0.542$).

Table 2: Participant demographics and clinical characteristics at baseline

| | Total | Male | Female | p-value* |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| | (n = 84) | (n = 7) | (n = 77) | |
| | Mean (±SD) [min, max] | Mean (±SD) [min, max] | Mean (±SD) [min, max] | |
| Age (years) | 35.2 (±9.3) [19.3, 60.2] | 38.2 (±10.9) [27.3, 60.2] | 34.9 (±9.2) [19.3, 59.4] | 0.471 |
| Height (cm) | 164.0 (±6.2) [147.0, 172.8] | 168.9 (±3.6) [162.4, 172.8] | 159.2 (±5.7) [147.0, 172.1] | 0.000 ^a |
| Weight (kg) | 75.2 (±15.9) [41.8, 128.3] | 68.6 (±10.9) [53.9, 84.9] | 75.8 (±16.2) [41.8, 128.3] | 0.25 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 29.5 (±6.4) [15.7, 51.9] | 24.2 (±4.3) [18.1, 29.1] | 29.9 (±6.4) [15.7, 51.9] | 0.02 ^a |
| Fat-free mass (kg) | 40.1 (±10.6) [18.4, 67.7] | 51.8 (±14.3) [22.7, 67.7] | 39.0 (±9.5) [18.4, 60.8] | 0.002 ^a |
| Fat-free mass (%) | 55.1 (±18.7) [15.4, 97.2] | 74.9 (±16.3) [42.2, 92.6] | 53.0 (±17.8) [15.4, 97.2] | 0.00 ^a |
| Fat mass (kg) | 36.5 (±21.2) [1.5, 108.5] | 16.7 (±8.8) [4.3, 31.1] | 38.6 (±21.1) [15, 108,8] | 0.01 ^a |
| Fat mass (%) | 44.9 (±18.7) [2.8, 84.6] | 25.1 (±16.3) [7.4, 57.8] | 47.0 (±17.8) [2.8, 84.6] | 0.0 ^a |
| Albumin (g/l) | 36.2 (±3.8) [28.0, 46.0] | 37.86 (±5.7) [28.0, 45.0] | 36.0 (±3.6) [28, 46] | 0.437 |
| Hb (g/dl) | 12.0 (±1.6) [7.7, 15.3] | 13.2 (±2.4) [8, 15] | 11.9 (±1.5) [7.7, 15.3] | 0.203 |
| CD4 (cells/mm ³) | 542.5 (±145) [350.0, 948.0] | 485 (±104) [367, 681] | 548 (±147) [348, 948] | 0.275 |
| Hs-CRP (mg/l) | 5.5 (±7.2) [0.2, 36.9] | 11.1, (±15.3) [0.5, 36.9] | 4.9, (±5.9) [0.2, 36.0] | 0.029 ^a |

*The p-value was calculated using Student's t-test to compare means and the chi-squared test to compare proportions. When an important assumption of the chi-squared test had been violated, Fisher's exact test was used; $p < 0.05$ indicates a significant difference between the males and females.

^aDenotes a significant difference although the very small number of males versus females could impact on the accuracy of the analysis.

Table 3: Nutritional status classified according to body mass index (kg/m²)

| BMI (kg/m ²) | Total | Male | Females | Interpretation |
|--------------------------|------------|----------|-----------|-----------------------|
| | n (%) | n (%) | n (%) | |
| < 16 | 1 (1.2) | 0 | 1 (1.3) | Severe malnutrition |
| 16–< 17 | 0 (0.0) | 0 | 0 | Moderate malnutrition |
| 17–< 18.5 | 1 (1.2) | 1 (14.3) | 0 | Mild malnutrition |
| 18.5–< 25 | 21 (25.0) | 3 (42.9) | 18 (23.4) | Normal weight |
| 25–< 30 | 22 (26.2) | 3 (42.9) | 19 (24.7) | Overweight |
| 30–< 35 | 22 (26.2) | 0 | 22 (28.6) | Obese Class I |
| 35–40 | 14 (16.7) | 0 | 14 (18.2) | Obese Class II |
| > 40 | 3 (3.5) | 0 | 3 (3.9) | Obese Class III |
| Total | 84 (100.0) | 7 | 77 (100) | |

Discussion

Prevalence of overweight/obesity

These results challenge the long-standing belief that involuntary weight loss/wasting is an integral part of the progression of HIV, and supports the conclusion of both Tate *et al.* (2012) and Crum-Cianflone *et al.* (2010), who proposed that the prevalence of obesity of people who are HIV-infected and ART-naive mirrored that of the general population of the nation in which they resided.^{11,14} The most recent SA population survey, the SANHANES-1, reported that in KZN the prevalence of overweight and obesity amongst black SA females was 25% and 44% respectively.⁴⁰ This correlated with the findings of this study amongst HIV-infected ART-naive black SA females in KZN where the prevalence of overweight and obesity was 25% and 51% respectively. The prevalence of overweight and obesity, even in less developed countries, appears to follow or exceed the national population trends, with weight loss and wasting no longer an inevitable consequence of the progression of HIV.

Body composition

Studies in SA using advanced methods of body composition determination, such as deuterium dilution and dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), are limited. These study participants' fat-free mass index (15.5 kg/m²) was similar to that of HIV-infected ART-naive black SA breastfeeding mothers (15.7 kg/m²)³⁶ and black SA HIV-infected ART-naive females (15.9 kg/m²).⁴¹ Their fat-free mass, however, was lower than that of HIV-uninfected black SA females (17.05 kg/m²).³⁷ This was in agreement with the findings of international studies, which concluded that the fat-free mass of asymptomatic adults living with HIV was lower than that of healthy controls.^{42–45} This has important clinical ramifications as diminishing fat-free mass has been linked to an increased progression of HIV,⁴⁶ an impairment in strength and functional status,⁴⁷ low bone mineral density⁴⁸ and increased mortality.⁴⁹

When compared with other SA studies, these study participants displayed substantially higher levels of body fat as represented by the higher fat mass index (15.0 kg/m²), BMI (29.5 kg/m²) and fat mass percentage (44.9%) than that of HIV-infected ART-naive black South African breastfeeding mothers living in a rural area of KZN (10.5 kg/m²: 26.2 kg/m²: 39.2%) and black African HIV-infected ART-naive females in Soweto (10.1 kg/m²: 26.5 kg/m²: 39.5%).^{16, 36} Although it is well established that excess body fat results in adverse health outcomes in the HIV-uninfected population,⁵⁰ the consequences of the superimposition of HIV infection have not been investigated extensively.¹⁴ As both ART and obesity are independently related to increased rates of cardiovascular disease, hyperlipidaemia, hypertension and insulin resistance,^{26, 28, 51} and obesity in HIV is associated with a greater likelihood of multimorbidity, it is feasible to conclude that ART in combination with obesity may lower life expectancy further.²⁹ The implementation of the UTT guidelines, which will expose many more obese individuals to ART and the related complications, further raise the urgency of addressing the obesity epidemic in South Africa.

High-sensitivity C-reactive protein

The mean hs-CRP levels were high (> 5 mg/l) with 12% being above 10 mg/l. Raised CRP levels are an important predictor of all-cause mortality in HIV-infected ART-naive adults independent of anthropometry, CD4 count and viral load.^{52–55} Adults with a CD4 count of > 500 cells/mm³ and a CRP level > 3 mg/l had a 2.7-fold

higher adjusted odds of death when compared with those whose CRP was < 1 mg/l.⁵⁵ Based on these parameters, 39% of this apparently well, asymptomatic population was at higher risk of death. Raised levels of hs-CRP in those with HIV is associated with a markedly increased relative risk of an acute myocardial infarction⁵⁶ and cardiovascular disease⁵⁷ and hs-CRP levels may be important in the assessment of cardiovascular risk in this population. As CRP is an important inflammatory marker in obesity, and tends to be increased in the presence of excessive adiposity,^{58–60} the raised CRP levels could in part be attributed to the high prevalence of obesity. Weight-loss strategies therefore could perceivably reduce the risk and improve the outcome, reinforcing the urgency to address obesity in people living with HIV in SA. Although the Nutritional Guidelines for HIV-infected Adults and Children in Southern African (2008) are clear that overweight, asymptomatic adults need to lose weight sensibly,⁶¹ the SA guidelines briefly refer to obesity as being undesirable when on ART but primarily focus on preventing weight loss and the importance of regaining the lost weight.⁶² To shift the perception amongst the SA black African population that 'big is beautiful', the stigma that weight loss and thinness is associated with HIV/AIDS^{9, 63} needs to be actively addressed as the beliefs, traditions and attitudes of black women in South Africa promote obesity.^{10, 40} One of the key challenges that SA as a nation faces regarding the control and prevention of obesity is the cultural discrepancy that highlights the preference for larger body sizes⁶⁴ and the satisfaction with their body size as many perceive themselves to be a smaller body shape than they actually are, resulting in them being unable to identify themselves as being obese.⁶³

Albumin

Lower mean albumin levels and a higher prevalence of hypoalbuminemia than expected were found. The borderline low (36.2 g/l) mean albumin levels, although similar to that found in HIV-infected ART-naive individuals in Rwanda (36 g/l)⁶⁵ and Kenya (38.5 g/l),⁶⁶ were well below those described in SA by Hattingh *et al.* (41.3 g/l) and Oosthuizen *et al.* (40.9 g/l).^{67, 68} The prevalence of hypoalbuminemia (32.1%) was two- to fourfold higher than that previously reported in Kenya⁶⁶ and in SA.⁶⁷

Hypoalbuminemia, a strong predictor of mortality,^{69–71} is associated with increased progression of HIV.⁷¹ The United States Women's Interagency HIV Study (WIHS) demonstrated that the three-year mortality for those with albumin levels < 35 g/l was 48% versus 11% in those with levels > 42 g/l and that the relative hazard of death was five times greater regardless of CD4 count.⁶⁹ Pre-ART albumin levels of < 35 g/l in Tanzania were associated with a 4.52 times greater risk of death at the initiation of ART.⁷² Although asymptomatic and not wasted, a third (32.4%) of this study population were at an increased risk of disease progression and death, which may be further increased with the initiation of ART, and this is especially significant in light of the recent implementation of the UTT guidelines.

Anaemia

Nearly one in two (42%) were mildly anaemic, a prevalence which was 10% above that found by the SANHANES-1 general population survey of KZN females (33%).⁴⁰ To our knowledge, this is the only study in SA that has investigated the Hb levels of asymptomatic HIV-infected adults (CD4 542.5 cells/mm³) prior to the initiation of ART (CD4 counts ≤ 200 cells/mm³).^{73, 74} Mild anaemia (Hb 8–14 g/dl men, Hb 8–12 g/dl women) has been shown to have a relative hazard ratio of disease progression of 2.2 when compared with those without anaemia.⁷⁵ Anaemia is a strong independent risk factor for disease progression, mortality

and a loss of quality of life independent of both viral load and CD4 count.^{74, 76–79} Shah *et al.* (2007) suggested that it might be useful to consider albumin levels in relation to the Hb levels to identify high-risk individuals.⁷⁹

Limitations of the study were that this was a relatively small observational study performed on a single cohort of mainly female patients in a specific location, which may have impacted on the findings and may therefore not be applicable to a larger population group.

Conclusions

The high prevalence of both overweight and obesity amongst ART-naive people living with HIV in SA follows the general population trend, exposing them to the well-documented risks of obesity in addition to those associated with HIV. The recent implementation of the UTT will expose many overweight/obese individuals to ART, potentially complicating their outcome. This apparently well, asymptomatic population of people living with HIV was at an increased risk of morbidity, progression and death due to the high prevalence of hypoalbuminemia, raised hs-CRP levels and iron deficiency anaemia. These adults look deceptively well and in the overloaded clinic system would not be identified as being at high risk and in need of additional care. Ironically, overnutrition in the form of an excess intake of energy needed to be addressed while improving undernutrition in the form of micronutrient deficiencies such as iron.

Author's contributions – Dr Chara Biggs planned and implemented the study, processed and interpreted the data and authored the manuscript.

Dr Beth Spooner was the study clinician and assisted with writing the clinical aspects of the paper.

Funding – The equipment for the study and technical expertise was supplied by the International Atomic Energy Agency under the Technical Cooperation Project SAF6015. Funding was supplied by the Competitive Research Grant of the University of KwaZulu-Natal as well as a grant from the National Research Foundation.

Disclosure statement – No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Acknowledgements – Prof Anna Coutsoydis secured funding for the study and was involved in study planning and Dr Photini Kiepiela provided the infrastructure for the study sites. Dr Brodie Daniels assisted in editing this manuscript.

References

1. Pillay-van Wyk V, Msemburi W, Laubscher R, *et al.* Second national burden of disease study South Africa: national and subnational mortality trends, 1997–2009. *The Lancet*. 2013;381: S113.
2. Vorster H. The link between poverty and malnutrition: a South African perspective. *Health SA Gesondheid*. 2010;15(1): 1–6.
3. Mayosi B, Flisher A, Lalloo U, *et al.* The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. *The Lancet*. 2009;374(9693): 934–47. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(09\)61087-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)61087-4)
4. WHO. Non-communicable disease prevention and control: World Health Organization (WHO), South Africa Country Office; 2014 [cited 2017 Jul]. Available from: <http://www.afro.who.int/en/south-africa/country-programmes/4248-non-communicable-disease-prevention-and-control-ncds.html>
5. Devanathan R, Esterhuizen T, Govender R. Overweight and obesity amongst Black women in Durban, KwaZulu-Natal: a 'disease' of

- perception in an area of high HIV prevalence. *Afr J Prim Health Care Fam Med.* 2013;5(1): 1–7.
6. Averett S, Stacey N, Wang Y. Decomposing race and gender differences in underweight and obesity in South Africa. *Economics & Human Biology.* 2014;15: 23–40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ehb.2014.05.003>
 7. Koethe J, Heimbürger D. Nutritional aspects of HIV-associated wasting in sub-Saharan Africa. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2010;91(4): 1138S–42S. <https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.2010.28608D>
 8. Hurley E, Coutsooudis A, Giddy J, et al. Weight evolution and perceptions of adults living with HIV following initiation of antiretroviral therapy in a South African urban setting. *SAMJ.* 2011;101(9): 645–50.
 9. Matoti-Mvalo T, Puoane T. Perceptions of body size and its association with HIV/AIDS. *SAJCN.* 2011;24(1): 40–45.
 10. Puoane T, Fourie J, Shapiro M, et al. 'Big is beautiful'-an exploration with urban black community health workers in a South African township. *SAJCN.* 2005;18(1): 6–15.
 11. Tate T, Willig A, Willig J, et al. HIV infection and obesity: where did all the wasting go? *Antivir Ther.* 2012;17(7): 1281–9. <https://doi.org/10.3851/IMP2348>
 12. Lakey W, Yang L, Yancy W, et al. Short communication: from wasting to obesity: Initial antiretroviral therapy and weight gain in HIV-infected persons. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses.* 2013;29(3): 435–40. <https://doi.org/10.1089/aid.2012.0234>
 13. Hernandez D, Kalichman S, Cherry C, et al. Dietary intake and overweight and obesity among persons living with HIV in Atlanta Georgia. *AIDS Care.* 2017;29(6): 767–71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09540121.2016.1238441>
 14. Crum-Cianflone N, Roediger M, Eberly L, et al. Increasing rates of obesity among HIV-infected persons during the HIV epidemic. *Plos one* 2010;5(4): e10106. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0010106>
 15. Anyabolu E. BMI and risk factors of underweight and obesity in HIV subjects in Eastern Nigeria. *WJA.* 2016;06(01): 8–15. <https://doi.org/10.4236/wja.2016.61002>
 16. Wrottesley S, Micklesfield L, Hamill M, et al. Dietary intake and body composition in HIV-positive and-negative South African women. *Public Health Nutr.* 2014;17(07): 1603–13. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980013001808>
 17. Malaza A, Mossong J, Barnighausen T, et al. Hypertension and obesity in adults living in a high HIV prevalence rural area in South Africa. *PLoS ONE* 2012;7(10): e47761. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0047761>
 18. Amorosa V, Synnestevedt M, Gross R, et al. A tale of 2 epidemics: the intersection between obesity and HIV infection in Philadelphia. *JAIDS* 2005;39(5): 557–61.
 19. DOH. Circular UTT decongestion CCMT directorate; 2016 [cited 2017 Jun]. Available from: [http://www.sahivsoc.org/Files/22%208%2016%20Circular%20UTT%20%20%20Decongestion%20CCMT%20Directorate%20\(2\).pdf](http://www.sahivsoc.org/Files/22%208%2016%20Circular%20UTT%20%20%20Decongestion%20CCMT%20Directorate%20(2).pdf)
 20. Hall V, Thomsen R, Henriksen O, et al. Diabetes in Sub Saharan Africa 1999-2011: epidemiology and public health implications. *BMC Public Health* [internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Jun];11(1):714. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-11-564> Available from: <https://bmcpubhealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/510.1186/1471-2458-1111-1564>
 21. Esposito F, Coutsooudis A, Visser J, et al. Changes in body composition and other anthropometric measures of female subjects on highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART): a pilot study in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. *South Afr J HIV Med.* 2008;9(4): 36–42.
 22. Muhammad S, Sani M, Okeahialam B. Cardiovascular disease risk factors among HIV-infected Nigerians receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Niger Med J.* 2013;54(3): 185–90.
 23. Huis in 't Veld D, Pengpid S, Colebunders R, et al. Body mass index and waist circumference in patients with HIV in South Africa and associated socio-demographic, health related and psychosocial factors. *AIDS Behav.* 2017;1-15.
 24. Bradshaw D, Groenewald P, Laubscher R, et al. Initial burden of disease estimates for South Africa, 2000. *SAMJ.* 2003;93(9): 682–8.
 25. James P, Leach R, Kalamara E, et al. The worldwide obesity epidemic. *Obes Res.* 2001;9(S11): 228S–233S. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2001.123>
 26. Dubé M. Disorders of glucose metabolism in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2000;31(6): 1467–75. <https://doi.org/10.1086/cid.2000.31.issue-6>
 27. Losina E, Hyle E, Borre E, et al. Projecting 10-yr, 20-yr and lifetime risks of cardiovascular disease in persons living with HIV in the US. *Clin Infect Dis* [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2017 Jun]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/cix547>
 28. Warriner A, Burkholder G, Overton E. HIV-related metabolic comorbidities in the current ART era. *Infect Dis Clin North Am.* 2014;28(3): 457–76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idc.2014.05.003>
 29. Kim D, Westfall A, Chamot E, et al. Multimorbidity patterns in HIV-infected patients: the role of obesity in chronic disease clustering. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr.* 2012;61(5): 600–5. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e31827303d5>
 30. Biggs C. A randomised double blind placebo controlled trial to determine the effect of soluble dietary fibre (inulin-type Fructans) on disease progression and body composition of HIV positive ARV naive adults attending a wellness clinic in KZN South Africa. Pietermaritzburg: University of KwaZulu-Natal; 2015.
 31. World Health Organization. Consolidated guidelines on the use of antiretroviral drugs for treating and preventing HIV infection: recommendations for a public health approach. World Health Organization; 2016. ISBN-13: 978-92-4-154968-4. Accessed November 2017.
 32. Mora S, Ridker P. Justification for the use of statins in primary prevention: an intervention trial evaluating rosuvastatin (JUJITER)—can C-reactive protein be used to target statin therapy in primary prevention? *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;97(2): 33–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2005.11.014>
 33. IAEA. IAEA Human Health Series No 12. Introduction to body composition assessment using the deuterium dilution technique with analysis of saliva samples by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectrometry [cited 2017 Jun]. http://www-pub.iaea.org/books/IAEABooks/Selected_Book_in_the_series/IAEA-Human-Health-Series/140/12. L B, C S, MV, editors. Vienna: Marketing and Sale Unit, International Atomic Energy Agency, Visitors International Centre; 2010.
 34. WHO. Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report of WHO consultation on obesity. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2000.
 35. Kelly T, Wilson K, Heymsfield S. Dual energy X-Ray absorptiometry body composition reference values from NHANES. *PLoS ONE* [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2017 Jun];4(9):e7038. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0007038> <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0007038>. Assessed November 2017.
 36. Papatheakis P, Rollins N, Brown K, et al. Comparison of isotope dilution with bioimpedance spectroscopy and anthropometry for assessment of body composition in asymptomatic HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected breastfeeding mothers. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2005;82(3): 538–46.
 37. Dugas L, Carstens M, Ebersole K, et al. Energy expenditure in young adult urban informal settlement dwellers in South Africa. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2009;63(6): 805–7. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2008.75>
 38. HemoCueHb201OperatingManual. 2017. Available from: http://www.ruh.nhs.uk/pathology/documents/poct/SOP_HemoCue_Hb_201_plus.pdf
 39. WHO. Haemoglobin concentrations for the diagnosis of anaemia and assessment of severity. 2011 [cited 2015]. Available from: <http://www.who.int/vmnis/indicators/haemoglobin.pdf>
 40. Shisana O, Labadarios D, Rehle T, et al. The South African national health and nutrition examination survey, 2012: SANHANES-1: the health and nutritional status of the nation. Cape Town: HSRC press. 2014.
 41. Wrottesley S, Micklesfield L, Hamill M, et al. Dietary intake and body composition in HIV-positive and-negative South African women. *Public Health Nutr.* 2014;17(07): 1603–13. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980013001808>
 42. Ott M, Lembcke B, Fischer H, et al. Early changes of body composition in human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients: tetrapolar body impedance analysis indicates significant malnutrition. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1993;57(1): 15–9.
 43. Wanke C, Silva M, Knox T, et al. Weight loss and wasting remain common complications in individuals infected with human immunodeficiency virus in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2000;31(3): 803–5. <https://doi.org/10.1086/314027>

44. Lazanas M, Lambrinouadaki I, Douskas G, et al. Body composition in asymptomatic HIV-infected men: cross-sectional and prospective assessment. *HORMONES*. 2003;2: 43–8. <https://doi.org/10.14310/horm.2002.1149>
45. Delpierre C, Bonnet E, Marion-Latard F, et al. Impact of HIV infection on total body composition in treatment—Naive men evaluated by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry comparison of 90 untreated HIV-infected men to 241 controls. *J Clin Densitom*. 2007;10(4): 376–80. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocd.2007.07.006>
46. Grinspoon S, Mulligan K. Weight loss and wasting in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2003;36(s2): S69–78. <https://doi.org/10.1086/cid.2003.36.issue-s2>
47. Grinspoon S, Corcoran C, Rosenthal D, et al. Quantitative assessment of cross-sectional muscle area, functional status, and muscle strength in men with the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome wasting syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1999;84(1): 201–6.
48. Cotter A, Sabin C, Mallon P, editors. Lean mass (LM) has a greater effect on bone mineral density (BMD) than fat mass (FM): data from a cohort of HIV-positive and HIV-negative subjects. *Antivir Ther. Int Medical Press Ltd*; 2013, vol. 18, p. A17–A18.
49. Ott M, Fischer H, Polat H, et al. Bioelectrical impedance analysis as a predictor of survival in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol*. 1995;9:120(25): 20–5.
50. Flegal K, Graubard B, Williamson D, et al. Excess deaths associated with underweight, overweight, and obesity. *JAMA* 2005;293(15): 1861–7. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.293.15.1861>
51. Friis-Møller N, Weber R, Reiss P, et al. Cardiovascular disease risk factors in HIV patients—association with antiretroviral therapy. Results from the DAD study. *Aids*. 2003;17(8): 1179–93.
52. Feldman J, Goldwasser P, Holman S, et al. C-reactive protein is an independent predictor of mortality in women with HIV-1 infection. *JAIDS* 2003;32(2): 210–4.
53. Kuller L, Tracy R, Belloso W, et al. Inflammatory and coagulation biomarkers and mortality in patients with HIV infection. *PLoS Medicine* [Interenet]. 2008 [cited 2017 May 05];5(10):e203. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0050203> Available from: <http://journals.plos.org/plosmedicine/article?id=210.1371/journal.pmed.0050203>
54. Drain P, Kupka R, Msamanga G, et al. C-reactive protein independently predicts HIV-related outcomes among women and children in a resource-poor setting. *AIDS* 2007;21(15): 2067–75. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAD.0b013e32826fb6c7>
55. Tien P, Choi A, Zolopa A, et al. Inflammation and mortality in HIV-infected adults: analysis of the FRAM study cohort. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2010;55(3): 316–22. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e3181e66216>
56. Triant V, Meigs J, Grinspoon S. Association of C-reactive protein and HIV infection with acute myocardial infarction. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2009;51(3): 268–73. <https://doi.org/10.1097/QAI.0b013e3181a9992c>
57. Vos A, Idris N, Barth R, et al. Pro-inflammatory markers in relation to cardiovascular disease in HIV infection. *PloSone*. 2016;11(1):e0147484. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0147484>
58. de Ferranti S, Mozaffarian D. The perfect storm: obesity, adipocyte dysfunction, and metabolic consequences. *Clin Chem*. 2008;54(6): 945–55. <https://doi.org/10.1373/clinchem.2007.100156>
59. Nishide R, Ando M, Funabashi H, et al. Association of serum hs-CRP and lipids with obesity in school children in a 12-month follow-up study in Japan. *Environ Health Prev Med*. 2015;20(2): 116–22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12199-014-0433-3>
60. Bassuk S, Rifai N, Ridker P. High-sensitivity C-reactive protein: clinical importance. *Curr Probl Cardiol*. 2004;29(8): 439–93.
61. Spencer D, Harman C, Botha C. Nutrition and HIV/AIDS: Nutritional guidelines for HIV-infected adults and children in Southern Africa (Sections 3–6). *South Afr J HIV Med*. 2008;9(1): 34–59.
62. Department of Health S. National guidelines on nutrition for people living the HIV, AIDS, TB and other chronic debilitating conditions [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Aug]. Available from: www.infocenternerchaorgsz/node/709
63. Okop K, Mukumbang F, Mathole T, et al. Perceptions of body size, obesity threat and the willingness to lose weight among black South African adults: a qualitative study. *BMC Public Health* [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Jul 1];16(1):683. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-3028-7> Available from: <https://bmcpublihealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/310.1186/s12889-12016-13028-12887>
64. Prinsloo E, Joubert G, Mohale M, et al. The prevalence and perception of obesity and its association with the lifestyle of women at the Mangaung University Community Partnership Project healthcare centre, Bloemfontein. *S Afr Fam Pract*. 2011;53(4): 366–72.
65. Dusingize J, Hoover D, Shi Q, et al. Association of serum albumin with markers of nutritional status among HIV-infected and uninfected Rwandan women. *PLoS ONE* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Jul 03];7(4):e35079. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0035079> Available from: <https://doi.org/35010.31371/journal.pone.0035079>
66. Graham S, Baeten J, Richardson B, et al. A decrease in albumin in early HIV type 1 infection predicts subsequent disease progression. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. 2007;23(10): 1197–200. <https://doi.org/10.1089/aid.2007.0065>
67. Hattingh Z, Walsh C, Veldman F, et al. The metabolic profiles of HIV-infected and non-infected women in Mangaung. *South Africa. SAJCN*. 2009;22(1): 23–8.
68. Oosthuizen W, van Graan A, Kruger A, et al. Polyunsaturated fatty acid intake is adversely related to liver function in HIV-infected subjects: the THUSA study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2006;83(5): 1193–8.
69. Feldman J, Burns D, Gange S, et al. Serum albumin as a predictor of survival in HIV-infected women in the Women's Interagency HIV study. *AIDS* 2000;14(7): 863–70. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00002030-200005050-00013>
70. Feldman J, Gange S, Bacchetti P, et al. Serum albumin is a powerful predictor of survival among HIV-1-infected women. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2003;33(1): 66–73. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00126334-200305010-00010>
71. Mehta S, Astemborski J, Sterling T, et al. Serum albumin as a prognostic indicator for HIV disease progression. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. 2006;22(1): 14–21. <https://doi.org/10.1089/aid.2006.22.14>
72. Sudfeld C, Isanaka S, Aboud S, et al. Association of serum albumin concentration with mortality, morbidity, CD4 T-cell reconstitution among tanzanians initiating antiretroviral therapy. *J Infect Dis*. 2013;207(9): 1370–8. <https://doi.org/10.1093/infdis/jit027>
73. Walsh C, Hattingh Z, Veldman F, et al. Iron status and anaemia of chronic disease in HIV-infected African women in Mangaung, Bloemfontein. *S Afr Fam Pract*. 2010;52(1): 55–9.
74. Takuva S, Maskew M, Brennan A, et al. Anemia among HIV-infected patients initiating antiretroviral therapy in South Africa: improvement in hemoglobin regardless of degree of immunosuppression and the initiating ART regimen. *J Trop Med*. 2013 [cited 2017 Jul];2013(Article ID 162950, 6 pages, 2013). doi: <https://doi.org/10.1155/2013/162950>.
75. Lundgren J, Mocroft A. Anemia and survival in human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2003;37(s4):S297–303. <https://doi.org/10.1086/cid.2003.37.issue-s4>
76. Volberding P. The impact of anemia on quality of life in human immunodeficiency virus—infected patients. *J Infect Dis*. 2002;185(s2):S110–4. <https://doi.org/10.1086/jid.2002.185.issue-s2>
77. Belperio PS, Rhew DC. Prevalence and outcomes of anemia in individuals with human immunodeficiency virus: a systematic review of the literature. *Am J Med*. 2004;116(7): 27–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2003.12.010>
78. O'Brien M, Kupka R, Msamanga G, et al. Anemia is an independent predictor of mortality and immunologic progression of disease among women with HIV in Tanzania. *JAIDS*. 2005;40(2):219–25.
79. Shah S, Smith C, Lampe F, et al. Haemoglobin and albumin as markers of HIV disease progression in the highly active antiretroviral therapy era: relationships with gender. *HIV Med*. 2007;8(1): 38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hiv.2007.8.issue-1>

Received: 30-08-2017 Accepted: 05-11-2017