RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SPANISH AIDS STUDY GROUP (GESIDA), THE SPANISH HOSPITAL PHARMACY SOCIETY (SEFH), AND THE NATIONAL AIDS PLAN (PNS) FOR IMPROVEMENT OF ADHERENCE TO ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY (Updated June 2008)

PANEL COORDINATORS:

Dr Hernando Knobel Freud Servicio de Medicina Interna Hospital del Mar Paseo Marítimo, 25-29 08003 Barcelona

Dr Rosa Polo Rodriguez Secretaría del Plan Nacional sobre el Sida Paseo del Prado 18-20 28014 Madrid

Dr Ismael Escobar Rodriguez Hospital Infanta Leonor Avda. Mediterráneo, s/n Vallecas (Madrid)

PANEL MEMBERS:

Jose Luis Casado Hospital Ramón y Cajal, Madrid

Carlos Codina Hospital Clínico y Provincial, Barcelona

Josefina Fernández Hospital universitario Marqués de Valdecilla, Santander

M^a José Galindo Hospital Clínico Universitario, Valencia

Olatz Ibarra Hospital de Galdácano, Bilbao

Montserrat Llinas Hospital General Valle D'Hebrón, Barcelona

M^a Teresa Martín-Conde Hospital Clínico y Provincial, Barcelona

Celia Miralles Hospital Xeral-Cies, Vigo Luis Ortega Hospital de Leon

Melcior Riera Hospital Son Dureta. Palma de Mallorca

Carmen R. Fumaz Hospital Universitario Germans Trias i Pujol, Badalona

Aurea Segador Hospital Reina Sofía, Córdoba

Ferran Segura Corporación Sanitaria Parc Taulí, Sabadell.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS: We would like to thank Juan Emilio Losa García, of Hospital Fundación Alcorcón, Madrid and Cristina Menoyo and María Vázquez of the National AIDS Plan Committee for their comments on the web document.

This document is supported by the Advisory Board of the National AIDS Plan Committee.

1. INTRODUCTION

In 1999, the Spanish Hospital Pharmacy Society (SEFH), the AIDS Study Group (GESIDA) as a member of the Spanish Society of Infectious Diseases and Clinical Microbiology (SEIMC), and the National AIDS Plan (PNS) first published a series of recommendations for the improvement of adherence to antiretroviral therapy (ART) in adults. These recommendations were updated in 2004.^{1,2}

Adherence to treatment continues to receive the attention of health professionals and researchers. Therefore, it seems appropriate to review and update the aforementioned consensus paper in the light of current recommendations on ART.³

In the last few years, adherence to ART has been the focus of several publications. In some cases these are action guidelines or reviews,^{4,5,6,7} in others, measurement techniques and their reliability are analyzed⁸; the latter are particularly important, as the validity of results depends on how they are analyzed. It seems somewhat pointless to look for reliable but complex methods that can be used in clinical trials but that are of little use in daily clinical practice. Obviously, to measure adherence we must turn to combinations of methods that are easy to use. Combination of methods are necessary, as there is evidence that some are of little use in specific populations.⁹

A good relationship between health professionals and patients makes it easy to obtain appropriate information on adherence and one published meta-analysis examining adherence to medication by patients touches on this topic.¹⁰ Another study evaluates the usefulness of the visual analog scale for measuring adherence to ART.¹¹

Several studies analyze the factors that affect adherence and that can be used as indicators or predictors of poor adherence, and thus enable us to identify those patients requiring special attention.¹²⁻¹⁵ Logically, one of these factors is the type of treatment, and there is increasing evidence that simplifying therapy can improve adherence.^{16,17}

Another relevant aspect is the efficiency (cost-effectiveness) of ART. According to current data from the Multisectorial Plan 2008-2012 of the Spanish Ministry of Health and Consumer Affairs,¹⁸ there are between 120,000 and 150,000 people infected by HIV, although more than 30% may not have been diagnosed yet.

Yearly expenditure on treating a patient with ART can be as high as \notin 9,500 to \notin 10,000. Studies show that between 20% and 50% of patients taking ART are poor adherers.⁸⁻¹¹ Therefore, a national health system must look at adherence to ART as a problem of inefficiency that prevents potential clinical effectiveness from being reached with currently available resources for the treatment of HIV infection.

In any case, we must remember that adherence is not an objective in itself; what is important is the effectiveness of therapy, measured using clinical and biological parameters (viral load and CD4+ T-lymphocyte count). Similarly, the prevention of resistance is also a cause for concern. In this sense, we are more aware that the appearance of resistance and the efficacy of therapy depend on the different drug combinations, even when adherence is similar.^{15-17, 19}

Published studies analyzing the results of interventions that attempt to improve the situation¹⁸ have found a direct relationship between adherence to treatment and patient quality of life.^{12,20,21} Therefore, interventions must be targeted at improving quality of

life, an objective that can only be reached using a multidisciplinary and tailored approach. In addition to new information on the importance of drug therapy,^{22,23} a considerable number of studies examine the role of psychological aspects such as stress or depression.²⁴⁻²⁸ We have also seen that some interventions are not useful in certain groups of patients.^{25,29}

We can therefore conclude that more and better information is available on adherence to ART. As it is difficult to provide interventions for all patients, we must direct our attention toward those patients who are starting therapy, or who have a history of poor adherence, or who exhibit predictors of poor adherence. Interventions should be multidisciplinary, tailored, and adjusted to new transmission patterns.

The present document has given us the opportunity to review and issue agreed recommendations aimed at improving adherence to ART. Our main objective has been to harmonize criteria and help the professionals responsible for monitoring the health and treatment of these patients (physicians, pharmacists, nurses, psychologists, and social workers).

When preparing recommendations on specific therapeutic interventions, we require in-depth analysis of controlled clinical trials that clearly show the results of specific interventions. However, to carry out this task, it is sometimes necessary to use information from other types of study, such as cohort studies and case-control studies. Therefore, we have followed the levels of recommendation used in the first edition of the Recommendations of the Clinical Advisory Board of the National AIDS Plan. These **levels of recommendation** are based on the origin of the data as follows: **Level A**, controlled and randomized studies; **Level B**, cohort studies and case-control studies; and **Level C**, descriptive studies and expert opinion.

2. DEFINITION OF ADHERENCE

Although there is no universally accepted definition of adherence, we propose the following for HIV-infected patients: "Adherence is the ability of a patient to become appropriately involved in the choice, initiation, and monitoring of ART in such a way as to rigorously fulfill the requirements of treatment with the aim of reaching suitable suppression of viral replication."

Therefore, incorrect adherence is not only a percentage calculated from missed doses. Adherence in the short and long terms is the result of a complex process that develops over different phases: acceptance of the diagnosis, perception of the need to take treatment correctly, the necessary motivation to do so, willingness and training in the skills to do so, the ability to overcome the barriers and difficulties that arise, and the maintenance of the progress made over time.

Studies carried out with the first highly active antiretroviral drugs showed that maximum efficacy of ART required almost perfect adherence, traditionally more than 95%.³⁵ Recent studies suggest that lower levels of adherence will still enable patients to reach their therapy objectives with regimens based on non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors and protease inhibitors boosted with ritonavir, especially in patients who have achieved undetectable viral loads.³⁰⁻³³

3. FACTORS THAT AFFECT ADHERENCE

In recent years, there have been several studies analyzing predictors of adherence. These include longitudinal follow-up studies with several determinations of adherence in different populations (children, adolescents) and in developing countries. However, the different measurement methods, study populations, and designs make it difficult to generalize about the results.

The factors studied can be divided into 3 main groups: those related to the individual, those related to treatment, and those related to the care team and health system. Table 1 summarizes the different factors involved in adherence to ART.

Detiont		Llaalth	Treetment
Patient		Health	Treatment
	i	Professionals	
Characteristics	Attitude		
Lack of social or	Mistrust (with	Interest in the	Pill burden. ^a
family support. ^a	regard to the	subject.	Dosing frequency. ^a
Socioeconomic	efficacy of the	Professional	Duration of
level.	treatment).	satisfaction.	treatment. ^a
Educational level.	Hostility (towards	Communication style	Dietary restrictions. ^a
Unstable housing.	health	(directive /	Adverse effects. ^a
Active drug use. ^a	professionals).	interactive)	Intrusion on
Alcoholism. ^a	Shame (social	Attitude (distant /	lifestyle.
Depression,	stigma).	cordial).	Type of
psychiatric	Fear (adverse	Accessibility	antiretroviral
comorbidity. ^a	effects).	(consultation about	treatment.
Health-related	Fatalism	doubts or problems).	
quality of life.	(pessimism about	Prejudices.	
Knowledge of and	outcome).	Availability of	
beliefs about	Invulnerability.	resources.	
treatment.	Low perception of		
Age.	self-efficacy. ^a		
Sex.	Dissatisfaction		
Race.	with health care		
Language. ^b	and the		
	professional-		
	patient		
	relationship.		

Table 1. Factors Related to Incorrect Adherence to Antiretroviral Therapy

^a Characteristics that are definitely associated with difficulties in adhering to treatment. ^b Inability to speak the language is accompanied by other barriers to access to the health system (different health care culture, lack of knowledge about the system).

3.1. Factors Associated With the Individual

Patient characteristics are generally not a good predictor of adherence to treatment. However, some studies have associated adherence with age,³⁴⁻³⁸ sex,³⁹ race,^{40,41} cultural level,^{34,35,39,41} and economic situation.^{35,40}

Other characteristics such as stable housing and social or family support and a good health-related quality of life have shown a more solid association with better adherence.^{21,34,36,39,42-47}

According to the study by Carrieri et al, patients born outside the European Union are better adherers than those born inside the European Union. This could be due to the fact that they consider it a privilege to have free access to medication and, therefore, are more motivated to take their treatment.⁴⁸

Psychological factors play a key role in adherence. Anxiety, depression, and stress make it difficult for a patient to adhere correctly to treatment.^{34,35,40,41,49,50} Symptoms of depression have been found in more than half of the patients at the beginning of ART. Treatment of depression is associated with greater and better use of antiretroviral drugs, and the association between poor adherence and depression has been related to greater mortality.^{48,51,52,53} Given the high prevalence of disease in HIV-infected patients, psychological and psychiatric interventions must be considered an important part of general health care.

Active addiction to drugs and/or alcohol—very common in our setting and potentially treatable^{34,36,38,45,49,54-60}—is an important barrier to optimal adherence.

Lastly, the attitude and beliefs of patients about medication, the disease, and the health care team are clearly important factors when accepting treatment and adhering to it correctly.^{37,41,45,46,61-64} The patient's ability to understand the relationship between adherence and resistance has also proven to be a predictor of better adherence.⁵⁸ If patients are to adhere to their treatment, they must be appropriately informed about their disease and its treatment, they must understand the relationship between risk and benefit, and they must be motivated.

3.2. Disease

HIV infection can develop with or without symptoms, and acceptance of and adherence to treatment can be different in each of these phases. Few studies have taken these factors into account. Studies that evaluate the relationship between CDC stage and adherence have provided contradictory results. Most have found no association,^{36,38,41,49,65} although Gao et al⁶⁶ found that patients in stage B or C were better adherers than those in stage A, as the former associated poor adherence with an increased risk of complications. Nevertheless, some studies have found a greater degree of discontinuation of HAART in patients with a high viral load (perhaps because they have not achieved virologic control) than patients who have low viral loads.^{50,67,68}

We must take into account the perceptions of health care personnel and patients of a condition about which knowledge is constantly changing. In the 1990s, when monotherapy with zidovudine began, patient expectations were high and most studies reflected 60%-80% adherence.^{69,70} After 2 or 3 years, the degree of acceptance and adherence fell considerably, to 40%-60%, due mainly to the continuous failures with ART, with the result that expectations fell considerably.^{69,70} However, after 1996, the arrival of protease inhibitors and the first combination therapy meant that results were again optimistic and hopeful, expectations improved, and the degree of trust, acceptance, and adherence began to recover slowly.⁷¹ Therefore, some patients who were not good adherers with monotherapy can become good adherers with more complex therapies.

3.3. Treatment

Several studies have shown that adherence decreases when the complexity of treatment increases.^{34-36,72-74} In recent years, we have probably obtained the simplest regimens in terms of dosing. Treatment-naïve patients can now take coformulations in regimens of 2-3 daily tablets in 1 or 2 doses with no dietary restrictions. However, no

significant differences in adherence have been found between the administration of drugs in 1 or 2 doses per day, either in patients with HIV or in other chronic conditions.⁷⁵

An important aspect studied in recent years is whether the risk of virologic failure is similar for all regimens when a dose is omitted. Some studies seem to show that with similar levels of adherence, the risk of virologic failure is greater with unboosted protease inhibitors than with boosted protease inhibitors and non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors.^{19,32,76,77} It has also been suggested that regimens based on non-nucleoside inhibitors have a lower risk of poor adherence than those based on protease inhibitors.^{78,79}

Nevertheless, in initial therapy, it has also been shown that there is a linear relationship between adherence and effectiveness when the treatment is based on non-nucleosides—for every 10% increase in adherence, there was a 10% increase in the number of patients who reached sustained undetectable viral loads.⁸⁰

Another aspect to consider, with possible practical implications, is the relationship between adherence and the development of resistance. This relationship is much more complex than the established idea that "nonadherence increases the risk of resistance" and the following differences have been found according to the family of drugs used: in unboosted PI-based regimens, resistance appears even when adherence is good; on the contrary, in NNRTI-based regimens, good adherers rarely experience resistance. (it only appears in poor adherers or in patients who take a break from their treatment).^{81,82}

Interference with habits, for example in the work timetable or at certain times in the patient's social life, leads some to stop taking their medication or to do so at the wrong time.⁸³

Another factor that increases the complexity of treatment are dietary requirements. Some drugs need a very strict dosing schedule because their absorption is highly conditioned by the presence or absence of food when taken. The study by Nieuwkerk et al⁸⁴ showed that the percentage of poor adherers increases considerably when diet is taken into consideration.

The onset of adverse effects^{36,37,40,45,47,49,54,65,73,79,85-87} is clearly related to adherence. A high number of patients discontinue treatment to avoid the symptoms caused by adverse reactions, regardless of the clinical relevance of this action. In the multicenter APROCO study,³⁶ patients who complained of a greater number of symptoms with PIs later had poor adherence.

Alterations to body composition are common and can have important psychological repercussions that reduce a patient's quality of life and adherence to ART. Several studies have shown a statistically significant relationship between the perception of the symptoms of lipodystrophy and the failure of adherence.^{37,88} This is compounded by the fact that better adherence is associated with a greater risk of lipodystrophy.

The impact of the duration of ART on adherence is controversial. Whereas some authors associate the duration of ART with better adherence, a recent study⁸⁹ related reduced adherence to the length of time on treatment, as occurs in other chronic diseases.

3.4. Care Team and Health System

The relationship established between the care team and the patient is extremely important.⁶⁶ Trust, continuity, accessibility, flexibility, and confidentiality all have a favorable impact on adherence. The most important factors are probably the provision of detailed and appropriate information adapted to the educational level of the patient and taking decisions together in a framework of mutual trust.^{46,90} The results of the study by Schneider et al,⁹¹ who evaluated different aspects of the doctor-patient relationship (general communication style, provision of specific information on HIV infection, participation in decision making, satisfaction and confidence), suggest that the quality of this relationship is an important factor when trying to improve adherence to ART.

Other factors related to the health system, such as accessibility to the center, transport, childcare facilities, and timetables could also have an effect on adherence.⁹²

Recommendations

- The evaluation of possible risk factors to achieve optimal adherence should help in planning specific interventions for each patient. These will generally be multifactorial and multidisciplinary (Level C).
- Even if poor adherence seems likely, the patient must have access to treatment and the possibility to take it (Level C).

4. METHODS OF EVALUATING ADHERENCE

The ideal method of measuring adherence should be highly sensitive and specific, and should enable continuous and quantitative measurements that are reliable, reproducible, applicable in different situations, rapid, and easily affordable.⁹³

Methods of evaluating adherence can be classed as direct or indirect.

4.1 Direct Methods

Plasma Concentrations of Antiretroviral Drugs

Although the concentration of drug in plasma is considered the most objective method, many studies show that it has several important limitations. Despite the fact that low levels of drug in have been observed in poor adherers and a good correlation between concentrations and questionnaires has been found,^{94,95} there are reports of adequate plasma levels in many patients with self-reported poor adherence.^{65,96} Other studies, which consider only this method as the criterion for adherence, did not find significant differences with respect to virologic control.⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹ However, some authors show that drug level is a variable that independently predicts virologic response,¹⁰⁰ whereas others show an acceptable level of sensitivity but a low specificity for identifying the virologic response.¹⁰¹

It is also important to remember that several intraindividual and interindividual variables affect the pharmacokinetic behavior of antiretroviral drugs. Setting a standard threshold to classify patients as good or poor adherers is questionable. Several determinations would be necessary for each patient, as would studies and accurate knowledge of those factors that affect the pharmacokinetic profile of each drug or, at least, the pharmacological group to which it belongs. Although advances are being made in these areas, accurate data are not yet available outside the research environment.¹⁰²

Lastly, it must be pointed out that this method requires expensive and complex techniques; therefore, it cannot be applied in most hospitals. However, clinical criteria could make it useful in specific situations and, given its objectivity, it should be taken into consideration in clinical trials that evaluate the efficacy of new drugs or regimens.

Clinical Outcome and Analytical Data

The clinical outcome and virologic and immunologic results should not be considered methods of estimating adherence, but rather a consequence of adherence. In this sense, adherence studies should systematically consider the relationship between their results and the virologic-immunologic results in a prospective fashion.

Recommendations

- Direct methods usually have low specificity; therefore, they should not be used individually (Level B). Consider using them only in research.
- Clinical outcome should always be analyzed when adherence is studied. It should not be considered a method of calculating adherence, but a consequence of adherence (Level C).

4.2. Indirect Methods

Evaluation by the Health Professional

Direct and subjective evaluation of adherence by clinicians is common. However, published experiences have shown that health professionals overestimate adherence when direct evaluation is compared with other methods.¹⁰³⁻¹⁰⁵

The main problem of overestimation is that it fails to identify many nonadherers. Thus, the opportunity to treat their behavior and take highly empiric therapeutic approaches is lost.

Recommendation:

• Health professionals should avoid direct and subjective evaluation. It is known to overestimate adherence and can lead to suboptimal decision making (Level B).

Electronic Monitoring Systems

Electronic systems that monitor opening of containers (MEMS or eDEM) involve lids containing a microprocessor that records the day and hour the container is opened. These data are processed elsewhere. At present, they are the most objective and reliable method, and show a high correlation with the effectiveness of treatment.^{34,106} Thus, some authors have used them as a reference to establish the validity of other methods.¹⁰⁷⁻¹¹⁰

Nevertheless, the usefulness of MEMS has been questioned, and not only because of its high cost. These devices can only be used with certain types of container, the patient must be willing to use them, and, sensu stricto, the fact that the container has been opened does not necessarily mean that the medication has been taken. Similarly, the fact that the opening has not been registered does not mean that the dose has not been taken.¹¹¹ In any case, the very fact that the patient accepts the device and the use of a system of continuous monitoring, that is, an intervention, should be considered as a bias when evaluating adherence.

Recommendation:

• This system is restricted to the field of clinical research. It should be used to evaluate interventions with the aim of improving adherence, and in the evaluation of other methods (Level A).

Medication Counting

This indirect method involves calculating adherence using the following formula:

No. of units dispensed – No. of units returned

% Adherence = ------ x 100

No. of units prescribed

This formula has been used successfully in other chronic conditions because of its advantages: it is cheap, it allows a quantitative measure to be made, it is objective, and it is relatively simple. Nevertheless, when this method has been used to calculate adherence to ART, a series of limitations have been observed that make it difficult to use in routine practice.¹¹² In any case, carrying medication is annoying and uncomfortable, and counting it is difficult for health professionals, as it requires time and personnel.

Furthermore, this system is easily manipulated, even more when patients are asked to collaborate by bringing their surplus medication for counting, or when surprise counts are carried out.

Even though the medication count overestimates adherence when it is compared with MEMS,¹¹³ even when combined with pharmacy service registries,¹¹⁴ its characteristics have led to its frequent use as a standard.^{115,116}

Recommendations:

- This is an acceptable method, but it should be used in combination with others (Level B).
- Its routine use requires time and personnel; therefore, a feasibility study should be carried out before implementation (Level C).

Dispensation Records

This indirect method parts from the premise that a patient cannot take medication that has not been prescribed to him/her and that he/she takes the medication prescribed correctly. A good correlation with virologic results^{99,117} and acceptable sensitivity and specificity have been observed.^{65,66} It requires medication to be dispensed centrally. The main limitation is that dispensation does not mean that medication has been taken correctly. Furthermore, patient mobility and sharing medication with friends could bias evaluation.

The tendency is to accumulate medication even though it is not necessary, and this leads to a considerable overestimation of adherence. On the contrary, the use of friends' medication leads to underestimation, although this seems to be less important.

Although the approach is simple, logistic difficulties mean that it is sometimes complex. Adherence can be estimated based on days of delay or number of units of medication dispensed. This can be done globally, or per medication, and there are differences between approaches.

The following simplification can be proposed:

% Adherence = Total no. of medication units dispensed / Total no. of medication units predicted

The formula is calculated using the dates of dispensation and includes the units dispensed from the first date studied until the penultimate dispensation (inclusive). Expected medication use is that which is necessary to fulfill the treatment regimen from the first dispensation to the last.

In the early phases of treatment, periods of approximately 3 months should be studied; in later phases, periods closer to 6 months should be studied.

In Spain, where antiretrovirals are dispensed in national health hospital pharmacies, this system is feasible, relatively cheap, and allows us to establish routine computerized registers with longitudinal follow-up. A good correlation has been observed between adherence measured by this method and virologic outcome.¹¹⁸

Recommendations:

- This method is relatively objective, and the registers are taken on a routine basis, regardless of whether adherence studies are undertaken. In addition, computer software is increasingly sophisticated, thus facilitating the use of these data. Therefore, this method can be recommended as routine practice (Level B).
- This method should be combined with others, since the fact that a patient has the medication does not mean that he/she will take it or do so correctly (Level C).

Questionnaires

Questionnaires involve asking the patient to answer previously defined questions. The answers will be used to evaluate the degree of adherence. This system requires the use of few resources, it is affordable, and it can be adapted to the characteristics of each center.

The main limitation of this method lies in its apparent simplicity. Subjectivity is inherent to questionnaires and, although a correlation has been observed between self-reported adherence and the effectiveness of antiretroviral drugs,^{101,106,119} questionnaires have also been shown to have relatively poor sensitivity, which studies show to be very variable when they are compared with more objective methods^{114,120} with acceptable specificity. It seems that the correlation with electronic systems is better with questionnaires that calculate adherence over short periods (last 4 days).¹²¹

Furthermore, there are almost as many questionnaires as published studies. The vast majority have not been validated; therefore, this, coupled with their heterogeneous

nature, means that extreme caution must be used when comparing the results from different populations and using different methods. This was clearly proved in one study where the same population completed different questionnaires, only to give completely disparate results.¹²² A greater correlation has been observed with clinical results if the questionnaires are from earlier phases of treatment, if the patient was informed about the confidential nature of the information obtained, and when the adherence threshold was fixed at more than 95%.¹²³

The most important validated questionnaire in Spanish is the SMAQ¹⁰⁷ (Table 2).

Table 2. SMAQ QUESTIONNAIRE ON ADHERENCE

1. Have you ever forgotten to take your medication?	🗆 Yes 🛛 No
2. Do you always take your medication at the prescribed time?	🗆 Yes 🗆 No
3. Do you ever stop taking your medication if you feel sick?	🗆 Yes 🗆 No
4. Did you forget to take your medication at the weekend?	🗆 Yes 🗆 No
5. How many doses have you missed in the last week? ²	A: None B: 1 - 2 C: 3 - 5 D: 6 - 10 E: more than 10
6. Since your last visit, on how many full days have you not taken your medication?	Days:

1. The following sequence is considered <u>nonadherence</u>: 1: yes, 2: no, 3: yes, 4: yes, 5:C, D or E, 6: more than 2 days. The questionnaire is dichotomous—<u>any response</u> indicating nonadherence is considered nonadherent.

- 2. Question 5 can be used as semiquantitative:
- A: 95-100 % adherence
- B: 85-94 %
- C: 65-84 %
- D: 30-64 %
- E: < 30 %

However, the questionnaire was validated for patients treated with unboosted protease inhibitors; therefore, it would have to be adapted and validated for the most commonly used regimens today. Another questionnaire, SERAD (Table 3) has been validated for the Spanish population, and provides a quantitative and qualitative evaluation of adherence.⁸

Research into the use of questionnaires to evaluate adherence continues to evolve, and new validated instruments should be incorporated.

Table 3. SERAD QUESTIONNAIRE ON ADHERENCEPatient CodeDate of EvaluationEvaluationEvaluation

	i I			LAST W	VEEK				LAST N	<i>I</i> ONTH		
Α	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н	1	J	K	L	Μ
Time	Medication	No. of tablets			of tablets	Reasons for not taking dose (eg, a3, b1)	No. of times patient does not adhere to dosing conditions	Reasons for not adhering to dosing conditions	No. of times patient did not take dose		Reasons for not taking dose (eg, 3a, 1f)	No. of times patient does not adhere to dosing conditions
	Breakfast											
	Lunch											
	Dinner		F									

- a) Not having medication at the time of dosing
- b) Just forgot
- c) Trying to avoid side effects
- d) Fell asleep
- e) Was doing other things that were not compatible with taking medication
- f) Didn't want people I was with to see me taking medication
- g) Changes in daily routine (public holiday, weekend, vacation, etc)
- h) Was sick
- i) Too many tablets
- j) Felt depressed or demotivated
- k) Ran out of tablets
- I) Didn't want to take or didn't feel like taking medication
- m) Prescribed by doctor
- n) Did not understand doctor's prescription correctly
- o) Other

Apart from this last month, how many times do you remember not taking your medication since the last visit?

None 1 or 2 times 3 to 5 times 6 to 10 times 11 or more times Reasons for not taking medication Recommendations:

- These methods are simple and inexpensive, and are particularly useful if the patient is identified as a poor adherer. In research, questionnaires and the results they yield should be compared taking into account the following 3 attributes: adherence evaluated as a qualitative variable of behavior, the classification of adherence as a continuous and dichotomous variable, and the time interval evaluated (Level A).
- Questionnaires can be recommended, in combination with others, as long as they have been previously validated and adapted to the specific context of application (Level A).

Combinations of Methods

In general, questionnaires, medication counts, and pharmacy dispensation records overestimate adherence.^{114,116} MEMS-type systems probably underestimate adherence.¹¹⁶

Although notable advances have been made in characterizing the specificity and sensitivity of the different methods, in their validation, and in the analysis of their limitations and interrelationships, the recommendation to combine several methods should remain in force so that accurate information can be obtained about the real situation.^{1,124}

Recommendations:

- An acceptable minimum approach would involve a 3-monthly validated questionnaire and dispensation register (Level B).
- In the context of a clinical trial that might even include interventions aimed at improving adherence, at least one of the following more objective methods should be used: MEMS, determination of drug plasma concentrations, and medication counts (Level C).

5. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING ADHERENCE TO ANTIRETROVIRAL THERAPY

There are basically 3 strategies aimed at improving antiretroviral therapy:

- Help and support strategies
- Intervention strategies
- Strategies involving the therapeutic regimen

5.1. Help and Support Strategies

Help and support strategies should be centered on the patient, regardless of his/her level of adherence, and should involve health education, communication, and psychosocial support. Each hospital should adapt strategies to its own situation (caseload, human resources, support services).

In support strategies, teamwork is essential and must involve all those who care for the HIV-infected patient: physicians, pharmacists, nursing staff, and, where possible, psychologists and psychiatrists. Coordination with primary health care, social services, and nongovernmental organizations is a desirable objective in the global care of the HIV-infected patient. In the case of patients who are not from Spain, integration in HIV-related planning will involve the development of culturally and linguistically adapted strategies including peer counseling, intercultural mediation, and translation.

5.1.1. Prescription and Follow-up of ART

• Role of the Physician

Before prescribing medication, the physician should remember some basic premises: the best opportunity to achieve effective therapy is during the first treatment regimen. Furthermore, on rare occasions, ART should only be started quickly as an emergency measure in cases of postexposure prophylaxis and prophylaxis of vertical transmission during labor.

In asymptomatic patients with a relatively conserved immunological status, initiation of ART can be delayed for a few months until any underlying condition (alcoholism, depression, drug addiction) is resolved with the help of the appropriate service or professionals. The importance of starting therapy will be explained during subsequent visits. The symptomatic patient, however, must be prepared more quickly. If the patient accepts treatment, comorbid conditions can be treated when treatment starts.

Once the decision to start ART has been taken, prescription involves 3 different phases: information, agreement and commitment, and finally maintenance and support. The characteristics of these phases are summarized in Table 4.

PHASE	OBJECTIVES
Informative	Identify possible risk factors for adherence
	Ascertain the social, work, and family situation
	Know the psychological situation and the concomitant condition (drug dependence, alcoholism)
	Explain the objectives, dosing regimens, and potential adverse effects of treatment
	Offer possible alternative treatments
	Highlight the importance of adherence for the efficacy of treatment
Agreement and commitment	Adapt treatment to the patient's daily routine
	Agree on regimens and doses with the patient
	Postpone treatment until agreement and commitment have been made
	Treat concomitant conditions (depression, anxiety, alcoholism, drug dependence)
	Ask the patient to make a commitment to adhere to treatment
Maintenance and support	Evaluate adherence to treatment

Table 4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRESCRIPTION

Determine problems and offer solutions
Accessible health care (telephone, day hospital, outpatients' clinic)

5.1.2. Follow-up of ART

• Role of the Pharmacist

When the drug has been prescribed and dispensed, the pharmacy service can become involved with the patient and carry out the activities that make up pharmaceutical health care. Pharmacotherapeutic follow-up is the professional activity through which the pharmacist takes charge of the patient's medication needs by continuously and systematically detecting, preventing, and solving medication-related problems. Records are kept, and the service collaborates with the patient and with health care professionals. Table 5 summarizes the objectives of pharmaceutical care.

PHASE	OBJECTIVES
Presentation	Presentation
	Explain the procedure the patient must follow for subsequent dispensations.
Prospecting	Determine the patient's level of knowledge about his/her disease, and the indication and reason for treatment. Determine the level of knowledge about the therapeutic regimen, including drug names, doses (in medication units), frequency, and aspects related to administration, special conditions of conservation, precautions, and adverse effects. Determine the patient's lifestyle, timetables, and daily activities in order to be able to set up an individual schedule for the administration of the drugs.
	Determine which drugs the patient is taking (other than ART) and detect possible interactions. Evaluate adherence.
Information	Give the patient enough information to take the medication correctly ART is optimized and the maximum benefit obtained. Provide oral and written information on treatment and planning of treatment according to the needs and particular habits of the patient. Basic information should include the name of the drug (preferably the commercial name), dose (expressed in its pharmaceutical form), frequency (and whether it is to be taken with meals or not), action of the medication, considerations and advice about administration, and the main adverse effects or those that are most likely to appear. Stress the importance of adherence.
Dispensation	Dispensation.
and	
appointment for the next	Set the date for the next dispensation. Provide a name and telephone number for consultation and resolution of

Table 5. PHARMACEUTICAL CARE PROGRAM

visit	doubts the patient might have once outside the hospital.

The amount of each medication dispensed must be adapted to the characteristics of the patient in terms of adherence; thus, poor adherers must receive smaller amounts to make it easier to take and prevent waste. At the beginning of therapy, this period must be no longer than 15-30 days, since supervision must be closer. Depending on the patient's degree of adherence, or any problems with adherence the patient mentions, dispensation can coincide with clinical checkups in order to avoid unnecessary trips.

The patient can be given containers that help identify the medication, dose, and time of administration. This type of device (daily or weekly) is very useful at the beginning of therapy or on those occasions when a carer, or the patient, prepares the medication for a given period of time, which may range from 1 to several days.

Dispensation should be recorded on computer by the pharmacy service. This will make it easy to use data and enable indirect adherence reports to be prepared (by analyzing the medication dispensed). As indicated above, routine evaluation of adherence during ART is a key factor for decision-making, and these evaluation reports should be provided to the physician as a diagnostic tool.

• Role of Nursing Staff

Nurses play an essential role, with full-time dedication to the integrated care of the HIV-infected patient. There must be a relationship of trust, accessibility, confidentiality, and flexibility at all times between the care team and the patient.

The nurse's role involves supporting the patient, and the key areas involve informing the patient by clarifying doubts arising from medical visits and using counseling as a work tool. The nurse must also identify possible nonadherers early and help the care team design intervention strategies.

Similarly, the nurse will learn as much as possible about the patient's habits and personal and family resources, and will analyze the patient's knowledge about the disease and the degree of awareness and trust the patient has in order to start treatment. This information will enable a nursing care plan to be established, and priorities to be set. The nurse will inform the physician of any personal or social problems that should be solved before treatment is started.

Once it has been decided to start treatment, an analysis must be made of the general characteristics of a typical day so that treatment can be adapted to the patient's lifestyle by means of a medication schedule. This schedule should be set out in writing.

Before bringing an interview to an end, the nurse must ensure that the patient has understood the explanations and clear up any doubts. At this point, close external support (eg, family, partner) must be chosen to support the patient. This person must be given a contact number in case doubts should arise and so that the physician can be informed about situations that might require priority attention.

Role of the Psychologist and/or Psychiatrist

In many cases, poor adherence can be caused by emotional problems that are directly or indirectly linked to the disease itself. As HIV infection is asymptomatic for long periods, some HIV-infected patients show little perception of their condition as such, and this could result in insufficient or incorrect care of their health.

The psychologist can help the patient to adapt correctly to the disease in the various situations that arise from diagnosis to the start of antiretroviral therapy, and to deal with the different changes that occur. The management of adverse effects and their repercussions for emotional status and quality of life, and the patient's relationship with his/her family and social context are areas where the psychologist can help. Correct adaptation to the disease and suitable awareness of it will undoubtedly lead to better overall health care, which includes taking medication naturally. The psychologist can also help in cases of anxiety and depression, which are common not only in recently diagnosed patients, but also in those who have been in treatment for some time and who, logically, are tired and dejected. Very often, forgetting to take medication or intolerance to drugs reflects depressive emotional states that must be uncovered and tackled by the psychologist.

The main role of the psychiatrist is to prescribe medication when a psychiatric condition is diagnosed that is associated or not with HIV infection. Psychiatric patients who are not carefully monitored will not be able to obtain the necessary degree of adherence to treatment.

The family and social setting are also extremely important in solving problems related to HIV. A positive approach from this area will boost adherence. If possible, an attempt should be made to involve people who are emotionally important for the patient.

Recommendations:

- Before starting ART, the patient should be prepared and any possible limits to adherence should be identified and corrected. If the patient's clinical situation allows, the possibility of delaying treatment should be evaluated (Level C).
- Any patient who starts or changes ART should be offered an education program. This will be carried out by health professionals with experience in the management of HIV infection, exhaustive knowledge of ART, and communication skills, so that the patient can have a verbal and written version of the information and instructions on the medication that makes up ART (Level C).
- Every effort should be made so that the care team (physicians, pharmacists, nurses, psychologists, and psychiatrists) are available to resolve any doubts and problems the patient may have during treatment (Level C).

5.2. Intervention Strategies

No intervention is better than others for improving adherence to any pharmacological treatment, and it seems clear that interventions that combine cognitive, behavioral, and emotional components are more efficacious than those focusing on only one of these areas.¹²⁵ Table 6 summarizes the potential causes of poor adherence and the possible interventions.

	Potential causes of nonadherence	Possible interventions
Socio-economic and educational factors	Lack of social and/or family support. Few resources. Low educational level.	Look for alliances with family and friends. Ascertain social needs. Involve community organizations. Intensive education, with clear explanations that are understandable and adapted.
Factors involving the care team	Lack of resources. Impersonal care being given to large numbers of patients. Lack of coordination between the different care support services. Insufficient training in ART. Lack of accessibility. Deficient training in the professional-patient relationship.	Accessibility to continuous care. Multidisciplinary team. Adequate and coordinated material and human resources. Solid grounding in ART and patient care. Consider directly observed therapy in specific care settings.
Treatment- related factors	Adverse effects, size and palatability of the medication units, number of daily doses. Interference in the patient's life. Lack of adaptation to the patient's needs and preferences.	Simplify the regimen. Tailor treatment. Comorbidity, preferences, interactions. Special techniques for taking medication. Help to develop reaction mechanisms (eg, anticipate and manage adverse effects).
Patient-related factors	Nonacceptance. Rejection of the diagnosis. Rejection of the treatment (beliefs and attitudes) Forgetfulness and barriers. Inadequate comprehension of the disease and its treatment. Inadequate understanding of the risk-benefit ratio. Reasons for dosing and adherence. Comorbid psychiatric conditions. Use and abuse of drugs.	Analyze the patient-professional relationship. Negotiate and agree on a therapeutic plan. Encourage the perception of indicators of the need for treatment. Inform about the risks and benefits of treatment. Associate doses with daily activities. Special techniques and help with adherence (medication diaries, alarms, telephones, etc). Improve communication between the patient and the professional. Information on the disease and its treatment, reason for dosing, risks involved with nonadherence. Oral and written information. Check understanding. Refer for psychological intervention in dysfunctional areas or psychiatric intervention if psychiatric conditions are detected.

Table 6. CAUSES OF POOR ADHERENCE AND POSSIBLE INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

The best levels of evidence are based on randomized and controlled studies. The best intervention is that based on informing and educating the patient in order to reach the highest degree of consensus and commitment and make the patient see the objective of the treatment and the reasons for adherence.^{94,126,127-131} Some randomized studies show that some interventions improve adherence, without achieving changes in virologic control.¹³² Another randomized study observed that telephone reminders improved adherence, although the improvement was not significant in adherence or virologic outcome.¹³³ A meta-analysis that evaluated behavioral intervention strategies

to improve adherence in 19 studies with 1839 patients showed that adherence improved in the intervention groups and that the number of patients with undetectable viral load tended to decrease.¹³⁴

The most efficacious intervention has probably been structured interpersonal support for adherence, in which specially trained personnel use tailored strategies to improve adherence. In this randomized study including 928 patients, not only was there an improvement in adherence, but there was also an improvement in immunologic and virologic outcome in the intervention group.¹³⁵

Directly observed treatment is another strategy used to improve adherence. It has been used successfully to treat tuberculosis and attempts have been made to adapt it to the characteristics of ART. Several studies have provided favorable preliminary results of this approach in the short and long term. Most have been carried out in methadone maintenance programs or in prisons.¹³⁶⁻¹³⁹

For other patients, the programs that adapt best to ART have not been well defined. Furthermore, it is necessary to clarify the optimal duration of ART, determine the best candidates for these programs, and decide whether the programs are cost-effective.

As for evaluation of specific interventions to improve adherence, it is necessary to consider methodological questions, mainly those involving the type of intervention in the control group, given that the recommendations for improving this aspect of treatment are, to a greater or lesser extent, part of the treatment of the HIV-infected patient in usual clinical practice.

Recommendations:

- Tailored intervention strategies based on psychoeducational approaches and personal advice and that can adapt ART to the patient's lifestyle and help solve problems have proven efficacious for increasing adherence and improving the response to treatment (Level A).
- These strategies should be implemented in health centers by a mix of professionals who care for HIV-infected patients (Level C).
- Directly observed treatment cannot be generally recommended. However, it could be of interest and effective in specific groups (prisoners, severely marginalized persons, methadone maintenance programs) (Level C).

5.3. Strategies Involving the Therapeutic Regimen

Recent advances in ART have made possible highly potent and simple treatments that play an important role in favoring adherence. These advances are the coformulation of several active ingredients in a single dose, the availability of drugs that can be administered once daily, and, therefore, the possibility of combinations that can be taken in a single daily dose (QD).

Once-daily regimens have created a great deal of interest. Nevertheless, other questions must be resolved conclusively. These include interactions, toxicity, effectiveness, relationship with adherence, and impact on quality of life. It must be remembered that the use of once-daily regimens is one of the many possible interventions, and its impact depends both on individual factors and on external factors, including pill burden, tolerance, potency, efficacy, and resistance.

Furthermore, simplification of ART is defined as a change in a regimen with which a suitable response has been obtained for another that maintains the same efficacy while allowing its complexity to be reduced. Simplification strategies are widely reviewed in the recent consensus document from GESIDA/PNS on antiretroviral therapy in adults.³

Recommendations:

- ART should be tailored and adapted to the needs and preferences of the patient. Simpler regimens with a lower number of daily doses and a lower pill burden are advisable (Level C).
- In the case of patients with maintained virologic suppression achieved using a complex regimen, ART could be simplified to regimens that have shown similar or better safety and efficacy (Level A).

6. CONCLUSIONS

Figure 1 shows a decision-making algorithm that attempts to summarize the recommendations developed above.

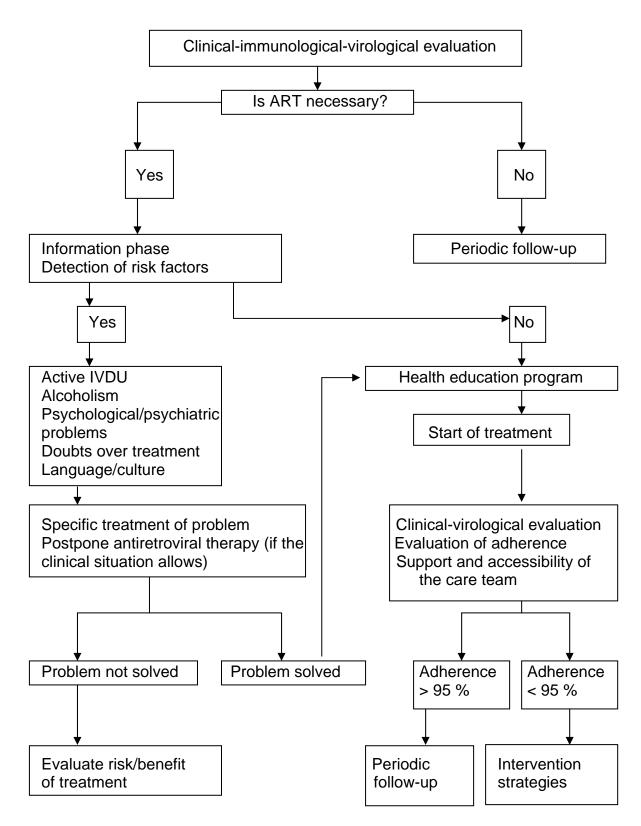


Figure I. Algorithm for starting and maintaining antiretroviral therapy

1. Adherence plays an essential role in the decision to initiate ART and in the duration of the virologic response. Lack of adherence has been shown to be the principal cause

of therapeutic failure and is positively correlated with an increase in hospital admissions, progress to AIDS, and mortality of HIV-infected patients. Given its high cost, it is also an inefficient use of public resources.

2. The most important factors associated with adherence include the complexity of treatment, side effects, psychological problems, active drug and/or alcohol addiction, the lack of social and family support, and the patients' attitudes to and beliefs about treatment.

3. A combination of several methods should be used to estimate adherence. Routine follow-up should involve feasible methods that are adapted to the real situation of the hospital and universally applicable. The acceptable minimum would involve the combination of a validated questionnaire and the hospital pharmacy dispensing register.

4. Any patient starting or switching ART should undergo a health education program on treatment with experienced health professionals who know how to manage individuals infected by HIV. The care team (physicians, pharmacists, and nurses) should try to be as available as possible to resolve the patient's doubts and problems during treatment.

5. In the case of patients who do not reach acceptable levels of adherence, intervention strategies should be applied. These should be multidisciplinary, and have a tailored, psychoeducational approach to adapt the ART regimen to the patient's lifestyle and provide problem-solving strategies. If psychological problems or psychiatric disorders are detected, the interventions should go further than being educational—they should attempt to improve the patient's emotional status and should be carried out by mental health professionals (psychologists and psychiatrists).

6. Regimens with a lower pill burden are acceptable. ART can be simplified to regimens that have shown similar or better efficacy and safety.

<u>References</u>

1. Codina C, Knobel H, Miró JM, Carmona A, García B, Antela A et al. Recomendaciones GESIDA/SEFH/PNS para mejorar la adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral. Farm Hosp. 1999;23 (4):215-29.

2. Knobel H, Codina C, Miró JM, Carmona A, García B, Antela A et al. Recomendaciones GESIDA/SEFH/PNS para mejorar la adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin. 2000;18 (1):27-39.

3. Recomendaciones de Gesida/Plan Nacional sobre el Sida respecto al tratamiento antirretroviral en adultos infectados por el virus de la inmunodeficiencia humana. (Actualización enero 2008). <u>www.gesida.seimc.org; www.msc.es</u>

4. Poppa A, Davidson O, Deutsch J, Godfrey D, Fisher M, Head S, Horne R, Sherr L; British HIV Association (BHIVA); British Association for Sexual Health and HIV (BASHH). British HIV Association (BHIVA)/British Association for Sexual Health and HIV (BASHH) guidelines on provision of adherence support to individuals receiving antiretroviral therapy (2003). HIV Med. 2004;5 Suppl 2:46-60.

5. Knobel H, Escobar I, Polo R, Ortega L, Martin-Conde MT, Casado JL, Codina C, Fernandez J, Galindo MJ, Ibarra O, Llinas M, Miralles C, Riera M, Fumaz CR, Segador A, Segura F, Chamorro L. Recommendations from GESIDA/SEFH/PNS to improve

adherence to antiviral treatment (2004). Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin. 2005;23 (4):221-31.

6. Reynolds NR. Adherence to antiretroviral therapies: state of the science. Curr HIV Res. 2004;2 (3):207-14.

7. DiMatteo MR. Variations in patients' adherence to medical recommendations: a quantitative review of 50 years of research. Med Care. 2004;42 (3):200-9.

8. Muñoz-Moreno JA, Fumaz CR, Ferrer MJ, Tuldrà A, Rovira T, Viladrich C, Bayés R, Burger DM, Negredo E, Clotet B and The SERAD validation team. Assessing self-reported adherence to HIV therapy by questionnaire: The SERAD (self-reported adherence) study. AIDS Res Human Retroviruses 2007;23 (10):1166-75.

9. Wiener L, Riekert K, Ryder C, Wood LV. Assessing medication adherence in adolescents with HIV when electronic monitoring is not feasible. AIDS Patient Care STDS. 2004;18 (9):527-38.

10. Nieuwkerk PT, Oort FJ. Self-reported adherence to antiretroviral therapy for HIV-1 infection and virologic treatment response: a meta-analysis. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2005;38 (4):445-8.

11. Giordano TP, Guzman D, Clark R, Charlebois ED, Bangsberg DR. Measuring adherence to antiretroviral therapy in a diverse population using a visual analogue scale. HIV Clin Trials. 2004;5 (2):74-9.

12. Murphy DA, Marelich WD, Hoffman D, Steers WN. Predictors of antiretroviral adherence. AIDS Care. 2004;16 (4):471-84.

13. Reynolds NR, Testa MA, Marc LG, Chesney MA, Neidig JL, Smith SR, Vella S, Robbins GK; Protocol Teams of ACTG 384, ACTG 731 and A5031s. Factors influencing medication adherence beliefs and self-efficacy in persons naive to antiretroviral therapy: a multicenter, cross-sectional study. AIDS Behav. 2004;8 (2):141-50.

14. Gir E, Vaichulonis CG, de Oliveira MD. Adhesion to anti-retroviral therapy by individuals with HIV/AIDS attended at an institution in the interior of Sao Paulo. Rev Lat Am Enfermagem 2005;13 (5):634-41.

15. Bonolo PF, Cesar CC, Acurcio FA, Ceccato MG, de Padua CA, Alvares J, Campos LN, Carmo RA, Guimares MD. Non-adherence among patients initiating antiretroviral therapy: a challenge for health professionals in Brazil. AIDS. 2005;19 (s4): S5-S13.

16. Portsmouth S, Osorio J, McCormick K, Gazzard B, Moyle G. Better maintained adherence on switching from twice-daily to once-daily therapy for HIV: a 24-week randomized trial of treatment simplification using stavudine prolonged-release capsules. HIV Med. 2005;6 (3):185-90.

17. Mansoor LE, Dowse R. Medicines information and adherence in HIV/AIDS patients. J Clin Pharm Ther. 2006;31 (1):7-15.

18. Plan Multisectorial 2008-2012 (Infección por VIH y SIDA). Secretaría del Plan Nacional sobre el SIDA. Dirección General de Salud Pública y Consumo. Ministerio de Sanidad y Consumo. Madrid 2008.

19. King MS, Brun SC, Kempf DJ. Relationship between adherence and the development of resistance in antiretroviral-naive, HIV-1-infected patients receiving lopinavir/ritonavir or nelfinavir. J Infect Dis. 2005 15;191 (12):2046-52.

20. Carballo E, Cadarso-Suarez C, Carrera I, Fraga J, de la Fuente J, Ocampo A, Ojea R, Prieto A. Assessing relationships between health-related quality of life and adherence to antiretroviral therapy. Qual Life Res. 2004;13 (3):587-99.

21. Ruiz Perez I, Olry de Labry Lima A, Lopez Ruz MA, del Arco Jimenez A, Rodriguez Bano J, Causse Prados M, Pasquau Liano J, Martin Rico P, Prada Pardal JL, de la Torre Lima J, Lopez Gomez M, Marcos M, Muñoz N, Morales D, Muñoz I. Clinical status, adherence to HAART and quality of life in HIV-infected patients receiving antiretroviral treatment. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin. 2005; 23 (10): 581-5.

22. Rathbun RC, Farmer KC, Stephens JR, Lockhart SM. Impact of an adherence clinic on behavioral outcomes and virologic response in treatment of HIV infection: a prospective, randomized, controlled pilot study. Clin Ther. 2005;27 (2):199-209.

23. Inciardi JF, Leeds AL. Assessing the utility of a community pharmacy refill record as a measure of adherence and viral load response in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. Pharmacotherapy. 2005;25 (6):790-6.

24. French T, Weiss L, Waters M, Tesoriero J, Finkelstein R, Agins B. Correlation of a brief perceived stress measure with nonadherence to antiretroviral therapy over time. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2005 15;38 (5):590-7.

25. Yun LW, Maravi M, Kobayashi JS, Barton PL, Davidson AJ. Antidepressant treatment improves adherence to antiretroviral therapy among depressed HIV-infected patients. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2005;38 (4):432-8.

26. Bottonari KA, Roberts JE, Ciesla JA, Hewitt RG. Life stress and adherence to antiretroviral therapy among HIV-positive individuals: a preliminary investigation. AIDS Patient Care STDS 2005; 19 (11): 719-27.

27. Navarro G, Bernaus M, Segura F, Fernández L. Adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral. Estudio de prevalencia en un hospital general. Enf Infecc Microbiol Clin. 2003;21(6):321-6.

28. Phillips KD, Moneyham L, Murdaugh C, Boyd MR, Tavakoli A, Jackson K, Vyavaharkar M. Sleep disturbance and depression as barriers to adherence. Clin Nurs Res. 2005;14 (3):273-93.

29. Samet JH, Horton NJ, Meli S, Dukes K, Tripps T, Sullivan L, Freedberg KA. A randomized controlled trial to enhance antiretroviral therapy adherence in patients with a history of alcohol problems. Antivir Ther. 2005;10 (1):83-93.

30. Knobel H. Are nonnucleoside analogue-based regimens better than protease inhibitor-based regimens for nonadherent HIV-infected patients? Clin Infect Dis. 2005;40 (1):164-6.

31. Bangsberg DR. Less than 95% adherence to nonnucleoside reverse-transcriptase inhibitor therapy can lead to viral suppression. Clin Infect Dis. 2006;43 (7):939-41.

32. Maggiolo F, Ravasio L, Ripamonti D, Gregis G, Quinzan G, Arici C et al. Similar adherence rates favor different virologic outcomes for patients treated with nonnucleoside analogues or protease inhibitors. Clin Infect Dis. 2005;40 (1):158-63.

33. Gulick RM. Adherence to antiretroviral therapy: how much is enough? Clin Infect Dis. 2006;43(7):942-4.

34. Gordillo V, del Amo J, Soriano V, González-Lahoz J. Sociodemographic and psychologic variables influencing adherence to antiretroviral therapy. AIDS. 1999;13 (13):1763-9.

35. Paterson DL, Swindells S, Mohr J, Brester M, Vergis EN, Squier C, et al. Adherence to protease inhibitor therapy and outcomes in patients with HIV infection. Ann Intern Med. 2000;133 (1):21-30.

36. Duran S, Spire B, Raffi F, Walter V, Bouhour D, Journout V, et al. Self-reported symptoms after initiation of a protease inhibitor in HIV-infected patients and their impact on adherence to HAART. HIV Clin Trials. 2001;2 (1):38-45.

37. Ammassari A, Murri R, Pezzotti P, Trotta MP, Ravasio L, De Longis, P, et al. Selfreported symptoms and medications side effects influence adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy in persons with HIV infection. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2001;28 (5):445-9.

38. Wilson TE, Barron Y, Cohen M, Richardson J, Greenblatt R, Sacks HS, et al. Adherence to antiretroviral therapy and its association with sexual behaviour in a national sample of women with human immunodeficiency virus. Clin Infect Dis. 2002;34 (4):529-34.

39. Escobar I, Campo M, Martin J, Fernandez-Shaw C, Pulido F, Rubio R. Factors affecting patient adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy. Ann Pharmacother. 2003;37 (6):775-81.

40. Altice FL, Mostashari F, Friedland GH. Trust and acceptance of and adherence to antiretroviral therapy. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2001;28 (1):47–58.

41. <u>Kleeberger CA, Phair JP, Strathdee SA, Detels R, Kingsley L, Jacobson LP.</u> Determinants of heterogeneous adherence to HIV-antiretroviral therapies in the multicenter AIDS cohort study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2001;26 (1):82-92.

42. Glass TR, De Geest S, Weber R, Vernazza PL, Rickenbach M, Furrer H et al. Correlates of self-reported nonadherence to antiretroviral therapy in HIV-infected patients. The Swiss HIV cohort study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2006;41 (3):385-92

43. Mannheimer SB, Matts J, Telzak E, Chesney M, Child C, Wu AW. Quality of life in HIV-infected individuals receiving antiretroviral therapy is related to adherence. AIDS Care 2005;17 (1):10-22.

44. Carballo E, Cadarso-Suárez C, Carrera I, Fraga J, de la Fuente J, Ocampo A et al. Assessing relationships between health-related quality of life and adherence to antiretroviral therapy. Qual Life Res 2004;13 (3):587-99.

45. <u>Gifford AL, Bormann JE, Shively MJ, Wright BC, Richman DD, Bozzette SA.</u> Predictors of self-reported adherence and plasma HIV concentrations in patients on multidrug antiretroviral regimens. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2000;23 (5):386-95. 46. Metha S, Moore RD, Graham NM. Potential factors affecting adherence with HIV therapy. AIDS 1997;11:1665-70.

47. Parruti G, Manzoli L, Marani Toro P, D'amico G, Rotolo S, Graziani V, et al. Longterm adherence to first-line highly active antiretroviral therapy in a ospital-Based Cohort: Predictors and Impact on Virologic Response and Relapse. AIDS Patient Care and STDS 2006;20 (1):48-56

48. Carrieri MP, Leport C, Protopopescu C, Cassuto JP, Bouvet E, Peyramond D et al. Factors associated with nonadherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy. A 5-year follow-up analysis with correction for the bias induced by missing data in the treatment maintenance phase. J Acquir Immune Defic Synd 2006;41 (4):477-85.

49. Catz SL, Kelly JA, Bogart LM, Benotsch EG, McAuliffe TL . Patterns, correlates, and barriers to medication adherence among persons prescribed new treatments for HIV disease. Health Psychol 2000;19 (2):124–33.

50. <u>Ahdieh-Grant L, Tarwater PM</u>, <u>Schneider MF</u>, <u>Anastos K</u>, <u>Cohen M</u>, <u>Khalsa A</u>, et al. Factors and temporal trends associated with highly active antiretroviral therapy discontinuation in the Women's Interagency HIV Study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2005;38 (4):500-3

51. Cook JA, Grey D, Burke-Miller J, Cohen MH, Anastos K, Gandhi M, Richardson J, Wilson T, Young M. Effects of treated and untreated depressive symptoms on highly active antiretroviral therapy use in a US multi-site cohort of HIV-positive women. AIDS Care 2006;18 (2):93-100.

52. Lima VD, Geller J, Bangsberg DR, Patterson TL, Daniel M, Kerr T, Montaner JS, <u>Hogg RS</u>. The effect of adherence on the association between depressive symptoms and mortality among HIV-infected individuals first initiating HAART. AIDS 2007;21 (9):1175-83.

53. Ammassari A, Antinori A, Aloisi MS, Trotta MP, Murri R, Bartola L et al. Depressive symptoms, neurocognitive impairment, and adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy among HIV-infected persons. Psychosomatics 2004;45 (5):394-402.

54. Moatti JP, Carrieri MP, Spire B, Gastaut JA, Cassuto JP, Moreau J. Adherence to HAART in French HIV-infected injecting drug users: the contribution of buprenorphine drug maintenance treatment. AIDS 2000;14 (2):151-5.

55. Haubrich RH, Little SJ, Currier JS, Forthal DN, Kemper CA, Beall GN, et al. The value of patient reported adherence to antiretroviral therapy in predicting virologic and immunologic response. AIDS 1999;13 (9):1099-107.

56. <u>Aloisi MS, Arici C, Balzano R, Noto P, Piscopo R, Filice G</u>, et al. Behavioural correlates of adherence to antiretroviral therapy. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;31 Suppl 3:S145-8.

57. <u>Bouhnik AD, Chesney M, Carrieri P, Gallais H, Moreau J, Moatti JP</u>, et al. Nonadherence among HIV-infected injecting drug users: the impact of social instability. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;31 Suppl 3:S149-53. 58. Martín-Sánchez V, Ortega-Valín L, Pérez-Simón MR, Mostaza-Fernández JL, Ortiz de Urbina-González JJ, Rodríguez Marín M, y col. Factores predictores de no adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral de gran actividad. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 2002;20 (10):491-7.

59. <u>Holmes WC</u>, <u>Bilker WB</u>, <u>Wang H</u>, <u>Chapman J</u>, <u>Gross R</u>. HIV/AIDS-specific quality of life and adherence to antiretroviral therapy over time. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2007;46 (3):323-7.

60. Lazo M, Gange SJ, Wilson TE, Anastos K, Ostrow DG, Witt MD, et al. Patterns and predictors of changes in adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy: longitudinal study of men and women. Clin Infect Dis 2007;45 (10):1377-85.

61. <u>Chesney MA, Ickovics JR, Chambers DB, Gifford AL, Neidig J, Zwickl B, et al.</u> Self-reported adherence to antiretroviral medications among participants in HIV clinical trials: the AACTG Adherence Instrument. AIDS Care 2000;12 (3):255-66.

62. Eldred LJ, Wu AW, Chaisson RE, Moore RD. Adherence to antiretroviral and *Pneumocystis* prophylaxis in HIV disease. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 1998;18 (2):117-25.

63. Mostashari F, Riley E, Selwyn PA, Altice SL. Acceptance and adherence with antiretroviral therapy among HIV-infected women in a correctional facility. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol 1998;18:341–8.

64. Moralejo L, Ines S, Marcos M, Fuertes A, Luna G. Factors influencing adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy in Spain. Curr HIV Res 2006;4 (2): 221-7.

65. <u>Murri R, Ammassari A, Gallicano K, De Luca A, Cingolani A, Jacobson D,</u> et al. Patient-reported nonadherence to HAART is related to protease inhibitor levels. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2000;24 (2):123-8.

66. <u>Gao X, Nau DP, Rosenbluth SA, Scott V, Woodward C.</u> The relationship of disease severity, health beliefs and medication adherence among HIV patients. AIDS Care 2000;12 (4):387-98.

67. <u>d'Arminio Monforte A, Lepri AC, Rezza G, Pezzotti P, Antinori A, Phillips AN</u>, et al. Insights into the reasons for discontinuation of the first highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) regimen in a cohort of antiretroviral naïve patients. I.CO.N.A. Study Group. Italian Cohort of Antiretroviral-Naïve Patients. AIDS 2000;14 (5):499-507.

68. Mocroft A, Youle, Moore A, Sabin CA, Madge S, Lepri AC, et al. Reasons for modification and discontinuation of antiretrovirals: results from a single treatment centre. AIDS 2001;15 (2):185-94

69. Knobel H, Serrano C, Hernández P, Pavesi M, Díez A. Aceptación, cumplimiento y tolerancia del tratamiento antirretroviral en pacientes con infección por virus de la inmunodeficiencia humana. An Med Interna (Madrid) 1997;14 (9):445-9.

70. Freeman RC, Rodríguez GM, French JF. Compliance with AZT treatment regimen of HIV seropositive injection drug users: a neglected issue. AIDS Educ Prev 1996;8 (1):58-71.

71. Balestra P, Zaccarelli M, Tozzi V, Galgani S, Sebastiani G, Narciso P. Increasing compliance to HIV treatments in the era of protease inhibitors [Abstract]. Hamburg, 6th European Conference on Clinical Aspects and Treatment of HIV-Infection, 1997.

72. Griffith S. A review of the factors associated with patient compliance and the taking of prescribed medicines. Br J Gen Pract 1990;40 (332):114-6.

73. Trotta MP, Ammassari A, Melzi S, Zaccarelli M, Ladisa N, Sighinolfi L, et al. Treatment-related factors and highly active antiretroviral therapy adherence. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;31 Suppl 3:S128-31.

74. Stone VE, Hogan JW, Schuman P, Rompalo AM, Howard AA, Korkontzelou C, et al. Antiretroviral regimen complexity, self-reported adherence, and HIV patients' understanding of their regimens: survey of women in the HER study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2001;28 (2):124-31.

75. Claxton AJ, Cramer J, Pierce C. A systematic review of the associations between dose regimens and medication compliance. Clin Ther. 2001;23 (8):1296-310.

76. Trotta MP, Ammassari A, Cozzi-Lepri A, Zaccarelli M, Castelli F, et al. Adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy is better in patients receiving non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor-containing regimens than in those receiving protease inhibitor-containing regimens. AIDS. 2003;17 (7):1099-102.

77. Bangsberg DR. Less than 95% adherence to nonnucleoside reverse-transcriptase inhibitor therapy can lead to viral suppression. Clin Infect Dis 2006;43 (7):939-41.

78. Glass TR, De Geest S, Weber R, Vernazza PL, Rickenbach M, Furrer H et al. Correlates of self-reported nonadherence to antiretroviral therapy in HIV-infected patients. The Swiss HIV cohort study. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2006;41 (3):385-92.

79. Carrieri MP, Leport C, Protopopescu C, Cassuto JP, Bouvet E, Peyramond D et al. Factors associated with nonadherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy. A 5-year follow-up analysis with correction for the bias induced by missing data in the treatment maintenance phase. J Acquir Immune Defic Synd 2006;41 (4):477-85.

80. Nachega JB, Hislop M, Dowdy DW, Chaisson RE, Regensberg L, Maartens G. Adherence to nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor-based HIV therapy and virologic outcomes. Ann Intern Med 2007;146 (8):564-73

81. Parienti JJ, Massari V, Descamps D, Vabret A, Bouvet E, Larouzé B et al. Predictors of virologic failure and resistance in HIV-1 infected patients treated with nevirapine or efavirenz-based antiretroviral therapy. Clin Infect Dis 2004;38 (9):1311-6.

82. Bangsberg DR, Kroetz DL, Deeks S. Adherence-resistance relationships to combination HIV antiretroviral therapy. Curr HIV/AIDS Rep 2007;4 (2):65-72.

83. Grimes RM, Lal L, Lewis ST. Frequency and medical history items, drug interactions, and lifestyle characteristics that may interfere with antiretroviral medications. HIV Clin Trials 2002;3 (2):161-7.

84. Nieuwkerk PT, Sprangers MAG, Burger DM, Hoetelmans RM, Hugen PW, Danner SA, et al. Limited patient adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy for HIV-1 infection in an observational cohort study. Arch Intern Med 2001;161:1962-8.

85. Heath KV, Singer J, O'Shaughnessy MV, Montaner JSG, Hogg RS. Intentional nonadherence due to adverse symptoms associated with antiretroviral therapy. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;31:211-7.

86. Holzemer WL, Corless IB, Nokes KM, Turner JG, Brown MA, Powell-Cope GM, et al. Predictors of self-reported adherence in persons living with HIV disease. AIDS Patient Care STDS 1999;13 (3):185-97.

87. Martín M, del Cacho E, López E, Codina C, Tuset M, Lazzari E et al. Reacciones adversas del tratamiento antiretroviral: relación entre los síntomas percibidos y el cumplimiento terapéutico. Med Clin (Barc) 2007;129 (4):127-33

88. Duran S, Savès M, Spire B, Cilleton V, Sobel A, Carrieri P, et al. Failure to maintain long-term adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy: the role of lipodystrophy. AIDS 2001;15 (8):2441-4.

89. Södergard B, Halvarsson M, Tully MP, Mindouri S, Nordström M, Lindbäck S et al. Adherente to treatment in Swedish HIV-infected patients. J Clin Pharm Ther 2006;31 (6):605-16.

90. Altice FL, Friedland GH. The era of adherence to HIV therapy. Ann Intern Med 1998;129 (6):503-5.

91. Schneider J, Kaplan SH, Greenfield S, Li W, Wilson IB. Better physician-patient relationships are associated with higher reported adherence to antiretroviral therapy in patients with HIV infection. J Gen Intern Med 2004;19 (11):1096-103.

92. Ickovics JR, Meade CS. Adherence to antiretroviral therapy among patients with HIV: a critical link between behavioural and biomedical sciences. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;31:S98-S102.

93. Knobel H. Cómo y por qué debe monitorizarse la adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral en la actualidad. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 2002;20 (10):481-3.

94. Tuldra A, Fumaz CR, Ferrer MJ, Bayes R, Arno A, Balague M, et al. Prospective randomised two-arm controlled study to determine the efficacy of a specific intervention to improve long-term adherence to highly antiretroviral therapy. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2000;25 (3):221-8.

95. Nieuwkerk P, Burge D, Hugen R, Aarnoutse R, Van Heeswijk A, Veldkamp R, et al. Patient adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy for HIV-infection in a nation wide cohort study in the Netherlands. Durban. 2000. XIII International AIDS Conference (Abstract MoPpD1055).

96. Duran S, Solas C, Spire B, Carrieri MP, Fuzibet JG, Costagliola D, et al. Do HIVinfected injecting drugs users over-report adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy? A comparison between patients' self-reports and serum protease inhibitors concentrations in the French Manif 2000 cohort study. AIDS 2001;15 (8):1075-7.

97. Riera M, De la Fuente L, Castayer B, Puigventòs F, Villalonga C, Ribas MA, et al. . Adherencia a los fármacos antirretrovirales medida por la concentración de fármacos y el recuento de comprimidos. Variables relacionadas con una mala adherencia. Med Clin (Barc) 2002;119 (8):286-92.

98. Alcoba M, Cuevas MJ, Perez-Simon MR, Mostaza JL, Ortega L, Ortiz de Urbina J, et al. HAART. Adherence Working Group for the Province of Leon, Spain. Assessment of adherence to triple antiretroviral treatment including indinavir: role of the determination of plasma levels of indinavir. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2003;33 (2):253-8.

99. Pérez-Simón MR, Cuevas MJ, Ortega L, Carro JA, Mostaza JL, Martín V. Valoración de la adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral: papel de la determinación de la concentración plasmática de los fármacos no análogos de nucleósidos. Med Clin (Barc)2003;120 (18):701-3.

100. Quirós-Roldan E, et al. Adherence and plasma drug concentrations are predictors of confirmed virologic response after 24-week salvage highly active antiretroviral therapy. AIDS Patient CARE and STDS 2007;21 (2):92-9.

101. Duong M, Piroth L, Peytavin G, Forte F, Kohli E, Grappin M, et al . Value of patient self-report and plasma human immunodeficiency virus protease inhibitor level as markers of adherence to antiretroviral therapy: relationship to virologic response. Clin Infect Dis 2001;33 (3):386-92.

102. Csajka C, Marzolini C, Fattinger K, Décosterd LA, Fellay J, Telenti A, et al. Population pharmacokinetics and effects of efavirenz in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. Clin Pharmacol Ther 2003;73 (1):20-30.

103. Murri R, Antinori A, Ammassari A, Nappa S, Orofino G, Abrescia N, et al. AdICoNA Study Group. Physician estimates of adherence and the patient-physician relationship as a setting to improve adherence to Antiretroviral Therapy. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002.31 Suppl 3:S158-62

104. Bangsberg DR, Hecht FM, Clague H, Charlebois ED, Ciccarone D, Chesney M, et al. Provider assessment of adherence to HIV antiretroviral therapy. J Acquir Def Synd 2001;26 (5):435-42

105. Miller LG, Liu H, Hays RD, Golin CE, Beck CK, Asch SM, et al. How well do clinicians estimate patients' adherence to combination antiretroviral therapy? J Gen Intern Med 2002;17 (1):1-11.

106. Howard AA, Arnsten JH, Lo Y, Vlahov D, Rich JD, Schuman P, et al. A prospective study of adherence and viral load in a large multi-center cohort of HIV-infected women. AIDS 2002;16 (16):2175-82.

107. Knobel H, Alonso J, Casado JL, Collazos J, Gonzalez J, Ruiz I, et al. Validation of a simplified medication adherence questionnaire in a large cohort of HIV-infected patients: the GEEMA Study. AIDS 2002; 16 (4):605-13.

108. Mathews WC, Mar-Tang M, Ballard C, Colwell B, Abulhosn K, Noonan C, et al. Prevalence, predictors, and outcomes of early adherence after starting or changing antiretroviral therapy. AIDS Patient Care STDS 2002;16 (4):157-72.

109. Arnsten JH, Demas PA, Farzadegan H, Grant RW, Gourevitch MN, Chang CJ, et al. Antiretroviral therapy adherence and viral suppression in HIV-infected drug users:

comparison of self-report and electronic monitoring. Clin Infect Dis 2001 Oct 15;33 (8):1417-23.

110. Hugen PW, Langebeek N, Burger DM, Zomer B, Van Leusen R, Schuurman R, et al. Assessment of adherence to HIV protease inhibitors: comparison and combination of various methods, including MEMS (electronic monitoring), patient and nurse report, and therapeutic drug monitoring. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2002;30 (3):324-34.

111. Wendel CS, Mohler MJ, Kroesen K, Ampel NM, Gifford AL, Coons SJ. Barriers to use of electronic adherence monitoring in an HIV clinic. Ann Pharmacother 2001;35 (9):1010-5.

112. García B. Medición de la adherencia al tratamiento antiretroviral. En: Codina C, Delgado O. Jornadas de adherencia de los pacientes con VIH al tratamiento antirretroviral. Ed. SEFH-GlaxoSmithKline (2001).

113. Liu H, Golin CE, Miller LG, Hays RD, Beck CK, Sananndaji S, et al. A comparison study of multiple measures of adherence to HIV protease inhibitors. Ann Intern Med 2001;134 (10):968-77.

114. Codina C, Martínez M, Tuset M, Del Cacho E, Martín MT, Miró JM, et al. Comparación de tres métodos de cálculo de adherencia en pacientes con tratamiento antirretroviral. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 2002; 20 (10):484-90.

115. Miller LG, Hays RD. Measuring adherence to antiretroviral medications in clinical trials. HIV Clin Trials 2000;1 (1):36-46.

116. Puigventos F, Riera M, Delibes C, Peñaranda M, De la Fuente L, Boronat A. Estudios de adherencia a los fármacos antirretrovirales. Una revisión sistemática. Med Clin (Barc) 2002;119 (4):130-7.

117. Hogg RS, Heath K, Bansberg D, Yip B, Press N, O'Shaughnessy MV, et al. Intermittent use of triple-combination therapy is predictive of mortality at baseline and after 1 year of follow-up. AIDS 2002;16 (7):1051-8.

118. <u>Gross R, Yip B, Lo Re V 3rd</u>, <u>Wood E, Alexander CS</u>, <u>Harrigan PR</u>, et al. A simple, dynamic measure of antiretroviral therapy adherence predicts failure to maintain HIV-1 suppression. J Infect Dis 2006;194 (8):1108-14.

119. Turner BJ. Adherence to antiretroviral therapy by human immunodeficiency virusinfected patients. J Infect Dis 2002;15;185 Suppl 2:S143-51.

120. Martín J, Escobar I, Rubio R, Sabugal G, Cascón J, Pulido F. Study of validity of a questionnaire to assess the adherence to therapy in patients infected by HIV. HIV Clinical Trials 2001:2 (1):31-7.

121.- <u>Levine AJ</u>, <u>Hinkin CH</u>, <u>Marion S</u>, <u>Keuning A</u>, <u>Castellon SA</u>, <u>Lam MM</u>, et al. Health Psychol. Adherence to antiretroviral medications in HIV: differences in data collected via self-report and electronic monitoring. 2006;25 (3):329-35.

122. Gao X, Nau DP. Congruence of three self-report measures of medications adherence among HIV patients. Ann Pharmacother 2000;34 (10):1117-22

123. Nieuwkerk P, Oort F. Self-reported adherence to antiretroviral therapy for HIV-1 infection and virologic treatment response: a meta-analysis. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2005;38 (4):445-8.

124. Cuevas González MJ, Ortega-Valín L, Pérez-Simón MD, Mostaza Fernández JL, Alcoba Leza M, Martín-Sánchez V. A prospective study of adherence and virologic failure in HIV-infected patients: role of a single determination of plasma levels of antiretroviral medications. J Int Assoc Physicians AIDS Care (Chic III). 2007;6 (4):245-50.

125. Roter D, Hall J, Merisca M, Nordstrom B, Cretin D, Svarstad B. Effectiveness of interventions to improve patient compliance. A meta-analysis. Med Care 1998;36:1138-61.

126. Knobel H, Carmona A, López J, Gimeno JL, Saballs P, González A, et al. Adherencia al tratamiento antirretroviral de gran actividad: impacto de una intervención de asesoramiento individualizado. Enferm Infecc Microbiol Clin 1999;17 (2):78-81.

127. Carmona A, Knobel H, Casado JL. Improvement of adherence in severe nonadherent patients after the intervention of a treatment adherence counsellor. Barcelona, 2002. XIV International AIDS Conference (Abstract ThPeF8200).

128. Safren SA, Otto MW, Worth JL, Salomon E, Johnson W, Mayer K. Two strategies to increase adherence to HIV medication: life-steps and medication monitoring. Behav Res Ther 2001;39 (10):1151-62.

129. Martin J, Sabugal GM, Rubio R, Sainz-Maza M, Blanco JM, Alonso JL. Outcomes of a health education intervention in a sample of patients infected by HIV, most of them injection drug users: possibilities and limitations. AIDS Care 2001;13 (4):467-73.

130. Spire B, Duran S, Sounville M, Leport C, Raffi F, Moatti JP. Adherence to HAART in HIV-infected patients: from a predictive to a dynamic approach. Soc Sci Med 2002;54 (10):1481-96.

131. <u>Bruin M</u>, <u>Hospers HJ</u>, <u>van den Borne HW</u>, <u>Kok G</u>, <u>Prins JM</u>. Theory- and evidence-based intervention to improve adherence to antiretroviral therapy among HIV-infected patients in the Netherlands: a pilot study. AIDS patient Care and STDS 2005;19 (6):384-94.

132. Collier AC, Ribaudo H, Mukherjee AL, Feinberg J, Fischl MA, Chesney M. A randomized study of serial telephone call support to increase adherence and thereby improve virologic outcome in persons initiating antiretroviral therapy. J Infect Dis 2005;192 (8):1398-406.

133. Simoni JM, Pearson CR, Pantalone DW, Marks G, Crepaz N. Efficacy of interventions in improving highly active antiretroviral therapy adherence and HIV-1 RNA viral load. A meta-analytic review of randomized controlled trials. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2006; 43 Suppl 1: S23-35.

134. <u>Mannheimer SB, Morse E, Matts JP, Andrews L, Child C, Schmetter B</u>, Friedland GH. Sustained benefit from a long-term antiretroviral adherence intervention. Results of a large randomized clinical trial. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2006;43 Suppl 1: S41-7.

135. Conway B, Prasad J, Reynolds R, Farley J, Jones M, Jutha S, et al. Directly observed therapy for the management of HIV-infected patients in a methadone program. Clin Infect Dis 2004;38 Suppl 5:S402-8.

136. Macalino GE, Mitty JA, Bazerman LB, Singh K, McKenzie M, Flanigan T. Modified directly observed therapy for the treatment of HIV-seropositive substance users: lessons learned from a pilot study. Clin Infect Dis 2004;38 Suppl 5:S393-7.

137. Mitty JA, Stone VE, Sands M, Macalino G, Flanigan T. Directly observed therapy for the treatment of people with human immunodeficiency virus infection: a work in progress. Clin Infect Dis 2002;34 (7):984-90.

138. Altice FL, Maru DS, Bruce RD, Springer SA, Friedland GH. Superiority of directly administered antiretroviral therapy over self-administered therapy among HIV-infected drug users: a prospective, randomized, controlled trial. Clin Infect Dis 2007;45 (6):770-8.

139. Pulido F, Ribera E, Moreno S, Muñoz A et al. Once-daily antiretroviral therapy Spanish Consensus Statement. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2005;56 (5):808-18.