NURSING CARE OF PATIENTS WITH HIV/AIDS FACILITATOR'S GUIDE

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Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 1: Comprehensive Nursing Care of People Living with HIV or AIDS







Objectives

Upon completion of this session, you will be able to

- List the different areas that should be addressed in comprehensive HIV care
- Identify needs of persons with HIV across the continuum of care and discuss how to meet those needs
- Define the roles of nurses in comprehensive care
- Discuss the needs of caregivers and how to meet those needs
- Apply the topics in exercises and role plays







HIV Care Overview (Slide 1)

- Before ART begins, care of the HIV-infected patient is focused on prophylaxis and management of Ols, ongoing prevention, and hospice or end-of-life care
 - There is no cure for HIV/AIDS
 - As the immune system becomes increasingly compromised, symptomatic treatment becomes essential
 - Palliative and end-of-life care can increase quality of life for patients and families







HIV Care Overview (Slide 2)

- When ART is widely available, HIV is a chronic, manageable disease
- Not all HIV-infected people are eligible for ART due to disease stage, other infections, toxicity, and other reasons







HIV Care Overview (Slide 3)

- Until eligible for ART, patients should be encouraged to engage in positive health behaviors
 - Adherence to clinical appointments
 - Adherence to current medication schedule
 - Proper nutrition
 - Prevention for positives
 - Psychosocial support
 - Standard precautions

Note: Care of PLHA should include ART as well as other essential elements of care and support.







HIV Care Overview (Slide 4)

- When patients are ready and eligible for ART, care is focused upon the management of ART:
 - The most effective combination of drugs
 - The fewest side effects
 - The greatest potential for adherence







HIV Care Overview (Slide 5)

- Care includes ongoing prevention to reduce risk of transmission of HIV and other disease
- Care includes prophylaxis for Ols and, if an Ol occurs, aggressive treatment of the infection
- Care includes palliation beginning at disease diagnosis
- Care moves from primarily the acute healthcare setting to the ambulatory healthcare and home settings







HIV Care Overview (Slide 6)

- At the end of life, the goal is to provide care and support to enable the patient to live life as fully and comfortably as possible
- Care and support are comprehensive and multidisciplinary, and aim to achieve comfort in all areas: physical, psychological, and spiritual
- Family support is essential to prepare for the patient's death and provide bereavement support after the patient's death







Comprehensive Care of HIV (Slide 1)

- To address the many factors involved in HIV disease, a comprehensive and multidisciplinary approach is used to assist patients and families:
 - HIV testing and counseling
 - Regular medical care including OI treatment and prophylaxis,
 palliative care, and ART, either in the clinic or home (or both)
 - Social work
 - Nutrition support
 - Spiritual and psychosocial support
 - Economic support
 - PLHA support
 - Ongoing prevention support
 - Adherence counseling and ongoing support







Comprehensive Care of HIV (Slide 2)

- HIV not only affects the patient, but the family and household as well. For example, children with HIV may be cared for by ill parents. Nurses must think beyond the patient and include the context of the patient's family and household as a unit.
 - Assess: Have household members been tested? Do they need assistance in accessing care and treatment for themselves or the patient? What challenges do they face within the home?
 - Intervene: Refer to testing and other services, counsel on issues related to care of whole family/household.







Teamwork (Slide 1)

- The nurse is a member of a team of healthcare providers that, with patients and families, address the full spectrum of needs. The team may include
 - Nurses and doctors
 - Clinical/medical offices
 - Lab and pharmacy technicians
 - Nutritionists
 - Social workers
 - Adherence counselors
 - PLHA support group members
 - Community healthcare workers
 - Lay volunteers
 - Others







Teamwork (Slide 2)

As part of the team, nurses

- Participate as active team members
- Raise issues related to patient care to improve service delivery
- Consult with other team members on difficult patient issues/cases
- Support colleagues







Goals of Nursing in Comprehensive Care

- Reducing morbidity and mortality and increasing the quality of life of people at risk for HIV and those affected by the disease
- These goals are achieved through a focus on assessment and implementation of interventions, including education on both prevention and care







Nursing Roles in Comprehensive Care (Slide 1)

- Chronic disease management, including health monitoring and symptom management
- Acute care
- Health promotion and education
- Disease prevention
- Palliative care
- Mental health support
- Patient support/advocacy
- Referral management







Chronic Disease Management

- HIV is a chronic disease that can be managed, but not cured. Important aspects of chronic disease management include
 - Testing and counseling
 - Health monitoring
 - Symptom management
 - Medication adherence monitoring
 - Health promotion/patient education
 - Empowering patients to make their own choices







Nursing Roles in Acute Care (Slide 1)

- Assess and manage symptoms. Many symptoms that HIV infected patients report as most distressing are not easily treated with drugs
 - Anorexia
 - Emotional distress
 - Weight loss
 - Skin lesions
 - Oral sores/lesions
 - Difficulty swallowing
 - Peripheral neuropathy
 - Difficulty concentrating

- Dizziness
- Altered taste
- Night sweats
- Bad dreams
- Sexual dysfunction
- Impaired mobility
- Confusion







Nursing Roles in Acute Care (Slide 2)

- Non-pharmacologic, nurse-led interventions can assist with other problems (in addition to medications):
 - Nausea/vomiting, diarrhea
 - Fever
 - Cough, dyspnea (difficulty breathing)
 - Headache, pain, insomnia, rash, depression, anxiety
- Alternative or local therapies may also be used.
 Caution should be exercised, because some ARVs may interact with herbal therapies/drugs







Nursing Roles in Acute Care (Slide 3)

- Monitor medication use and provide patient education for all medications, whether prophylaxis, antibiotics, narcotics, etc.:
 - Reason for taking drug/drug action
 - Dose
 - Schedule
 - Food restrictions
 - Possible side effects
 - Adherence counseling







Nursing Roles in Health Promotion and Education

- Teach health promotion
- Promote healthy practices that prolong the asymptomatic stage, reduce HIV-related conditions, and avoid behaviors that can transmit HIV
- Assess and use patient's and family members' current knowledge as the basis for teaching







Nursing Roles in Prevention for Patients

Assess

Identify risks for HIV infection

Intervene

- Counsel on the benefits of HIV testing
- Educate on HIV transmission and risk reduction
- Refer those testing HIV-positive to care and support
- Educate those testing HIV-negative about prevention







Nursing Roles in Disease Prevention in the Clinical Setting

Reduce transmission of infection

- Practice standard precautions at work
- Model optimum standard precautions and advise colleagues on proper use
- Know the postexposure prophylaxis (PEP) protocol of the health facility
- Encourage implementation of PEP if needed







Nursing Roles in Mental Health

- Psychological or mood disorders are common in patients with HIV
- Nurses can assess and intervene on a variety of mental health issues







Nursing Roles in Patient Support/Advocacy

- Identify needs (along with the patient and family) and refer to appropriate services within the clinical or community setting
- Advocate for patient when needed
- Support patient's achievement of needs, such as informing patient of cost-sharing schemes







Nursing Roles in Referral Management

- A functional referral system with links to other facilities/services and feedback is critical to serve all the comprehensive care needs of patients
- Examples of services include community- and home-based services and PLHA support groups
- A referral system should include feedback to the referring clinician to determine if the patient's needs were met







Nursing Roles in Palliative Care and End-of-Life Care

- Palliative care begins at the time of diagnosis and provides comfort and symptom management throughout life
- End-of-life care is focused on assisting the patient and family to have the highest quality of life possible







Nursing Roles in Documenting Care

- Complete and accurate documentation of the nursing care provided during each patient visit contributes to quality service delivery
- Recording assessment findings and interventions over time is required to manage HIV/AIDS as a chronic disease







Nursing Roles Realized: Four Steps for "Getting It Right"

- Make time for the patient
- Use an open, supportive, nonjudgmental approach
- Maintain current knowledge
- Believe in the importance of your role







Importance of Nursing Roles in Care of PLHA

- Some nurses may feel their role is unimportant or they are "just nurses"
- Nurses' roles in caring for PLHA and their families are vital for high-quality patient care and family wellbeing
- Nurses are the front line of trained health workers for PLHA







Nursing roles exercise

As a group, discuss

- How are the roles of nurses represented in your work setting?
- What roles do you think are not represented, but needed?
- What roles do you fill?
- Think about the 4 steps for getting it right. Which steps do you "get right"?
- Do nurses "believe in the importance of their role" in your work setting? Give some examples.







Caring for the Caregivers: Overview

- Who are caregivers?
- Why does HIV create unique challenges for caregivers?
 - HIV/AIDS is a chronic, life-threatening disease with no cure
 - It is an infectious disease and creates fear of transmission
 - There is stigma to HIV/AIDS that leads to discrimination
 - Many resources are expended in HIV/AIDS care for the patient and the caregiver—physical, emotional, psychological, financial
 - Are there other challenges?







Caring for the Caregivers: Challenges

- For patients, it is difficult to seek HIV testing, disclose positive status, or seek care and support. Without care and support, HIV/AIDS progresses more rapidly, leading to increased disease burden and caregiving needs
- For caregivers
 - It is difficult to provide nonjudgmental compassionate care
 - It is exhausting to care for loved ones in addition to taking care of other aspects of one's life







Caring for the Caregivers: Consequences of the Challenges

- What are the consequences of these challenging factors for patients and for caregivers?
 - Anxiety, fear, depression
 - Disrupted relationships
 - Conflicts within families
 - Multiple losses
 - Grief
 - Discouragement, frustration, and burnout among healthcare workers and home-based caregivers







Caring for caregivers exercise

- With a colleague, discuss your experiences working with HIV caregivers
 - Who are the caregivers in your community?
 - What are the biggest challenges they face?
 - How have you been able/not been able to assist them?
 - What else do you think needs to be done?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 2: Special Issues for Nurses







Objectives

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - Identify ethical responsibilities of nurses
 - Discuss how to maintain patient confidentiality
 - Understand how to show and support professional behavior
 - Discuss stress and burnout among nurses and identify ways to deal with stress in your own life







Issues for Nurses

- Some issues related to providing nursing care to people living with HIV/AIDS deserve special discussion:
 - Ethics related to the profession
 - Professional behavior of nurses
 - Stress and burnout
 - Caring for self and colleagues







Why Ethics?

- Nurses have a duty to treat patients as ethically as possible
- Nursing practice is guided by ethical principles
- Nurses should know about these principles and be able to apply them to their own work







Ethical Guidelines

- Ethical guidelines, based on principles, protect patients and guide nurses to make ethical choices
- The ethical choice is not always clear
- These practical guidelines relate to anyone you ever care for as a nurse
- If you have any questions about your work with a patient, discuss them with your supervisor







Ethical Principles

- Do no harm
- Autonomy
- Equality
- Confidentiality
- Consent







Do No Harm (Slide 1)

- Definition: The nurse is responsible for the patient and ensures the patient suffers no physical or psychological harm from their relationship
 - Your role is to help the patient obtain care and treatment for HIV-related conditions, including providing direct care and referrals for services provided outside your clinic/facility
 - You are ethically bound to protect the patient from harm to the best of your ability and according to your training, guidelines, and protocols







Do No Harm (Slide 2)

- Example: If you know a patient is allergic to sulfa drugs and have an order to give co-trimoxazole, you are ethically bound to prevent harm and ensure the patient does not receive the sulfabased drug
- Patients are also harmed by stigma and discrimination by healthcare workers
 - Stigma and discrimination in the healthcare setting harms patients;
 negative experiences with healthcare workers delay or prevent
 patients from seeking essential healthcare in the future







Autonomy

- Definition: Patients have the right to make their own decisions
 - Nurses must respect patient and family autonomy
 - Nurses work with them to obtain their goals
 - The nurse explains, defines, and clarifies care options,
 assessing and ensuring understanding by the patient and family
 - The nurse does not make decisions for them







Equality

- Definition: Treat all patients the same despite age, gender, sexual orientation, or social status
 - Nurses must treat all patients the same despite relationships (familial, tribal, or other)
 - Nurses must treat all patients the same despite lifestyle choices (sexual orientation, substance use)
 - Nurses must not treat patients with HIV any differently than other patients







Naming stigma through pictures exercise

- In your groups, examine the pictures and discuss
 - What do you see in the picture?
 - How does it show stigma?







Confidentiality (Slide 1)

- Definition: Keeping personal, entrusted information private
- The nurse must treat all information or material heard, obtained, or provided as confidential
- The nurse must not disclose any information about the patient to anyone except essential health facility staff without the patient's appropriate consent
 - If you are asked to reveal information about a patient, it is appropriate to say "I cannot talk about that"







Confidentiality (Slide 2)

- The nurse must follow protocols for maintaining confidentiality in storage/disposal of patient records
- The nurse will break the confidentiality only if there are sound reasons (legal, patient safety) and after consulting with supervisor and informing the patient
 - Examples: If a nurse assesses a patient as suicidal, the nurse may have to break confidentiality to protect the patient's life; if a nurse assesses child abuse, the nurse may have to break confidentiality to ensure the child's safety







Consent (Slide 1)

Definition: Giving permission for something to happen

- Because patients make their own decisions, they must give informed permission for any clinical activity or for sharing of information with others
- Informed consent can be verbal or written
- A patient's full understanding of what is going to happen needs to be confirmed before the procedure or action happens, and for consent to be considered truly informed:
 - Assessing a patient's understanding and witnessing the informed consent process is often the nurse's responsibility as the patient's caregiver and advocate







Consent (Slide 2)

- Clinical protocols will guide you in when you need written consent from a patient; consult with supervisor for clarification
 - Example: A nurse needs consent from a patient before drawing and sending blood to be tested for HIV







Professional Behavior

- Nurses are an important part of the clinical team and are expected to act in a professional manner in both the health facility and in home visits
- Acting professionally builds trust between you and other nurses and your patients, their families, and the community







Examples of Professional Behavior (Slide 1)

- Follow clinical protocols
- Attend clinical meetings as requested
- Participate as part of the clinical team
- Monitor your own competence and limitations
- Keep informed about current clinical practices and new treatments for HIV care
- Seek support from your supervisor and other members of the clinic team when you need help
- When you feel other nurses are not acting correctly, respectfully discuss it with them or your supervisor







Examples of Professional Behavior (Slide 2)

- Strictly adhere to confidentiality standards
- Be on time for appointments
- Be prepared for work at the health facility; have all necessary tools available (forms, guides, etc.)
- Be responsible for your own physical safety (practice standard precautions)
- Treat all patients equally—don't have favorites
- Don't make promises you cannot keep







Examples of Professional Behavior (Slide 3)

- If you do not know something, admit that you do not know it and go find the answer
- Don't advise patients about matters that are beyond your role
- Maintain professional boundaries—patients are your clients, not friends
- Maintain good personal hygiene and presentation remember that you represent the health facility







Ethics and professional behavior exercise

- In pairs, discuss the scenarios on the handout
 - Read each scenario
 - Define the ethical or professional problem
 - How would you change the situation to fit the ethical and professional behavior guidelines?







Stress (Slide 1)

- Feelings of stress come from working in an environment you cannot control or you feel you cannot keep up
- Stress is entirely personal:
 - Some people thrive in situations where others feel very anxious
 - The way people deal with stress is also personal

Note: There is little we can control in the healthcare field and the work involves very serious decisions. So, it is natural to feel stress as a healthcare provider.







Stress (Slide 2)

- Nurses providing HIV care face stress from many factors and are vulnerable to emotional exhaustion and burnout. Some factors include
 - Staff shortages
 - Dealing with chronic illnesses and death
 - Informing patients of diagnosis and disease status
 - Interacting with challenging patients
 - Assisting and working with families
 - Fear of occupational exposure to HIV

(Kalichman, Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, 2000)







Burnout

Burnout

 Physical, psychological, or emotional exhaustion as the result of long-term stress

Symptoms of burnout

- Physical: exhaustion, fatigue, headache, back pain, sleep disturbances, muscular tension, vulnerability to illness, changes in nutritional intake/appetite
- Behavioral: irritability, anger, difficulty with relationships, increased alcohol/drug use
- Cognitive: emotional numbness, hypersensitivity, cynicism, helplessness and hopelessness, depression

(Kalichman, Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, 2000)







Caring for Yourself (Slide 1)

- As nurses, we care for patients and families every day
- Sometimes we neglect ourselves
- It is important to take care of yourself on a daily basis and learn how to cope with stress and avoid burnout
- By caring for yourself, you can better serve your patients

Note: Sometimes it is easy to forget about caring for ourselves. But if we make it a priority, we become happier and better adjusted, and that means we provide better care for patients.







Caring for Yourself (Slide 2)

- People manage stress in different ways
- Some negative ways to deal with stress include
 - Drinking alcohol or using drugs
 - Irritability
 - Avoidance of patients and professional responsibilities
 - Denial of personal problems
 - Acting angry with family







Caring for Yourself (Slide 3)

- Some positive strategies for dealing with stress/burnout include the following:
 - Participate in workplace support groups
 - Contribute to a supportive work environment (teamwork, recognition of work, adequate training, creative incentives, etc.)
 - Practice positive coping mechanisms: exercise, good nutrition, spirituality, spending time with friends or family, relaxation techniques such as deep breathing, etc.
 - Share problems with colleagues (create weekly support groups)
 - Take care of your own health
- Dealing with stress positively leads to higher quality of care and improved job satisfaction







Stress/burnout exercise

Discuss the following with a colleague:

- What parts of your job do you find stressful?
- How does the culture of your healthcare facility encourage or discourage stress?
- Have you or someone you know experienced burnout?
- What are some ways that you deal with stress in your own life (both positively and negatively)?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 3: HIV Basics







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Understand the definition of HIV
- List the ways HIV is/is not transmitted and the socioeconomic factors that facilitate transmission
- Discuss the difference between HIV disease and AIDS
- Understand the usual progression of HIV
- List the different areas that should be addressed in comprehensive HIV care
- Understand what TB is and how it is spread
- Understand the difference between active and latent TB
- Discuss important aspects of the TB/HIV relationship
- Understand how treatment of TB and of HIV affect each other







Nurses' Roles

- A solid understanding of HIV, its transmission, and how it affects the body is important for nurses in their roles as
 - Clinicians
 - Educators
 - Patients' advocates
 - Counselors







HIV Epidemic Update

- Fourth largest cause of death in the world
- An estimated 38 million people are living with HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2006)
- About one-third are ages 15–24
- Most are unaware they are infected
- Young women are more vulnerable







What Is HIV?

- HIV is a virus that attacks the immune system—our body's natural ability to fight infection
- The virus attacks certain cells in the immune system—called CD4 cells—that help the body fight disease
- The virus does not prefer certain types of people anyone can get HIV







How Does HIV Affect the Body?

- Because CD4 cells are affected by the HIV virus, the body is unable to fight off diseases as it normally would and the person gets sick
 - They get infections that people with well-functioning immune systems do not usually get
 - They also may get the same infections as those with wellfunctioning immunes systems do. But those with HIV will be more sick or get infections more often.
- There is no cure for HIV; a person with HIV will have it the rest of his or her life, despite treatment







How Do We Know How Sick a Person Is with HIV?

- A person's CD4 cells can be counted to determine how sick he or she is. The fewer the CD4 cells, the sicker the person.
- We can also measure the amount of virus (the load or burden) in a person's blood with a test called "viral load."
- We can also evaluate what specific infections, called opportunistic infections (OIs), the person has had to assess the overall effects of HIV.







Opportunistic Infections (Slide 1)

- Certain opportunistic infections (OIs) affect people with HIV, depending on how well their immune system is working
- These are infections that do not usually affect people with well-functioning immune systems
- The infections range from mild to life-threatening







Opportunistic Infections (Slide 2)

- These infections and other conditions related to HIV (e.g., lymphoma) affect most of the systems of the body:
 - Skin
 - Respiratory
 - Gastrointestinal
 - Neurological
 - Others







What Is AIDS?

- AIDS is acquired immune deficiency syndrome
- When the HIV virus has severely damaged a person's immune system so that it can no longer fight infections effectively, HIV has progressed to AIDS, a more advanced stage of the disease
- A person has AIDS when he or she has HIV and it has progressed to a certain point:
 - The point where they have certain opportunistic illnesses ("AIDS- defining illnesses")
 - The point where their CD4 count is <200 cells/mm³







HIV Compared to AIDS

- Both are caused by infection with the virus HIV
- A person has HIV upon infection (also called HIV disease). Despite treatment, someone with HIV will always have it.
- A person has AIDS once his or her CD4 count is <200 cells/mm³ or he or she is diagnosed with an AIDS-defining illness
- A person can have AIDS at one point, then—with ART—recover (CD4 count >200 cells/mm³, no Ols), feel better, and no longer have symptomatic AIDS







Explaining HIV exercise

- Work in groups of 4. The facilitator will pass out a card to each group with a question about HIV. Take turns answering the question using simple terms as briefly as possible.
 - Person 1: Answer the question as you would to a patient
 - Group: Evaluate how well person 1 presented the information
 - Person 2: Answer the question using different words/phrases
 - Group: Evaluate how well person 2 presented the information
- The facilitator will pass out another card with a different question. Repeat the steps above.







How Is HIV Transmitted? (Slide 1)

- To spread HIV, people with the virus in their blood have to make contact with another person whose bloodstream the virus enters
- Sexual contact—semen and vaginal secretions
 - male-to-female, female-to-male, male-to-male, and female-tofemale
 - sexual intercourse, oral or anal sex
- Mother to child—blood and breast milk
 - during pregnancy, during birth, after birth through breastfeeding







How Is HIV Transmitted? (Slide 2)

- Exposure to blood and body fluids
- Blood transfusion, sharing of needles or sharp instruments, needle-stick accidents, splashes that enter open wounds or come in contact with mucous membranes (which are in the eyes and mouth)
- Proper infection control, such as standard precautions and post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP), can protect healthcare workers from HIV exposures







How HIV Is Not Spread

- HIV cannot be transmitted on surfaces or by insect bites, including mosquitoes
- HIV cannot be transmitted by casual contact such as handshakes, hugging or touching, or sharing dishes
- HIV cannot be transmitted by urine, saliva, or tears unless they contain visible blood
- Proper use of safer sex, including latex condoms, significantly decreases risk of sexual transmission

Note: Any type of oral, vaginal, or anal sex carries risk of HIV transmission. The use of condoms or other safer sex methods reduces, but does not eliminate, the risk of HIV transmission.







Factors Affecting Transmission

- Certain factors influence the transmission of HIV:
 - Biological factors
 - Socioeconomic factors
- Nurses should be aware of these factors when counseling patients on testing or prevention







Biological Factors

Factors increasing risk

- Susceptibility of recipient (women are more susceptible)
- High viral load of host
- Other stis
- Multiple exposures

Factors decreasing risk

- Correct and consistent use of latex condoms
- Remaining faithful in relationships
- Abstinence
- ART (may decrease but not eliminate risk)
- ART to decrease risk of mother-to-child transmission







Socioeconomic Factors (Slide 1)

Social mobility

- People move around more
- HIV/AIDS follows routes of commerce (e.g., trucking routes)

Stigma and denial

- Denial and silence are the norm
- Stigma prevents people from acknowledging the problem and getting help







Socioeconomic Factors (Slide 2)

People in conflict

Context of war and struggle of power spreads the virus

Poverty

 Increased risk of other co-morbid disease, decreased access to healthcare, increased risk of violence

Commercial sex

Engaging in sex for money, drugs, food, or other goods







Socioeconomic Factors (Slide 3)

Cultural factors

- Traditions, beliefs, and practices affect understanding of health and disease and acceptance of conventional medical treatment
- Culture can create barriers that prevent people, especially women, from taking precautions and seeking medical care

Gender

- In many cultures, men are expected to have many sexual partners
- Women may suffer gender inequalities, often economic







Socioeconomic Factors (Slide 4)

Mental illness

 People with mental illnesses are more likely to be victims of abuse, use street drugs or alcohol to self medicate, or engage in high risk behaviors

Incarceration

 Many prisoners are unaware of their status, lack access to healthcare and medications (ART), lack access to condoms, and may be involved in high-risk behaviors while incarcerated

Drug use and alcohol consumption

 May involve impaired judgment leading to high-risk sexual behavior (unprotected sex with someone whose HIV status is unknown); sharing drug paraphernalia, needles/equipment







HIV Transmission Exercise (Slide 1)

Discuss the following case study with a colleague:

You are a nurse working with a 35-year-old man who has started ART. He is currently unemployed and living with his brother, his brother's wife, and their children. The patient tells you that his brother is worried that the patient will pass HIV to the children when he plays with them or shares meals with them. The patient asks you to discuss it with his brother when he comes in for his next visit.







HIV Transmission Exercise (Slide 2)

- What are some socioeconomic factors that may affect his care?
- What would you tell the patient about his brother's beliefs?
- How would you discuss the spread of HIV with the brother?
- What messages would you include?







Progression of HIV/AIDS (Slide 1)

- HIV usually follows a predictable course of phases from infection to AIDS
- How quickly a person progresses varies from person to person and depends on many factors including
 - Regular healthcare
 - Other infections
 - Nutrition
 - Alcohol and drug use
 - Stress
 - Depression







Progression of HIV/AIDS (Slide 2)

As a person becomes more sick

- His or her immune system is more damaged (CD4 cell count drops)
- The amount of virus in his or her blood increases (viral load rises)







Phases of HIV/AIDS (Slide 1)

The phases of HIV include

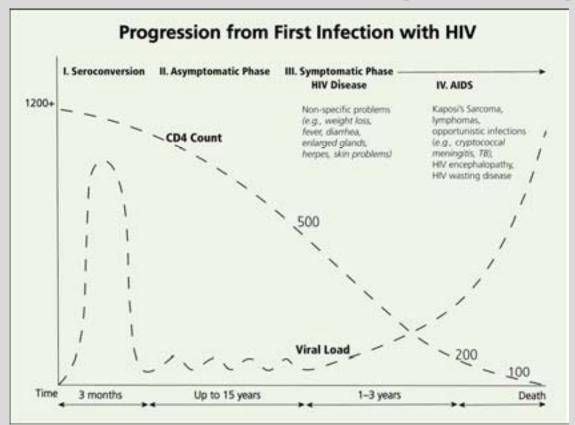
- Infection/seroconversion phase (becoming HIV-positive)
- Asymptomatic phase
- Symptomatic phase
- AIDS phase







Phases of HIV/AIDS (Slide 2)



Note: This graphic shows that the viral load is initially high when a person is first infected with HIV. Then the viral load drops for a while until the person begins to become ill and then it rises. At the same time, the CD4+ count slowly declines.







Infection/Seroconversion Phase (Slide 1)

- The person is infected with the virus
- Some people have flu-like symptoms such as fever, muscle and joint pains, swollen lymph nodes for 1-2 weeks
- Some people do not have any symptoms
- Intense viral replication leads to high viral load
- People can have HIV, but test negative (the window period)
- Because of high viral load, people are highly infectious during this stage







Infection/Seroconversion Phase (Slide 2)

The window period

- During the window period, a person has the HIV virus, tests HIVnegative, but can still spread the virus
- The window period lasts several weeks to three months
- To be certain of HIV-negative status, an HIV test should be repeated after three months or should be performed three months after the last time a person was potentially exposed to HIV
- A person in this phase is not ready to start taking HIV drugs (ARVs)

Note: The window period is a difficult concept for patients to understand. They need to know that if they are infected today, they may not have a positive test until three months later.







Asymptomatic Phase

- The infected person has no symptoms
- The person will test positive
- The immune system (determined by CD4+ cell count) manages to control the virus (cannot get rid of it)
- May last up to 10 years
- A person in this phase is not ready to begin taking ARVs







Symptomatic Phase

- The immune system (CD4+ cell count) falls to very low levels
- The viral load rises
- The infected person begins to have symptoms such as weight loss, difficulty swallowing, etc.
- May last 1 to 3 years
- Taking HIV drugs (ARVs) at this phase may slow progression of disease







AIDS Phase

- The immune system (CD4+ cell count) has been severely weakened (<200 cells/mm³)
- The viral load is high
- The infected person develops OIs and other HIV-related illnesses
- Taking ARVs at this phase may slow progression of HIV and improve quality of life
- Death is likely without OI treatment and ART







WHO Staging (Slide 1)

- The WHO staging system is a way to categorize an HIV patient's status by symptoms/conditions (OIs) experienced and level of performance of activities of daily life (ADLs)
- The stages have been shown to be related to survival and progression of HIV disease without the use of ART
- The patient's WHO stage is commonly used to guide decisions on treatment, including co-trimoxazole prophylaxis and ART







WHO Staging (Slide 2)

- There are different staging systems for adults and children
- Staging is usually done during the patient's baseline or initial assessment
- A full clinical assessment and medical history is required for staging
- If a person has one or more conditions listed within the stage, they are categorized into that stage







Overview of WHO Staging

HIV-Associated Symptoms	WHO clinical stage
Asymptomatic	1
Mild	2
Advanced	3
Severe	4







WHO Adult Clinical Stages 1 and 2

Clinical stage 1

- Asymptomatic
- Persistent generalized lymphadenopathy

Clinical stage 2

- Unexplained severe weight loss (<10% of presumed or measured body weight)
- Recurrent respiratory tract infections (sinusitis, tonsillitis, otitis media, and pharyngitia)
- Herpes zoster
- Angular cheilitis
- Recurrent oral ulceration
- Papular pruritic eruptions
- Seborrhoeic dermatitis
- Fungal nail infections







Adult Clinical Stage 3

Clinical stage 3

- Unexplained severe weight loss (>10% of presumed or measured body weight)
- Unexplained chronic diarrhea
- Unexplained persistent fever (above 37.5°C intermittent or constant, for longer than one month)
- Persistent oral candidiasis
- Oral hairy leukoplakia
- Pulmonary tuberculosis
- Severe bacterial infections
- Acute, necrotizing, ulcerative stomatitis, gingivitis or periodontitis
- Unexplained anemia (<8 g/dl), neutropenia (<0.5 x 10⁹/l), and/or chronic thrombocytopenia (<50 x 10⁹/l)







WHO Adult Clinical Stage 4

Clinical stage 4

- HIV-wasting syndrome
- Pneumocystis pneumonia
- Chronic herpes simplex infection (orolabial, genital, or anorectal) for more than one month or visceral at any site
- Esophageal candidiasis (or of trachea, bronchi, or lungs)
- Extrapulmonary tuberculosis
- Kaposi's sarcoma
- Cytomegalovirus infection (retinitis or infection of other organs)
- Central nervous system toxoplasmosis
- HIV encephalopathy
- Extrapulmonary cryptococcosis (including meningitis)
- Disseminated nontuberculous mycobacterial infection
- Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy
- Chronic cryptosporidiosis
- Disseminated mycosis (extrapulmonary histoplasmosis or coccidiomycosis)
- Recurrent septicemia (including nontyphoidal Salmonella)
- Lymphoma (cerebral or B-cell non-Hodgkin)
- Invasive cervical carcinoma
- Atypical disseminated leishmaniasis
- Symptomatic HIV-associated nephropathy or symptomatic HIV-associated cardiomyopathy







Basic Laboratory Investigations (Slide 1)

 Certain laboratory investigations are used for baseline and follow-up assessment of HIV. They also are used to determine toxicity or the presence of other infections.







Basic Laboratory Investigations (Slide 2)

Primary health level

- HIV test
- Hemoglobin
- Pregnancy test
- AFB sputum/smear microscopy
- Malaria smear

Secondary health level

- HIV test
- FBC and differential
- ALT, RFT, electrolytes
- CD4+ cell count
- Pregnancy test
- Malaria smear
- Sputum smear for TB







When to Start ART

 To determine if a patient is ready to start ART, the clinician should take into account the results of the clinical assessment, health history, lab investigations, WHO stage, psychosocial status, and probability of adherence







HIV Phases Exercise (Slide 1)

- Together with a colleague discuss the following case study:
 - A patient tells you she tested positive for HIV. She knows very little about HIV. She states that she does not believe that she has HIV because she does not feel sick.







HIV Phases Exercise (Slide 2)

- How would you respond to your friend?
- How would you describe HIV to her?
- What would you tell her about
 - How HIV is spread
 - How HIV affects the body
 - How HIV progresses
- How would you describe the difference between HIV and AIDS?







What Is TB? (Slide 1)

- Tuberculosis (TB) is an illness caused by a bacteria that usually infects the lungs, but can also infect other parts of the body
- TB usually spreads from person to person when one person with TB coughs and another person breathes in the bacteria
- TB can cause a person to become sick and eventually die
- TB can be treated and cured
- TB and HIV are closely linked







What Is TB? (Slide 2)

TB can be "latent or active"

- Latent TB occurs when the bacteria is in the body, but the immune system can control it and it does not cause illness
- The person with latent TB cannot spread it to others
- Latent TB can be diagnosed by a skin test called a PPD in which a healthcare worker injects a small amount of liquid (containing dead TB bacteria to stimulate the immune system) under the skin and the area is monitored for a reaction







Active TB (Slide 1)

- Active TB occurs when the bacteria is in the body and the person is ill
- If a person with latent TB contracts HIV, he or she is more likely to develop active TB because the immune system cannot control the latent TB
- Symptoms of active TB
 - Cough (possibly blood-tinged); chest pain; breathlessness
 - Fatigue; weight loss
 - Night sweats; fever
 - For extra-pulmonary TB: neck and/or abdominal lymph nodes with severe abdominal pain







Active TB (Slide 2)

- If a person has symptoms of active TB, a test can determine if he or she has TB in the lungs
- The person coughs up sputum (phlegm); saliva is not adequate
- Usually three sputum samples—collected in the morning before eating—are needed to confirm the presence of TB
- A healthcare worker examines the sputum under a microscope to see if it contains the TB bacteria
- For extra-pulmonary TB, diagnose by abdominal ultrasound and/or aspiration of neck lymph nodes







Link between HIV and TB (Slide 1)

The two diseases are closely linked

- People with HIV are more likely to contract TB
- TB progresses more rapidly in those with HIV
- HIV-positive people are more likely to die of TB than HIVnegative people
- HIV-positive people can progress more rapidly to AIDS if they have TB







Link between HIV and TB (Slide 2)

- Many people are co-infected with HIV and TB
- In some countries, more than half of those with TB are also HIV-positive
- One cannot assume that a person with TB has HIV
- Not everyone with HIV gets TB, and not everyone with TB has HIV

Note: The links between the two diseases are so strong that we need to screen all patients with HIV for TB and vice versa.







Treating HIV and TB (Slide 1)

 In people with both TB and HIV, a doctor must make a decision about whether to treat the TB first (before starting ART), or to treat both the TB and the HIV at the same time







Treating HIV and TB (Slide 2)

- General protocol: if a patient with HIV does not need ART immediately, treat TB first
- After intensive TB treatment phase, start ART if patient is eligible for treatment







Treating HIV and TB (Slide 3)

- Adherence to TB drugs is very important for treatment to be effective
- TB drugs are taken for a specific period of time determined by the doctor; it is usually for less than one year







HIV and TB Drugs Affect Each Other

- If taken together, drugs used to treat HIV (e.g., Nevirapine) and drugs used to treat TB may affect each other and how they work to help the patient
- Some HIV drugs cannot be used at the same time with some TB drugs; this is especially true of rifampicin
- Therefore, the doctor will prescribe a special firstline ART drug combination for patients with TB







Monitoring for Side Effects

- Patients taking both ART and TB drugs should be monitored for side effects including
 - Abdominal pain
 - Jaundice (yellowing of the eyes and skin)
 - Numbness/tingling/pain in the hands and feet







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 4: Standard Precautions and Infection Control







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Understand the meaning and principles of standard precautions and infection control
- Describe proper procedures for hand washing, use of personal protective equipment, injection administration, sharps disposal, and PEP
- List patient education messages for standard precautions at home







What are Standard Precautions? (Slide 1)

- A set of guidelines to protect healthcare workers from spreading infection, including HIV, from patient to patient or patient to healthcare worker
- Protect yourself and your patient
- If exposures do occur, nurses should know and implement the facility's postexposure prophylaxis (PEP) protocol







What are Standard Precautions? (Slide 2)

- National guidelines/protocols give specific details for procedures, products, and activities
- Nurses should be aware of and follow these standard precautions as well as encourage others to follow them
- These precautions should be used for all patients at all times







Principles of Infection Control

- All patients are to be considered infectious and susceptible to infection
- Hand washing is easy and very important in infection control
- Personal protective equipment provide barriers between possible sources of infection and the healthcare worker
- Safe handling and disposal of sharps
- Safe disposal of hazardous waste
- Proper disinfection and sterilization of reusable equipment







Are All Patients Infectious?

Yes

- All patients are potential sources of infection
- One cannot know which infections patients have by looking at them
- Stigma is also reduced by using standard precautions on all patients

Note: If we use standard precaution with all patients, there is no stigma that a particular patient is infected, because all patients are treated the same. Also, using standard precautions with all patients provides the most protection for healthcare workers.







Hand Washing

- Hand washing is a very effective way to reduce the spread of infection
- Hand washing requires soap and water
- Antiseptic gels or lotions can also be used
- Recommendation: post a reminder of importance and technique of hand washing at the nursing station and/or near the wash basin







When to Wash Hands

- Before AND after every patient encounter
- Immediately after removing gloves (and before touching anything else)
- After finishing one task with a patient (e.g., bleeding the patient) and before doing another (e.g., a rectal exam)







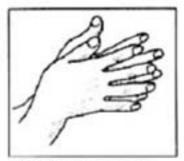
How to Wash Hands (Slide 1)



1. Rub palms together



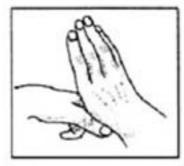
Use the palm of one hand to clean the back of the other (interface fingers and do both hands)



Rub palms together, with fingers interfaced



 Interlock fingers as shown and rub together



Rub each thumb (including base joint) with other hand



6. Rub clasped fingers back and forwards on palm (both hands)







How to Wash Hands (Slide 2)

- Roll up sleeves and remove any jewelry
- Keep nails short and clean
- Wet hands with continuous and free-flowing water from the tap or poured over the hands by another person
- Rub hands together vigorously with soap, and lather well, including in between the fingers for a minimum of 15 seconds
- Do not splash water on floor or clothing







How to Wash Hands (Slide 3)

- Rinse both hands under free-flowing water with hands held downward
- Pat both hands dry on clean paper towel or clean cloth towel
- If the water is from a faucet, turn off the faucet using the paper towel or cloth towel
- Dispose of paper towel in medical waste bin or cloth towel in the laundry







Personal Protective Equipment

- Includes gloves, masks, gowns, caps, eye wear
 - Use when splashes are likely to occur
 - Wash hands before and after putting on gloves, caps, masks, and gowns
 - Use disposable gowns if available
 - Clean reusable gowns according to protocols







Gloves (Slide 1)

- Select gloves to fit healthcare worker's hand
- Check for punctures or tears before putting gloves on hands
- Use a new pair of gloves for each patient encounter when in potential contact with blood, bodily fluids, excretions, or non-intact skin may occur (e.g., giving an injection, examining the inside of the mouth)







Gloves (Slide 2)

- Do not wash or reuse disposable gloves
- Dispose of gloves in the medical waste bin
- Avoid direct patient contact and contact with contaminated equipment if you have a open wound
 - Cover all wounds with waterproof dressings
- Use a new pair of gloves for each new patient and each new task with the same patient
- Always change gloves when they become soiled







Injection Administration (Slide 1)

- Notify patient that you plan on giving an injection
- Use new, single-use, disposable needle and syringe for each injection and to reconstitute every medication unit
- Inspect syringe and packaging:
 - Discard if package is torn
 - Discard if needle touches nonsterile areas such as countertop before use







Injection Administration (Slide 2)

- Use single-dose vials to prepare medications
- If multiuse, clean top of vial with antiseptic, then puncture with new sterile needle
- Do not leave needle in vial







How to Give an Injection (Slide 1)

- Wash hands
- Avoid giving injections to patients in areas with poor skin integrity (painful, flaky rash)
- Put on new disposable gloves
- Clean area of skin to be injected
 - Remove visible dirt with soap and water
 - Clean skin with antiseptic
 - Allow area to dry before injection







How to Give an Injection (Slide 2)

- Locate the sharps container before giving injection
- Avoid sudden jerky movements
- Try to anticipate movement of the patient
- Perform injection
- Do not recap needle after use
- Immediately dispose of needle and syringe in sharps container
- Remove gloves and wash hands







Sharps Disposal

- Sharps consist of needles and other equipment that can puncture skin
- Dispose of sharps immediately after use in marked sharps disposable container such as a heavy plastic jug
 - Do not put used sharps on counter for later disposal
 - Do not hand sharps to another person for disposal
 - Do not recap needle/syringe
- Keep sharps container as close as possible to providers in clinical-use areas







Other Waste-Handling Procedures

- Put highly-infectious nonsharps material in leakproof biohazard bag
- Tightly seal all waste-disposal bags when threefourths full
- Do not reopen bags
- Mark all bags as biohazard
- Follow facility protocol for disposal of bags







Patient Education on Home Infection Control

- If a patient is being cared for at home, the same principles of infection control apply:
 - Wash hands
 - Use barrier protection (gloves, plastic bags) for contact with nonintact skin, blood, bodily fluids, or soiled linens
 - Handle soiled linens as little as possible, then wash in hot water with bleach
 - Dispose of sharps in a labeled heavy plastic jug
 - Use good hygiene in food handling and preparation (see session 6)







Infection Control Exercise

Together with a colleague, discuss

- How well are the principles of standard precautions followed at your facility?
- Why or why not?
- How could you change your practice to better follow the standard precautions?







Postexposure Prophylaxis (PEP) (Slide 1)

- National guidelines for risk assessment and treatment should be followed for PEP
- General guidelines are included in this training







PEP (Slide 2)

- Timely administration of ART for PEP (within 72 hours of exposure) can significantly reduce the likelihood of transmission of HIV
- As a part of the healthcare team, nurses should be aware of and use the facility's PEP protocol
- Protocols should be posted in a highly visible area







PEP (Slide 3)

- Exposures can occur from occupational (needle sticks, splashes, etc) or nonoccupational situations (sexual assault, etc.)
- Choice of PEP regimen depends on determination of risk of transmission (either high or low)







Low Risk of Transmission

- Exposure to small volume of blood or fluids contaminated with blood from asymptomatic person with low viral load
- Following an injury with a solid needle
- Any superficial injury or mucocutaneous exposure







High Risk of Transmission

- Exposure to a large volume of blood or potentially infectious fluids
- Exposure to blood/fluids from a source with a high viral load
- Injury with a hollow needle
- Deep tissue injury
- Sexual assault that includes anal/vaginal penetration with ejaculation, presence of STD in source or victim, presence of visible blood, or multiple assailants







PEP Regimens (Slide 1)

- Low-risk regimen (two drugs):
 - Zidouvine 300 mg bd + Lamivudine 150 mg bd
 OR
 - Combivir 1 tab bd
- High-risk regimen (three drugs):
 - Zidouvine 300 mg bd + Lamivudine 150 mg bd + Efavirenz 600 mg bd (not if pregnant)

OR

 (Alternatives to Efavirenz) Nelfinavir 1250 mg bd or Lopinavir/ritonavir 133.3/33.3 mg 3 capsules bd







PEP Regimens (Slide 2)

- PEP should be started within 72 hours of exposure and be continued for 28 days
- Exposed person may experience side effects
- Some side effects can be minimized with nursing support
- Other symptoms (fever, lymphadenopathy, rash, sore throat, or flu-like symptoms) may indicate seroconversion
- Lab investigations including HIV test, pregnancy test, FBC, ALT, Cr, should be conducted at baseline and at follow-up according to national protocol







PEP: Nursing Management (Slide 1)

- Immediately wash wound with soap and water and/or flush mucous membranes with water
- Assess
 - Type of fluid
 - Type of exposure
 - Status of source (if available)
 - Prior HIV status of exposed person
 - Pregnancy/breastfeeding status of exposed person







PEP: Nursing Management (Slide 2)

Intervene

- Initiate PEP according to risk assessment and standing orders
- Counsel exposed person on need for PEP, drugs used, side effects, side-effect management, follow-up, safer sex practices, contraception, breastfeeding
- Assist with lab investigations
- Provide psychosocial support and referrals for counseling as needed
- Refer to post-assault counseling if needed







PEP exercise

- Together with a colleague, discuss the appropriate nursing assessment and interventions for the following PEP scenarios:
 - A man presents at the clinic 4 days after having unprotected sex with a woman. He has since heard from friends that she is suspected of having HIV.
 - A woman presents at the clinic after being raped the previous night by a man. She does not know his HIV status.
 - A female colleague is stuck by a needle after giving an injection to a man who has been hospitalized for management of an AIDS-defining illness.







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 5: Common Conditions Experienced by PLHA







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Define common conditions related to HIV disease and opportunistic infections (OIs)
- Identify the major elements and nursing considerations (assessment and interventions) at both the primary and secondary care settings for each
- Discuss the importance of proper pain management and become familiar with assessment and interventions for pain and other distressing symptoms
- Discuss issues related to palliative care







Goals of Nursing Care

- The goals of nursing care are to work with PLHA and their families to optimally
 - Treat infections
 - Manage symptoms and complications
 - Provide supportive care
 - Optimize quality of life







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV (Slide 1)

- As HIV disease progresses and the immune system becomes increasingly weakened, the incidence of morbidity and mortality from complications of HIV/AIDS increases.
- These complications are primarily a result of opportunistic infections and malignancies.
- Nursing care of patients with HIV involves
 - Symptom assessment and interventions
 - Patient education
 - Crisis intervention
 - Antiretroviral treatment and adherence monitoring
 - Palliative and end-of-life care
 - Grief work







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV (Slide 2)

- Assessment and management of symptoms associated with Ols are essential responsibilities for nurses working at all levels of care
- Management includes treatment if available and palliation of distressing symptoms
- Treatment may be provided at the primary level or be elevated to a higher level facility by referral if needed
- Some conditions will require hospitalization
- It is necessary to provide sound patient education about the condition and home management







Common Conditions (Slide 1)

- Common Ols and related conditions that are experienced by PLHA include the following systems:
 - Dermatological (skin)
 - Pulmonary
 - Gastrointestinal
 - Oral
 - Neurological
 - Ois are caused by organisms (such as a bacteria, viruses, fungi or protozoa) that would not cause a disease in a person with a well-functioning immune system







Opportunistic Infections (Slide 1)

- Many people first learn they have HIV or AIDS after being diagnosed with an OI.
- A person living with HIV or AIDS (PLHA) is susceptible to OIs, malignancies, and other conditions as a result of
 - Suppression of the immune system: particularly when the CD4 cell count drops below 200/mm³ of blood
 - Diminished nutritional status
 - Psychological stress







Opportunistic Infections (Slide 2)

- Ols associated with HIV disease are responsible for the largest number of hospitalizations of patients with HIV/AIDS
- As CD4 count decreases, likelihood of Ols increases
- Treatment for Ols depends on type and intensity of infection and symptoms

Note: Certain opportunistic infections are more likely to occur at different levels of CD4+ cell count.







Opportunistic Infections (Slide 3)

- Etiological agents of Ols
 - Bacteria
 - Fungi
 - Viruses
 - Parasites







Ols: CD4 count = 200-500 cells

These are the types of microbes that cause common Ols

Pneumococcal pneumonia	Bacterial
Pulmonary tuberculosis	Bacterial
Caposi's sarcoma Viral	
Herpes Zoster Viral	
Thrush (oral candidiasis)	Fungal
Cryptosporidium	Parasitic
Oral hairy leukoplakia	Viral
Oral-pharyngeal candida	Fungal







Ols: CD4 count <200 cells (Slide 1)

Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia (also called pneumocystis jiroveci)	Fungal
Candida esophagitis Fungal	
Recurrent/disseminated viral herpes simplex Viral	
Toxoplasmosis Parasitic	
Histoplasmosis	Fungal







Ols: CD4 count <200 cells (Slide 2)

Coccidioidomycosis	Fungal	
Progressive multifocial leukoencephalopathy Viral		
Microsporidiosis Parasitic		
Extrapulmonary tuberculosis Bacterial		
Cryptococcus (pneumonia, meningitis)	Fungal	







Ols: CD4 count <50 cells (Slide 2)

Cytomegalovirus	Viral
Mycobacterium avium complex	Bacterial







Triage (Slide 1)

- A triage nurse should assess patient as soon as possible after patient arrives at the facility
- Nurses should be aware of symptoms that require immediate evaluation by a clinical officer, physician/medical officer, or referral to the next level of care.







Symptoms for Immediate Referral to Next Level of Care:

- Labored breathing/shortness of breath
- Chest pain
- Moderate to severe abdominal pain
- Persistent vomiting (>3 days)
- Persistent bloody diarrhea (>3 days)
- Moderate to severe dehydration
- Severe headache with neck stiffness
- Seizures
- Profound weakness (patient unable to stand/walk)
- Suicidal thoughts/severe depression







Triage (Slide 2)

Triage components include

- Type of appointment (scheduled, walk-in, drug refill, etc.)
- Vital signs (including height and weight)
- Mobility
- General condition (weight loss, fatigue, weakness, etc.)
- Presenting problem
- Management (refer to clinical officer, medical officer, adherence counseling, etc.)







Co-trimoxazole (CTX) Prophylaxis

- Co-trimoxazole (CTX) also called Septrim, can be used to prevent PCP pneumonia, malaria, and other infections (e.g., toxoplasmosis) in those with HIV (primary prophylaxis) or used to prevent a reoccurrence of PCP (secondary prophylaxis)
- Indications for prophylaxis vary by country, but are generally recommended by WHO when a patient reaches WHO stage 2, 3, or 4 or CD4 count <350 cells/mm³ for adults including pregnant women
- Dose = 1 double-strength or 2 single-strength tablets once per day (weight-based)







Monitoring CTX Prophylaxis (Slide 1)

TOXICITY	CLINICAL DESCRIPTION	RECOMMENDATION
GRADE 1	Erythema	Continue co-trimoxazole prophylaxis with careful and repeated observation and follow-up. Provide symptomatic treatment, such as antihistamines, if available
GRADE 2	Diffuse maculopapular rash, dry desquamation	Continue co-trimoxazole prophylaxis with careful and repeated observation and follow-up. Provide symptomatic treatment, such as antihistamines, if available
GRADE 3	Vesiculation, mucosal ulceration	Co-trimoxazole should be discontinued until the adverse effect has completely resolved (usually two weeks), and then reintroduction or desensitization can be considered
GRADE 4	Exfoliative dermatitis, Stevens- Johnson syndrome or erythema multiforme, moist desquamation	Co-trimoxazole should be permanently discontinued







Monitoring CTX Prophylaxis (Slide 2)

- Patients should be taught to report any signs of hypersensitivity, such as rash, immediately to healthcare provider
- CTX can be stopped or continued according to WHO guidelines (on previous slide)
- Desensitization has been shown to be successful and rarely causes serious reaction
 - Protocols are included in national guidelines







Nursing Management of Common Conditions

- Information on common conditions follow, including definition of condition and management
- Management levels included in this training are as follows
 - Primary = primary health center or outpatient department (OPD) at secondary level
 - Secondary level = inpatient department (IPD)







Cough/Shortness of Breath (Slide 1)

- Cough and shortness of breath are among the most common complaints in PLHA with a respiratory infection
- Multiple pathogens cause Ols of the respiratory system
 - Bacterial pneumonia, which can appear early in disease progression, when CD4 count >500
 - TB, which is a very common coinfection with HIV
 - PCP (pneumocystis carinii pneumonia), a fungal infection
- Possible pharmacologic management includes antibiotics, antifungals, steroids, and antitussives







Cough/Shortness of Breath (Slide 2)

- With advanced AIDS, more than one pathogen is possible
- Anxiety can also be a contributing factor
- When assessing shortness of breath, a differential diagnosis with anemia must be made
- Additional risk factors for pulmonary Ols
 - Smoking
 - Street drugs







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Assess and record

- Breath sounds (crackles or rales, wheezing, reduced breath sounds)
- Number and quality of respirations (deep, shallow, labored)
- Quality of shortness of breath (on exertion or while at rest)
- Sputum quality (green-brown, thin-clear, blood-tinged)
- Anxiety level
- Ability to perform activities of daily living (ADLs)







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Patients should be referred to the secondary level if experiencing acute shortness of breath or any of the following symptoms in addition to cough/shortness of breath
 - Elevated heart rate; low blood pressure; fever >39°C
 - Chest pain; cool/clammy skin
 - Cyanosis
 - Dry mucous membranes; poor skin turgor
 - Mental status changes
 - Decreased urine output
 - Lower extremity swelling







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Interventions at the Primary Level

- Administer medications according to standing orders and assist patient to fill prescription
- Counsel patient to return if not feeling better in 48 hours
- Patient education: stop smoking, drink clean water or other fluids, drink warm beverages, or suck on candies to help calm cough







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Severe shortness of breath requires inpatient management
- Respiratory status assessed at least every 4 hours and more frequently if needed
- Breath sounds (crackles, rales, or reduced breath sounds)
- Cough (dry, wet) and sputum quality (green-brown, thin-clear, blood-tinged)
- Monitor pulse oximetry (SpO₂)







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Obtain arterial blood gas measurements to monitor gas exchange, as ordered
- Count and record numbers of respirations and their quality (deep, shallow, etc.)
- Assess patient's anxiety status







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Maintain a clear airway: suction lung secretions if appropriate
- Administer therapies
 - Supplemental O₂
 - Chest PT
 - Provision of fluids, especially clean water to liquefy secretions
 - Elevation of patient to Fowler's (45-degree angle) or high Fowler's (90-degree angle) position







Cough/Shortness of Breath: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

Administer therapies, (continued)

- Administer medications to treat infection, as ordered; monitor and record patient's response to the medications
- Administer medications to relieve shortness of breath and cough (antitussives and expectorants)
- Assist patient with coughing using abdominal splinting and deep breathing exercises; chest physiotherapy
- Keep the air moving in patient's room with an oscillating fan or open window







Cough/Shortness of breath: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 3)

Administer therapies (continued)

- Administer humidifying treatments (fill bowl or pot with very hot water; add eucalyptus or mint leaves if possible; cover patient's head with a towel and instruct him/her to breathe in vapors deeply for 10 minutes; repeat as ordered)
- Assist patient with repositioning in bed to move lung secretions, and with ambulation as appropriate
- Provide psychological support: shortness of breath can be frightening







Fever (Slide 1)

- Definition: 38.3°C or higher on several occasions, persistent fever for 3 weeks (as outpatient), or 3 days (as inpatient).
- HIV itself can cause fever, although usually during acute retroviral syndrome and less as the disease progresses







Fever (Slide 2)

- Fever may be related to many pulmonary infections and other types of infections
 - Fever in patients with CD4 counts >200: the most likely causes are bacterial and viral respiratory infections
 - Fever in patients with CD4 counts <200 cells: the most likely causes are nonpulmonary infections (such as cryptococcal meningitis, toxoplasmosis, mycobacterium avium complex, cytomegalovirus)







Fever: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

- Assess hydration status (skin turgor, mucous membranes, tissue perfusion, mental status)
- Obtain recent travel history: certain Ols are found in specific regions (e.g., TB)
- Check on recent exposure to sick family members or friends
- Review new medications (e.g., some people develop fever when they start CTX (Septrim)
- Rule out malaria







Fever: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Patients should be referred to the secondary level if experiencing any of the following symptoms
 - Shortness of breath
 - New, persistent fever >24 hours despite treatment (paracetamol, aspirin)
 - Rapid pulse
 - Changes in mental status
 - Inability to tolerate liquids by mouth
 - Decreased urine output







Fever: Interventions at the Primary Level

- Counsel patient to
 - Drink clean water/other fluids
 - Take paracetamol or aspirin
 - Return in 24 hours if no improvement for possible referral to secondary level







Fever: Assessment at the Secondary Level

- At least every 4 hours assess
 - Temperature
 - Hydration status/ability to tolerate fluids
 - Mental status
 - Respiratory status
 - Blood pressure
 - Associated symptoms such as neck stiffness, seizure, etc.







Fever: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Maintain hydration
 - Provide PO fluids if patient is alert and able to swallow
 - Provide IV fluids if patient is lethargic or unconscious, as ordered
- Administer medications to reduce fever (paracetamol, aspirin) as ordered







Fever: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Encourage PO intake as fever increases metabolism
- Administer cooling measures
 - Bathe patient with lukewarm sponge
 - Keep cool/tepid cloths on forehead, axillae, and inguinal areas
 - Provide oscillating fan or open room window
 - Change hospital gown and sheets when they are saturated with perspiration







Chronic Diarrhea (Slide 1)

- With infections of the gastrointestinal system, many nutritional and fluid alterations can occur
- Chronic diarrhea is a very common and frustrating problem for PLHA: at least 50 percent experience it during the course of the disease
- Chronic diarrhea is often accompanied by nausea, weight loss, abdominal cramping, and fluid and electrolyte loss, resulting in dehydration







Chronic Diarrhea (Slide 2)

- Patients with chronic diarrhea are hospitalized in the following life-threatening circumstances
 - They have experienced large fluid and electrolyte losses, which may be accompanied by fever, abdominal pain, mental status changes and cardiovascular instability
 - They are unable to tolerate food or fluid
- Chronic diarrhea is most often intermittent watery diarrhea (without blood or mucus)







Chronic Diarrhea (Slide 3)

- In one-third to two-thirds of cases, the cause of the diarrhea is not diagnosed
- Possible causes or contributing factors include
 - Infections
 - Malignancies of the GI tract
 - Medications
 - Vitamin deficiencies
 - Lactose intolerance
- Chronic diarrhea may be caused by HIV itself
- Symptomatic care is provided whether the cause of chronic diarrhea is diagnosed







Chronic Diarrhea: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Assess and record:

- Onset, duration, and pattern of diarrhea
- Hydration status (skin turgor, urine output)
- Recent medication use
- Ability to tolerate oral intake
- Associated symptoms (abdominal discomfort, nausea)
- Other new symptoms







Chronic Diarrhea: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Symptoms for referral to the secondary level:
 - Diarrhea >2 loose watery stools/day for >2 weeks
 - Mucoid stools
 - Weight loss >5 percent of body weight
 - Symptoms of dehydration
 - Bloody stools
 - Dark rust-colored streaks or clots in loose stools







Chronic Diarrhea: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Give ORS in facility if needed

 1 liter of clean water + 8 level teaspoons of sugar + one teaspoon of salt, mix well; add potassium according to standing orders

Provide patient education

- Stay hydrated—drink boiled water or weak tea
- Eat small meals of bland foods
- Eat foods high in protein and calories, including foods with soluble fiber
 - Peeled apples, applesauce, apricots, pears, grapes, melons, bananas
 - Oatmeal, oat bran, white rice, porridge







Chronic Diarrhea: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Avoid foods and fluids that increase GI motility
 - Fats
 - Coffee, tea, soda (caffeine)
 - Spicy foods (such as peppers)
 - Acidic fruits and vegetables (such as tomato, citrus fruits)
 - Beans, cauliflower, onions
- Maintain good hygiene
- Refer to food support if needed
- More interventions for diarrhea are included in Session 12







Chronic Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- For hospitalized patients
 - Weigh patient daily
 - Monitor hydration status, initially every 8 hours if patient is being rehydrated
 - Skin turgor
 - Mucous membranes
 - Tissue perfusion
 - Mental status







Chronic Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Monitor for symptoms of electrolyte imbalances
 - Lethargy, weakness
 - Muscle cramping
 - Mental confusion
 - Irregular heart rhythm
- Monitor stool output and record in patient's chart, including characteristics (e.g., frothy or excessive amount of fat; watery with green and brown flecks)







Chronic Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 3)

- Obtain stool samples
- Carefully monitor electrolyte levels
- Monitor skin integrity







Chronic Diarrhea: Interventions for the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Replace fluids as ordered
 - PO fluids
 - IV (monitor electrolyte levels pre- and post-fluids)
 - ORS
- Monitor intake and output
- Administer antibiotics if the causal organism has been identified and medications to decrease GI motility (e.g., loperamide, lomotil) as ordered







Chronic Diarrhea: Interventions for the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Provide foods high in protein and calories, including foods with soluble fiber
- Avoid foods and fluids that increase GI motility
- Perform good skin care; administer ointments as needed following thorough cleaning
- Teach patient
 - Good hygiene
 - Skin care
 - Nutrition







General Introduction to Oral Conditions

- HIV-infected patients experience many different conditions involving the mouth and throat
- These conditions may interfere with eating and cause increased weight loss
- The major signs of these conditions are
 - Complaints of burning in the mouth; altered taste in mouth
 - Decreased appetite
 - Difficulty swallowing (dysphagia)—sign of esophageal candidiasis
 - Discomfort or pain with swallowing (odynophagia)—sign of esophageal candidiasis, mouth ulcers
 - Swelling/pain in gums; tooth decay/loss







Oral Candidiasis (Slide 1)

- Oral candidiasis is frequently the first indication of decreased immune status among HIV infected patients
- Candidiasis is a fungus
 - It is prevalent among HIV-infected patients: at least one-third experience it during the course of the disease
 - It tends to affect the mouth when CD4 cell count is 300 or below
 - It is more common and occurs in the throat (esophageal candidiasis) when the CD4 count is 200 or below
 - Candidiasis that progresses to the esophagus (and rarely, bronchi, trachea, and lungs) is an AIDS-defining condition







Oral Candidiasis (Slide 2)

Oral candidiasis occurs in two forms

- Pseudomembranous (also called thrush)
 - Whitish to creamy colored curd-like patches, about 1.2 mm, surrounded by a red (erythematous) base
 - Mostly on the tongue and buccal mucosa
 - The patches can be wiped off, leaving redness or even bleeding
- Erythematous (less frequent)
 - Flat red patches on the hard or soft palate, buccal mucosa, or dorsal surface of the tongue
- Angular cheilitis (a related condition caused by candidiasis)
 - Cracks, fissures, and redness at the corner of the mouth







Moderate to Severe Pseudomembranous Candidiasis









Erythematous candidiasis (EC)







Oral Candidiasis: Assessment at the Primary Level

- Inspect mouth when patient complains of burning when eating and drinking or difficulty swallowing
- Assess nutritional status
 - Weight loss
 - Hydration status
- Patients should be referred to secondary level if they are dehydrated or cannot swallow or eat







Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

- Administer medications according to standing orders and assist patient to obtain prescription (nystatin, fluconazole or ketoconazole)
- Encourage good mouth care
 - Brush teeth and gums
 - If brushing is not possible because of pain and bleeding, rinse mouth with warm water
- Encourage patient to eat soft foods that can be chewed and swallowed easily
 - Rice, porridge, bananas, yogurt, soups
 - Soft cooked vegetables: squash, carrots, potatoes







Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

Teach patients

- Not to scrape off white patches in the mouth
- To avoid acidic or spicy foods (e.g., oranges, lemons, tomatoes)
- To avoid very hot or very cold foods and beverages
- To cut back on sweet foods (e.g., sugar) that may worsen symptoms
- To use a straw for drinking fluids

For a dry or sore throat

- Gargle solution of salt and clean warm water 3–4 times a day
- Drink teas, such as licorice or mint tea
- Suck on ice cubes







Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Follow same assessment and interventions as at primary level AND
- Administer drugs, as ordered
 - Nystatin liquid (swish and gargle 5 times a day)
 - Clotrimazole oral troche (suck one 5 times a day)
 - Fluconazole or Ketoconazole
 - For angular cheilitis: apply topical antifungal cream (such as clotrimazole cream)
 - Amphotericin B (IV for esophageal candidiasis that does not respond to fluconazole or ketoconazole; provide IV hydration pre- and post-infusion to protect renal function)







Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Maintenance drug therapy (fluconazole or ketoconazole)
 - After patient has been treated for esophageal candidiasis
 - To avoid recurrence of the candida infection (84 percent of HIVinfected patients will have a recurrence of esophageal candidiasis without maintenance drug therapy)
 - Encourage proper medication adherence to prevent fungal resistance







Skin (Integumentary System) (Slide 1)

- There are many conditions that affect the skin, hair, mucous membranes, and nails of HIV-infected patients
 - Opportunistic Infections
 - Bacterial
 - Fungal
 - Viral
 - Medication reactions: rashes
 - Signs of immune dysfunction
- Addition information on skin conditions can be found in session 12.







Skin (Integumentary System) (Slide 2)

- The following conditions will be included in this session
 - Kaposi's sarcoma (KS)
 - Herpes zoster
 - Prurigo
 - Skin rash related to medication use







Kaposi's Sarcoma (Slide 1)

- Pink/red/purple/brown patchy, painless swellings or nodules; no itching, no ring pattern
- Usually affects skin first, but can affect almost any organ; found in the mouth and internal visceral organs as lungs, GI tract, spleen, and liver
- One of the most common neoplasms to develop in HIV-infected patients
- Can occur at any stage of the disease
- An AIDS-defining condition
- Progressive







Kaposi's Sarcoma (Slide 2)

- Cause uncertain, but thought to be the human herpes virus 8 (HHV8)
- Treatment: chemotherapy and/or radiation
- With suppression of HIV by ART, spontaneous resolution of KS occurs—this may take time (months to a year)
- Key implications
 - Skin KS: disfiguring; affects patient's body image
 - Internal KS: blockage of organ functioning
 - Oral KS: can interfere with hydration/nutritional status







Kaposi's Sarcoma









Kaposi's Sarcoma: Assessment/ Interventions at the Secondary Level

Kaposi's Sarcoma is managed at the secondary level

Assess

- Monitor for skin changes and document in patient's medical record
- If patient is receiving chemotherapy or radiation for KS, monitor response to the therapy

Intervene

- If patient is receiving chemotherapy or radiation, manage side effects of these therapies
- Provide emotional support







Herpes Zoster (Slide 1)

- Painful cluster of lesions (vesicles) on an erythematous patch of skin in a localized neurodermatomal distribution (lesions are usually in a limited area but can be spread by direct contact)
- Cause: varicella zoster virus
- Patient susceptibility
 - Anyone who has had chicken pox (the virus can reactivate when a person becomes immunocompromised)
 - Healthcare workers who are pregnant must not care for patients with herpes zoster







Herpes Zoster: Assessment/ Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Herpes Zoster will be managed at the secondary level
- Assess
 - Assess location, extent, and drainage of the active lesions
 - Assess patient for pain at the site of the lesions

Intervene

 Prevent transmission of the virus by avoiding direct contact with the active lesions: use skin and wound precautions (wear gloves and practice strict hand washing)







Herpes Zoster: Assessment/ Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

Interventions, continued

- Administer pain medication around the clock, as ordered
- Administer antivirals as ordered (famciclovir, valacyclovir, acyclovir, forscarnet)
- Keep lesions open to air
- Counsel patient to rest (this is a systemic viral illness) and not to touch lesions







Prurigo

- A generalized red skin rash and/or inflamed mucous membranes that is characterized by pruritis (itchiness)
- Cause: eosinophilic folliculitis
- Very common among HIV-infected patients and chronic when CD4 count <200







Prurigo: Assessment/ Interventions at the Primary Level

Assess

Assess location, onset, duration

Intervene

- Provide symptomatic treatment
 - Administer medications according to standing orders (topical corticosteroids or oral antihistamines)
- Teach patients the following
 - Avoid trauma to the skin: avoid scratching/scrubbing
 - Avoid scented soaps and hot baths or showers







Skin Rash Related to Medications

- Several medications used in the treatment of Ols, as well as ARVs, can cause a skin rash, e.g., cotrimoxazole (Septrim) and nevirapine
- Most medication-related rashes are mild and resolve in a couple of weeks
- A skin rash can also be a sign of a hypersensitivity reaction
 - Progression of rash
 - Other symptoms: fever and flu-like symptoms (aches, pain, fatigue, shortness of breath, headache)
 - Hypersensitivity reaction requires immediate medical assessment and referral







Skin Rash Related to Medications: Assessment/Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Level

Assess

- Document location, extent and characteristics (e.g., redness, shape, pattern) in patient's medical record
- Monitor for and document changes in rash

Interventions for a mild rash

- Use mild, unscented cleansers or oatmeal soaps
- Avoid hot showers or baths, which irritate the skin, and protect skin from sun exposure
- Apply unscented moisturizers and keep patient hydrated

Interventions for intensifying rash

Refer to secondary level for management







Nutrition and HIV (Slide 1)

- Good nutrition is essential for achieving and preserving health
- A well-balanced diet is essential to restore the loss of energy and nutrients caused by infection
- Poor nutrition weakens the immune system







Nutrition and HIV (Slide 2)

- HIV causes an infection that uses up body cells and nutrients needed to keep cells healthy
- HIV causes a disturbance in the body's metabolism
- Ols can cause such symptoms as fever, nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, anorexia, difficulty swallowing, which affect food intake, digestion, and absorption
- Some medications used to treat Ols, as well as some ARVs, have adverse effects such as nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, and altered taste
- Session 6 discusses nutrition and HIV in depth







Nutritional Consequences of HIV (Slide 1)

- HIV infection may lead to decreased food intake as a result of loss of appetite, pain when eating, and mechanical difficulties
- HIV may cause malabsorption of nutrients and micronutrients
- HIV creates a defect in the mucosal barrier which reduces absorption of essential nutrients (result: increased volume of stool)
- HIV infection creates increased need for all nutrients due to malabsorption and increased metabolic activity associated with infection







Nutritional Consequences of HIV (Slide 2)

- HIV infection may lead to large-bowel disease, a general inflammatory disorder caused by viral, bacterial, or parasitic infections, or by a neoplasm
- HIV infection may lead to increased rate of body metabolism, even in asymptomatic infections but more so in symptomatic infections, and contribute to depletion of nutrients and micronutrients
- HIV infection may, over time, lead to decreased intake of calories, protein, and essential nutrients; malabsorption of nutrients results in malnutrition







Malnutrition

- Weakens the immune system, decreasing the body's ability to fight HIV and other infections, resulting in increased vulnerability to infections and increasing the severity of HIV disease
- Malnutrition leads to loss of lean body mass, fat, and skeletal muscle due to a deficiency or malabsorption of protein and total calories
- Malnutrition contributes to HIV disease progression and is a consequence of HIV disease







Wasting (Slide 1)

- Definition: wasting is involuntary weight loss of >10
 percent from baseline (if baseline is a normal body
 mass index (BMI) in adults and adolescents and
 weight for height in children)
- Wasting is caused by insufficient nutritional intake or a disturbance in metabolism that interferes with the effective use of nutrients, resulting in the loss of lean body mass







Wasting (Slide 2)

- Wasting is one of the most devastating aspects of AIDS: the person grows weaker and is no longer able to perform activities of daily living
- It can lead to depression as well as perceived loss of independence and social identity
- Risk factors will be discussed in session 6







Wasting: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Level

- Monitor weight (daily if hospitalized)
- Monitor body mass index (BMI): to determine if patient's weight is appropriate for the height
- To determine BMI, divide patient's weight in kg by the height squared (kg/m²)
- BMI of <18.5 is indicative of wasting
- Monitor patients' response to treatment of Ols and management of symptoms related to Ols







Wasting: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Promote a well-balanced diet that includes sufficient calories, protein, carbohydrates, fat, other essential nutrients, fiber (roughage), and water
- Teach good hygiene and safe food-handling and preparation procedures
- More information on diet and hygiene will be presented in session 7







Wasting: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Manage symptoms that interfere with food intake (e.g., fever, loss of appetite, altered taste, sore mouth and throat, nausea and vomiting, diarrhea, and fatigue)
- For small intestinal diseases and malabsorption, have patient eat small, frequent meals low in fat, lactose, and fiber, and high in calories; avoid caffeine







Fatigue

- Fatigue is one of the major symptoms experienced by most people who are infected with HIV
- There are multiple possible causes of this symptom: physical, emotional, psychological
- There are frequently several coexisting causes







Fatigue: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 1)

- Try to determine the physical causes
 - Decreased nutritional status
 - Anemia
 - HIV infection
 - OI
 - Pain
 - Difficulty sleeping
 - Medication







Fatigue: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 2)

- Try to determine other possible causes, e.g., emotional or psychological
 - Worry
 - Depression
 - Anxiety
 - Difficulty concentrating







Fatigue: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels

- Teach patients the following
 - Avoid caffeine/nicotine 4 to 6 hours before bed
 - Go to sleep and wake up at the same time every day
 - Eat healthy meals
 - Have a light snack, chamomile tea, or warm milk before bedtime
- Regularly perform moderate exercise
- Control other symptoms that can cause fatigue
- Create a restful environment
- Teach relaxation techniques
- More interventions for fatigue are included in session 12







Anemia

 Anemia may be caused by HIV or as a side effect of certain medications (e.g., co-trimoxazole (Septrim), clarithromycin, gancyclovir, or zidovudine)







Anemia: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels

- Lethargy
- Pallor
- Difficulty walking
- Decreased concentration
- Ability to perform activities of daily living
- Shortness of breath
- Conduct hemoglobin (Hbg) test







Anemia: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels

At the primary level

- Refer to secondary level if Hbg <8g/dl
- Encourage patient to rest, minimize activity
- Teach patient to
 - Schedule a medical visit if increased fatigue occurs after hospital stay (for hemoglobin check)
 - Eat foods that are high in folic acid (e.g., green, leafy vegetables such as spinach), and iron and vitamin B12 (e.g., fish, meat, poultry)

At the secondary level

- Monitor oxygenation
- Administer blood transfusion, IV fluids, as ordered
- Monitor safety







Nausea/Vomiting

- Ols, medications, and digestion issues commonly cause nausea/vomiting in PLHA
- Persistent vomiting can lead to dehydration and chemical imbalances







Nausea/Vomiting: Assessment at the Primary Level

- Frequency, amount and character of the vomit
- Abdominal distention or tenderness
- Ability to tolerate food/drink
- Hydration status
- Nutritional status







Nausea/Vomiting: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Educate patient to

- Drink fluids (strongly emphasize this point)
- Try peppermint, chamomile, or ginger tea
- Sip noncarbonated ginger ale or 7-Up
- Eat small snacks throughout the day; avoid large meals
- Eat BRAT diet (bananas, rice, applesauce, toast)







Nausea/Vomiting: Interventions at the Primary Levels (Slide 2)

Educate patient, continued

- Eat small amounts of bland, odorless foods: toast, crackers, clear soup, potatoes
- Avoid hot, spicy, strong-smelling, sweet, and greasy foods
- Sit up when eating and to avoid lying flat for 20 minutes after eating
- More interventions for nausea/vomiting are included in session
 12







Nausea/Vomiting: Interventions at the Primary Levels (Slide 3)

- Refer patient to secondary level if nausea and/or vomiting presents with
 - Elevated heart rate
 - Low blood pressure (SBP <90mmhg)
 - Chest pain
 - High fever
 - Cool/clammy skin
 - Dry mucous membranes
 - Sunken eyes
 - Poor skin turgor
 - Mental status changes
 - Rapid breathing
 - Decreased urine output
 - Dark yellow urine
 - Lower extremity swelling







Nausea/Vomiting: Assessment/ Interventions at the Secondary Level

Assess

- Monitor vital signs
- Monitor electrolyte status
- Monitor and record intake and output

Intervene

- Administer IV fluids, including electrolytes as necessary
- Administer anti-emetics, as ordered
- Maintain patient safety







Pain (Slide 1)

There are many possible causes of pain in patients with HIV

- Oropharyngeal: candida, herpes, apthous-type ulcers, malignancy, gingivitis, tooth abcess
- Retrosternal: esophageal candida, CMV or herpes, ulcers, reflux esophagitis, PCP pneumonia
- Headache: toxoplasmosis, cryptoccal meningitis
- Abdominal: diarrhea with or without infection, drugs, constipation
- Perianal and perineal: herpes, candida, excoriation of skin due to diarrhea
- Extremities: peripheral neuropathy in hands, feet, toes







Pain (Slide 2)

- Pain has been commonly under-managed in healthcare settings
- Treatment should address both the cause of the pain (i.e., antibiotics for infection) and the pain itself (i.e., analgesics for pain)







Pain (Slide 3)

- Pain is serious and treatable
- It is important for nurses to advocate for proper pain management
- Poor pain management can lead to anxiety, depression, immunosuppression, lack of sleep, and many other symptoms

Note: Patients should not have to bear pain. It is treatable. It is the nurse's responsibility to ensure that patient's pain is identified, acknowledged, and managed.







Pain: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 1)

- Site: (localized, radiating)
- Nature/quality: (sharp, aching, dull, burning, etc.)
- Duration and frequency
- Intensity: mild, moderate, severe
- Interventions that make the pain worse or better
- Effect on activities of daily living
- Associated symptoms (fever, nausea, difficulty swallowing, etc.)
- Patient's mood and social circumstances
- Substance use including prescription and street drugs







Pain: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 2)

- When appropriate, use pain scale to assess pain
- Ask adolescent and adult patients, "On a scale of 0 to 5, with 0 being no pain and 5 being the worst pain you can imagine, what is your pain level now?"
- Reassess within an hour after administering pain medications and document changes (if any)
- Example: "Patient reports constant dull pain 4/5 in upper-right quadrant of abdomen not associated with movement. 15 mg of morphine PO given. Patient reports pain reduced to 1/5 15 minutes after morphine given"







Pain: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 3)

- Tool for assessment of pediatric pain
 - If child cannot talk or describe his/her pain, use faces and descriptions to document your observations of the child's pain
 - For example, "pain level observed to be 2/5 using faces scale"







Pain: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels

- Administer pain medications according to standing orders
 - Refer to the WHO "three-step treatment model" for pain
 - Offer pain medication on time around the clock—do not wait for patient to request an "as needed" dose
- Reduce noise and other environmental stimuli
- Assist patient with activities of daily living
- Provide emotional support
- Ask patient what would help provide comfort
- Encourage and assist patient to rest







Headache

 May be a side effect of medication or a symptom of a serious infection such as cryptococcal meningitis or toxoplasmosis







Headache: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Assessment:

- Location, severity, frequency, duration, quality of the pain
- Associated symptoms (visual disturbances, problems with gait, etc.)
- Interventions that patient takes to relieve the pain (nonpharmacologic and pharmacologic)
- If nuchal rigidity (neck stiffness) is present, refer immediately to secondary facility
- Rule out malaria







Headache: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Refer to secondary level immediately if headache is accompanied by:
 - Fever, lethargy/confusion
 - Rapid breathing
 - Stiff neck/headache
 - Poor oral intake
 - Inability to participate in activities of daily living (adls)
 - Seizure
 - Blurred vision







Headache: Interventions at the Primary Level

- Administer paracetamol or other oral analgesics according to standing orders
- Create a quiet, darkened environment
- Encourage patient to rest, avoid activity
- Place cold wash cloth over eyes
- Gently massage the base of the skull and temples
- Teach patient to avoid foods that trigger headaches (e.g., caffeine, chocolate, citrus fruit, food additive (monosodium glutamate), nuts, onions, hard cheese)
- More interventions are included in session 12







Headache: Assessment/Interventions at the Secondary Level

Assess

- Monitor vital signs
- Monitor and record pain
 - Reassess 15–30 minutes after administering pain medications

Intervene

- Administer IV fluids
- Administer pain meds as ordered around the clock
- Maintain patient safety







Peripheral Neuropathy (Slide 1)

- Neuropathy results from damage to the nerves caused by HIV or as a side effect of certain medications (ARVs such as d4T, ddl)
- Nerve damage cannot be reversed; if it is caused by a medication, the offending drug must be stopped or reduced in strength
- A deficiency in Vitamin B can be a contributing factor







Peripheral Neuropathy (Slide 2)

- Described as burning, stinging, stiffness, tickling or numbness in the feet, toes, or hands
- Pain medications generally do not relieve the pain
- Antidepressants such as amitriptyline or nortriptyline, and anticonvulsants such as gabapentin, may help







Peripheral Neuropathy: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary levels

- Location, severity, frequency, and character of the pain
- Determine what interventions relieve the pain (nonpharmacologic as well as pharmacologic)
- Patient's ability to walk and perform ADLs







Peripheral Neuropathy: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels

- Wear loose-fitting shoes, roomy cotton socks, padded slippers
- When in bed, keep feet uncovered
- Walk around to help blood circulation to the feet
- Soak feet/hands in coldest water that can be tolerated; gently massage feet/hands
- Administer medication to relieve pain according to standing orders
- More interventions for peripheral neuropathy are included in session 12







Psychological Issues

- Psychological or mood changes can occur with HIV as a direct effect of the virus, an OI, or a pre-existing condition (including substance use)
- Whatever the cause, psychological issues should not be ignored in caring for patients with HIV/AIDS
- Common issues include
 - Depression
 - Anxiety
 - Confusion
 - HIV-related dementia
 - Neurologic changes related to infection







Psychological Issues: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels

- Orientation (person, place, time)
- Level of consciousness
- Onset
- Duration
- Ability to complete adls
- Effect on family life/relationships
- Medication/substance use
- Suicide risk







Psychological Issues: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 1)

- Protect and document patient safety
- Treat conditions with nonpharmacologic methods and mediations according to standing orders
- Treat pain, infections, and other co-morbid conditions as appropriate
- Provide relaxation training (deep breathing, guided imagery)







Psychological Issues: Interventions at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 2)

- Listen to patient and family concerns
- Refer to mental health counseling
- Refer to PLHA support group
- Refer to substance use treatment as appropriate







Palliative Care (Slide 1)

- WHO definition of Palliative Care (2002): Palliative care is an approach that improves the quality of life of patients and their families facing life-threatening illness, through the prevention and relief of suffering by means of early identification and impeccable assessment and treatment of pain and other problems, physical, psychosocial and spiritual
- Palliation = comfort (physical, psychosocial, spiritual)
- Palliative care: management of symptoms, including pain and other distressing symptoms, that alter comfort and quality of life







Palliative Care (Slide 2)

- At any point in the progression of HIV/AIDS
 - Nursing assessment is critical to patient care: patient may not report signs of discomfort because they may feel that they have to put up with them, that they are a "punishment" for contracting this disease
 - The nurse plays a major role in the assessment and advocacy of proper pain management throughout the life of patient from diagnosis through to end-of-life care
- More information on palliative care is in session 6.







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 6: Palliative Care







Objectives

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - Understand the philosophy of palliative care
 - Describe the most common symptoms of HIV/AIDS
 - Understand how nurses can work with patients and families in end-of-life care in terms of physical and emotional issues







Palliative Care Definitions

- WHO defines Palliative Care as "an approach that improves the quality of life of patients and their families facing life-threatening illness, through the prevention and relief of suffering by means of early identification and impeccable assessment and treatment of pain and other problems, physical, psychosocial and spiritual" (2002)
- Palliation = comfort, physical, physchosocial, and spiritual
- Palliative care: management of symptoms, including pain and other distressing symptoms, that alter comfort and the quality of life







Palliative Care Philosophy

- Palliative care is complementary, not alternative, to curative or life-prolonging treatment: "It should not be provided only when disease-directed therapy fails or is unavailable" (O'Neill, et al., 2003)
- Palliative care is the responsibility of all members of the multidisciplinary HIV care team, and is provided optimally when the team works in partnership with the patient and caregivers to address their needs







Palliative Care and HIV

- The principles of palliative care can be applied from diagnosis through the progression of HIV disease
- As HIV progresses, patient will become more immunocompromised and frequency of illness will increase
- In the final stages, the focus changes from curative and life-prolonging treatments to symptom relief
- A patient with HIV infection may die as a consequence of Ols, other HIV-related conditions or, less frequently, side effects of ART







Palliative Care Nursing (Slide 1)

- Nursing assessment and interventions are critical to palliative care of patients with HIV
 - Identifying and treating symptoms not only provide comfort but also improve quality of life
 - Patient may not report signs of discomfort because they may feel that they have to put up with them, that they are a "punishment" for contracting this disease
 - Families may find comfort in participating in care







Palliative Care Nursing (Slide 2)

- Nurses can provide compassionate care to patients and families by
 - Advocating for effective management of pain and other distressing symptoms experienced by adults and children
 - Being present in the midst of physical and emotional distress
 - Listening
 - Treating patient and family with respect
 - Preparing them for what to expect
 - Honoring the end-of-life wishes of patient and family







Palliative Care Nursing (Slide 3)

- The experience of pain profoundly affects the quality of life; nurses working with prescribing clinicians and pharmacy staff can
 - Assist patients to access affordable analgesic medication to effectively control pain, including opioids as needed
 - Educate patients and their caregivers on taking pain medication for optimal pain management







WHO'S Pain Relief Ladder









WHO 3-Step Pain Relief Ladder

- If The WHO Pain Relief Ladder provides a valuable guide for pain management
 - Step 3: Severe Pain
 - Morphine, Fentanyl
 Hydromorphone Oxycodone
 Methadone + Adjuvants
 Levorphanol
 - Step 2: Moderate Pain
 A/Codeine A/Dihydrocodeine
 A/Hydrocodone + Adjuvants
 A/Oxycodone
 - Step 1: Mild Pain
 ASA NSAIDs
 Acetaminophen + Adjuvants







Palliative Care and Children (Slide 1)

- Children are often aware of the seriousness of their condition, even if it has not been discussed
- Some families will need support in deciding if and when to disclose to the child (about HIV, having a life-threatening illness or both)
- Bereavement follow-up is important for families, especially when the caregiver is the only one aware of the child's status
- Children may need support in dealing with the loss of a parent or caregiver







Palliative Care and Children (Slide 2)

- Caring for a very ill child can be affected by many factors including
 - No one outside the family knows the diagnosis
 - The parents/caregivers may also be ill
 - The family may not have access to community resources and support
 - A reduction in the child's appetite often proves stressful to the family and they need assurance and support in dealing with it







Palliative Care of Children (Slide 3)

- Pain experienced by children is what the child says hurts; listen and believe what the child says
- A child who does not verbalize pain may express it in other ways:
 - Crying
 - Groaning
 - Restlessness
 - Withdrawal and lying still
 - Refusal to speak or eat
 - Holding the painful area







Palliative Care of Children (Slide 4)

- Analgesia is important in relieving pain in children
- Teach the caregiver to use the right drug in the right dose and to give the medicine regularly (i.e., around the clock) for optimal pain management
- Teach the caregiver to contact the health facility if the medication is not managing the child's pain effectively







Include Family in Care (Slide 1)

- Communicate with family about patient's condition and possible outcomes
- Educate them (on comfort measures, medication administration, etc.) and encourage them to participate in care as appropriate
- Include them in decisionmaking
- Help them understand technical terms







Include Family in Care (Slide 2)

- Allow patient and family privacy
- Explain what dying might be like (e.g., patient's breathing will change)
- Facilitate verbal and tactile communication (i.e., handholding, touch)
- Provide access to spiritual support







Include Family in Care (Slide 3)

- Provide opportunity for expression of beliefs, fears, hopes, and feelings
- Assist family with nutrition, transportation, childcare, and financial resources as needed
- Provide bereavement support (e.g., refer them to a support group)







Common Symptoms

- At any point in the progression of HIV/AIDS (especially toward the end of life), the most common symptoms are
 - Pain
 - Fatigue/weakness
 - Shortness of breath
 - Persistent diarrhea
 - Nausea and vomiting
 - Difficulty sleeping/insomnia
 - Confusion
 - Spiritual distress (of patient and family)
- Assessment and interventions for many of these symptoms are included in session 5







Confusion

Assess

- Assess and document patient safety
- Asses orientation: person, place, time
- Assess patient's understanding of his or her situation and treatment

Intervene

- Protect patient safety (i.e., if patient is wandering, have family or staff member sit with patient)
- Reorient as appropriate
 - Patient may feel scared or ashamed of their confusion
- Work with family to learn how to communicate best with patient
 - Create reminders or aids for patient (e.g., lists, pictures)







Spiritual Distress

- Experiencing a life-threatening illness can affect a person's spirituality, causing him or her to
 - Question or search for spirituality
 - See richness or meaning in life that they did not see before
 - Deepen or find spiritual meaning in their life
- As nurses, our role is to support them as appropriate and as we feel comfortable







Spiritual Distress

Assess

- Ask patients about their spirituality
- What faith or belief system do they follow?
- How does the person implement his or her faith?
- How can the facility or staff support their spiritual needs?

Intervene

- Provide referral to spiritual leader
- Participate with patient in spiritual rituals as the nurse feels comfortable (i.e., pray with patient or stand by quietly as he or she prays)
- Provide assistance on other spiritual practices (i.e., guided imagery, journaling, etc.)







Guided Imagery (Slide 1)

- Guided imagery is a technique used for relaxation, spirituality, and other uses
- It involves relaxation and visualization of a scene that one finds calming or a process one hopes to happen
 - Some people visualize scenes that they find relaxing or beautiful
 - Some people visualize process such as dealing with a difficult situation in a positive way







Guided Imagery (Slide 2)

- It can be done alone or with others
- Nurses can guide patients or teach patients to use the technique alone when they need to relax, prepare for difficult situations, etc.







Planning for End of Life (Slide 1)

- Having a patient's end-of-life wishes defined can reduce stress on patient and the family
- Nurses can help patients plan and work to ensure that patient's "five wishes" are met (Center for Palliative Care, 2003)
 - Who will make decisions for patient when he or she is incapacitated?
 - What kind of medical treatment will patient want?
 - How comfortable does patient want to be?
 - How does patient want to be treated?
 - What does patient want his or her loved ones to know?







Planning for End of Life (Slide 2)

Guidelines:

- Allow for privacy
- Introduce the topic, e.g., "Have you decided who should make decisions for you when you can't make them for yourself?"
- Continue with the five wishes and document patient's responses
- If patient seems uncomfortable end the conversation, e.g.,
 "Would you like to talk about this another time?"
- Share patient's responses with the family







General Procedures for End-of-Life Nursing Care (Slide 1)

- Assess and intervene for common symptoms
- For patients at home, teach caregivers
- Anticipate comfort needs
 - Moisten conjunctiva, mouth/lips
 - Prevent skin breakdown: turn frequently, monitor for redness, moisturize skin, bathe with mild soap, keep skin dry, reduce turning if comfort is more important that risk of breakdown
 - Assist with elimination and monitor/treat skin integrity







General Procedures for End-of-Life Nursing Care (Slide 2)

- Avoid unnecessary procedures (which IVs, weights, vital signs, or lab tests can be stopped?)
- Support nutrition depending on patient wishes
- Determine activity level by evaluating weakness/fatigue, ability, safety, and patient wishes
- Make sure pain is controlled







Five wishes exercise (Slide 1)

On a piece of paper answer the following questions

- Who do I want to make decisions for me if I cannot make them for myself?
- What kind of medical treatment do I want or not want?
- How comfortable do I want to be?
- How do I want to be treated?
- What do I want my loved ones to know?

Adapted from The Center for Palliative Care Education (2005)







Five wishes exercise (Slide 2)

- Share your answers with a colleague and discuss
 - How do you feel about answering these questions?
 - Are you comfortable with your answers?
 - What aspects of your choices will affect your family?
 - How do you expect them to feel about your choices?

Adapted from The Center for Palliative Care Education (2005)







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 7: Nutrition







Objectives

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - Understand how nutrition and HIV are linked
 - List the nutritional consequences of HIV
 - Understand the effects of malnutrition and wasting
 - List interventions for wasting
 - Understand the common micronutrient deficiencies and interventions for each







Review of Nutrition and HIV (Slide 1)

- The links between nutrition and infection
 - Good nutrition is essential for achieving and preserving health
 - A well-balanced diet is essential to restore the loss of energy and nutrients caused by infection
 - Poor nutrition weakens the immune system







Review of Nutrition and HIV (Slide 2)

The interaction between HIV and nutrition

- HIV causes an infection that impairs the immune system and depletes nutrients needed to keep cells healthy
- HIV causes a disturbance in the body's metabolism that interferes with the effective use of nutrients
- There is an increased need for nutrients during any infections
- Ols cause symptoms such as fever, nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, anorexia, or difficulty swallowing, which affect food intake, digestion, and absorption
- Some medications used to treat Ols, as well as some ARVs, have adverse effects such as nausea/vomiting, diarrhea, and altered taste
- Some foods can interact with ARVs and affect their efficacy







Review of Nutritional Consequences of HIV (Slide 1)

- Decreased food intake may result from
 - Loss of appetite
 - Pain when eating
 - Mechanical difficulties: chewing, swallowing, digesting, delayed emptying of the stomach
- Malabsorption of nutrients and micronutrients may be caused by
 - Small intestine alterations causing diarrhea
 - Large-bowel disease
 - Constipation due to inadequate intake and inactivity







Review of Nutritional Consequences of HIV (Slide 2)

- Over time, decreased intake of calories, protein, and other essential nutrients; malabsorption of nutrients; and increased need for nutrients can result in malnutrition
- This can be manifested as wasting and/or specific micronutrient deficiencies







Risk Factors for Wasting (Slide 1)

- Wasting is more likely when one or more of the following factors are present
 - Weight loss
 - Altered sense of smell or taste reducing food intake
 - Difficulty with chewing, swallowing, or poor dentition
 - GI problems, such as diarrhea, nausea, vomiting, constipation, indigestion, flatulence, abdominal distention, and abdominal pain







Risk Factors for Wasting (Slide 2)

- Difficulties accessing good quality food in sufficient quantities
- Living alone, poor food-preparation abilities, or lack of cooking facilities or refrigeration in home
- Physical, mental, and emotional difficulties affecting shopping, cooking, or eating
- Eating less than three well-balanced meals a day
- Consumption of alcohol, smoking, or recreational drugs







Risk Factors for Wasting (Slide 3)

- Prescribed dietary restrictions or restrictions that are self-imposed as a result of religious or ethnic beliefs (including fasting)
- Taking many prescribed medications (may affect appetite)
- Depression, grieving, or sadness (may affect intake)
- History of eating disorders (e.g., anorexia, bulimia)







Assessment of Wasting

Assessment:

- Monitor weight (daily if hospitalized)
- Monitor body mass index (BMI) to determine if patient's weight is appropriate for the height
- To determine BMI, divide patient's weight in kg by the square of patient's height in m (kg/m²
- BMI of less than 18.5 is indicative of wasting
- Monitor patient's response to treatment of OIs and manage symptoms related to OIs







Interventions for Wasting

- Promote a well-balanced diet that includes sufficient calories, protein, fat, vitamins, and minerals
- Teach good hygiene and safe food handling
- Manage symptoms that interfere with food intake
- Teach patients to manage nutritional symptoms at home
- Provide nutritional supplements as needed
- Refer to nutritionist if available
- Refer to food support if needed

Note: Referral to food support is important—counseling on food-related issues is meaningless if patient/family do not have access to food







Well-Balanced Diet (Slide 1)

- Calories: HIV-infected persons should increase their daily caloric intake to provide sufficient energy
- WHO provides the following guidance
 - For asymptomatic adults, adolescents, and children: 10–20 percent increase daily
 - For symptomatic adults and adolescents: 20–30 percent increase daily
 - For symptomatic children with no weight loss: 20–30 percent increase daily
 - For symptomatic children with weight loss: 50–100 percent increase daily







Well-Balanced Diet (Slide 2)

- Protein builds and repairs tissues and improves the immune system
- Sources: meat, chicken, liver, fish, eggs, milk, beans, soybeans, groundnuts







Well-Balanced Diet (Slide 3)

- Carbohydrates and fats produce energy and insulation
- Examples: rice, maize, barley, oats, wheat, bread, bananas, yams, potatoes, avocado pears, vegetable and seed oils, full-cream milk, coconut, animal fat







Well-Balanced Diet (Slide 4)

- Vitamins and minerals: To maintain healthy lining of skin, lungs, and GI tract; aid production of blood; and a vital element for the functioning of the immune system, thereby helping to protect against Ols
- Sources: fruit, vegetables, and legumes (beans) in a well-balanced diet
- Supplements can also help

Note: It is not important to memorize the roles/sources of all the micronutrients in the following slides. The information is provided for overall understanding and as a resource for future treatment needs.







The Role of Some Vitamins and Minerals in the Body and Sources of Nutrients (Slide 1)

Nutrient	Its Role	Sources
Vitamin A	Required for maintenance of epithelial cells, mucous membranes, and skin. Essential for immune system function and resistance to infections. Ensures good vision. Needed for bone growth.	Full-cream milk (when fortified), cheese, butter, red palm oil, fish oil, eggs, liver, carrots, mangoes, papaya, pumpkin, dark green leafy vegetables, yellow sweet potatoes, avocado pear
Vitamin B₁/Thiamine	Used in energy metabolism. Supports appetite and central nervous system functions.	Whole grain cereals, meat, poultry, fish, liver, milk, eggs, oil, seeds, and legumes
Vitamin B ₂ /Riboflavin	Used in energy metabolism. Supports normal vision, health and integrity of skin.	Milk, eggs, liver, fish, yogurt, green leaves, whole-grained cereals, and legumes
Vitamin B ₃ /Niacin	Essential for energy metabolism. Supports health and integrity of skin, nervous and digestive system.	Milk, eggs, meat, poultry, fish, peanuts, whole-grained cereals, unbleached rice







The Role of Some Vitamins and Minerals in the Body and Sources of Nutrients (Slide 2)

Nutrient	Its Role	Sources
Vitamin B ₆	Facilitates metabolism and absorption of fats and proteins. Converts tryptophan to niacin, helps make red blood cells. Some TB drugs cause B ₆ deficiency.	Legumes (white beans), potatoes, meats, fish, poultry, shellfish, watermelon, oil seeds, maize, avocado, broccoli, green leafy vegetables Alcohol destroys B ₆
Folate (folic acid)	Required for synthesis of new cells, especially red blood cells and GI cells.	Liver, dark green leafy vegetables, fish, legumes, groundnuts, oil seeds
Vitamin B ₁₂	Required for synthesis of new cells, particularly red blood cells. Helps maintain nerve cells. Works together with folate.	Meat, fish, poultry, shellfish, cheese, eggs, milk
Vitamin C	Helps body use calcium and other nutrients to build bones, blood vessels. Increases non-heme iron absorption. Increases resistance to infection. Important for protein metabolism.	Fruits such as baobob, guava, oranges and lemons; cabbage, dark green leaves, tomatoes, peppers, potatoes, yams, cooking plantains, fresh milk Vitamin C is lost when food is cut up, heated, or left standing after cooking







The Role of Some Vitamins and Minerals in the Body and Sources of Nutrients (Slide 3)

Nutrient	Its Role	Sources
Vitamin D	Required for mineralization of bones and teeth	Produced by skin on exposure to sunshine; milk, butter, cheese, fatty fish, eggs, liver
Vitamin E	Acts as an antioxidant. Protects cell membranes and metabolism, especially red and white blood cells. Protects vitamin A and other fats from oxidation. Facilitates resistance against diseases, particularly in lungs.	Dark green leafy vegetables, vegetable oils, wheat germ, whole- grain products, butter, liver, egg yolk, peanuts, milk fat, nuts, seeds
Calcium	Required for strong bones and teeth. Important for normal heart and muscle functions, blood clotting and pressure, and immune defenses.	Milk, yogurt, cheese, green leafy vegetables, broccoli, dried fish with bones that are eaten, legumes, peas
Zinc	Important for function of many enzymes. Acts as an antioxidant. Involved with making genetic material and proteins, immune reactions, transport of vitamin A, taste perception, wound healing, and sperm production.	Meats, fish, poultry, shellfish, whole grain cereals, legumes, peanuts, milk, cheese, yogurt, vegetables







The Role of Some Vitamins and Minerals in the Body and Sources of Nutrients (Slide 4)

Nutrient	Its Role	Sources
Selenium	Acts as an antioxidant together with vitamin E. Prevents impairment of heart muscles.	Meat, eggs, seafood, whole grains, plants grown in selenium rich soil
Magnesium	Important for building strong bones and teeth, protein synthesis, muscle contraction, transmission of nerve impulses.	Nuts, legumes, whole grain cereals, dark green vegetables, seafood
lodine	Ensures development and proper functioning of the brain and nervous system. Important for growth, development, metabolism.	Seafood, iodized salt, plants grown in iodine-rich soil
Iron	Required to make hemoglobin for red blood cells and to transport oxygen from lungs to cells. Acts as antioxidant. Required for utilization of energy and cell metabolism.	High absorption sources: red meat, liver, fish, poultry, shellfish Low absorption sources: eggs, legumes, peanuts, some cereals and dried fruits







Good Hygiene/Safe Food-Handling (Slide 1)

- Always wash hands thoroughly before food preparation and eating and after using the bathroom
- Keep all food-preparation surfaces clean and use clean utensils to prepare and serve foods
- Cook food thoroughly, especially meat and fish
- Avoid contact between raw foods and cooked foods
- Use methods that preserve or improve nutrients (minimal cooking with lid on pot, cut large pieces, proper storage, germination/fermentation of seeds, etc.)







Good Hygiene/Safe Food-Handling (Slide 2)

- Serve food immediately after cooking and avoid storing cooked foods
- Wash fruits and vegetables before serving
- Use safe water that is boiled or filtered Use clean cups and bowls
- Protect foods from insects, rodents, and other animals
- Store nonperishable foods in a safe place (away from pesticides and other toxic chemicals)
- Drink clean water (water that has boiled for at least one minute)







Patient Education on Management of Nutritional Issues (Slide 1)

General tips:

- Eat the colors of the rainbow (choose foods that are a variety of colors to get the most nutrients)
- Eat daily from the six food groups: staple foods, fats and oils, legumes, fruits, vegetables, and food from animals
- Try to eat regular meals even if not hungry
- Be mindful of dietary restrictions on medications
- Drink plenty of clean water and fluids (real fruit juices and herbals teas can be beneficial)







Patient Education on Management of Nutritional Issues (Slide 2)

Poor appetite

- Eat small, frequent meals and nourishing snacks
- Eat favorite foods
- Select recipes that combine foods to give a more nutrient-dense composition (high in protein, vitamins, minerals)
- Avoid strong-smelling foods

Change of or loss of taste

- Use flavor enhancers such as lemon, salt, or spices
- Chew food well and move around in the mouth to stimulate taste receptors







Patient Education on Management of Nutritional Issues (Slide 3)

Early fullness

Eat small, frequent meals

Abdominal pain

Get medical evaluation

Nausea/vomiting

- Eat small, frequent meals
- Avoid having an empty stomach
- Drink after meals and limit intake of fluids with meals
- Avoid lying down directly after eating
- Eat lightly salty and dry foods to calm the stomach







Patient Education on Management of Nutritional Issues (Slide 4)

Flatulence

Avoid gas-forming foods such as cabbage, beans, or cauliflower

Constipation

- Eat foods high in fiber
- Drink plenty of liquids
- Avoid processed or refined foods
- Exercise as much as possible

Diarrhea

- Drink plenty of fluids
- Continue to eat and drink
- Avoid fried foods
- Drink rehydration solution regularly







Nutrition and HIV exercise

- Discuss the following case study with a colleague
- Mary M is a 25-year-old woman who was infected with HIV 5 years ago She has had a 15 kilo weight loss over the past 6 months She reports chronic nausea, diarrhea and low appetite
 - How would you assess Mary's nutritional status?
 - What interventions would you suggest?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 8: Prevention within Care







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Discuss why prevention within care is important
- List some important patient education messages for prevention within care
- Discuss some strategies for the nurse and facility in terms of prevention within care
- Use patient education messages in role-play activities around prevention within care







Prevention within Care (Slide 1)

- Prevention has traditionally focused on preventing new HIV infections
- Integrating prevention messages and discussion is also an important part of comprehensive care of PLHA







Prevention within Care (Slide 2)

- The one-on-one interaction nurses have with their patients provide an excellent opportunity for education and counseling that is delivered quickly
- Prevention naturally fits into adherence counseling sessions and other clinical protocols







Prevention for Positives

- Provide education and support for positive patients to
 - Prevent new transmission of HIV virus
 - Prevent reinfection
 - Prevent other sexually transmitted diseases
 - Make informed decisions about health choices affected by HIV status, including contraception and pregnancy







Patient Education Messages

- These basic messages should be included in patient education
 - Avoiding risky behaviors is the best way to prevent spreading HIV to others
 - If a woman becomes pregnant, she should seek healthcare
 - HIV can still be transmitted even though someone is taking ART







Prevention Strategies for Patients

- Remain faithful in current relationship
- Use condoms
- Abstain from sex
- Do not share needles or supplies when using IV drugs
- During pregnancy, take ART and follow advice regarding infant feeding to reduce the chance of passing HIV from a mother to child







Facility-Based Methods (Slide 1)

- Nurses can work to integrate the following strategies into their facility
 - Integrate prevention discussions and education in all clinical encounters
 - At primary level, discuss safer sex behaviors during regular postnatal follow-up visits
 - At secondary level, institute prevention discussion prior to discharge as part of discharge instructions from the facility
 - Provide access to condoms and demonstrate their proper use/disposal







Facility-Based Methods (Slide 2)

Methods, continued

- Create proactive, functional referral systems to counseling and testing (CT), prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT), and other services
- Provide counseling and assistance in notification/disclosure
- Educate other healthcare providers on prevention messages







Provider-Based Methods (Slide 1)

- Nurses maintain a dialogue with positive patients about prevention knowledge and plans
 - Discuss prevention at each visit
 - Assist patients to identify ways to reduce risks in their own lives
 - Use a nonjudgmental, open attitude with patients







Provider-Based Methods (Slide 2)

- Discussing prevention with HIV-positive patients provides opportunities for nurses to
 - Identify and correct misconceptions about HIV transmission
 - Identify areas in which patient may need assistance and refer them as appropriate
 - Screen for STIs and injection drug use







Examples of Messages/Dialogues (Slide 1)

- Some people believe that once they are on ART they cannot transmit the virus to others. What is your understanding?
- Tell me how you plan on preventing the transmission of HIV to others.







Examples of Messages/Dialogues (Slide 2)

- Are you sexually active, and if so, how have you been preventing transmitting HIV to your partners?"
- How often do you use condoms when you have sex?
- For women, there is a risk of transmission of HIV to unborn babies. If you are pregnant or plan on becoming pregnant, it is important to discuss it with us.







Prevention within care exercise

- Participate in the following role play with a colleague.
- After 10 minutes has passed, switch roles.
 - Patient: Simon Z. is a 22-year-old unmarried man. He is planning on starting ART and has come for a pre-treatment counseling session.
 - Nurse: This is your first meeting with Simon. Discuss how to prevent transmitting the virus to others with him.







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 9: Antiretroviral Therapy (ART)







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Understand how ARVs work
- List goals of ART therapy
- Discuss the general benefits and challenges in the use of ARVs
- Be familiar with the schedule and side effects associated with first-line ART drugs
- List symptoms that should be referred to the physician
- Apply the topics in case studies







What is ART? (Slide 1)

- ART (antiretroviral therapy) is a combination of drugs used to treat patients with HIV
- ART does not completely destroy the virus or cure the disease
- ART reduces the amount of the virus in the body (viral load) by stopping it from multiplying







What is ART? (Slide 2)

- With less virus in the body the immune system can become stronger and fight infections better so the patient will get sick less often
- Based on current knowledge, once a person is taking ART, he or she must continue to take it for the rest of his or her life
- ART drugs must never be shared with others







How Does ART Work?

- The drugs work by making it difficult for the virus to multiply
- Different types of ART drugs (classes) work in different ways
- A combination of several classes should be used to reduce the level of virus in the blood and prevent development of resistance to the medications
- Standard combinations (first-line/second-line) of the drugs are used







CD4 cells, HIV and ART

- When on ART
 - The amount of virus in the blood decreases
 - The number of CD4 cells increase







Who Needs to Take ART?

- Not all people with HIV need to take ART
- ART should start when the virus has damaged the immune system to a certain level
 - Damage is determined by whether a patient has developed certain infections and by measuring CD4 cells
 - Blood tests also determine whether patient has anemia or liver disease
 - With this information, it is possible to know if the patient would benefit from ART
 - This decision is made with the patient and includes whether or not patient is ready to start ART







Eligibility Criteria

- Eligibility criteria for ART may exist such as
 - Social criteria (e.g., living in catchment area of clinic)
 - Clinical criteria (e.g., existence of certain infections)
 - Laboratory criteria (e.g., CD4 or TLC counts)
- The eligibility criteria for a certain country should be included in the national guidelines for ART and health facility standard operating procedures







ART

- The drugs have side effects and can cause shortand long-term problems
- Patients must take 100 percent of doses for the drugs to work effectively
- If drugs are not taken properly, the virus may become resistant to them and they will stop working







Readiness to start ART exercise

With a colleague discuss the following case study

- You are a nurse working with a patient who is taking ART. The patient's sister tells you she just tested positive and that she heard of ART and thinks that she should also start taking ART.
 - How would you explain what ART is to her?
 - How would you describe to her how ART works?
 - What would you tell her about when the body is ready for ART?
 - What would you suggest she do?







Five Goals of ART

- Decrease the amount of virus in the blood
- Support and help the immune system
- Improve quality of life
- Reduce HIV-related illness and death
- Possibly reduce transmission of HIV to others







Goals of Therapy (Slide 1)

Goal #1: Decrease the amount of virus in the blood

- The goal is to reduce the amount of virus so that it cannot be found in the blood (it's still there, but not enough to be measurable)
- Blood tests measure the amount of virus in the blood (viral load tests), but they are not yet widely available due to their cost and complexity







Goals of Therapy (Slide 2)

Goal #2: Support and help the immune system

- When the patient is on ART, the immune system should get stronger, as measured by an increased CD4 cell count
- The immune system can then fight infections better
- With ART, the patient should get sick less frequently and sicknesses should be less severe
- If the patient is already sick with Ols, the course of the infection may be shortened or made less severe with ART







Goals of Therapy (Slide 3)

- Goal #3: Improve the quality of life
 - When taking ART, patients often gain weight, have less fatigue, and generally feel better
 - They often can return to work and other usual activities
 - Hope is restored







Goals of Therapy (Slide 4)

- Goal #4: Reduce HIV-related illness and death
 - Taking ART usually slows or stops the progression of HIV disease
 - Development of new OIs is unlikely and patients are less likely to require hospitalization or to die from AIDS
 - ART has been shown to benefit both adults and children







Goals of Therapy (Slide 5)

- Goal #5: Possibly reduce transmission of HIV to others
 - People on ART can still transmit the virus to others, but ART decreases the amount of virus in the blood, and people are less likely to transmit HIV if they have a lower level of virus in their blood
 - ART has been shown to decrease risk of mother-to-child transmission of HIV
 - There is still a need to take steps to prevent transmission (e.g., by using latex condoms)







Goals of ART exercise

- As a group discuss the following
 - Five goals of ART have been mentioned
 - With the five goals in mind, how would you tell the patient what they can hope to achieve by taking ART?







Antiretroviral Treatment

ADVANTAGES

EFFICACY—it works

INCONVENIENCES/ CHALLENGES

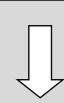
High level of adherence required

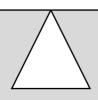
Needs to be taken for a lifetime

Side effects/toxicities

Drug interactions

High cost













Advantages of ART

If If taken correctly

- ART allows people to live longer and resume their usual activities
- ART helps the body become healthier—as the immune system becomes stronger, it is better able to fight infections
 - The patient will have fewer and less severe Ols
 - The patient will have fewer hospitalizations
- ART decreases the risk of, but does not prevent, transmission of HIV







Inconveniences and Challenges of ART (Slide 1)

- Adherence: The drugs need to be taken correctly (take all of the pills on time for a lifetime)
- Side effects/toxicities: The drugs have side effects that range from minor (nausea) to major (liver damage)
 - These side effects vary from drug to drug
 - Some can be managed at home and some require medical attention
 - Some happen after the drugs are started and some after taking the drugs for months or years
- Adherence and side effects will be explored further in later sessions







Inconveniences/Challenges of ART (Slide 2)

- Dosing can be complicated
- Cost may be high, and can include non-drug costs, such as the cost of traveling to the medical facility for regular monitoring visits
- Stigma: taking ART may identify the patient as being HIV-positive
- Regular medical care is needed







Advantages and challenges of ART exercise

- Discuss the following case study with a colleague
 - A friend who has HIV tells you she has just heard about a "wonder drug" called ART that cures HIV
 - What would you tell her about the benefits and challenges of ART?







Classes of ART Drugs (Slide 1)

- There are several types (classes) of ART drugs
 - Nucleoside (and nucleotide) reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs)
 - Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs)
 - Protease inhibitors (PIs)
 - Fusion inhibitors
- A patient needs to take at least three drugs—from at least two classes—in combination to reduce the viral load and prevent emergence of resistance
 - Patients may take several different pills or one pill that contains several different drugs







Classes of ART Drugs (Slide 2)

- Standard combinations exist (called first line and second line)
- Patients are initially prescribed a three-drug combination as first-line therapy
- The doctor decides which combination will be best for the patient depending on certain issues, including pregnancy and TB
- If the first-line drugs do not work or the patient has bad side effects, the drugs can be changed. Either one drug in the combination can be changed or the second-line therapy can be prescribed







How the Classes of ART Drugs Work (Slide 1)

- Nucleoside (and nucleotide) reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTIs)
 - NRTIs inhibit the transcription (change) of viral RNA into DNA, thereby interfering with viral replication
- Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NNRTIs)
 - NNRTIs also inhibit the transcription of viral RNA into DNA, but they are chemically different than NRTIs







How the Classes of ART Drugs Work (Slide 2)

Protease inhibitors (PIs)

- Pls block protease, an enzyme that HIV requires for replication
 - The protease enzyme is responsible for cutting long amino acid chains into smaller proteins

Fusion inhibitors

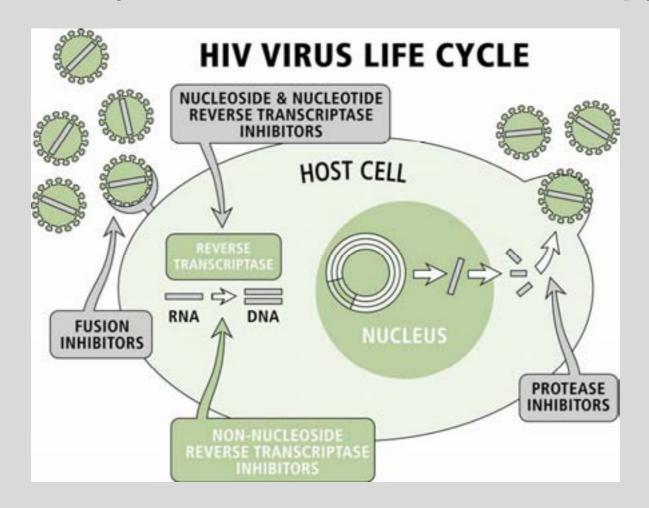
- Fusion inhibitors disrupt the interaction between the HIV virus and the cell surface, preventing the fusion of the HIV virus to the cell
- These drugs are not widely available and cannot be taken by mouth







HIV Life Cycle and Antiretroviral Therapy









How the Classes of ART Drugs Work (Slide 3)

- ARVs interfere with the HIV lifecycle at different phases
- Using several drugs (that work in different ways) increases the probability that the virus's ability to replicate will be prevented
- Basic patient education message: To effectively reduce the virus in the blood, patients must take several drugs







ART Combinations (Slide 1)

- As stated previously, patients are initially prescribed a three-drug (first-line) combination
- If the patient has an adverse reaction to a drug in that combination, one drug can be changed (usually replaced by a drug in the same class)







ART Combinations (Slide 2)

- If a patient develops Ols or other HIV-related conditions, or has a decreasing CD4 count after starting ART
 - It is likely that treatment failure has occurred
 - In this case, the entire regimen of drugs should be stopped and the patient should be started on a combination of three new drugs (second-line regimen), which usually includes one drug from a class that the patient has not been on before







ART combinations (Slide 3)

- The first- and second-line combinations are chosen by the national MOH for the following reasons
 - The drugs have proven to be clinically effective
 - The drugs are of sufficient potency to have the desired effect
 - Few side effects exist
 - Patient has to take as few pills as few times per day
 - The drugs can withstand environmental changes (i.e., hot/cold)







Break







ARV Drugs

NRTIs	NNRTIs	Pls
Zidovudine (AZT) Lamivudine (3TC) Stavudine (d4T) Didanosine (ddl) Abacavir (ABC) Tenofovir (TDF) Emtricitabine (FTC)	Nevirapine (NVP) Efavirenz (EFV)	Lopinavir + ritonavir (LPV/r)—(also known as Kaletra/Aluvia) Saquinavir + ritonavir (SQV/r) Nelfinavir (NFV)







First-Line Regimens

- Typical first-line regimens
 - one drug from group A and
 - one combination from group B

A: NNRTIs	B: NRTIs
Efavirenz OR Nevirapine	Zidovudine + Lamivudine OR Stavudine +Lamivudine







Second-Line Regimens

- Typical second-line regimens
 - one-drug/combination from group A and
 - one combination from group B

A: Pls	B: NRTIs
OR	Tenofovir + Didanosine or Abacavir OR Lamivudine + Zidouvudine







Fixed-Drug Combinations

One pill contains multiple drugs:

- ZDV/3TC (Combivir)
- d4T/3TC (Lamivir-S)
- ZDV/3TC/NVP (Duovir-N)
- d4T/3TC/NVP (Triomune 30 or 40)
- Lopinavir/Ritonavir (LPV/r) = Kaletra/Aluvia
- TDF/FTC (Truvada)
- TDF/FTC/EFV (Atripla)







For Patients with Both HIV and TB

- Patients with TB have special concerns (such as drug interactions), so there are special first-line ART regimens for patients with both HIV and TB
 - Stavudine (D4T) (NRTI) + Lamivudine (3TC) (NRTI) + Efavirenz (EFV) (NNRTI)
 OR
 - Zidovudine (ZDV) (NRTI) + Lamivudine (3TC) (NRTI) + Efavirenz (EFV) (NNRTI)
 OR
 - Tenofovir (TDF)(NRTI) + Lamivudine (3TC)(NRTI)OR
 - Emtricitabine (FTC)(NRTI) + Efavirenz (EFV)(NNRTI)







NRTIs (Nucleoside and Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors)

Dosing and primary side effects







Stavudine

- Stavudine (d4T, Zerit), nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: > 60 kg—40 mg every 12 hours OR
- < 60 kg—30 mg every 12 hours
 - PEDIATRIC: 1 mg/kg every 12 hours
- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Pain/numbness/tingling in hands and feet
 - Abdominal pain
 - Loss of fat in face, arms, legs
 - Nausea/vomiting/diarrhea







Lamivudine

- Lamivudine (3TC, Epivir), nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 150 mg every 12 hours
 - PEDIATRIC: Child: 4mg/kg every 12 hours

Neonatal: 2 mg/kg every 12 hours

- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Generally well tolerated/minimal side effects







Zidovudine

- Zidovudine (AZT, Retrovir), nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 300 mg every 12 hours
 - PEDIATRIC: Child: 180 mg/m3 every 12 hours OR
 - 90-180 mg/m3 every 8 hours, Neonatal: 2 mg/m3 every 6 hours
- Take with or without food (decreased GI side effects if taken with food)
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - GI intolerance (nausea, vomiting, abdominal discomfort)
 - Muscle pains, fatigue
 - Lightheadedness, headache
 - Anemia
 - Insomnia







Abacavir (ABC)

- Abacavir (ABC), nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 300 mg twice daily or 600mg once daily
 - PEDIATRIC: <16 years or <37.5 kg: 8 mg/kg/dose given twice daily
 Maximum dose: >16 years or >37.5 kg: 300 mg/dose given twice daily
- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Potential hypersensitivity reaction with respiratory symptoms, fever and without mucosal involvement—discontinue ABC and do not restart if hypersensitivity reaction occurs
 - Nausea/vomiting/diarrhea
 - Malaise
 - Headache
 - Anorexia







Tenofovir

- Tenofovir (Viread, TDF), nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 300 mg once daily
 - PEDIATRIC: not recommended for use by pediatric patients
- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Nausea/vomiting/diarrhea/flatulence
 - Loss of fat in the face, arms, legs
 - Osteopenia
 - Renal insufficiency
 - Lactic acidosis







Emtricitabine

- Emtricitabine (Emtriva, FTC), nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 200 mg once daily
 - PEDIATRIC (3 months of age or older): 4 mg per kilogram (if liquid used, dose should not exceed 240 mg per day, if capsules are used, the dose should not exceed 200 mg per day)
- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Generally well tolerated
- Primary side effects:
 - Headache
 - Diarrhea, nausea
 - Rash
 - Lactic acidosis with hepatic steatosis
 - Liver damage (jaundice/abdominal pain)
 - Hyperpigmentation on hands/soles of feet







Didanosine

- Didanosine, nucleotide reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: >60 kg: 400 mg once daily
 - <60 kg: 250 mg once daily
 - PEDIATRIC: <3 months: 50 mg/m²/dose twice daily
 - 3 months to <13 years: 90-120 mg/m²/dose twice daily
 - >13 years or >60 kg: 200 mg/dose twice daily or 400 mg once daily
- Take buffered ddl on an empty stomach
- In children may not need to be taken on an empty stomach
- Storage: Room temperature for tablets and capsules
- Oral solution for children stable after reconstituted for 30 days if refrigerated
- Primary side effects:
 - Gl intolerance with buffered tablets (taste changes, nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, diarrhea)
 - Peripheral neuropathy
 - Acute pancreatitis
 - Hepatitis







NNRTIs (Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors)

Dosing and primary side effects







Nevirapine

- Nevirapine (NVP), non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: First 14 days: 200 mg once daily. If no major side effects:
 Then, 200 mg every 12 hours
 - PEDIATRIC: First 14 days: 120 mg/m3 once daily. If no major side effects: Then, 120-200 mg/m3 every 12 hours.
- Take with or without food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Rash—can be life threatening (usually during first 8 weeks of treatment)
 - Liver damage (jaundice/abdominal pain)







Efavirenz

- Efavirenz (EFV), non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 600 mg at bedtime
 - PEDIATRIC: more than 3 years old or more than 10 kg depending on weight
- Take with or without food, but eat a low-fat meal if taken with food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Take at bedtime
- Primary side effects:
 - Dizziness, mild disorientation (initial 2-4 weeks)
 - Abnormal dreams (initial 2-4 weeks)
 - Rash
- AVOID PREGNANCY







Pls (Protease Inhibitors)

Dosing and primary side effects







Lopinavir/Ritonavir (Slide 1)

- Lopinavir/ritonavir (LPV/r), protease inhibitor
 - Formulation contains both drugs
- Available in capsules, tablets or liquid
- Adult dosing depends on formulation/treatment experience

Capsules	Tablets
3 capsules twice daily	Treatment naïve: 2 tabs twice daily
4 capsules twice daily when combined with EFV or NVP	Treatment experienced: 3 tabs twice daily when combined with EFV or NVP







Lopinavir/Ritonavir (Slide 2)

- Children's dosing (with liquid formulation) depends on weight
- Take capsules with food; tablets can be taken without food
- Oral solution has bitter taste
- Storage: capsules stable for 30 days at room temperature
- Refrigerate capsules for long term storage
- Oral solution is preferably refrigerated, but can be stored at room temperature up to 25° C for 2 months
- Heat stable tablets can be stored at room temperature
- Primary side effects
 - Abnormal stools/diarrhea/nausea/vomiting
 - Feeling weak/tired
 - Liver disease (jaundice/abdominal pain)
 - Pancreatitis (nausea/vomiting/abdominal pain, especially after eating)
 - Diabetes/hyperglycemia







Saquinavir

- Saquinavir (SQV), protease inhibitor
 - Taken together ("boosted") with Rintonavir
- Dosing:
 - ADULT: 1000 mg to be taken with 100 mg of Ritonavir twice daily
 - PEDIATRIC: 33 mg/kilogram 3 times per day
- Take with food
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Nausea/vomiting/diarrhea (short term)
 - Malaise (short term)
 - Headache
 - Hyperlipidemia
 - Hyperglycemia
 - Fat distribution changes







Indinavir/Ritonavir

- Indinavir/ritonavir (IDV/r), protease inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULTS: 800 mg taken with 100 mg of Ritonavir every 12 hours
 - With or without food (Note: If Indinavir is unboosted, take 1 hour before or 2 hours after meal, or take with a light, low-fat meal)
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Nephrolithiasis with or without hematuria (patient should drink at least 48 oz of fluid daily)
 - Alopecia
 - Dry skin, mouth and eyes (common)
 - Class adverse effects: lipodystrophy, insulin-resistant hyperglycemia, hyperlipidemia
 - Nausea/epigastric distress







Nelfinavir

- Nelfinavir (NFV), protease inhibitor
- Dosing:
 - ADULTS: 1250 mg twice daily
 - PEDIATRIC: <10 kg: 75 mg/kg/dose twice daily
 - >10 kg to 19.9 kg: 60 mg/kg/dose twice daily
 - >20 kg: maximum recommended dose of 1250 mg/dose twice daily
- Take with food (especially fatty food)
- Tablets may be halved or crushed and dispersed in water or on a small amount of food and immediately ingested
- Storage: Room temperature
- Primary side effects:
 - Diarrhea
 - Class adverse effects: lipodystrophy, increased levels of cholesterol and/or triglycerides, hyperglycemia







Ritonavir

- Ritonavir (RTV), protease inhibitor
 - Used in small doses to "boost" other Pls
- Dosing:
 - ADULTS: 100 mg once or twice daily (when taken with Saquinavir)
 - PEDIATRICS: dosing depends on weight
- Take with food
- Storage: Stable at room temperature for 30 days
- Room temperature for oral solution
- Primary side effects:
 - Nausea/vomiting/diarrhea (short term)
 - Paresthesias (hands, feet or mouth)
 - Fat distribution changes
 - Hyperlipidemia
 - Hyperglycemia







Side Effects

- All medicines can potentially cause side effects
- Most patients do not experience all side effects
- Side effects are a concern because
 - They can interfere with drug adherence
 - They can lessen quality of life
 - They can cause long-term health conditions
 - They can be life-threatening (in rare cases)
- More information on side effects of ART is in session 13







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 10: Special Issues for Childbearing Women







Objectives

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - List issues relating to HIV and pregnancy and the use of ART during pregnancy
 - Understand prevention of mother-to-child transmission
 - Understand the current recommendations on HIV and infant feeding
 - Discuss the follow-up of mothers and babies after birth relating to HIV







Special Issues for Childbearing Women (Slide 1)

- Women are more vulnerable than men to becoming infected with HIV for a variety of reasons:
 - Higher risk of transmission from male to female during intercourse
 - Social norms
 - Economic dependence
 - Sexual coercion
 - Violence







Special Issues for Childbearing Women (Slide 2)

- Many women find out they are HIV-positive when they are tested during pregnancy
- Others know they have HIV and want to or become pregnant
- HIV can be passed on to a baby during pregnancy, birth, or breastfeeding. Transmission is thought to happen most commonly during delivery
 - The risk of transmission without PMTCT is about 30–40 percent
 - Children who are not infected with HIV, but are born to mothers who are infected with HIV, face 2–5 times the risk of illness when compared to children born to HIV-negative mothers







Special Issues for Childbearing Women (Slide 3)

- The use of ART during pregnancy can reduce the risk of transmission to the fetus
- Following guidance about infant feeding can also reduce risk of transmission
- When working with HIV-infected patients who are pregnant or may become pregnant, nurses should
 - Be sensitive and nonjudgmental
 - Understand the issues
 - Be able to educate patients about them







How HIV Affects Pregnancy (Slide 1)

Mother's health

- According to current knowledge, pregnancy does not accelerate
 HIV disease
- It the mother is in the asymptomatic phase and has not been tested, she may not know her child is at risk of contracting HIV







How HIV Affects Pregnancy (Slide 2)

- Mother's health, continued
 - Pregnant women (not on ART) with HIV should be treated for common OIs and conditions the same as nonpregnant women (except drugs should be carefully chosen and monitored)







How HIV Affects Pregnancy (Slide 3)

Baby's health

- In the later stages of HIV infection, the virus can contribute to poor fetal growth, low birth weight, or prenatal or neonatal death
- ART (especially EFV) used in the first trimester may cause birth defects







HIV-Infected Women Not on ART Who Become Pregnant

- Determine if she is eligible for ART
- Weigh risks and benefits of starting ART
- Consider delaying initiation of ART until after first 10 weeks of pregnancy to reduce risks of birth defects
- If the woman is severely ill, the risks of delaying ART to her may outweigh the risks to the fetus
- If the pregnant woman is not ready to begin ART, refer her to a PMTCT program







HIV-Infected Women on ART Who Become Pregnant

Options

- Temporarily stop ART during first trimester
- Continue same therapy
- Change to a different regimen (if current regimen contains EFV)

Consider

- Gestation of the pregnancy
- Severity of maternal disease
- Tolerance of regimen in pregnancy
- Potential for adverse effects to fetus







Factors That May Increase Risk of MTCT (Slide 1)

- High maternal viral load
- Recurrent STDs
- Malaria infection
- Vitamin A deficiency
- Preterm delivery
- Vaginal delivery







Factors That May Increase Risk of MTCT (Slide 2)

- Rupture of membranes >4 hours
- Placental disruption
- Invasive procedures during delivery (use of forceps, etc.)
- Mechanical nasal suction after delivery
- Breastfeeding (especially mixed feeding)







Factors That May Decrease Risk of MTCT (Slide 1)

During pregnancy

- Establish HIV status through voluntary counseling and testing
- Refer to PMTCT services
- Diagnose and treat STDs, malaria, and other infections
- Provide basic antenatal care including
 - Iron supplements
 - Education about MTCT and infant feeding options
 - Risk reduction/safer sex measures







Factors That May Decrease Risk of MTCT (Slide 2)

During labor and delivery

- Cesarean section delivery reduces risks
- Delay rupturing membranes (ROM)
- Do only minimal digital examinations after ROM
- Cleanse vagina with viricides if available (e.g., 0.25% chlorhexidine on admission and every 4 hours to delivery)
- Reduce use of forceps
- Reduce use of episiotomy
- If not already on ART, give NVP according to national guidelines







Factors That May Decrease Risk of MTCT (Slide 3)

After birth

- Avoid mechanical nasal suction.
- Clean newborn immediately of all maternal secretions and blood
- Educate mother on safer feeding options (info to follow)
- If breastfeeding, put infant to breast within 30 minutes of birth
- Educate mother on infant testing







Nursing Role

- The decision for an HIV-positive woman to become pregnant is complex and there are no general protocols
- Your role as a nurse is to provide the woman with the knowledge she needs to make an informed decision and support the decision she makes







Nursing Considerations: Assessment

For all women

- Assess
 - Intention to become pregnant and/or pregnancy status
 - Use of contraceptives
 - Eligibility for ART according to national guidelines
 - Woman's understanding of her reproductive cycle
 - Screen for STDs
 - Screen for malaria







Nursing Considerations: Interventions (Slide 1)

- For pregnant women: refer to PMTCT, start ART if eligible, treat STDS, malaria, and any other infections, counsel on prevention
- In hospital (for those who have just delivered):
 administer PMTCT drugs (according to protocol),
 counsel on infant feeding, postnatal/pediatric followup and prevention, refer to other resources as
 needed







Nursing Considerations: Interventions (Slide 2)

- For those intending to become pregnant, provide counseling on
 - HIV and HIV transmission
 - HIV and pregnancy
 - ART (if needed) during pregnancy
 - PMTCT
 - The reproductive cycle
 - STDs







Nursing Considerations: Interventions (Slide 3)

- If the woman is taking ART and wants to become pregnant, advise her to
 - Take ART for six months with 100 percent adherence but avoid EFV
 - Continue on co-trimoxazole prophylaxis (if taking)
 - Monitor reproductive cycle to determine when ovulation occurs (usually +/- 7 to 10 days)
 - Continue to use safer sex practices
 - After six months (if she is in good clinical condition), engage in unprotected sex around time of ovulation only
 - Use safer sex practices when not around time of ovulation
 - Return for regular follow-up visits
- If she becomes pregnant
 - Return to safer sex practices
 - Seek antenatal care (including PMTCT)







Nursing Considerations: Interventions (Slide 4)

- If a woman is not taking ART and wants to become pregnant
 - Continue on co-trimoxazole prophylaxis (if taking)
 - Monitor reproductive cycle to determine when ovulation occurs (usually +/– 7 to 10 days)
 - Engage in unprotected sex around the time of ovulation only
 - Use safer sex practices when not around time of ovulation
 - Return for regular follow-ups
- If she becomes pregnant
 - Return to safer sex practices
 - Seek antenatal care, including PMTCT







HIV and Childbearing Women Exercise (Slide 1)

- Together with two colleagues, role play the following scenario. One person will play the patient, one will be the nurse, and one will observe.
 - Lois is a 27-year-old married woman who has been HIV positive for 2 years. She has a history of oral candidiasis, a 5 kg weight loss over the past year, and chronic diarrhea. Her last CD4 was 550 and she is not on ART.







HIV and Childbearing Women Exercise (Slide 2)

- Lois tells the nurse she wants to get pregnant. She asks how having HIV would affect her ability to have a healthy baby. She has heard many rumors about how to prevent her baby from having HIV and asks how to do it.
- Nurse: Provide the necessary nursing assessment and interventions for Lois. Include counseling Lois on how HIV can affect pregnancy, the transmission of HIV from mother to child, and guidance on getting pregnant.







HIV and childbearing women exercise (Slide 3)

Observer

- How thorough was the assessment?
- Were there any interventions that were not included?
- Did the nurse give all information to Lois?
- Was the information given in a fashion that most patients would understand?
- Did Lois demonstrate understanding of the information?







Safer Infant Feeding

- WHO/UNAIDS/UNICEF recommend that women with HIV infection be fully informed of both risks and benefits of breastfeeding and supported in their choice of feeding practice
- When replacement feeding is acceptable, avoidance of breastfeeding by HIV-positive mothers is recommended; otherwise exclusive breastfeeding is recommended for the first six months, followed by abrupt weaning. Adequate milk substitutes and nourishing complementary foods are essential to prevent malnutrition during weaning.







Breastfeeding Risks

- HIV can be transmitted via breast milk
- The risk exists as long as the infant is breastfeeding
- Mixed feeding (breast milk plus other substances water, cow's milk, formula, food, etc.) has a higher risk of transmission than exclusive breastfeeding.
- Mastitis can increase the risk of transmission.







Breastfeeding Benefits

- The baby's immune system is boosted by maternal antibodies
- Breast milk provides good nutrition
- Breastfeeding improves bonding between mother and baby
- Breastfeeding promotes child spacing
- Breast milk helps prevent other infections (besides HIV) in already infected children







Patient Education on Breastfeeding (Slide 1)

- Do not give baby any other fluids or foods (including water), except medicine prescribed by a nurse or doctor
- Ensure your baby is well positioned (areola visible, mouth wide open, chin touching the breast) to prevent sores/cracking
- Hold baby close to you with his/her back straight







Patient Education on Breastfeeding (Slide 2)

- Feed as often and as long as the baby wants, at least 8 times in 24 hours
- Let the baby finish one breast and come off on his/her own before offering the other breast
- Check for sores in baby's mouth and get them treated immediately
- Get treatment immediately for swollen, red, or painful breast; do not feed baby from this breast
- Stop breastfeeding and offer substitutes/food after six months







Patient Education on Cup Feeding

- Wash hands
- Mix formula or evaporated milk with clean (boiled for 1 to 2 seconds, then cooled)
- Make enough for one feeding at a time (baby has had enough when he/she closes mouth and does not take any more)
- Feed child with a clean cup
- Discard unused formula/milk, give it to an older child, or drink it yourself







Adherence to ART

- Pregnancy/childbirth may pose an additional challenge to adherence for women on ART
 - During pregnancy, nausea and fatigue may interfere with taking ART on time
 - After birth, fatigue and stress may also interfere with taking ART on time
 - Women may need additional adherence support to recognize that maintaining her own health is important for both her and her family







Postpartum Nursing Considerations

Assess

- Frequency and duration of breastfeeding
- If using breast milk substitute, assess availability, affordability, feasibility: these can be formula milks, modified full cream milk powder, or cow's or goat's milk

Intervene

- Educate about and reinforce information on feeding, including preparation of nutritionally adequate complementary foods, quantities to give, and frequency of feeding
- Treat infections
- Refer to support for breast milk substitute







Infant feeding exercise (Slide 1)

- Playing the same roles within your groups, continue with the scenario
- Lois returns to the clinic after giving birth to a boy who she has been breastfeeding for 6 weeks.
- Nurse: evaluate Lois and provide the necessary postpartum nursing interventions for HIV+ women including counseling on infant feeding







Infant feeding exercise (Slide 2)

Observer

- How thorough was the assessment?
- Were there any interventions that were not included?
- Did the nurse give all information to Lois?
- Was the information given in a fashion that most patients would understand?
- Did Lois demonstrate understanding of the information?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 11: Special Issues in Pediatrics







Objectives (Slide 1)

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- List guidelines in caring for children with HIV
- Understand nursing management guidelines for pediatric HIV treatment
- Discuss the special challenges in ART treatment for children
- Discuss the pros and cons of disclosure of HIV status
- Describe some strategies to teach parents in giving medications to babies/toddlers and older children
- Describe some special adherence barriers for adolescents and strategies to deal with them
- Discuss issues related to pain management in children







Guidelines for Pediatrics (Slide 1)

- Confirm HIV status as soon as possible
- Monitor growth and development
- Ensure immunizations are started and finished on schedule
- Provide prophylaxis for TB and PCP
- Screen for and treat infections early
- Counsel on optimal infant feeding







Guidelines for Pediatrics (Slide 2)

- Counsel caregiver on personal and food hygiene to prevent common infections
- Counsel caregiver on clinical follow-up schedule
- Conduct disease staging
- Offer ART if needed
- Provide psychosocial support to families
- Refer to specialized health and community services if needed







Challenges in HIV Care for Pediatrics (Slide 1)

- Dependence on caregivers
- Difficulty for children of taking pills (e.g., learning to swallow pills)
- Fear of disclosure (to child and others)
- Cultural norms regarding children and medical care







Challenges in HIV Care for Pediatrics: (Slide 2)

- Liquid drug formulations
- Weight-based dosing: as weight increases, doses must be changed
- Cost: drugs are often more expensive than adult drugs
- Bad taste of liquid drugs
- Frequency of doses
- Food restrictions
- Drug storage (e.g., some drugs require refrigeration)







Infant Testing (Slide 1)

- Infants can carry maternal antibodies in their blood for up to 18 months
 - The standard tests for HIV use the presence of antibodies to signify the presence of the virus
 - Therefore, if an infant exposed to HIV tests positive before 18 months of age using an antibody-based test, they should be retested after 18 months of age
 - A negative test result in a child under 18 months, who has never breastfed or was weaned at least 6 months previously, can be considered negative
- Virologic testing is reliable (at any time), but expensive and not widely available







Infant Testing (Slide 2)

To summarize

- Before 18 months
 - A negative test result means the baby does not have HIV (if he or she has never breastfed or has been weaned for six months or more)
 - A positive test result means that the baby may have HIV and must be tested again after 18 months
- After 18 months
 - A negative test result means the baby does not have HIV
 - A positive test result means the baby does have HIV







When to Suspect HIV

- If a child is too young for reliable testing, some signs or conditions can indicate HIV
- Differentiate between the signs/conditions
 - Very specific to HIV infection
 - Common to HIV-infected children and uncommon in uninfected children
 - Common to HIV-infected children and uninfected children







Very Specific to HIV Infection

- Pneumocystis pneumonia
- Esophageal candidasis
- Extrapulmonary cryptococcosis
- Invasive salmonella infection
- Lymphoid interstitial pneumonitis
- Herpes zoster (shingles) with multi-dermal involvement
- Kaposi's sarcoma
- Lymphoma







Common in HIV-Infected Children but Uncommon in Uninfected Children Children

- Severe/recurrent bacterial infections
- Persistent or recurrent oral thrush
- Bilateral painless parotid enlargement
- Generalized persistent non-inguinal lymphadenopathy
- Hepatosplenomegaly (in nonmalarial areas)
- Persistent/recurrent fever
- Neurologic dysfunction
- Herpes zoster (shingles) single dermatome
- Persistent generalized dermatitis (unresponsive to treatment)







Common in HIV-Infected and Uninfected Children

- Chronic, recurrent otitis with ear discharge
- Persistent or recurrent diarrhea
- Severe pneumonia
- TB
- Bronchiectasis
- Failure to thrive/marasmus







Infant Testing: Nursing Management

Assess

- Assess child for conditions that could indicate HIV
 - If experiencing symptoms, assess exposure to HIV

Intervene

- Counsel family/caregivers on testing
- Facilitate testing
- Interpret test results







Pediatric Assessment of HIV

- As with adults, WHO staging is a way of categorizing the status of children with HIV
- More information on WHO staging is included in session 2







WHO Staging: Nursing Management

Intervene

- Assist with clinical assessment for staging
- Counsel families on meaning of staging
- Provide appropriate nursing management for conditions experienced







WHO Clinical Stages 1 and 2 for Pediatrics

CLINICAL STAGE 1

Asymptomatic

Persistent generalized lymphadenopathy

CLINICAL STAGE 2

Unexplained persistent hepatosplenomegaly

Papular pruritic eruptions

Extensive wart virus infection

Extensive molluscum contagiosum

Fungal nail infections

Recurrent oral ulcerations

Unexplained persistent parotid enlargement

Lineal gingival erythema

Herpes zoster

Recurrent or chronic upper respiratory tract infections

(otitis media, otorrhoea, sinusitis or tonsillitis)

(WHO, 2006)







WHO Clinical Stage 3 for Pediatrics

CLINICAL STAGE 3

Unexplained moderate malnutrition not adequately responding to standard therapy

Unexplained persistent diarrhoea (14 days or more)

Unexplained persistent fever (above 37.5°C intermittent or constant,

for longer than one month)

Persistent oral candidiasis (after first 6-8 weeks of life)

Oral hairy leukoplakia

Acute necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis or periodontitis

Lymph node tuberculosis

Pulmonary tuberculosis

Severe recurrent bacterial pneumonia

Symptomatic lymphoid interstitial pneumonitis

Chronic HIV-associated lung disease including brochiectasis

Unexplained anaemia (<8 g/dl), neutropaenia (<0.5 x 10° per litre)

and or chronic thrombocytopaenia (<50 × 10° per litre)

(WHO, 2006)







WHO Clinical Stage 4 for Pediatrics

CLINICAL STAGE 4

Unexplained severe wasting, stunting or severe malnutrition not responding to standard therapy

Pneumocystis pneumonia

Recurrent severe bacterial infections (such as empyema, pyomyositis, bone or joint infection or meningitis but excluding pneumonia)

Chronic herpes simplex infection (orolabial or cutaneous of more

than one month's duration or visceral at any site)

Extrapulmonary tuberculosis

Kaposi sarcoma

Oesophageal candidiasis (or candidiasis of trachea, bronchi or lungs)

Central nervous system toxoplasmosis (after one month of life)

HIV encephalopathy

Cytomegalovirus infection: retinitis or cytomegalovirus infection affecting another organ, with onset at age older than one month

Extrapulmonary cryptococcosis (including meningitis)

Disseminated endemic mycosis (extrapulmonary histoplasmosis, coccidiomycosis)

Chronic cryptosporidiosis

Chronic isosporiasis

Disseminated non-tuberculous mycobacterial infection

Cerebral or B-cell non-Hodgkin lymphoma.

Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy

Symptomatic HIV-associated nephropathy or HIV-associated cardiomyopathy

(WHO, 2006)







Growth and Development

- Growth failure is more common in HIV-infected children than uninfected children
 - Low birth weight
 - HIV infection itself
 - Other underlying disease, such as TB
 - Inadequate nutrition







Growth and Development: Nursing Management (Slide 1)

Assess

- Baseline weight, full length/height, mid- and upper-arm circumference (and head circumference if child < 3 years old)
 - Measure height, weight, head circumference, and mid- and upper-arm circumference at each subsequent visit
- Record in chart
 - Document weight and length/height on the child growth card (e.g., NCHS standards)
- Evaluate child's progress







Growth and Development:Nursing Management (Slide 2)

Intervene

- Counsel families/caregivers on results
- Counsel families/caregivers on nutrition/hygiene
- Refer to food resources
- Treat infections promptly







Immunizations: Nursing Management

Assess

Child's immunization status

Intervene

- Give immunizations as ordered according to national guidelines with modifications for HIV
- Counsel families/caregivers on need for immunizations and symptoms for further assessment







Prophylaxis: Nursing Management (Slide 1)

- Co-trimoxazole (CTX) prophylaxis reduces risk of PCP, common bacterial infections, toxoplasmosis, and malaria
 - Give according to national guidelines
 - Starting at 4-6 weeks of age until HIV diagnosis is excluded
 - Isoniazid prophylaxis reduces the risk of TB if child is exposed

Assess

- Assess need for CTX
 - HIV-positive, suspected HIV-positive mother, or history of PCP
 - Children with any clinical signs or symptoms suggestive of HIV, regardless of age or CD4 count
- Assess need for INH (exposed to smear positive TB)







Prophylaxis: Nursing Management (Slide 3)

Intervene

- Counsel families/caregivers on need and use of drugs
- Teach caregivers about drug administration
- Assist caregivers to access drugs if needed







Other Infections: Nursing Management

- HIV-positive children are susceptible to common infections that may present or respond to treatment differently than in HIV-negative children
- Assess
 - Monitor for signs/symptoms of infections
- Intervene
 - Counsel families/caregivers on cause of infection and treatment
 - Teach them about drug administration and assist them in accessing the drugs







Common Conditions

- Otitis media
- Respiratory conditions including: bacterial pneumonia, PCP, and lymphoid interstitial pneumonitis (LIP)
- Diarrhea
- Anemia
- Oral candidiasis
- Dermatological conditions
- Neurologic conditions including HIV encephalopathy







Pediatric Otitis Media

- One of the most common infections in HIV-positive children
- Acute (<14 days) symptoms include irritability, pulling at ears, difficulty sleeping, excessive crying, and ear discharge
- Chronic infection may be asymptomatic but involve chronic ear discharge







Pediatric Otitis Media: Assessment at the Primary Level

- Duration of symptoms
- Discharge (quantity, color)
- Fever
- Irritability/pulling at ears
- Change in sleep habits
- Appearance of eardrum (may be red, bulging, or perforated if infected)
- Hearing (child may need to be referred to ear-nosethroat [ENT] to be assessed)







Pediatric Otitis Media: Interventions at the Primary Level

Teach caregiver to

- Wick ear if discharge is present
- Administer antibiotics (oral or drops) according to standing orders
- Finish full dose of antibiotics even if child feels better
- Treat pain with paracetamol in pediatric doses
- Assist child to sleep with head elevated
- Refer to ENT if hearing loss is suspected







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions

- Respiratory conditions commonly experienced by children infected with HIV include
 - Bacterial pneumonia
 - Pneumocystis pneumonia carinii (PCP), also called pneumocystis jiroveci
 - Lymphoid interstitial pneumonitis (LIP)
- Descriptions of each of these conditions follow, as well as guidance on overall nursing management of pediatric respiratory conditions







Bacterial Pneumonia (Slide 1)

- Bacterial pneumonia can present the same way in both HIV-positive and HIV-negative children and include
 - History of rapid breathing
 - Fever
 - Cough
 - Cyanosis
 - Lethargy







Bacterial Pneumonia (Slide 2)

- Symptoms, continued
 - Crepitations (crackles/rales), decreased breath sounds, or bronchial breathing may be heard on auscultation
 - Persistent hypoxia (oxygen saturation<90%) may be present (as measured by pulse oximetry)
- Recurrent pneumonia should be evaluated to rule out other conditions such as TB, LIP, and fungal pneumonias including PCP







Bacterial Pneumonia (Slide 3)

Medications

- Antibiotic treatment can include oral amoxycillin, penicillin, or cotrimoxazole (use high dose if child is not already on cotrimoxazole prophylaxis)
- Analgesics and antipyretics should be included
- Bronchiodilators (e.g., salbutamol) can be used for wheezing
- Patient should be referred to secondary level if in acute respiratory distress, hypoxia, or if wheezing does not respond to a bronchodilator







PCP (Pneumocystis Carinii or Jiroveci) (Slide 1)

- PCP, caused by a fungus, is a major cause of severe, life-threatening pneumonia in children
- It occurs most frequently at 3–6 months of age
- Features include
 - Low-grade fever or afebrile; dry cough
 - Marked respiratory distress
 - On auscultation, clear chest or fine diffuse crepitations
 - Poor response to standard antibiotic treatment
 - Severe persistent hypoxia
- Because of the severity of symptoms, PCP usually is managed at the secondary level







PCP (Slide 2)

- Diagnosis is made via sputum induction or bronchoalveolar lavage
- If testing is not possible, treatment should be initiated quickly and include antibiotics and oxygen supplementation
- Medications
 - High-dose co-trimoxazole or sulphametoxazole IV
 - Prednisone if child is in severe distress
 - Maintenance prophylaxis after an acute episode







LIP (Lymphoid Interstitial Pneumonitis) (Slide 1)

- Can occur in up to 40 percent of HIV-positive children
- Involves lymph cell infiltration into the alveolar spaces and inflammation
- Symptoms include the gradual onset of dyspnea, cough, or fever
- Other possible symptoms
 - Parotid enlargement
 - Enlarged lymph nodes
 - Hepatosplenomegaly
 - Finger clubbing







LIP (Slide 2)

Medications

- Steroids (e.g., prednisone) when there is significant respiratory distress
- Bronchodilators
- Antibiotics (if concurrent with bacterial pneumonia)







Break







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Assess and record

- Breath sounds (e.g., crackles, rales, reduced breath sounds present)
- Number and quality of respirations (deep, shallow, chest retracting with breath)
- Quality of SOB (dyspnea on exertion or while at rest)
- Type of cough (productive/nonproductive)
- Child's activity level
- Skin: coloring and perfusion (cyanosis), quality cool, clammy)







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Patients should be referred to the secondary level if experiencing acute shortness of breath or any of the following symptoms in addition to cough/shortness of breath
 - Elevated heart rate
 - Fever >39°C
 - Chest pain
 - Cool/clammy skin
 - Cyanosis
 - Dry mucous membranes

- Poor skin turgor
- Mental status changes
- Decreased urine output
- Lower extremity swelling







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Interventions at the Primary Level

- Administer medications according to standing orders, assist caregiver in filling prescriptions, and teach about medications
- Counsel caregiver to return to clinic if the child is not feeling better in 48 hours
- Patient education: offer clean water or other fluids
 - For older children: drink warm beverages or suck on candies to help calm cough







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Respiratory status at least every 4 hours and more frequently if needed
- Breath sounds: (e.g., crackles, rales, or reduced breath sounds)
- Monitor pulse oximetry (SpO₂)







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Obtain arterial blood gas measurements to monitor gas exchange, as ordered
- Count and record numbers of respirations and their quality (deep, shallow, etc.)
- Assess patient's anxiety status







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Maintain a clear airway
 - Suction lung secretions if appropriate
 - Administer therapies
 - Supplemental oxygen
 - Chest PT
 - Provide fluids, especially clean water, to liquefy lung secretions
 - Elevate bed to Fowler's or high Fowler's position







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Interventions at the Secondary level (Slide 2)

Therapies, continued

- Administer medications to treat infection, as ordered; monitor and record the patient's response to the medications
- Administer medications to relieve shortness of breath and cough (antitussives and expectorants)
- Assist the patient with coughing using abdominal splinting and deep breathing exercises
- Keep the air moving in the patient's room with an oscillating fan or open window







Pediatric Respiratory Conditions: Interventions at the Secondary Level (Slide 3)

Therapies, continued

- Administer humidifying treatments (fill bowl or pot with very hot water; add eucalyptus or mint leaves if possible; cover patient's head with a towel and instruct him/her to breathe in vapors deeply for 10 minutes; repeat as ordered)
- Assist patient with repositioning in bed to move lung secretions, and with ambulation as appropriate
- Provide psychological support; shortness of breath can be frightening to children







Pediatric Diarrhea

- Acute diarrhea is the most common cause of sickness and the leading cause of death in HIVpositive children younger than age 1
- Chronic diarrhea in HIV-infected children can complicated by dehydration and malnutrition
- It can be caused by bacteria that commonly cause diarrhea in HIV-negative children, viruses, or HIVrelated complications
- The overall principles of management of acute or persistent diarrhea in HIV-positive children are the same as for HIV-negative children







Pediatric Diarrhea: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

Assess

- Onset, duration, and pattern of diarrhea
- Hydration status (skin turgor, urine output)
- Nutrition status
- Recent medication use
- Ability to tolerate oral intake
- Associated symptoms (abdominal discomfort, nausea)
- Other new symptoms







Pediatric Diarrhea: Assessment at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

- Symptoms for referral to the secondary level
 - Dehydration (sunken eyes, poor skin turgor, dry mucous membranes)
 - Bloody stools
 - Lethargy
 - Child unable to tolerate food/drink
 - Abdominal pain







Pediatric Diarrhea: Interventions at the Primary Level

- Give ORS if indicated
- Administer antibiotics when appropriate (bloody diarrhea or shigellosis) per standing orders
- Administer multivitamins/zinc supplements per standing orders
- Provide ORS for home use
- Counsel caregivers to
 - Administer home ORS at first signs of diarrhea
 - Continue/increase feeding during and after diarrheal episode
 - Maintain good hygiene
 - Return for follow-up







Pediatric Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Weigh patient daily
- Monitor hydration status, initially every eight hours if patient is being rehydrated
 - Skin turgor
 - Mucous membranes
 - Tissue perfusion
 - Mental status







Pediatric Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Monitor for symptoms of electrolyte imbalances
 - Lethargy, weakness
 - Muscle cramping
 - Mental confusion (in non-infant)
 - Irregular heart rhythm
- Monitor stool output and record in patient's chart, including characteristics (e.g., frothy or excessive amount of fat)







Pediatric Diarrhea: Assessment at the Secondary Level (Slide 3)

- Obtain stool samples for laboratory investigations
- Carefully monitor electrolyte levels
- Monitor skin integrity







Pediatric Diarrhea: Interventions for the Secondary Level (Slide 1)

- Replace fluids as ordered
 - PO fluids
 - IV (monitor electrolyte levels pre- and post- fluid administration)
 - ORS
 - Monitor intake and output
- Administer antibiotics (if causal organism has been identified) and vitamins/zinc supplements or medications to decrease GI motility as ordered







Pediatric Diarrhea: Interventions for the Secondary Level (Slide 2)

- Provide foods high in protein and calories, including foods with soluble fiber
- Avoid foods and fluids that increase GI motility
- Perform thorough perineal skin care
- Teach the caregiver
 - Good hygiene
 - Skin care
 - Nutrition







Pediatric Anemia

- Anemia is common in HIV-positive children
- Anemia can be caused by illnesses other than HIV (malaria, helminthic infections, malnutrition)
- It may be caused by HIV or as a side effect of certain medications (e.g., co-trimoxazole (Septrim), clarithromycin, gancyclovir, or zidovudine)







Pediatric Anemia: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 1)

Assess

- Pallor
- Lethargy
- Difficulty walking (if child is walking)
- Medication use
- Conduct hemoglobin (Hbg)







Pediatric Anemia: Assessment at the Primary or Secondary Levels (Slide 2)

Interventions at the primary level

- Refer to secondary level if Hbg < 8 g/dl
- Administer iron supplements according to standing orders
- Counsel caregiver on goods high in iron (see session 7) for child who is eating solids

Interventions at the secondary level

- Monitor oxygenation
- Administer blood transfusion as ordered
- Monitor safety







Break







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis (Slide 1)

- Both HIV-positive and HIV-negative children can experience oral candidiasis (also called thrush)
- If a child has not been previously suspected of having HIV, oral candidiasis may be indicative of HIV infection if seen
 - After the neonatal period without previous antibiotic treatment or
 - Lasting for more than 30 days or
 - Recurrent







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis (Slide 2)

Symptoms

- Reluctance to take food/drink
- Excessive salivation
- Crying while feeding
- White or red patches in mouth/tongue







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis: Assessment at the Primary Level

- Inspect mouth
- Assess for recent reluctance to take food/drink, excessive salivation, or crying while feeding
- Assess hydration and nutritional status
- Children should be referred to the secondary level if they are dehydrated or cannot swallow or eat







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 1)

- Teach caregivers about infection, medications (nystatin, fluconazole or ketoconazole) and medication administration
- Assist caregivers to obtain medications
- Encourage good mouth care
 - Brush teeth and gums (if child has teeth) twice daily
 - Rinse mouth with clean water after meals
- If child is eating solids, encourage caregiver to offer soft foods including
 - rice, porridge, bananas, yogurt, soups
 - soft cooked vegetables







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis: Interventions at the Primary Level (Slide 2)

Teach caregivers to

- Not scrape off white patches in the mouth
- Avoid offering acidic or spicy foods (e.g., oranges, lemons, tomatoes)
- Avoid offering very hot or very cold foods and beverages
- Cut back on sweet foods, which may make candida worse
- Provide a straw for drinking fluids







Pediatric Oral Candidiasis: Assessment/Interventions at the Secondary Level

- Follow same assessment and interventions as at primary level
- Administer drugs, as ordered
 - Oral candida
 - Nystatin liquid (avoid eating/drinking 30 minutes after medication administration)
 - Esophageal candida
 - Fluconazole or Ketoconazole
 - Amphotericin B







Dermatological Conditions

- Nonspecific dermatitis is common in children with HIV
- HIV-positive children also experience more skin infections than HIV-negative children, and the infections can be more difficult to treat
- They may experience rash related to medications







Pediatric Dermatological Conditions: Assessment at the Primary and Secondary Levels

- Document in the patient's medical record the location, extent, and characteristics of skin
- Monitor for and document changes







Pediatric Dermatological Conditions: Interventions at the **Primary and Secondary Levels** (Slide 1)Teach caregivers to

- - Use mild, unscented cleansers or oatmeal soaps
 - Only bathe babies when necessary
 - Protect the skin from sun exposure
 - Keep skin moisturized using unscented moisturizers
 - Offer liquids to keep child well hydrated
 - Cut nails short

Provide symptomatic treatment

 each caregivers to administer medications to treat infection, underlying condition and pain (according to standing orders)







Pediatric Dermatological Conditions: Interventions at the Primary and Secondary Levels (Slide 2)

- Referrals to the secondary level
 - Refer if condition does not respond to treatment or is worsening
 - Refer if new skin changes occur with shortness of breath, fever
 - All cases of herpes zoster should be treated at the secondary level using IV antivirals and pain management







Pediatric Neurologic Conditions

- Several conditions can affect the neurologic system in HIV-positive children
 - Opportunistic infections can cause encephalitis (CMV, herpes virus), meningitis (candida, aspergillus, cryptococcal)
 - Peripheral neuropathy can be caused by HIV itself or the use of ART drugs
 - HIV itself can cause encephalopathy







HIV Encephalopathy: Assessment at the Primary and Secondary Levels

Symptoms

- Failure to attain or loss of developmental milestones (smiling, walking, talking, etc.)
- Motor deficits

Assess

- Assess milestones and intellectual development according to child's age/developmental level
- Ask caregiver about child's development: Does child seem to be progressing? Has child lost skills they previously had?
- Assess gait and reflexes







HIV Encephalopathy: Interventions at the Primary and Secondary Levels

Intervene

- Counsel caregiver on HIV encephalopathy and that reducing the viral load via ART is the only treatment
- Refer to neurologist, physical therapy, and social worker
- Teach caregiver about ART
- Teach caregiver about maintaining child's safety







Pediatric Pain Management

- Pain in children is often under treated
- The same principles of pain management apply for adults and children
- Nurses need to advocate for proper pain management for children







Pediatric Pain: Nursing Management (Slide 1)

Assess pain and document results

- Use faces scale for younger children
- For older children, rate pain on scale of 0–5 as for adults

Intervene

- Prevent pain when possible
- Treat cause
- Use medication along with nonpharmacologic methods
- Administer pain medications "around the clock" (do not wait for patient or family to request it)
- Assess effectiveness of treatment within 30 to 45 minutes after administration







Pediatric Pain: Nursing Management (Slide 2)

Intervene, continued

- Use distracters such as watching TV or singing songs
- Comfort/cuddle child after procedure
- More information on nursing management of pain is included in session 5







Pediatric Pain Assessment

- Tool for assessment of pediatric pain:
 - If child cannot talk or describe his/her pain, use faces/and descriptions to document your observations of the child's pain.
 For example "pain level observed to be 3/5 using faces scale."









Break







Infant Feeding: Nursing Management

See session 10 for nursing management of infant feeding.







Personal and Food Hygiene: Nursing Management

 See session 7 for nursing management of food and personal hygiene.







Clinical Follow-Up Schedule for Children With HIV

For HIV-exposed child

- At birth
- 1–2 weeks (infant feeding)
- 6, 10, and 14 weeks (immunization and infant feeding)
- After 14 weeks, monthly through 12 months
- After 12 months, every 3 months through 24 months
- Confirmatory HIV test at 18 months
- If confirmatory HIV test is positive, after 2 years old, yearly
- Whenever there is a change in child's status







Clinical Follow-Up Schedule: Nursing Management (Slide 1)

Assess

- Age of child
- Developmental milestones
- Last visit
- Any changes since last visit







Clinical Follow-Up Schedule: Nursing Management (Slide 2)

Intervene

- Record visit
- Counsel families/caregivers on need for follow-up and when to return (even if child is not sick)
- Institute reminder or tracking system such as appointment register, contact tracing, etc.







Psychosocial Support

- Nurses can assist families/caregivers with psychosocial support to care for children with HIV, particularly in terms of
 - Disclosure
 - Adherence
 - Giving medications
 - Adolescent adherence







What is Disclosure?

Definitions

- To reveal
- To expose
- To make known
- To make public
- To share







Disclosure Issues (Slide 1)

- Disclosure may start as early as 5 to 7 years of age, but it must be done gradually and in a culturally sensitive manner with the consent and participation of the parent/caregiver
- Basic issues to consider when working with families with HIV-infected children on disclosure issues: needs, feelings, beliefs of family and child







Disclosure Issues (Slide 2)

Benefits of disclosure

- It can help patient and family adopt a positive living attitude
- A child may cope as well as an adult if he or she is told at a young age
- If the community is supportive, disclosing to the community can help parent/caregiver obtain support
- A child may suspect their status already
- Older children and adolescents can more fully participate in their care if they understand it better
- Adolescents may need prevention counseling (how to avoid spreading HIV to others)







Disclosure Issues (Slide 3)

Challenges of disclosure

- If transmission was from mother to child, disclosing parents need to face their own positive status and transmission to the child
- Stigma may be present in community
- Disclosure needs to be done gradually and at the child's level of understanding







Disclosure Issues (Slide 4)

 Confidentiality and trust must always be maintained between the health care staff and the family







Pediatric Disclosure: Nursing Assessment and Interventions

Assess

- Has the caregiver talked to the child about his or her status?
- If not, how do they feel about disclosing?

Intervene

- Listen to their concerns
- Help them reason through disclosure
- Participate in disclosure if the parent/caregiver desires







Disclosure exercise

Discuss as a group

- Why would a family choose not to disclose a 8 year old child's HIV status to the child? The child's school? The community as a whole?
- What are the challenges they may face?
- Are there any benefits to disclosing to the above groups?







Rules for Pediatric Adherence

- Children need to maintain the same drug adherence levels as adults
- Use the same adherence strategies and steps as adults with age-appropriate modifications
- Educate caregiver on how to give meds to child
- Involve and educate both caregivers and children at the child's level of understanding
- Provide family with support for other needs to strengthen the household and optimize adherence
- Peer education or involvement in PLHA family groups may be helpful







Pediatric Adherence: Nursing Assessment and Interventions (Slide 1)

Assess

- Has child taken all his or her medications since last visit?
- If not, how many pills/doses have been missed and why?

Intervene

- Teach caregivers about drugs and drug administration
- Drug dosages will change as child grows
- Information needs to be repeated, especially when dosage or form of drug changes (e.g., from liquid to pill)







Caregiver Education (Slide 1)

- How to give medicines to babies/toddlers (birth through 2 years)
 - Use a syringe or soft plastic dropper, or a spoon for medicine mixed with food. Carefully label dose on syringe.
 - With the baby on your lap, brace the baby's head close to your body so the head stays still. Tilt the head back a little.
 - Put the medicine in the corner of the baby's mouth toward the back, along the side of the tongue. This makes it more difficult for the baby to spit it out. Give a little at a time.
 - Gently keep the baby's mouth closed until he or she swallows.
 - Never yell or show anger. Speak softly and say kind things.
 - When all the medicine is finished, hold the baby sitting up for a few minutes and cuddle/comfort him or her. Offer water or juice only after the procedure is finished.







Caregiver Education (Slide 2)

- Tips for giving medicines to older children (older than 2 years)
 - Keep trying different foods to cover the taste.
 - Offer your child choices (type of food, spoon, drink).
 - Never ask if they want to take the medicine.
 - Some children do best when encouraged to take a deep breath and drink fast. Others take medicine a step at a time with a drink in between. Sometimes it helps to count for your child.
 - Offer praise afterward.
 - Connect the medicine to feeling better, to the child's body working better, and to a desired activity or outcome.
 - Involve child in medication administration as appropriate to his or her level of understanding.







Caregiver Education (Slide 3)

Troubleshooting for parents/caregivers

- Vomiting the medicine: Repeat the dose if the child vomits within 2 hours of taking the medicine.
- Missing a dose: If the child misses a dose, give it as soon as remembered (up to 6 hours after the missed dose time for a twice per day medicine) and continue on the regular schedule.
 Do not give 2 doses at the same time.
- Refusing the medicine: Let the child know that you understand that taking medicine is not fun. Do not threaten, punish, or yell. This will only make the situation worse and could make the child feel badly about him or herself.







Caregiver Education (Slide 4)

Troubleshooting for parents/caregivers

- Mixing medicines with food or drinks
 - Mix medicine in a small amount of food or liquid (porridge, clean water, juice)
 - Do not mix it with food that is essential to the child's diet (e.g., milk); the child may associate the bad taste with milk, and may refuse milk even if it does not contain medicine
- Keep trying new methods and don't give up







Caregiver Education (Slide 5)

- Teach proper storage of drugs
 - Which drugs to store in a cool place out of the sun
 - Which drugs require refrigeration







Adolescent Adherence (Slide 1)

Barriers to adolescent adherence

- Disclosure issues
- Sexual development
- Depression
- Active alcohol/substance abuse
- Peer pressure







Adolescent Adherence (Slide 2)

Barriers to adolescent adherence

- Fear
- Low self-esteem
- Misinformation
- Concrete thought process (thinking in absolute terms)
- Sense of invincibility—feeling that they can do anything and will never be harmed







Adolescent Adherence (Slide 3)

Strategies to help adolescents with adherence to ART

- Help them with self-confidence and positive attitudes toward ART
- Help them practice with other drugs (vitamins, CTX) before starting ART
- Remind them to take drugs even if they are feeling well
- Develop a good, open relationship with them to encourage trust
- Be aware of issues of alcohol/substance use and/or depression
- Connect them with PLHA support group for their age group or other adolescents facing similar issues







Barriers for Pediatric Adherence Exercise (Slide 1)

- In groups of three, discuss some strategies for caregivers/patients when they report the following barriers to pediatric adherence.
- Creativity in strategies is important for nurses. So for each scenario each person should come up with a different strategy that will help overcome the barrier. Take turns offering the first strategy.







Barriers for Pediatric Adherence Exercise (Slide 2)

Barriers

- The infant who spits out the medicine
- The caregiver who does not understand how much liquid medication to give to the infant
- The 5-year-old who refuses to take their medication
- The 7-year-old who asks their caregiver why other children don't take medicines
- The teenager who says that "these medications don't do anything anyway"
- For each barrier, discuss in your groups which strategy seemed to be the most useful







Barriers for Pediatric Adherence Exercise (Slide 3)

- As a large group
 - List the most useful strategy you found for each barrier and discuss why your small group thought it was the best
 - What were some of the most creative strategies?
 - How do these strategies compare to your experience at your work place?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 12:
Assessing Readiness for ART







Objectives

Upon completion of this module, you will be able to

- Discuss why determining patient readiness is important prior to starting ART
- List some considerations when assessing readiness
- Determine how to respect a patient's decision not to start ART
- Apply these concepts in role play about assessing patient readiness to start ART







Why is Determining Patient Readiness Important Before Starting ART? (Slide 1)

- ART is a lifelong treatment and we want to optimize the success of ART
- ARVs have side effects, both short- and long-term







Why is Determining Patient Readiness Important Before Starting ART? (Slide 2)

- Stopping ART has implications for restarting treatment in the future (e.g., drug options, drug resistance)
- The patient may have difficulties or barriers that impact the beginning or restarting of treatment







Considerations in Assessing Patient Readiness (Slide 1)

- What does the patient know about HIV? ART?
- What are the patient's attitudes and beliefs about HIV infection and ART?
- Has the patient disclosed his or her infection status and does he or she have social support?
- What difficulties or barriers exist for the patient that affect treatment initiation and continuation?
- How can these difficulties or barriers be managed?
- Most importantly, is the patient committed to lifelong treatment?







Respecting a Patient's Informed Decision Not to Begin Treatment (Slide 1)

- For patients who are not ready to begin treatment, counsel on the following topics
 - Patient should make clinical visits, even when feeling well
 - Patient should report new symptoms or any changes in health status as soon as possible
 - Patient should continue to practice preventive behaviors
 - Patients can change their mind about starting treatment and should come in for a clinical visit if they do so
 - Patient can receive referrals to community services, if needed, during clinical visits
 - Patient can join the activities of a PLHA support group based at the health facility and/or in the community







Respecting a Patient's Informed Decision Not to Begin Treatment (Slide 2)

- It is important to use a nonjudgmental attitude
- Give the patient all the information regarding potential consequences of his or her decision
- Assess the patient's understanding of the information of the information
- Encourage the patient to make his or her own decision
- Respect the decisions and assist patients in implementing a plan
- Assist them when/if they change their mind







Assessing Readiness Exercise (Slide 1)

- Role play: Assessing patient readiness for ART
 - Discuss the following scenario with 2 colleagues.
 - A 35-year-old woman has been referred to you to discuss starting ART. Treatment is recommended for this patient. Her CD4 count is 163. She has had several OIs in the last 2 years (TB with treatment completed; oral candidiasis; recurrent bacterial pneumonias), her weight has dropped 5 kg in the past year and her appetite has decreased.







Assessing readiness exercise (Slide 2)

- How will you proceed in determining if this patient is ready to begin ART?
 - What questions will you ask?
 - What information will you provide?
 - On what basis will you determine if she is ready to start ART?







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 13: Nursing Management of Side Effects of ART







Objectives

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - Understand patient education on side effects of ART
 - List common side effects of ART and patient education on how to manage them
 - Understand symptoms for immediate management and hospital admission
 - Apply nursing assessment and interventions for management of side effects of ART in a case study







Side Effects (Slide 1)

- All medicines can potentially cause side effects
- These are unwanted effects of medicines that can vary from minor (nausea) to major (liver damage) and be temporary, last a long time, or be permanent
- Not all side effects happen to all patients
- Side effects are a concern because they can
 - Interfere with drug adherence
 - Lessen quality of life
 - Cause long-term health conditions
 - Be life-threatening (in rare cases)







Side Effects (Slide 2)

- If patients experience side effects, they may not take their ART drugs appropriately
- Nurses are a very important part of the clinical team to manage side effects







Nursing Care of Side Effects

Nursing care for side effects of ART includes

- Assessing side effects experienced by the patient including their intensity, frequency, and effect on ADLs
- Interventions for side effects, including
 - monitoring patients for side effects
 - managing those side effects along with the patient and the rest of the clinical team
 - teaching patients and families how to manage mild side effects at home and which symptoms to report immediately to the health facility
 - providing immediate referrals for moderate and severe side effects







Monitoring Patient for Side Effects

- At all patient visits, ask about side effects
- Ask if they are new or ongoing
- For minor side effects, ask how the patient currently deals with them and suggest ways to manage them
- For serious side effects, assist patient to get immediate medical attention and hospital admission if needed







Patients on ART and TB Drugs

- Patients taking both ART and TB drugs should be monitored for side effects including
 - Abdominal pain
 - Jaundice (yellowing of the skin)
 - Numbness/tingling/pain in the hands and feet
- Patients should be referred for immediate medical attention if they are experiencing any of these symptoms







Teaching Patient about Side Effects

- Remember, adherence increases when the patient knows what to expect and how to manage side effects ahead of time, before they happen
- Teach the patient about what side effects they may experience before they start taking ART
- Tell them that they will be asked about side effects at each visit
- Continue to teach about side effects
- Tell the patient and family how to manage minor side effects and how to recognize when they need medical attention







Messages for Patients

- Side effects are symptoms that can occur when patients start ART
- They usually become less intense or go away as the body gets used to ART—it may take up to 6 weeks
- There are ways to manage many side effects at home, but some should be reported to the health facility
- You will be asked to report any new side effects at each clinic visit and each meeting
- Do not stop taking ART, even if you have side effects







Symptoms for Immediate Management and Possible Hospitalization (Slide 1)

- Difficulty breathing/shortness of breath
- Chest pain
- Abdominal pain
- Red rash that is intensifying, increasingly generalized, and that may occur
 with fever, blistering, and mucous membrane involvement (eyes, mouth)
- Persistent vomiting (two to three days)
- Persistent diarrhea (two to three days) +/
 blood
- Moderate or severe dehydration
- Profound weakness (unable to walk or stand)
- Moderate to severe numbness/tingling/burning in hands and feet
- Severe headache with neck stiffness
- Thoughts of suicide/increasing depression
- Seizure







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 1)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Fatigue	Get up and go to bed at same time each day. Exercise. Keep easy-to-prepare foods in house.	Patient is too tired to eat or move. Patient cannot swallow or eat enough to feel strong.
Headache	Rest in quiet, dark place. Place cold cloths on eyes. Rub base of head and temples with thumbs. Take warm bath. Avoid caffeine.	Vision becomes blurry. Headaches frequent or very painful. Neck is stiff. Fever.







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 2)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Tingling or pain in feet and hands	Wear loose-fitting shoes and socks. Keep feet uncovered in bed. Walk a little. Soak feet in cold water. Rub feet and hands.	The tingling does not go away or gets worse. The pain is so intense the patient cannot walk.
Dry mouth	Rinse mouth with clean water and salt. Suck on crushed ice or sip water. Avoid sweets, soft drinks, and coffee.	Patient also has white or red spots on tongue or in mouth.







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 3)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Diarrhea	Eat frequent, small meals of easy-to-digest foods. Avoid milk. Don't eat spicy or greasy foods. Drink lots of clean water and tea. Take ORS.	Blood in the stool. Fever. More than 4 watery or soft bowel movements per day. Patient is thirsty but cannot eat or drink properly.
Nausea, vomiting and low appetite	Take ART drugs with food. Eat frequent small, bland meals. Sip tea or ORS until vomiting stops. Don't eat greasy or spicy foods.	Sharp stomach pains. Fever. Vomiting blood. Vomiting lasts >1 day. Patient is thirsty but cannot eat or drink properly.







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 4)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Hair loss	Protect hair from damage. Don't dye, straighten, or plait. Don't buy products that promise to grow hair back.	
Anemia	Increase foods such as fish, meat, chicken, spinach, dark leafy greens, and lima beans.	The patient has been feeling tired for 3–4 weeks and it is worsening. Both of the patient's feet are swelling.







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 5)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Dizziness	Sit down until it goes away. Avoid lifting anything heavy or moving quickly. Take Efavirenz right before going to sleep. Avoid driving a car, motorcycle, or bicycle when dizzy.	Dizziness lasts more than 2 weeks.
Unusual or bad dreams	Do something that makes you happy and calm before sleeping. Avoid alcohol, street drugs, fatty foods.	If patient cannot sleep for three or more nights.







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 6)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Feelings of sadness or worry	Talk about your feelings with others (family, friends, other PLHA).	Patient has serious, sad, or very worrying thoughts. Patient is thinking of harming him/herself. Patient us very aggressive or scared.
Difficulty concentrating	Use reminders for important tasks. Allow extra time for activities.	







Patient Education on Mild to Moderate Side Effects (Slide 7)

Side effect	What a patient can do	Seek help/go to clinic
Skin rash	Keep the skin clean and dry. Wash with unscented soap and water. Use calamine lotion for itching. Avoid hot baths or showers. Avoid the sun.	Rash is accompanied by general ill feeling, fever, muscle or joint aches, blisters or mouth sores, inflammation of the inside of the eyelids, swelling of the face, or tiredness.







Side Effects Activity (Slide 1)

- In groups of 4 discuss the following regimen:
 Stavudine + Lamivudine + Nevirapine. Using the information from the previous slides and session 8
 - Identify the common side effects and food restrictions of each drug
 - Identify which side effects require immediate referral to a health facility for management







Side Effects Activity (Slide 2)

- Two members of the group will discuss the drug side effects in a role play with a nurse and patient (one person is the patient and one person is the nurse). The other two members will observe.
 - Nurse
 - Discuss the side effects with the patient before they start taking the drugs
 - Monitor and educate them about side effects once they begin taking the drugs
 - Patient
 - Participate in the discussion and ask questions as appropriate







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 14: Helping the Patient Understand and Adhere to ART







Objectives (Slide 1)

- Upon completion of this module, you will be able to
 - Describe the importance of optimal adherence and the consequences when adherence is poor
 - Discuss factors affecting adherence in terms of patients and healthcare providers







Objectives (2)

- Discuss important topics in patient education before starting ART including
 - Goals of therapy
 - Importance of practicing prevention
 - Continuity of care
 - Reasons for combination therapy
 - Identification of barriers to care
 - ART drug information to discuss with patient
- Describe some adherence intervention strategies for patients before and after starting ART







What Is Adherence? (Slide 1)

- Adherence is the term used to describe the patient's behavior of taking drugs correctly
 - The right drug
 - The right dose
 - The right route
 - The right frequency
 - The right time
- Adherence also means the patient attends all scheduled clinical visits/procedures
 - Clinic appointments
 - Lab tests
 - Prescription refills







What Is Adherence? (2)

- Adherence involves a partnership between the patient and the healthcare team
- A critical aspect of adherence is the patient's involvement in deciding whether or not to take the drugs—it is a decision they make for their own health
- Based on current scientific knowledge, ART has to be taken for life







What Is Nonadherence?

 Nonadherence describes the patient's inability to take his or her drugs or attend scheduled clinical visits (including laboratory) in the prescribed manner







What is Special About ART and Adherence?

- Patients need to achieve 100 percent adherence to ART to keep the correct amount of drugs in their body to fight the virus
- Poor adherence leads to drug resistance, increased viral load, increased sickness, and increased possibility of death
- As a nurse, you can make a difference in the adherence of the patient by counseling, educating, and providing support for adherence







Adherence: General Comments (Slide 1)

- Adherence is one of the key determinants of ART treatment success
- Adherence may vary with life situations: some patients may do well for a while, then have problems adhering to ART; adherence support and monitoring are important throughout the patient's life
- Patients need to be supported, not blamed, punished, or made to feel guilty







Adherence: General Comments (Slide 2)

- Working as a team is important: many different cadres need to be involved including nurses, doctors, adherence counselors, pharmacists, pharmacy techs, adherence support workers (ASWs), and PLHA support group members
- Several counseling sessions usually are necessary before patient starts ART (there is a lot of information for the patient to understand/digest and it is important to reinforce learning)







Adherence: General Comments (Slide 3)

- It is important to involve a treatment supporter—a friend or family member chosen by the patient—to help remember to take the drugs and keep clinic appointments
- Being involved with a PLHA support group or PLHA treatment supporters can help with adherence







What is Resistance?

- If the ART drugs are not taken correctly, the virus can change so that it resists the action of the drugs (the drugs no longer stop HIV from reproducing)
 - The patient becomes sicker
 - The resistant virus can be spread to others the same way nonresistant HIV spreads and drugs will not work on them either
- An example of resistance comes from malaria: chloroquine was used to treat malaria for years, but now the parasite that causes malaria is not killed by choloroquine, and other drugs must be taken







Why Don't People Take Their Drugs Correctly?

- Many people have studied adherence and found many factors that positively and negatively influence adherence
 - Related to the patient
 - Related to the healthcare provider







Factors Affecting Adherence (Slide 1)

- What patient factors (barriers) negatively influence adherence?
 - Side effects from ART (nausea, vomiting)
 - Patient has not disclosed HIV status
 - Lack of support structure
 - Lack of transportation to the health facility
 - Patient has difficulty with medication times (employment)
 - Underlying depression
 - Lack of understanding the need to adhere to ART
 - Patient does not believe that ART works
 - Lack of financial resources







Factors Affecting Adherence (Slide 2)

What patient factors positively influence adherence?

- Ability to make pill-taking part of their routine and effective use of reminders
- Belief that the ARV drugs work
- Self-confidence (the patient feels he or she can do it)
- Belief in treatment adherence
- Patient readiness/commitment
- Social support
- Having a treatment supporter
- Patient feels he or she is a needed part of his or her family or community







Factors Affecting Adherence (Slide 3)

- What healthcare provider factors positively affect (help) patient adherence?
 - Provider knowledge and skills about ART
 - Good skills in patient education and counseling
 - Providing medication alerts (e.g., charts, diaries, etc.)
 - Provider support for patient
 - Client comfort with and trust in the clinic healthcare staff
 - Consistent drug supply







Factors Affecting Adherence (Slide 4)

- What healthcare provider factors negatively affect (hinder) patient adherence?
 - Negative attitudes toward patient's ability to adhere (not believing they "can do it")
 - Neglecting to discuss and measure adherence







Factors Affecting Adherence (Slide 5)

- What are other factors that negatively affect adherence?
 - Large number of pills have to be taken, including OI drugs that may have to be also taken
 - Frequency of doses (2 vs. 3 times per day dosing)
 - Side effects (especially nausea/vomiting)
 - Food restrictions
 - Drug interactions
 - Storage
 - Cost of services (e.g., lab tests, etc.)







Factors Affecting Adherence Exercise

- In pairs, discuss a person you know who has taken ART (without using names)
 - Were they able to adhere to treatment 100 percent of the time?
 - What positive or negative factors influenced them?







Adherence Goals

- The goal is 100 percent adherence
- Adherence is a learned skill
- Patients need to be able to
 - Commit to long-term treatment
 - Understand the regimen
 - Believe they can adhere
 - Remember to take meds at right time
 - Integrate regimen into their own lifestyle (e.g., mealtimes, prayers)
 - Solve problems related to changes in schedule or routine







Patient Education Before Starting ART (Slide 1)

- Patients need some education before starting ART
- There are important issues about ART they need to understand to start and adhere to their ART regimen
- Nurses need to understand these messages as well as know how to educate patients
- Beginning ART is the just the beginning: the nurse's role in educating the patient about ART starts before treatment begins and continues throughout the patient's life
 - Education should be continuous







Patient Education Before Starting ART (Slide 2)

Tips for educating patients

- Know your patient's education level, language, literacy level, and understanding of the topic
- Ask patient what they know about the topic
- Speak slowly and in simple terms
- Check for understanding
- Repeat information as needed
- Use tools (charts, patient education materials) as appropriate to language and literacy level







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 1)

- Goals of therapy
 - Suppressing the virus
 - Improving the immune system
- ART is not a cure, but enables HIV to be managed as a chronic disease and enables the patient to have increased quality of life







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 2)

Continue preventive behaviors

- ART does not prevent transmission of the virus
- Ongoing prevention is essential to avoid transmitting the virus to spouse/partner and reinfection







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 3)

- ARV treatment program, continuity of care
 - Developing a long-term partnership between the patient and the healthcare team
 - Regular visits for clinical monitoring
 - Adherence medications
 - Laboratory investigations







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 4)

- Reasons for combination therapy: why at least three drugs are prescribed
- Importance of adherence







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 5)

- Identify difficulties or barriers that may affect the patient taking the medications consistently and keeping medical appointments
- Help them make a plan for success in adherence (e.g., choosing a treatment supporter; joining a PLHA support group)
- Discuss delay of initiation of ART if appropriate
- Discuss benefits of working with a treatment supporter







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 6)

Tell them what to do if they miss a dose

- Rules for missing doses
 - If you miss a dose, take the dose as soon as you remember, but not if it is almost time for your next regular dose: never take a double dose.
 - If the drug is taken twice a day, the missed dose can be taken up to, but no more than, 6 hours late
 - For example, the normal dose is taken at 7 AM; the missed dose can be taken up to 1 PM







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 7)

Educate the patient about ART in general

- What they should expect after taking the drugs
 - Increase in functional status
 - Weight gain
 - Increased energy
 - Decreased infections
 - Possible side effects
 - Possible drug interactions







Pre-ART Messages (Slide 8)

- Educate about each of the antiretroviral drugs prescribed
 - Name
 - Dose
 - Schedule
 - Food restrictions
 - Major side effects: which ones to report to the health facility immediately and strategies for the ones that they can safely manage at home







After Starting ART: In General (Slide 1)

- Discuss adherence at every visit
- Ask specifically about new symptoms or a change in health status
- Reinforce education on HIV and ART
- Assess adherence







After Starting ART: In General (Slide 2)

- If the patient misses doses
 - Get specific information about missed doses
 - Work with patient to determine why they encountered problems and which specific strategies could work for their lifestyle
 - If the patient has a treatment supporter, also work with the treatment supporter to assist the patient in taking the medications as prescribed
 - Reinforce importance of adherence







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 1)

- Create a comfortable atmosphere for patients to ask questions
- Use simple terms and visual aids if available
- Provide a nonjudgmental, trusting environment: ask questions and listen to answers







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 2)

- Make no assumptions: ask all patients about adherence in the same way
 - For example, "Sometimes it is difficult to take medications on time. Have you missed any pills since your last appointment?" or "Why do you think you were unable to take your pills on time?"







Strategies for helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 3)

- Ask open-ended questions such as "Which doses did you miss?"
- Enhance self-confidence of patients: they can be successful in taking ART
- Help patient identify reminders and strategies (daily activity link, pill box, blister pack, diary, calendar, directly observed [DOT])







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 4)

Discuss the role of social support

- Participation in a PLHA support group
- Involvement of a treatment supporter (a family member, friend, or PLHA support group member selected by the patient to support the patient's adherence)
- Home visits by an adherence support worker (ASW), a lay person who assists the health facility clinical staff by providing psychosocial and adherence support to patients
- Referral to home-based care (HBC)







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 5)

- Discuss treatment topics with patient and treatment supporter (if involved)
 - Goals of treatment, disclosure issues (who will patient disclose to and how will they do it?)
 - Ways that the treatment supporter will help the patient
 - Basic drug information, reason for treatment
 - Importance of adherence, consequences of nonadherence
 - Timing of medications, drug interactions, side effects







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 6)

- Identify potential barriers to adherence and support systems
 - Refer to services to help address barriers (transportation, financial, food support, etc.)
- Tailor treatment to patient's lifestyle and routine
 - For example, cue ART dosing to regular daily events such as meals or prayers or set out specific places and times for taking medications







Strategies for Helping Patients with Adherence (Slide 7)

- Plan ahead for changes in routine such as travel
- Prepare patient for and how to manage side effects
- Tell patient what to do if he or she misses a dose







For Patients Who Transfer from Another ART Site

- With patients who have started ART at another site and have transferred to your site to continue ART
 - Don't assume that they know everything about ART and adherence already
 - Assess their prior adherence and knowledge about
 ART/adherence just as you would a new patient and educate as appropriate
 - Assist them to adhere using the strategies previously listed







Adherence Exercise (Slide 1)

- In pairs, discuss the following case study:
- Maurice K is a 35-year-old unmarried man with HIV. He is a truck driver and frequently is away from home for at least three days at a time going to different cities. He shares the route with another driver, his cousin, who takes turns driving. While on the road, he occasionally has sex. When he is in his hometown, he stays with his sister. When he is on the road, he sleeps in the truck. He believes that taking ART will help him feel better, but is not sure he will be able to remember to take the medications on time.







Adherence Exercise (Slide 2)

- What are some of the challenges Maurice may face in achieving 100 percent adherence?
- What are some ways that he can overcome these challenges?
- What are some of the positive factors at work for him?
- What are some potential barriers to communication?
- What are some potential issues that the nurse should be mindful of when building a relationship with Maurice?







Adherence Exercise (Slide 3)

- In your pairs, practice a role play with Maurice and a nurse assigned to him
 - Nurse: How would you discuss adherence with Maurice before he starts ART? Educate him on ART and adherence. Assist him in identifying possible barriers and solutions.
 - Maurice: Answer questions and participate in the discussion as appropriate.







Nursing Care of Patients with HIV/AIDS

Session 15: ARV Regimen Change







Objectives

- Upon completion of this session, you will be able to
 - List reasons why an ARV regimen may need to be changed
 - Understand the patient education required for a regimen change
 - Discuss adherence and psychological support needed for a regimen change







Changing ARV Regimen

- Why is it necessary to change an ARV regimen?
 - Toxicity
 - Treatment failure







Toxicity (Slide 1)

- One drug in an ARV drug regimen should be changed when a patient experiences an intolerable, severe or life-threatening side effect from that drug
 - One patient may find a side effect tolerable while another patient can't tolerate it
 - For example, fat redistribution may bother some patients and not bother others
- The offending drug should be stopped and replaced with another drug from the same class (the replacement drug should not have the same side effects)







Toxicity (Slide 2)

- For example, if a patient experiences severe anemia (Hgb < 6.5) when on AZT (NRTI), a substitution of TDF, d4T or ABC can be made (all are NRTIs)
- The selection of the new drug is dependent on several variables including the side effects, drug interactions and availability of the other drugs in the class







Nursing Considerations for Toxicity (Slide 1)

What to do

- Stop current regimen
- Change offending drug
- Educate patient on the change







Nursing Considerations for Toxicity (Slide 2)

- A change of ARV regimen
 - Stop current regimen
 - Change offending drug

Patient education

- Name of each drug
- Dose of each drug
- Schedule for each drug
- Food restrictions (if any)
- Side effects of each drug and how to manage







Nursing Considerations for Toxicity (Slide 3)

- Adherence education and counseling
 - Adhering to the drugs
 - Adhering to the clinical monitoring schedule







Treatment Failure

- Treatment failure is when the virus has become resistant to the drugs, which are no longer able to control the replication of the virus. In that instance, the whole regimen will be changed and the patient will be put on "second-line therapy."
 - Treatment failure can be measured three ways
 - Clinical failure
 - Immunologic failure
 - Virologic failure
 - When resources permit, all three measurements should be considered when deciding to change ART







Types of Treatment Failure (Slide 1)

Clinical failure

- Disease progression that occurs even though the ARVs have had sufficient time to promote improvement of the immune system (6-12 months)
- Development of a new or recurrent WHO stage 3 or 4 condition (referred to as T staging where T refers to the staging event on treatment)

Caution: Immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome (IRIS) should be ruled out if a patient has been on treatment less than 6 months. IRIS is caused by the strengthened immune system mounting a response to a previous infection and should be managed by continuing ART, treating the infection and corticosteriods.







Types of Treatment Failure (Slide 2)

Immunologic failure

 A return to, or a fall below, the pre-therapy CD4 baseline after 6 months of therapy

or

 A 50 percent decline from the on-treatment peak CD4 value (if known)

or

CD4 count below 100 cells/mm³ after 6 months of therapy







Types of Treatment Failure (Slide 3)

- Virologic failure
 - A plasma HIV-1 RNA level (viral load) above 10,000 copies/ml in a person who has been on a regimen for more than 6 months and in whom drug adherence is determined to be sufficient
- Testing for viral load is not yet widely available







Reasons for Treatment Failure

- The strength (potency) of the ARVs is no longer sufficient
- The amount of drug(s) in the patient's system is not sufficient (inadequate absorption)
- Poor adherence
- A suboptimal regimen of drugs
- Interactions with other drugs reduces strength or absorption







Nursing Considerations (Slide 1)

A change of ARV regimen

- Stop current regimen
- The new drugs (possibly from a new class), require more patient education and different monitoring

Patient education

- Name of each drug
- Dose of each drug
- Schedule for each drug
- Food restrictions (if any)
- Side effects of each drug and how to manage







Nursing Considerations (Slide 2)

Adherence counseling

- Adhering to the drugs
- Adhering to the clinical monitoring schedule

Psychological support

- The patient's reaction to the failure of the previous regimen, including possible reasons for the failure (e.g., was it my fault? Did the doses I missed cause the failure?)
- The need for a combination of new drugs







Nursing Considerations (Slide 3)

- Optimizing the success of the regimen
 - Work with the patient and family to identify strategies and resources that will support the patient with the new regimen





