

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2023 March 01.

Published in final edited form as:

J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2022 March 01; 89(3): 288–296. doi:10.1097/QAI.000000000002870.

CD4 Trends with Evolving Treatment Initiation Policies among Children Living with HIV in Zambézia Province, Mozambique, 2012–2018

James G. Carlucci^{1,2}, Caroline De Schacht³, Erin Graves², Purificación González⁴, Magdalena Bravo³, Zhihong Yu⁵, Gustavo Amorim⁵, Folasade Arinze⁶, Wilson Silva³, Jose A. Tique³, Maria Fernanda Sardella Alvim³, Beatriz Simione⁷, Anibal Naftal Fernando⁸, C. William Wester^{2,9}

¹Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Department of Pediatrics, Division of Pediatric Infectious Diseases, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

²Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Institute for Global Health, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

³Friends in Global Health, Maputo, Mozambique

⁴Friends in Global Health, Quelimane, Mozambique

⁵Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Department of Biostatistics, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

⁶WellStar Kennestone Hospital, Marietta, Georgia, USA

⁷Ministry of Health, National Directorate of Public Health, Maputo, Mozambique

⁸Provincial Health Directorate of Zambézia, Quelimane, Mozambique

⁹Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Department of Medicine, Division of Infectious Diseases, Nashville, Tennessee, USA

Abstract

Background: Historically, antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation was based on CD4 criteria, but this has been replaced with "Test-and-Start" (T&S) wherein all people living with HIV are offered ART. We describe the baseline immunologic status among children relative to evolving ART policies in Mozambique.

Methods: This retrospective evaluation was performed using routinely collected data. Children living with HIV (CLHIV; 5–14 years) with CD4 data in the period of 2012–2018 were included. ART initiation "policy periods" corresponded to implementation of evolving guidelines: in Period 1 (2012–2016), ART was recommended for CD4<350; during Period 2 (2016–2017), the CD4 threshold increased to <500; T&S was implemented in Period 3 (2017–2018). We described temporal trends in the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency (CD4<200) at enrollment and at ART initiation. Multivariable regression models were used to estimate associations with severe immunodeficiency.

Results: The cohort included 1,815 children with CD4 data at enrollment and 1,922 at ART initiation. The proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency decreased over time: 20% at enrollment into care in Period 1 vs. 16% in Period 3 (p=0.113), and 21% at ART start in Period 1 vs. 15% in Period 3 (p=0.004). Children initiating ART in Period 3 had lower odds of severe immunodeficiency at ART start compared to those in Period 1 (aOR=0.67; 95%CI:0.51–0.88). Older age was associated with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment (aOR=1.13; 95%CI:1.06–1.20) and at ART initiation (aOR=1.14; 95%CI:1.08–1.21).

Conclusions: The proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation decreased alongside more inclusive ART initiation guidelines. Earlier treatment of CLHIV is imperative.

Keywords

HIV; CD4 cell count; children; antiretroviral therapy; Mozambique

INTRODUCTION

As of 2019, there were nearly 2 million children living with HIV (CLHIV) globally. Greater than two-thirds of those living with HIV were in sub-Saharan Africa. In Mozambique, the pediatric HIV prevalence is approximately 1 to 2%, and the vertical transmission rate is estimated to range from 5 to 14%. Despite significant investments and widespread implementation of prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT) services, there are still 160,000 new pediatric HIV infections, worldwide, every year. As is the case for adults living with HIV, early initiation of antiretroviral therapy (ART) – well before progression to severe immunodeficiency/AIDS – is essential to ensure optimal health outcomes for CLHIV. 5–15

Pediatric ART initiation guidelines have evolved over time in response to emerging evidence for improved outcomes with earlier ART initiation. Historically, decisions to initiate ART were based on clinical (e.g., World Health Organization [WHO] Stage 3 or 4 conditions) or immunologic (i.e., CD4+ T-cell count [CD4] cutoffs) criteria. In 2008, WHO updated guidelines to recommend ART initiation for all CLHIV under 1 year of age, regardless of clinical or immunologic criteria. ¹⁶ In 2010, WHO expanded their age-based criteria to recommend ART initiation for all CLHIV less than 2 years of age, ¹⁷ and in 2013 they began recommending universal ART initiation for those less 5 years of age. ¹⁸ Aligned with adult guidelines, ART initiation for children 5 years or older continued to be based on clinical and immunologic criteria until 2016. ¹⁹ Since 2016, WHO has recommended ART initiation for all people living with HIV (including children), regardless of clinical, immunologic, or age criteria, a strategy referred to as "Test and Start". ²⁰ In Mozambique implementation of Test and Start began in a phased approach staring in July 2016, and the policy was not fully implemented across the entirety of Zambézia Province Mozambique until November 2017. ^{1–4}

With support from the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR), Vanderbilt University Medical Center (VUMC), through its subsidiary Friends in Global Health (FGH), has

provided technical assistance in Zambézia Province, Mozambique since 2006. The Test and Start strategy commenced in Zambézia Province, starting first in the provincial capital of Quelimane in August 2016, followed by other large districts in April 2017, smaller districts as of November 2017, and all VUMC/FGH-supported districts as of February 2018.

Under older ART initiation policies, which delayed treatment until there were HIV-related declines in CD4 counts or the development of opportunistic conditions, it was expected that CLHIV would start treatment with a more advanced degree of HIV-related immunodeficiency. In contrast, it is expected that HIV-related immunodeficiency should be less severe among CLHIV initiating ART in the Test and Start era, wherein universal and immediate treatment is recommended, regardless of immunologic or clinical status. However, prior studies of HIV-related immunodeficiency among children relative to ART program maturation only included children starting ART prior to 2013, 21,22 and more recent studies focused solely on adults, 23,24 so less is known about CLHIV receiving HIV care and treatment in Mozambique in recent years. Therefore, the objectives of this evaluation were to describe the degree of immunodeficiency and to identify risk factors for enrolling in HIV care and starting ART with severe immunodeficiency among children during the period of evolving ART initiation policies in Zambézia Province, Mozambique.

METHODS

Data Sources and Ethical Considerations

An electronic Open Medical Record System (OpenMRS)TM is utilized at VUMC/FGH-supported health facilities to facilitate patient care and program monitoring and evaluation activities. De-identified data were extracted from the OpenMRS database for this secondary analysis. This data use and evaluation plan were approved by the VUMC Institutional Review Board (170970) and the Institutional Research Ethics Committee for Health of Zambézia Province (*Comité Institucional de Bioética para Saúde – Zambézia*; 16-CIBS-Z-18). This project was reviewed in accordance with CDC human research protection procedures and was determined to be research, but CDC investigators did not interact with human subjects or have access to identifiable data or specimens for research purposes.

Study Settings

This evaluation took place in Zambézia Province, Mozambique, which is a relatively underserved region of Mozambique with an HIV prevalence of 15% (compared to 13% nationally). 1–4 Children receiving HIV care and treatment at 107 public health facilities in nine districts (86% of all health facilities in these districts) of Zambézia Province were included in this evaluation. Fifteen of the health facilities included in this evaluation were in Quelimane, the urban capital district of Zambézia Province, while the remaining health facilities were in rural districts. Each health facility offers comprehensive HIV services, including clinical care, laboratory testing, and pharmacy services. Each district-level health system consists of one large health facility/referral center located in the district capital (offering primary and sometimes secondary health care) and smaller peripherally located health facilities and/or health posts (providing only primary care).

Study Design, Variables, and Definitions

This was a retrospective cohort study using routinely collected patient data. The objectives of this evaluation were to: i) describe CD4 count trends among CLHIV over time, relative to ART initiation policies; and, ii) identify risk factors for enrolling in HIV care and starting ART with severe immunodeficiency.

All ART-naïve CLHIV (5 to <15 years of age) enrolled in HIV care at a VUMC/FGH-supported health facility from September 30, 2012 through September 30, 2018 were eligible for inclusion in this study. Those with known enrollment and ART initiation dates and documented absolute CD4 count data were included. ART initiation date was defined as the first ART pick-up at a health facility. Children less than 5 years of age were excluded due to a paucity of CD4 percentage data (71% missing), the standard by which immune status is assessed in this younger age group. Data for included children were captured from their date of enrollment to December 31, 2018.

CD4 count at enrollment was defined as the CD4 count nearest the date of enrollment into HIV care, within the range from 2 months before or after the enrollment date. *CD4 count at ART initiation* was defined as the CD4 count nearest the ART initiation date, within the range from 6 months prior to 2 months after ART initiation. These definitions were not mutually exclusive; CD4 count at enrollment and at ART initiation could be the same. *Severe immunodeficiency* was defined as a CD4 count <200 cells/mm³. ²⁵ CD4 counts documented as 0 (0.2%) or >3,500 cells/mm³ (1.1%) were considered invalid and were deleted from the dataset. ²⁶

ART initiation "policy periods" correspond to implementation of evolving pediatric ART initiation guidelines. In Period 1 (September 30, 2012 – July 31, 2016), ART was recommended for children 5 years of age who had a CD4 count <350 cells/mm³ or a WHO clinical stage 3 or 4 defining condition. In Period 2 (August 1, 2016 – October 31, 2017), the CD4 count threshold increased to <500 cells/mm³, and implementation of Test and Start began in Quelimane and Namacurra districts. In Period 3 (November 1, 2017 – September 30, 2018), Test and Start was implemented province-wide (Table 1).

Child, caregiver, and health facility variables were extracted from the OpenMRS database. Child characteristics included: age, sex, and CD4 counts. Caregiver characteristics included: mother's age, father's age, and parents' vital status (alive vs. deceased). Health facility characteristics included: district, setting (urban vs. rural), and health facility type (referral center vs. peripheral health facility).

Statistical Analyses

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize child, caregiver, and program characteristics. Temporal trends in CD4 counts and the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment in HIV care and at the time of ART initiation were also described and stratified by policy period and patient, caregiver, and program characteristics. We did not investigate whether there were cases where children were started on ART despite not meeting the criteria for ART initiation in effect during the policy period in which they were started on ART; rather, we were interested in aggregate outcomes during

the respective policy periods. Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare CD4 counts between enrollment and ART initiation within each policy period, and the chi-squared test for trend was used to assess the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency over time.

Univariate logistic regression models for each variable were built to assess associations with severe immunodeficiency. Cases with missing data were omitted during the univariate analysis. The likelihood ratio test was used to assess the statistical significance of each association, while the difference between a level and the reference level within a variable was assessed by Wald test.

A multivariable logistic regression model was used to identify associations with severe immunodeficiency. Variables in the model were selected based on *a priori* hypotheses and included: policy period, district, health facility type (district referral center vs. peripheral health facility), sex, child's age, and parents' vital status. Inclusion of additional variables (e.g., parents' age) were considered but were excluded from the model due to excessive missingness and lack of statistical significance in univariate analyses (p>0.05). An interaction between policy period and age was also considered and included in the model. Calendar year was not included in the model due to a high correlation with policy period (Cramer's V = 0.774 and 0.755, at enrollment and ART initiation, respectively). Missing data for parents' vital status were imputed by iterative chained equations using the mice R package, ²⁷ with a total of 50 imputations, while accounting for all variables included in the multivariable regression model. The significance of each term in the model was assessed by using the univariate Wald test based on the pooled regression coefficient and standard error from 50 imputed datasets.

All statistical analyses were conducted using R statistical software.²⁸

RESULTS

Among ART-naïve children 5 to <15 years of age receiving HIV care and treatment from VUMC/FGH-supported health facilities in Zambézia, 1,815/2,537 (72%) had valid absolute CD4 count data available at enrollment into HIV care, and 1,922/2,569 (75%) had CD4 count data available at ART initiation. There was significant variability in missingness of CD4 data between districts and health facilities, but there was no trend in missingness of CD4 data over time or across policy periods (data not shown).

At enrollment into HIV care, the median age was 8.5 years (interquartile range [IQR]: 6.5–10.8). There was no significant trend in median age at enrollment or at ART initiation across calendar years (p=0.14 at enrollment; p=0.30 at ART initiation) or policy periods (p=0.75 at enrollment; p=0.45 at ART initiation). Fifty-eight percent were girls but there were no significant differences between boys and girls in terms of missingness of CD4 data. Among the 980 (54%) for whom parents' vital status was known, both parents were alive for 56% of the children, only the mother was alive for 18%, only the father was alive for 15%, and 11% were orphans/both parents were deceased. One-third of the cohort was from Quelimane district, the urban capital of Zambézia Province, while the remaining children were from

the eight other rural districts from which we collected pediatric CD4 data. Approximately one-quarter of children were enrolled in care at a district capital health facility (i.e., district referral centers), while 73% were enrolled at peripheral health facilities within the respective districts. Fifty-four percent of children were enrolled in HIV care during Period 1, 14% during Period 2, and 32% in Period 3 (Table 2).

Median CD4 count at enrollment into HIV care and at ART initiation were similar at 504 cells/mm³ (IQR: 277–798) and 501 cells/mm³ (IQR: 275–809), respectively (Table 2). Median CD4 counts at enrollment and at ART initiation were also similar across policy periods (495 vs. 477 cells/mm³ in Period 1 (p=0.418), 568 vs. 555 cells/mm³ in Period 2 (p=0.925), and 504 vs. 529 cells/mm³ in Period 3 (p=0.421)). However, the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency (i.e., CD4 count <200 cells/mm³) decreased over time (by calendar year and across policy periods). Severe immunodeficiency at enrollment decreased from 28% in 2013 to 15% in 2018 (p<0.001 for trend) and at ART initiation decreased from 33% in 2013 to 15% in 2018 (p<0.001 for trend). As shown in Figure 1A and Table 3, the there was a non-significant trend in the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment across policy periods (20% in Period 1, 19% in Period 2, and 16% in Period 3; p=0.120 for trend), and a significant decrease in the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation across policy periods (21% in Period 1, 17% in Period 2, and 15% in Period 3; p=0.003 for trend). The proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency did not significantly differ between districts (p=0.13 at enrollment, and p=0.09 at ART initiation) or health facilities (p=0.16 at enrollment, and p=0.14 at ART initiation).

In univariate analyses (Table 3), older age (p<0.001 at enrollment and at ART initiation) and receiving care at a peripheral health facility (p=0.041 at enrollment; p=0.037 at ART initiation) were associated with severe immunodeficiency. Having a living mother was protective against severe immunodeficiency at enrollment in HIV care (p=0.003) and at ART initiation (p=0.005). When considering parents' vital status simultaneously (Figure 1B), compared to orphans (i.e., both mother and father were deceased), children for whom both parents were alive were significantly less likely to have severe immunodeficiency at the time of enrollment into HIV care (OR=0.56; 95% CI: 0.35–0.93) and trended toward lower odds of having severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation (OR=0.62; 95% CI: 0.39–1.03). Parents' age was not associated with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment (mother's age, p=0.196; father's age, p=0.900) or at ART initiation (mother's age, p=0.113; father's age, p=0.790).

In multivariable analyses (Table 4), children who enrolled in HIV care during Period 3 trended toward lower odds of severe immunodeficiency at enrollment (aOR=0.80; 95% CI: 0.61–1.06), and were significantly less likely to have severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation (aOR=0.67; 95% CI: 0.51–0.88) compared to Period 1. With each year increase in age there was 13% increased odds of enrollment into HIV care with severe immunodeficiency (aOR=1.13; 95% CI: 1.06–1.20) and 14% increased odds of ART initiation with severe immunodeficiency (aOR=1.14; 95% CI: 1.08–1.21). Those enrolled in care at a district referral center were less likely to have severe immunodeficiency than those enrolled at peripheral health facilities, both at enrollment (aOR=0.72; 95% CI: 0.52–0.99)

and at ART initiation (aOR=0.71; 95% CI: 0.51–0.97). Receiving care in the district of Gilé was also associated with lower odds of enrollment in HIV care (aOR=0.21; 95% CI: 0.06–0.77) and initiating ART (aOR=0.18; 95% CI: 0.05–0.66) with severe immunodeficiency; however, children in Gilé only accounted for 3% of the cohort and <1% of cases of severe immunodeficiency, so the explanation for this finding is uncertain and we cannot exclude the possibility that this was due to the small sample size in this district. While not statistically significant, there was a trend toward boys being more likely to enroll in HIV care (aOR=1.26; 95% CI: 0.99–1.61) and initiate ART (aOR=1.26; 95% CI: 0.99–1.60) with severe immunodeficiency compared to girls. Compared to orphans, there was a non-statistically significant trend toward children with a living mother and father being less likely to enroll in care (aOR=0.67; 95% CI: 0.43–1.04) and initiate ART (aOR=0.72; 95% CI: 0.45–1.15) with severe immunodeficiency.

DISCUSSION

In this evaluation we described the degree of immunodeficiency and identified risk factors for enrolling in HIV care and starting ART with severe immunodeficiency among children during a period of evolving ART initiation policies in Zambézia Province, Mozambique. Our main findings were that in the setting of progressively more inclusive WHO pediatric ART initiation guidelines being implemented in Mozambique, there were decreasing proportions of children with severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation, and that older children and those enrolled at peripheral health facilities were more likely to be severely immunodeficient.

It was anticipated that the prevalence of severe immunodeficiency would decrease over time and across policy periods, continuing the trend previously reported from low- and middle-income countries (LMIC) prior to 2013,^{21,22} but it is difficult to know whether this improvement was attributable to specific ART initiation policy changes. However, the fact that we found a non-significant trend in severe immunodeficiency at enrollment in HIV care across policy periods and a significant difference in severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation across policy periods suggests that policy changes may have played a causal role in the observed improvements. Regardless, it is notable that we observed a decrease in severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation from 33% in 2013 to 15% in 2018. Similar LMIC cohorts reported 58–66% of children starting ART with severe immunodeficiency in 2010,²² and 42–64% in 2013;²¹ however, inclusion of children younger than 5 years of age in these cohorts limits comparability.

Median CD4 counts and the proportion of children with severe immunodeficiency, overall, were similar at enrollment and at ART initiation, which suggests that delays in ART initiation were not the sole cause for starting ART with severe immunodeficiency. It seems that many children who start ART with severe immunodeficiency do so after entering care already severely immunodeficient. This is consistent with our finding that older children, most of whom were probably perinatally infected and had been living with untreated HIV for years, ²⁹ were more likely to have severe immunodeficiency both at enrollment and at ART initiation. The association between older age and starting ART at a late stage of disease has also been reported in other studies, ^{22,30} indicating that barriers to early diagnosis

and treatment of CLHIV persist. Unfortunately, we did not capture high quality data from children younger than 5 years of age to better understand this relationship, but it stands to reason that earlier diagnosis of HIV and improved linkage to HIV care and treatment would further decrease the proportion of children entering into care and starting ART with severe immunodeficiency.

We also found that children enrolled at district capital health facilities were less likely to have severe immunodeficiency at enrollment and at ART initiation compared to children enrolled at peripheral health facilities. Other studies have also found that pediatric HIV service delivery and outcomes are worse in more remote clinical settings. ^{31–34} Nevertheless, great progress has been made in recent years to bolster and decentralize both community-and facility-based services provided to HIV-affected populations. ^{30,35–43} These findings support the importance of these investments and suggest that even more should be done to support pediatric HIV service delivery at peripheral sites.

There was no statistically significant relationship between sex and severe immunodeficiency in our multivariable model; however, there was a non-significant trend toward boys being more likely to have severe immunodeficiency than girls. Other studies have also noted sexbased differences in HIV outcomes: barriers to engagement of adult men in HIV services in LMIC have been reported;^{44–46} men in Zambézia were more likely to initiate ART with severe immunodeficiency in a recent study;²³ and, adolescent boys in Zambézia enroll in care with more advanced HIV disease, take longer to initiate ART, and are more likely to experience pre-ART loss to follow-up than adolescent girls.⁴⁷ Taken together with the fact that only 42% of children in this cohort were boys, there are possibly sex-based disparities that need to be addressed to ensure timely access to pediatric HIV care and treatment for both boys and girls.

While not consistently meeting thresholds for statistical significance, our findings do seem to point toward orphans having worse baseline immunologic status than children with living parents. Other studies have also linked maternal health and mortality to pediatric outcomes in the context of HIV exposure and infection, ^{48–50} and others have emphasized the vulnerability of HIV-affected orphans, ^{51–53} but less is known about the causal pathway between parents' vital status and children's risk for HIV-associated immunodeficiency. Nonetheless, it appears that providing optimal care for CLHIV should also include efforts to ensure optimal health for and engagement of caregivers, including biological parents. Furthermore, when children are orphaned, additional resources and caregiver support may be necessary to ensure timely diagnosis and treatment of these children living with HIV.

We acknowledge several limitations for this analysis and evaluation. Firstly, we excluded children younger than 5 years of age (n=5,697; 69% of those 0 to <15 years of age) due to a paucity of CD4 percentage data. We attempted to circumvent this issue by calculating CD4 percentage when both absolute CD4 and lymphocyte counts were obtained on the same day, but even after systematically performing this exercise, there was still 71% missingness of CD4 percentage data. Therefore, it was determined that the sample of children less than 5 years of age would lack the external validity needed to extrapolate findings to the general population. This led to a smaller sample size for our analyses, but there were still

nearly 2,000 children older than 5 years of age and with valid CD4 data from which we were able to generate generalizable results. Moreover, another recently published study including CLHIV from multiple sites in sub-Saharan Africa helps to fill in some of the gaps in our data, and demonstrated similar temporal improvements in baseline degree of immunodeficiency in those younger than 5 years of age at the time of ART initiation.⁵⁴ Regardless, this limitation highlights an important monitoring and evaluation and service delivery issue; health facilities providing pediatric HIV care and treatment should be able to routinely obtain and document CD4 percentage results. Some might argue that in the era of Test and Start, CD4 monitoring is less important than it was in the past when immunologic criteria were used to determine ART eligibility; however, CD4 data are still very relevant for determining immune competence, risk for opportunistic infections, and prognosis.²⁴

Another limitation is that there were some factors (e.g., WHO clinical stage, HIV viral load, and important co-infections such as tuberculosis and malaria) we were unable to account for in multivariable analysis because the data were either unavailable, had a high degree of missingness, or were non-informative. It would have also been useful to know more about the mothers' and children's peripartum engagement in PMTCT services. Sustained engagement in PMTCT services not only helps to promote maternal viral suppression thereby mitigating risk for vertical transmission, but PMTCT care is also centrally important to ensuring timely diagnosis and linkage to ART for the subset of infants who become HIV-positive. One would expect that mothers who were aware of their HIV status and on ART throughout pregnancy and the period of breastfeeding, would be more likely to have children with early and sustained engagement in HIV care. Similarly, one would expect that HIV-exposed infants who received post-partum antiretroviral prophylaxis would be more likely to have early engagement and sustained retention in HIV care. However, data quality was insufficient to assess these hypotheses. Regardless, these factors are probably more important for younger children, while in this study we were only able to assess children 5 years of age and older, the vast majority of whom were presumably perinatally infected but missed earlier opportunities for HIV diagnosis and treatment. Altogether, this emphasizes the need for more thorough data collection for and assessment of HIV-exposed infants.

In conclusion, implementation of progressively more inclusive pediatric ART initiation guidelines was associated with decreasing proportions of children with severe immunodeficiency at ART initiation. However, considering that in 2018, 15% of this Mozambican cohort of CLHIV commenced ART with severe immunodeficiency, there is still much work to be done. In particular, it seems that additional efforts and resources are needed to promote pediatric case finding to ensure early diagnosis and treatment of CLHIV, especially at lower-resourced peripheral clinics and among orphans and other vulnerable children. Additionally, more research is needed to understand and improve care initiation and treatment outcomes for vulnerable subgroups of children, namely orphans, boys, and those receiving longitudinal care at peripheral health facilities.

Funding:

This evaluation has been supported by the President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) through the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) under the terms of cooperative agreement # NU2GGH001943 (PI/PD: Wester). The findings, conclusions, and opinions expressed by authors contributing to

this journal are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily represent the official position of the funding agencies or the authors' affiliated institutions.

REFERENCES

- UNAIDS. UNAIDS Data 2019. https://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/2019-UNAIDS-data_en.pdf. Published 2019. Accessed 13 May 2020.
- Instituto Nacional de Saúde, Instituto Nacional de Estatística, ICF Internacional. Inquérito de Indicadores de Imunização, Malária e HIV/SIDA em Moçambique (IMASIDA) 2015: Relatório de Indicadores Básicos de HIV. Maputo, Moçambique. March 2017.
- República de Moçambique Conselho Nacional de Combate ao SIDA. Resposta Global à SIDA Relatório do Progresso, 2016. Maputo, Moçambique. April 2016.
- República de Moçambique Ministério da Saúde Serviço Nacional de Saúde. Relatório Anual 2018: Relatório Anual das Actividades Relacionadas ao HIV/SIDA. Maputo, Moçambique. March 2019.
- Desmonde S, Dicko F, Koueta F, et al. Association between age at antiretroviral therapy initiation and 24-month immune response in West-African HIV-infected children. Aids. 2014;28(11):1645– 1655. [PubMed: 24804858]
- Laughton B, Cornell M, Grove D, et al. Early antiretroviral therapy improves neurodevelopmental outcomes in infants. Aids. 2012;26(13):1685–1690. [PubMed: 22614886]
- 7. Lewis J, Walker AS, Castro H, et al. Age and CD4 count at initiation of antiretroviral therapy in HIV-infected children: effects on long-term T-cell reconstitution. The Journal of infectious diseases. 2012;205(4):548–556. [PubMed: 22205102]
- McGrath CJ, Chung MH, Richardson BA, Benki-Nugent S, Warui D, John-Stewart GC. Younger age at HAART initiation is associated with more rapid growth reconstitution. Aids. 2011;25(3):345– 355. [PubMed: 21102302]
- 9. Patel K, Hernan MA, Williams PL, et al. Long-term effects of highly active antiretroviral therapy on CD4+ cell evolution among children and adolescents infected with HIV: 5 years and counting. Clin Infect Dis. 2008;46(11):1751–1760. [PubMed: 18426371]
- Schomaker M, Egger M, Ndirangu J, et al. When to start antiretroviral therapy in children aged 2–5 years: a collaborative causal modelling analysis of cohort studies from southern Africa. PLoS Med. 2013;10(11):e1001555. [PubMed: 24260029]
- Szubert AJ, Musiime V, Bwakura-Dangarembizi M, et al. Pubertal development in HIVinfected African children on first-line antiretroviral therapy. Aids. 2015;29(5):609–618. [PubMed: 25710288]
- 12. Group TAS, Danel C, Moh R, et al. A Trial of Early Antiretrovirals and Isoniazid Preventive Therapy in Africa. N Engl J Med. 2015;373(9):808–822. [PubMed: 26193126]
- Group ISS, Lundgren JD, Babiker AG, et al. Initiation of Antiretroviral Therapy in Early Asymptomatic HIV Infection. N Engl J Med. 2015;373(9):795–807. [PubMed: 26192873]
- 14. Collaboration H-C, Cain LE, Logan R, et al. When to initiate combined antiretroviral therapy to reduce mortality and AIDS-defining illness in HIV-infected persons in developed countries: an observational study. Ann Intern Med. 2011;154(8):509–515. [PubMed: 21502648]
- Schomaker M, Leroy V, Wolfs T, et al. Optimal timing of antiretroviral treatment initiation in HIV-positive children and adolescents: a multiregional analysis from Southern Africa, West Africa and Europe. Int J Epidemiol. 2017;46(2):453–465. [PubMed: 27342220]
- 16. WHO. Report of the WHO Technical Reference Group Paediatric HIV/ART Care Guideline Group Meeting. https://www.who.int/hiv/pub/paediatric/ WHO_Paediatric_ART_guideline_rev_mreport_2008.pdf. Published 2008. Accessed 14 May 2020.
- 17. WHO. Antiretroviral therapy for HIV infection in infants and children recommendations for a public health approach: 2010 revision. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/ 10665/164255/9789241599801_eng.pdf?sequence=1. Published 2010. Accessed 14 May 2020.
- 18. WHO. Consolidated guidelines on the use of antiretroviral drugs for treating and preventing HIV infection recommendations for a public health approach. https://www.who.int/hiv/pub/guidelines/arv2013/art/statartchildren/en/. Published 2013. Accessed 14 May 2020.

19. WHO. March 2014 Supplement to the 2013 Consolidated Guidelines on the Use of Antiretroviral Drugs for Treating and Preventing HIV Infection: Recommendations for a Public Health Approach. http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/104264/1/9789241506830_eng.pdf. Published 2014. Accessed 21 Feb 2019.

- 20. WHO. Consolidated guidelines on the use of antiretroviral drugs for treating and preventing HIV infection: recommendations for a public health approach 2nd edition. http://www.who.int/entity/hiv/pub/arv/arv-2016/en/index.html. Published 2016. Accessed 14 May 2020.
- 21. Panayidou K, Davies MA, Anderegg N, Egger M, IeDea CP, Group ICCW. Global temporal changes in the proportion of children with advanced disease at the start of combination antiretroviral therapy in an era of changing criteria for treatment initiation. J Int AIDS Soc. 2018;21(11):e25200. [PubMed: 30614622]
- 22. Koller M, Patel K, Chi BH, et al. Immunodeficiency in children starting antiretroviral therapy in low-, middle-, and high-income countries. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2015;68(1):62–72. [PubMed: 25501345]
- 23. Arinze F, Gong W, Green AF, et al. Immunodeficiency at Antiretroviral Therapy Start: Five Year Adult Data (2012–2017) Based on Evolving National Policies in Rural Mozambique. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses. 2019.
- 24. Zaniewski E, Dao Ostinelli CH, Chammartin F, et al. Trends in CD4 and viral load testing 2005 to 2018: multi-cohort study of people living with HIV in Southern Africa. J Int AIDS Soc. 2020;23(7):e25546. [PubMed: 32640106]
- 25. WHO. Interim WHO clinical staging of HIV/AIDS and HIV/AIDS case definitions for surveillance: African region. https://www.who.int/hiv/pub/guidelines/clinicalstaging.pdf. Published 2005. Accessed 18 May 2020.
- Shearer WT, Rosenblatt HM, Gelman RS, et al. Lymphocyte subsets in healthy children from birth through 18 years of age: the Pediatric AIDS Clinical Trials Group P1009 study. J Allergy Clin Immunol. 2003;112(5):973–980. [PubMed: 14610491]
- 27. van Buuren S, Groothuis-Oudshoorn K. mice: Multivariate Imputation by Chained Equations in R. Journal of Statistical Software. 2011;45(3):1–67.
- 28. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing. http://www.R-project.org/. Published 2013. Accessed 28 May 2020.
- Sohn AH, Hazra R. The changing epidemiology of the global paediatric HIV epidemic: keeping track of perinatally HIV-infected adolescents. J Int AIDS Soc. 2013;16:18555. [PubMed: 23782474]
- 30. Sutcliffe CG, Bolton-Moore C, van Dijk JH, Cotham M, Tambatamba B, Moss WJ. Secular trends in pediatric antiretroviral treatment programs in rural and urban Zambia: a retrospective cohort study. BMC Pediatr. 2010;10:54. [PubMed: 20673355]
- 31. Carlucci JG, Liu Y, Friedman H, et al. Attrition of HIV-exposed infants from early infant diagnosis services in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. J Int AIDS Soc. 2018;21(11):e25209. [PubMed: 30649834]
- 32. Melaku Z, Lulseged S, Wang C, et al. Outcomes among HIV-infected children initiating HIV care and antiretroviral treatment in Ethiopia. Trop Med Int Health. 2017;22(4):474–484. [PubMed: 28066962]
- 33. van Dijk JH, Sutcliffe CG, Munsanje B, Hamangaba F, Thuma PE, Moss WJ. Barriers to the care of HIV-infected children in rural Zambia: a cross-sectional analysis. BMC infectious diseases. 2009;9:169. [PubMed: 19835604]
- 34. Fatti G, Bock P, Grimwood A, Eley B. Increased vulnerability of rural children on antiretroviral therapy attending public health facilities in South Africa: a retrospective cohort study. J Int AIDS Soc. 2010;13:46. [PubMed: 21108804]
- 35. van Dijk JH, Moss WJ, Hamangaba F, Munsanje B, Sutcliffe CG. Scaling-up access to antiretroviral therapy for children: a cohort study evaluating care and treatment at mobile and hospital-affiliated HIV clinics in rural Zambia. PloS one. 2014;9(8):e104884. [PubMed: 25122213]

36. Bedelu M, Ford N, Hilderbrand K, Reuter H. Implementing antiretroviral therapy in rural communities: the Lusikisiki model of decentralized HIV/AIDS care. The Journal of infectious diseases. 2007;196 Suppl 3:S464–468. [PubMed: 18181695]

- 37. Bemelmans M, van den Akker T, Ford N, et al. Providing universal access to antiretroviral therapy in Thyolo, Malawi through task shifting and decentralization of HIV/AIDS care. Trop Med Int Health. 2010;15(12):1413–1420. [PubMed: 20958897]
- 38. Haghighat R, Steinert J, Cluver L. The effects of decentralising antiretroviral therapy care delivery on health outcomes for adolescents and young adults in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review. Glob Health Action. 2019;12(1):1668596. [PubMed: 31558145]
- Kredo T, Ford N, Adeniyi FB, Garner P. Decentralising HIV treatment in lower- and middleincome countries. The Cochrane database of systematic reviews. 2013(6):CD009987. [PubMed: 23807693]
- 40. Nachega JB, Adetokunboh O, Uthman OA, et al. Community-Based Interventions to Improve and Sustain Antiretroviral Therapy Adherence, Retention in HIV Care and Clinical Outcomes in Lowand Middle-Income Countries for Achieving the UNAIDS 90–90-90 Targets. Curr HIV/AIDS Rep. 2016;13(5):241–255. [PubMed: 27475643]
- 41. Roy M, Bolton Moore C, Sikazwe I, Holmes CB. A Review of Differentiated Service Delivery for HIV Treatment: Effectiveness, Mechanisms, Targeting, and Scale. Curr HIV/AIDS Rep. 2019;16(4):324–334. [PubMed: 31230342]
- 42. Willis N, Napei T, Armstrong A, et al. Zvandiri-Bringing a Differentiated Service Delivery Program to Scale for Children, Adolescents, and Young People in Zimbabwe. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2018;78 Suppl 2:S115–S123. [PubMed: 29994833]
- Fayorsey RN, Saito S, Carter RJ, et al. Decentralization of pediatric HIV care and treatment in five sub-Saharan African countries. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2013;62(5):e124–130. [PubMed: 23337367]
- 44. Audet CM, Blevins M, Chire YM, et al. Engagement of Men in Antenatal Care Services: Increased HIV Testing and Treatment Uptake in a Community Participatory Action Program in Mozambique. AIDS Behav. 2016;20(9):2090–2100. [PubMed: 26906021]
- 45. Audet CM, Chire YM, Vaz LM, et al. Barriers to Male Involvement in Antenatal Care in Rural Mozambique. Qual Health Res. 2016;26(12):1721–1731. [PubMed: 25854615]
- 46. Frijters EM, Hermans LE, Wensing AMJ, Deville W, Tempelman HA, De Wit JBF. Risk factors for loss to follow-up from antiretroviral therapy programmes in low- and middle-income countries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Aids. 2020.
- 47. Ahonkhai AA, Aliyu MH, Audet CM, et al. Poor retention and care-related sex disparities among youth living with HIV in rural Mozambique. PloS one. 2021;16(5):e0250921. [PubMed: 34019582]
- 48. Newell ML, Brahmbhatt H, Ghys PD. Child mortality and HIV infection in Africa: a review. Aids. 2004;18 Suppl 2:S27–34.
- 49. Abrams EJ, Wiener J, Carter R, et al. Maternal health factors and early pediatric antiretroviral therapy influence the rate of perinatal HIV-1 disease progression in children. Aids. 2003;17(6):867–877. [PubMed: 12660534]
- 50. Abrams EJ, Woldesenbet S, Soares Silva J, et al. Despite Access to Antiretrovirals for Prevention and Treatment, High Rates of Mortality Persist Among HIV-infected Infants and Young Children. The Pediatric infectious disease journal. 2017;36(6):595–601. [PubMed: 28027287]
- Njuguna IN, Cranmer LM, Wagner AD, et al. Brief Report: Cofactors of Mortality Among Hospitalized HIV-Infected Children Initiating Antiretroviral Therapy in Kenya. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr. 2019;81(2):138–144. [PubMed: 31095004]
- Raymond JM, Zolnikov TR. AIDS-Affected Orphans in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Scoping Review on Outcome Differences in Rural and Urban Environments. AIDS Behav. 2018;22(10):3429–3441. [PubMed: 29721717]
- Musenge E, Vounatsou P, Kahn K. Space-time confounding adjusted determinants of child HIV/TB mortality for large zero-inflated data in rural South Africa. Spat Spatiotemporal Epidemiol. 2011;2(4):205–217. [PubMed: 22748220]

54. Iyun V, Technau KG, Vinikoor M, et al. Variations in the characteristics and outcomes of children living with HIV following universal ART in sub-Saharan Africa (2006–17): a retrospective cohort study. Lancet HIV. 2021;8(6):e353–e362. [PubMed: 33932330]

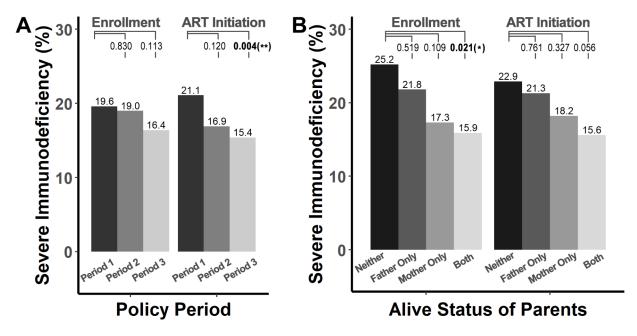


Figure 1. Prevalence of severe immunodeficiency at enrollment or ART initiation stratified by (A) policy periods, or (B) parents' vital status. P values of Wald test in the univariate logistic model are shown above the bars. The statistical significance is highlighted by *(p<0.05) and **(p<0.01).

Table 1: Pediatric antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation policy periods.

There was phased implementation of ART initiation guidelines across districts over time, with evolution from immune-based criteria (CD4 count) to Test and Start.

District	Period 1 ART for 5 years of age with CD4 count <350 cells/mm ³ or WHO clinical stage 3 or 4 Sept 30, 2012 – July 31, 2016	Period 2 ART for 5 years of age with CD4 count <500 cells/mm³ or WHO clinical stage 3 or 4 Roll-out of Test & Start Aug 1, 2016 – Oct 31, 2017	Period 3 Test & Start (all districts) Nov 1, 2017 – Sept 30, 2018
Alto Molòcué			Test & Start
Gilé			Test & Start
Ile*			Test & Start
Inhassunge			Test & Start
Maganja da Costa			Test & Start
Mocubela			Test & Start
Namacurra **		Test & Start	Test & Start
Pebane			Test & Start
Quelimane		Test & Start	Test & Start

Note: Periods in which immune-based criteria (CD4 count) were used to determine eligibility for ART initiation are indicated in grey.

^{*} For Ile, Test and Start was implemented February 1, 2018.

^{**} For Namacurra, Test and Start was implemented April 11, 2017.

Table 2:

Child, caregiver, and program characteristics at enrollment in HIV care and at the time of antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation.

	F U (N. 1915)	A D.T. I22-42 (N. 1022)
	Enrollment (N=1815)	ART Initiation (N=1922)
CD4 count (cells/mm ³) ^a	504 [277–798]	501 [275–809]
<200 (severe immunodeficiency) ^b	335 (18%)	357 (19%)
200 (not severe)	1480 (82%)	1565 (81%)
Age (years)	8.5 [6.5–10.8]	8.4 [6.5–10.7]
5–9	1203 (66%)	1266 (66%)
10–14	612 (34%)	656 (34%)
Sex		
Female	1061 (58%)	1115 (58%)
Male	754 (42%)	807 (42%)
Mother's age (years)	30 [25–35]	30 [25–35]
Missing ^C	697 (38%)	733 (38%)
Father's age (years)	36 [30–42]	36 [30–42]
Missing	948 (52%)	1001 (52%)
Parents' vital status		
Both mother and father alive	547 (56%)	589 (57%)
Only mother alive	179 (18%)	181 (17%)
Only father alive	147 (15%)	150 (14%)
Both mother and father deceased	107 (11%)	118 (11%)
Missing	835 (46%)	884 (46%)
District		
Alto Molòcué (rural)	88 (5%)	93 (5%)
Gilé (rural)	58 (3%)	60 (3%)
Ile (rural)	88 (5%)	88 (5%)
Inhassunge (rural)	164 (9%)	176 (9%)
Maganja da Costa (rural)	185 (10%)	190 (10%)
Mocubela (rural)	170 (9%)	173 (9%)
Namacurra (rural)	314 (17%)	339 (18%)
Pebane (rural)	162 (9%)	176 (9%)
Quelimane (urban)	586 (32%)	627 (33%)
Policy period		
Period 1	981 (54%)	1004 (52%)
Period 2	253 (14%)	273 (14%)
Period 3	581 (32%)	645 (34%)

Carlucci et al.

	Enrollment (N=1815)	ART Initiation (N=1922)
Year		,
2013	201 (11%)	160 (8%)
2014	248 (14%)	257 (13%)
2015	262 (14%)	283 (15%)
2016	323 (18%)	371 (19%)
2017	333 (18%)	364 (19%)
2018	448 (25%)	487 (25%)
Health facility type		
District referral center	492 (27%)	514 (27%)
Peripheral facility	1323 (73%)	1408 (73%)

Page 17

 $a\colon$ For continuous variables, median [interquartile range] are shown.

 $b\mbox{:}{}$ For categorical variables, frequency (percentage) are shown.

c: "Missing" category appears only when there are missing values for a variable.

Table 3:

Univariate analysis of associations with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment in HIV care and at the time of antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation.

	Enrollment		ART initiation	
	Severe immunodeficiency n/N (%)	p-value*	Severe immunodeficiency n/N (%)	p-value*
Age (years)		<0.001		<0.001
5–9	190/1203 (16%)		206/1266 (16%)	
10–14	145/612 (24%)		151/656 (23%)	
Sex		0.090		0.120
Female	182/1061 (17%)		194/1115 (17%)	
Male	153/754 (20%)		163/807 (20%)	
District		0.097		0.066
Alto Molòcué	17/88 (19%)		19/93 (20%)	
Gilé	3/58 (5%)		3/60 (5%)	
Ile	18/88 (21%)		18/88 (21%)	
Inhassunge	35/164 (21%)		37/176 (21%)	
Maganja da Costa	36/185 (20%)		38/190 (20%)	
Mocubela	32/170 (19%)		34/173 (20%)	
Namacurra	49/314 (16%)		55/339 (16%)	
Pebane	27/162 (17%)		27/176 (15%)	
Quelimane	118/586 (20%)		126/627 (20%)	
Setting		0.206		0.235
Urban	118/586 (20%)		126/627 (20%)	
Rural	217/1229 (18%)		231/1295 (18%)	
Policy period		0.271 (0.120 for trend)		0.009 (0.003 for trend)
Period 1	192/981 (20%)		212/1004 (21%)	
Period 2	48/253 (19%)		46/273 (17%)	
Period 3	95/581 (16%)		99/645 (15%)	
Year		0.001 (< 0.001 for trend)		<0.001 (<0.001 for trend
2013	56/201 (28%)		52/160 (33%)	
2014	55/248 (22%)		58/257 (23%)	
2015	42/262 (16%)		56/283 (20%)	
2016	48/323 (15%)		54/371 (15%)	
2017	66/333 (20%)		66/364 (18%)	
2018	68/448 (15%)		71/487 (15%)	
Health facility type		0.041		0.037
District referral center	76/492 (15%)		80/514 (16%)	
Peripheral facility	259/1323 (20%)		277/1408 (20%)	

^{*}P-values from likelihood ratio tests are reported, except where p-values from chi-squared tests for trend in proportions are noted in parentheses.

Table 4:

Multivariable analysis of associations with severe immunodeficiency at enrollment in HIV care and at the time of antiretroviral therapy (ART) initiation.

_	Enrollment	ART Initiation
	aOR (95% CI)	aOR (95% CI)
Policy period		
Period 1	reference	reference
Period 2	1.02 (0.70–1.51)	0.80 (0.55-1.17)
Period 3	0.80 (0.61-1.06)	0.67 (0.51-0.88)
Age (per 1-year increase)	1.13 (1.06–1.20)	1.14 (1.08–1.21)
Sex		
Female	reference	reference
Male	1.26 (0.99–1.61)	1.26 (0.99–1.60)
Health facility type		
Peripheral facility	reference	0.72 (0.52-0.99)
District referral center	reference	0.71 (0.51-0.97)
Parents' vital status		
Both mother and father dead	reference	reference
Only mother alive	0.69 (0.40-1.19)	0.87 (0.52–1.44)
Only father alive	0.91 (0.55–1.51)	0.97 (0.57–1.66)
Both mother and father alive	0.67 (0.43–1.04)	0.72 (0.45–1.15)
District		
Alto Molòcué	reference	reference
Gilé	0.21 (0.06-0.77)	0.18 (0.05-0.66)
Ile	1.06 (0.50-2.27)	0.95 (0.45–1.99)
Inhassunge	1.00 (0.52–1.95)	0.84 (0.44–1.59)
Maganja da Costa	0.93 (0.48-1.80)	0.83 (0.44–1.57)
Mocubela	0.79 (0.39–1.57)	0.69 (0.35–1.35)
Namacurra	0.69 (0.37-1.30)	0.61 (0.33-1.12)
Pebane	0.75 (0.38–1.50)	0.60 (0.31-1.17)
Quelimane	0.81 (0.43–1.52)	0.71 (0.39–1.29)

NOTE: An interaction between age and policy period was accounted for in the model