
**INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CURRENT RESEARCH IN
CHEMISTRY AND PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES**

(p-ISSN: 2348-5213; e-ISSN: 2348-5221)

www.ijcrcps.com

(A Peer Reviewed, Referred, Indexed and Open Access Journal)

DOI: 10.22192/ijcrcps

Coden: IJCROO(USA)

Volume 12, Issue 2- 2025

Review Article



DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.22192/ijcrcps.2025.12.02.004>

Management of Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients

***Emmanuel Ifeanyi Obeagu**

Department of Biomedical and Laboratory Science, Africa University, Zimbabwe,
emmanuelobeagu@yahoo.com, obeague@africau.edu, ORCID: 0000-0002-4538-0161

*Corresponding author: Emmanuel Ifeanyi Obeagu, Department of Biomedical and Laboratory Science, Africa University, Zimbabwe, E-mail: emmanuelobeagu@yahoo.com, obeague@africau.edu, ORCID: 0000-0002-4538-0161

Copyright © 2025. Emmanuel Ifeanyi Obeagu- This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality in patients with sickle cell disease (SCD), and its management becomes more complex in individuals living with both HIV and SCD. The dual challenges of HIV-related immune suppression and sickle cell-induced pulmonary complications exacerbate the severity and prognosis of ACS in this population. This review aims to explore the pathophysiology, clinical manifestations, diagnostic approaches, and management strategies for ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients, highlighting the need for a comprehensive and individualized care plan. Given the increased risk of infections, hypoxia, and vasculopathy in these patients, a multifaceted therapeutic approach is essential for improving outcomes. The pathophysiology of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients involves both sickle cell-related microvascular obstruction and immune suppression caused by HIV. Infections, such as pneumonia or tuberculosis, are common triggers for ACS in this population, further complicating the clinical picture. The combined effects of these conditions lead to increased inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and pulmonary impairment, all of which contribute to the progression of ACS. Diagnostic approaches include imaging studies, such as chest X-ray and CT scans, along with microbiological investigations to identify infections that may precipitate ACS episodes.

Keywords: Acute Chest Syndrome, HIV, Sickle Cell Disease, Pain Management, Respiratory Support

Introduction

Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) is a critical and often life-threatening complication of sickle cell disease (SCD) that presents with chest pain, fever, hypoxia, and pulmonary infiltrates. It is one of the leading causes of hospitalization and mortality in patients with SCD. The condition results from a combination of factors, including pulmonary infections, fat embolism, and vaso-occlusive events in the lung vasculature. While ACS is a known complication of SCD, its management becomes even more complex when the patient is also living with HIV. In these patients, the combined burden of immune suppression due to HIV and the underlying pathophysiology of SCD increases the risk of severe and recurrent ACS episodes, necessitating a more nuanced approach to treatment and care.¹⁻³ The interplay between HIV and SCD creates a compounded risk for the development and progression of ACS. HIV infection leads to immune dysregulation and a higher susceptibility to infections, including pneumonia, tuberculosis, and opportunistic infections, which can precipitate ACS episodes. Sickle cell disease, on the other hand, causes chronic hemolysis, endothelial damage, and microvascular occlusion, all of which contribute to the vascular complications of the lung and can worsen ACS outcomes. The combination of these two diseases significantly elevates the risk of both infectious and non-infectious pulmonary complications, making the clinical management of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients especially challenging.⁴⁻⁵ In addition to infections, HIV-related immune suppression exacerbates the inflammatory responses seen in SCD, leading to more severe lung injury during ACS episodes. Inflammation and endothelial dysfunction, both hallmark features of HIV and SCD, promote further sickling of red blood cells, increasing the risk of microvascular obstruction in the lungs. This results in poor oxygen exchange and hypoxia, which worsen the severity of ACS and may lead to acute respiratory failure. Moreover, the immunosuppressive effects of HIV can delay the body's response to infections, making it more difficult to treat underlying causes of ACS and increasing the risk of complications. These

overlapping pathophysiological mechanisms create a complex disease burden that requires integrated and targeted interventions.⁶⁻⁷

While ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients shares many similarities with ACS in the general SCD population, the coexisting HIV infection adds several layers of complexity. HIV infection increases the risk of pulmonary infections and reduces the body's ability to mount an effective immune response to these infections. In addition, certain antiretroviral therapies (ART) used to manage HIV can have side effects that may further compromise lung function or interact with sickle cell-specific therapies. As such, healthcare providers must consider both HIV and SCD-related factors when diagnosing and managing ACS, taking into account the individual's HIV treatment regimen, immune status, and other comorbidities.⁸⁻⁹ Accurate and timely diagnosis is crucial for managing ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients, as the symptoms of ACS can overlap with those of other respiratory conditions, such as pneumonia, tuberculosis, or even HIV-related lung disease. Chest X-rays and CT scans remain essential tools for detecting pulmonary infiltrates, while microbiological testing is necessary to identify potential infectious triggers. Clinicians must also consider the patient's history of HIV infection and antiretroviral therapy, as these factors can affect both the presentation of ACS and the choice of appropriate treatment strategies. Given the complexity of diagnosis, a thorough, multimodal approach is needed to differentiate ACS from other conditions and guide effective management.¹⁰⁻¹¹ Management of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients requires a multidisciplinary approach that integrates infection control, pain management, respiratory support, and sickle cell-specific therapies. Standard treatments for ACS, such as oxygen therapy, blood transfusions, and antibiotics, must be tailored to account for the additional risks posed by HIV-related immune suppression. Optimizing ART and addressing any potential HIV-related respiratory infections are also critical components of treatment. Pain management, a key element of ACS care, is especially important in this patient population due to the heightened risk of severe pain crises in

individuals with SCD and the complications that HIV can bring to pain control. In addition, supportive care to maintain respiratory function, such as mechanical ventilation for those with respiratory failure, is crucial to prevent further complications.¹²⁻¹³

Pathophysiology of Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients

Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) is a severe pulmonary complication of sickle cell disease (SCD) and is characterized by chest pain, fever, hypoxia, and new pulmonary infiltrates on imaging. The pathophysiology of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients is complex and multifactorial, involving the interactions between the sickling process, immune dysregulation due to HIV, inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, and the increased susceptibility to infections.¹³⁻¹⁴ In sickle cell disease, ACS is primarily caused by a combination of pulmonary infection, fat embolism, and microvascular occlusion in the lung vasculature. The sickling of red blood cells causes vascular occlusion, resulting in ischemia, infarction, and the release of inflammatory mediators such as cytokines and chemokines. This promotes further sickling and adhesion of red blood cells to the endothelial lining, exacerbating the pulmonary microvascular obstruction. The lung's inability to efficiently exchange gases during these episodes leads to hypoxia, one of the hallmark features of ACS. In HIV-positive individuals, immune suppression exacerbates the inflammatory response, which can worsen endothelial dysfunction and increase the severity of vaso-occlusion. The lack of effective immune surveillance in these patients can lead to prolonged inflammation and more extensive pulmonary injury.¹⁻¹⁶ Additionally, HIV infection plays a significant role in the pathophysiology of ACS in SCD patients through immune dysregulation. HIV leads to chronic immune activation and persistent inflammation, which may further exacerbate endothelial damage and impair the normal repair mechanisms in the lungs. This persistent inflammatory state increases the likelihood of secondary infections, such as pneumonia or tuberculosis, which are common

triggers for ACS. The immunosuppressive nature of HIV also impairs the ability of the body to mount a robust immune response to these infections, further complicating the clinical picture. Moreover, HIV-related lung diseases, including HIV-associated pulmonary hypertension and opportunistic infections, may contribute to the progression of ACS and worsen the overall respiratory dysfunction in these patients.¹⁷⁻¹⁸

Diagnostic Approaches for Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients

Accurate and timely diagnosis of Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) in HIV-positive sickle cell disease (SCD) patients is essential to provide appropriate and effective treatment. The challenge lies in the overlapping symptoms of ACS with other respiratory conditions, especially in the context of HIV-associated respiratory complications. A comprehensive diagnostic approach that incorporates clinical assessment, imaging, and microbiological investigations is crucial to differentiate ACS from other potential causes of respiratory distress, such as infections, pulmonary hypertension, or HIV-associated lung diseases.²⁰

Clinical Assessment

The initial step in diagnosing ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients involves a detailed clinical assessment, which includes obtaining a thorough history and performing a physical examination. ACS typically presents with acute chest pain, fever, hypoxia, and tachypnea, accompanied by new pulmonary infiltrates on imaging. Clinicians must consider the patient's history of both SCD and HIV, including the presence of any respiratory symptoms, recent infections, or medication regimens that could contribute to pulmonary issues. The patient's immunological status, including CD4 count and viral load, should also be assessed, as these factors influence the likelihood of opportunistic infections and other complications. Identifying any recent sickle cell pain crises or episodes of hypoxia can help guide

the diagnosis, as these events often precipitate or exacerbate ACS.²¹⁻²²

Imaging Studies

Radiologic imaging plays a critical role in diagnosing ACS and differentiating it from other pulmonary conditions in HIV-positive SCD patients. A chest X-ray is typically the first-line imaging modality used to identify the hallmark signs of ACS, including new pulmonary infiltrates, which are indicative of parenchymal injury. However, chest X-rays may sometimes be insufficient in detecting early or subtle manifestations of ACS, and a computed tomography (CT) scan of the chest can provide a more detailed evaluation of lung pathology. CT scans may reveal microvascular damage, atelectasis, and fat embolism, which are commonly associated with ACS. In cases where there is concern for overlapping conditions such as pneumonia or tuberculosis, high-resolution CT (HRCT) can help further delineate the cause of lung injury.²³⁻²⁴

Microbiological Testing

Since infections are a leading cause of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients, microbiological testing is essential to identify potential infectious triggers. Blood cultures, sputum cultures, and throat swabs are standard tests to detect bacterial infections, such as *Streptococcus pneumoniae* or *Staphylococcus aureus*, which are commonly implicated in pulmonary complications. In patients with a history of HIV, there is also an increased risk of opportunistic infections, such as *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia (PCP) or tuberculosis (TB), both of which may precipitate ACS. Therefore, testing for fungal, viral, and mycobacterial pathogens should be considered, especially in immunocompromised patients. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays for HIV-related pulmonary infections, such as PCP, TB, and Cytomegalovirus (CMV), may be employed to confirm the diagnosis. Early identification of the infectious etiology allows for the appropriate targeted antibiotic, antifungal, or antitubercular therapy to be initiated.²⁵⁻²⁷

Pulmonary Function Tests and Arterial Blood Gas

Pulmonary function tests (PFTs) can be useful in assessing the degree of respiratory impairment and monitoring the response to therapy in ACS patients. However, these tests may not be performed acutely in all cases, as they are more useful for longitudinal monitoring. In severe ACS episodes, arterial blood gas (ABG) analysis is critical to assess the severity of hypoxia and guide oxygen therapy. The ABG results can help clinicians evaluate the need for supplemental oxygen, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation, or mechanical ventilation, depending on the level of respiratory failure. Moreover, ABG can offer insight into the presence of respiratory acidosis or metabolic abnormalities, such as lactic acidosis, which can be exacerbated by both ACS and HIV-related therapies.²⁸⁻²⁹

Cardiac and Hematological Evaluation

Given the risk of pulmonary hypertension and other cardiovascular complications in HIV-positive SCD patients, a cardiac evaluation may be warranted if ACS is suspected. Transthoracic echocardiography can assess for signs of right heart strain, which may occur due to increased pulmonary vascular resistance. Furthermore, a complete blood count (CBC) and other hematological tests should be performed to monitor for signs of anemia, leukocytosis, or thrombocytosis, which may indicate the severity of the ACS episode and guide transfusion strategies. A baseline hemoglobin level and reticulocyte count can help differentiate ACS-related hemolysis from other forms of anemia, providing insight into the need for blood transfusions.²⁹

Differential Diagnosis

Due to the complex overlap of symptoms in HIV-positive SCD patients, it is essential to differentiate ACS from other potential causes of respiratory distress, such as pulmonary infections, pulmonary embolism, or HIV-associated lung disease. HIV-related lung diseases, including

lymphocytic interstitial pneumonia (LIP) or HIV-associated pulmonary hypertension (PH), may present with similar symptoms but require distinct management strategies. Therefore, differential diagnosis is crucial and should be based on a combination of imaging, clinical history, and microbiological investigations.³⁰

Therapeutic Approaches for Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients

The management of Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) in HIV-positive sickle cell disease (SCD) patients requires a multidisciplinary approach due to the complex interplay between sickle cell pathology, HIV-related immunosuppression, and the increased risk of pulmonary infections. Effective treatment aims to address the underlying causes of ACS, alleviate symptoms, and prevent complications, all while considering the unique needs of HIV-positive individuals. The therapeutic strategies involve supportive care, infection management, pain control, and the use of specific interventions to mitigate sickle cell-related vascular complications.³¹

Supportive Care and Oxygen Therapy

Oxygen therapy is the cornerstone of supportive care in ACS management. Hypoxia, which is a hallmark of ACS, requires prompt intervention to improve oxygen saturation and prevent respiratory failure. Supplemental oxygen should be administered to maintain an adequate oxygenation level, typically targeting an oxygen saturation of 92% or higher. In severe cases, where oxygen therapy alone is insufficient, non-invasive positive pressure ventilation (e.g., BiPAP) or mechanical ventilation may be required to manage respiratory distress and improve gas exchange. Regular monitoring of oxygen saturation and arterial blood gases (ABG) is essential to assess the patient's response to therapy and to adjust oxygen delivery accordingly.³²⁻³³

Pain Management

Pain management is crucial in ACS, as the underlying sickle cell crisis contributes to the

intensity of chest pain. Pain relief is achieved through the use of opioids, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), and adjunctive therapies, such as acetaminophen or nerve blocks, depending on the severity of pain. For HIV-positive patients, careful attention must be given to the potential interactions between analgesic medications and antiretroviral therapy (ART). Opioids, in particular, should be used cautiously and monitored closely due to the risk of opioid-induced respiratory depression, especially in patients already experiencing respiratory compromise due to ACS. The goal is to provide sufficient pain relief while minimizing the risk of opioid misuse and respiratory complications.³⁴⁻³⁵

Infection Management

Infections are a leading cause of ACS exacerbations, particularly in HIV-positive individuals who may have weakened immune systems. Empiric antibiotic therapy is typically initiated upon suspicion of bacterial infection, with coverage against common pathogens such as *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, and *Haemophilus influenzae*. Given the increased risk of opportunistic infections in HIV-infected individuals, empiric treatment should also consider pathogens like *Pneumocystis jirovecii* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, especially in those with low CD4 counts. Once the causative organism is identified through microbiological testing, antibiotic therapy can be adjusted based on sensitivity profiles. Antifungal and antitubercular treatment should be initiated as necessary for suspected opportunistic infections. Early recognition and appropriate antimicrobial treatment are key to preventing progression to respiratory failure or sepsis.³⁶⁻³⁷

Red Blood Cell Transfusions

Blood transfusions are often required to treat ACS, especially when there is evidence of significant hemolysis or worsening anemia. Transfusions help to dilute the sickle cell population, improving oxygen delivery and reducing the extent of sickling in the microvasculature. In HIV-positive patients,

special care must be taken when considering blood transfusions to ensure the blood is screened for HIV and other infectious agents, such as hepatitis B and C. The use of red blood cell transfusions in ACS has been shown to decrease mortality rates and improve pulmonary outcomes. Additionally, the transfusion protocol may involve the use of exchange transfusion in severe cases of ACS to further reduce the sickle cell burden and prevent further ischemic damage.³⁸

Hydroxyurea and Other Disease-Modifying Therapies

Hydroxyurea, an effective disease-modifying therapy for sickle cell disease, plays a pivotal role in the prevention of ACS. By increasing fetal hemoglobin (HbF) levels, hydroxyurea helps to reduce the polymerization of sickle hemoglobin (HbS) and thereby decrease the occurrence of sickle cell-related complications, including ACS. In HIV-positive SCD patients, the use of hydroxyurea must be carefully monitored, as some ART regimens may interact with hydroxyurea, potentially leading to altered drug efficacy or increased risk of adverse effects. It is essential to assess the patient's overall health, CD4 count, and viral load before initiating or adjusting hydroxyurea therapy. Other disease-modifying therapies, such as L-glutamine or voxelotor, may also be considered in some cases to reduce oxidative stress and improve red blood cell deformability, thereby reducing the frequency and severity of ACS episodes.³⁹

Management of Pulmonary Hypertension

HIV-positive SCD patients are at increased risk for pulmonary hypertension, which can exacerbate ACS by increasing the workload on the right side of the heart and worsening respiratory function. Pulmonary vasodilators, such as sildenafil, are commonly used in the management of pulmonary hypertension and may provide benefit in ACS cases complicated by this condition. Monitoring for signs of right-sided heart failure or increased pulmonary vascular resistance is important, as early intervention with pulmonary vasodilators can improve outcomes.

The decision to use pulmonary vasodilators should be guided by the clinical presentation and diagnostic findings, including echocardiography and right heart catheterization, if indicated.⁴⁰

Multidisciplinary Care and Long-Term Management

The management of ACS in HIV-positive SCD patients requires a multidisciplinary approach, involving hematologists, pulmonologists, infectious disease specialists, cardiologists, and intensivists. Close collaboration ensures that all aspects of the patient's care are addressed, including pain management, infection control, respiratory support, and disease-modifying therapies. Long-term management strategies should focus on preventing the recurrence of ACS through optimal control of sickle cell disease, regular monitoring of lung function, and the management of HIV and comorbid conditions. Vaccination against pneumococcal and other respiratory pathogens is also essential for prevention. HIV-positive patients should receive regular ART to maintain viral suppression and prevent immune deterioration, which can increase the risk of infections and other complications.⁴¹

Role of Multidisciplinary Care in Managing Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients

The management of Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) in HIV-positive sickle cell disease (SCD) patients requires a collaborative, multidisciplinary approach due to the complex and multifactorial nature of the condition. A single specialty alone is often insufficient to manage the diverse complications that arise in these patients, as the interplay between sickle cell pathology, HIV-related immunosuppression, and the risk of infections necessitates input from several healthcare professionals. A multidisciplinary team approach ensures comprehensive care that addresses the physiological, psychological, and social aspects of patient management.⁴²

Comprehensive Assessment and Tailored Interventions

In the multidisciplinary care model, each specialist contributes unique expertise to develop a comprehensive treatment plan. Hematologists are essential in managing the sickle cell disease and its related complications, including the optimization of hemoglobin levels, red blood cell transfusions, and disease-modifying therapies like hydroxyurea. Pulmonologists play a crucial role in managing the respiratory complications of ACS, providing interventions such as oxygen therapy, mechanical ventilation, and the management of pulmonary hypertension, which is more common in HIV-positive SCD patients. Infectious disease specialists are responsible for preventing and treating infections, which are a significant trigger for ACS, while cardiologists may be involved in managing complications such as pulmonary hypertension or heart failure. In addition, pain specialists or anesthesiologists can help manage the intense pain associated with ACS, offering a range of analgesic options while minimizing the risks of opioid use in HIV-positive patients.⁴³

Coordination of HIV Management

One of the critical elements of a multidisciplinary approach is the management of HIV in these patients. The infectious disease specialists and HIV care team members are crucial in ensuring that antiretroviral therapy (ART) is optimized to maintain viral suppression and prevent opportunistic infections, which can exacerbate ACS. ART interactions with other medications, such as hydroxyurea or antibiotics, require close monitoring to avoid adverse effects or drug resistance. Additionally, the team may coordinate regular screening for other HIV-related complications, such as renal or neurological disorders, that could impact the overall management of ACS. Managing ART in the context of a sickle cell crisis or ACS can be challenging, and ongoing communication between HIV specialists, hematologists, and other care providers is vital for minimizing risks and optimizing treatment regimens.⁴⁴

Psychosocial Support and Patient Education

Beyond medical interventions, multidisciplinary care includes addressing the psychological and social needs of HIV-positive SCD patients. Social workers, mental health professionals, and patient navigators are instrumental in providing psychosocial support, particularly in helping patients cope with the chronic nature of both HIV and sickle cell disease. These conditions can lead to feelings of isolation, depression, and anxiety, which can negatively impact treatment adherence and overall health outcomes. Educational support is also crucial for ensuring that patients understand the complex interactions between their conditions, the importance of adherence to treatment regimens, and the need for regular monitoring and follow-up care. Moreover, patient education programs can offer valuable insight into lifestyle modifications, such as smoking cessation and the importance of vaccination, that are critical in reducing the risk of infections and subsequent ACS episodes.⁴⁵

Collaborative Decision-Making and Personalized Care

The involvement of multiple specialists ensures that treatment decisions are made collaboratively, with each professional contributing their expertise to optimize care. This approach enables personalized care that is tailored to the individual needs of the patient. For example, if a patient with HIV and SCD develops ACS, the team may collectively assess the severity of the crisis, determine the need for blood transfusions, and decide on the appropriate use of antibiotics or antiviral medications based on the patient's clinical presentation and diagnostic findings. The coordinated approach ensures that treatments are complementary and not contradictory, and that the patient's physical, mental, and emotional well-being is prioritized.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷

Long-Term Care and Prevention

Multidisciplinary care extends beyond the acute management of ACS to include long-term care and prevention strategies. Regular follow-up

visits with various specialists ensure that patients are regularly monitored for recurrence of ACS, the development of chronic lung disease, or worsening of sickle cell-related symptoms. Pulmonary function tests, echocardiograms, and routine assessments of HIV status are important components of ongoing care. Furthermore, the multidisciplinary team is responsible for developing a prevention plan that includes vaccination against respiratory pathogens, strategies to avoid triggering events such as dehydration or infection, and management of co-morbid conditions such as hypertension or diabetes, which are more common in HIV-positive individuals.⁴⁸

Conclusion

The management of Acute Chest Syndrome (ACS) in HIV-positive sickle cell disease (SCD) patients presents a complex clinical challenge due to the intersection of the two conditions, each with its own array of complications. Effective management of ACS requires a comprehensive, multidisciplinary approach that brings together expertise from hematology, pulmonology, infectious disease, cardiology, pain management, and psychosocial support. By fostering close coordination among specialists, a personalized treatment plan can be developed that addresses the unique needs of each patient, ensuring optimal care and minimizing risks associated with both SCD and HIV. The pathophysiology of ACS in the context of HIV infection is multifactorial, involving mechanisms such as hypoxia, inflammation, and infections, which exacerbate the severity of the syndrome. Early diagnosis and timely intervention, along with the use of appropriate diagnostic tools, are crucial in preventing long-term damage and improving outcomes. Therapeutic approaches, including oxygen therapy, antibiotics, and transfusions, must be carefully tailored to accommodate the complexities of HIV treatment, including antiretroviral therapy interactions and managing co-morbidities.

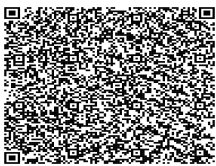
References

1. Owusu ED, Visser BJ, Nagel IM, Mens PF, Grobusch MP. The interaction between sickle cell disease and HIV infection: a systematic review. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*. 2015; 60(4):612-626.
2. Boateng LA, Ngoma AM, Bates I, Schonewille H. Red blood cell alloimmunization in transfused patients with sickle cell disease in sub-Saharan Africa; a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Transfusion Medicine Reviews*. 2019; 33(3):162-169.
3. Ola B, Olushola O, Ebenso B, Berghs M. Sickle Cell Disease and Its Psychosocial Burdens in Africa. In *Sickle Cell Disease in Sub-Saharan Africa 2024*: 67-80. Routledge.
4. Makani J, Ofori-Acquah SF, Nnodu O, Wonkam A, Ohene-Frempong K. Sickle cell disease: new opportunities and challenges in Africa. *The scientific world journal*. 2013; 2013(1):193252.
5. Ochocinski D, Dalal M, Black LV, Carr S, Lew J, Sullivan K, Kissoon N. Life-threatening infectious complications in sickle cell disease: a concise narrative review. *Frontiers in Pediatrics*. 2020; 8:38.
6. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU, Okwuanaso CB. Optimizing Immune Health in HIV Patients through Nutrition: A Review. *Elite Journal of Immunology*, 2024; 2(1): 14-33
7. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Platelet Distribution Width (PDW) as a Prognostic Marker for Anemia Severity in HIV Patients: A Comprehensive Review. *Journal home page*: <http://www.journalijiar.com>;12(01).
8. Obeagu EI, Ubosi NI, Obeagu GU, Akram M. Early Infant Diagnosis: Key to Breaking the Chain of HIV Transmission. *Elite Journal of Public Health*, 2024; 2 (1): 52-61
9. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Hematocrit Fluctuations in HIV Patients Co-infected with Malaria Parasites: A Comprehensive Review. *Int. J. Curr. Res. Med. Sci*. 2024; 10(1):25-36.

10. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Transfusion Therapy in HIV: Risk Mitigation and Benefits for Improved Patient Outcomes. *Asian J Dental Health Sci*, 2024; 4(1):32-7. Available from: <http://ajdhs.com/index.php/journal/article/view/62>
11. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Advancements in HIV Prevention: Africa's Trailblazing Initiatives and Breakthroughs. *Elite Journal of Public Health*, 2024; 2 (1): 52-63
12. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Optimizing Blood Transfusion Protocols for Breast Cancer Patients Living with HIV: A Comprehensive Review. *Elite Journal of Nursing and Health Science*, 2024; 2(2):1-17
13. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Understanding ART and Platelet Functionality: Implications for HIV Patients. *Elite Journal of HIV*, 2024; 2(2): 60-73 1
14. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Hematologic Considerations in Breast Cancer Patients with HIV: Insights into Blood Transfusion Strategies. *Elite Journal of Health Science*, 2024; 2(2): 20- 35
15. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Impact of Maternal Eosinophils on Neonatal Immunity in HIVExposed Infants: A Review. *Elite Journal of Immunology*, 2024; 2(3): 1-18
16. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU, Obiezu J, Ezeonwumelu C, Ogunnaya FU, Ngwoke AO, Emeka-Obi OR, Ugwu OP. Hematologic Support in HIV Patients: Blood Transfusion Strategies and Immunological Considerations. *Newport International Journal of Biological and Applied Sciences (NIJBAS)* 2023. <http://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12493/14626>
17. Ntsekhe M, Baker JV. Cardiovascular disease among persons living with HIV: new insights into pathogenesis and clinical manifestations in a global context. *Circulation*. 2023; 147(1):83-100.
18. Obare LM, Temu T, Mallal SA, Wanjalla CN. Inflammation in HIV and its impact on atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease. *Circulation research*. 2024; 134(11):1515-1545
19. Hmiel L, Zhang S, Obare LM, Santana MA, Wanjalla CN, Titanji BK, Hileman CO, Bagchi S. Inflammatory and immune mechanisms for atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease in HIV. *International journal of molecular sciences*. 2024; 25(13):7266..
20. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Platelet Aberrations in HIV Patients: Assessing Impacts of ART. *Elite Journal of Haematology*, 2024; 2(3): 10-24
21. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Harnessing B Cell Responses for Personalized Approaches in HIV Management. *Elite Journal of Immunology*, 2024; 2(2): 15-28
22. Belisário AR, Bлаты PF, Vivanco D, Oliveira CD, Carneiro-Proietti AB, Sabino EC, de Almeida-Neto C, Loureiro P, Máximo C, de Oliveira Garcia Mateos S, Flor-Park MV. Association of HIV infection with clinical and laboratory characteristics of sickle cell disease. *BMC Infectious Diseases*. 2020; 20(1):638.
23. Bhowmik A, Banerjee P. Hematological manifestation in HIV infected children. *J Coll Physicians Surg Pak*. 2015; 25(2):119-123.
24. Gill AF, Ahsan MH, Lackner AA, Veazey RS. Hematologic abnormalities associated with simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infection mimic those in HIV infection. *Journal of Medical Primatology*. 2012; 41(3):214-224.
25. Nourai M, Nekhai S, Gordeuk VR. Sickle cell disease is associated with decreased HIV but higher HBV and HCV comorbidities in US hospital discharge records: a cross-sectional study. *Sexually transmitted infections*. 2012; 88(7):528-533.
26. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Hematological Changes Following Blood Transfusion in Young Children with Severe Malaria and HIV: A Critical Review. *Elite Journal of Laboratory Medicine*. 2024; 2(1):33-45.
27. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. The Role of L-selectin in Tuberculosis and HIV Coinfection: Implications for Disease Diagnosis and Management. *Elite Journal of Public Health*, 2024; 2 (1): 35-51
28. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Unraveling the Role of Eosinophil Extracellular Traps (EETs) in HIV-Infected Pregnant Women: A Review. *Elite Journal of Nursing and Health Science*, 2024; 2(3): 84-99

29. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Unveiling the Role of Innate Immune Activation in Pediatric HIV: A Review. *Elite Journal of Immunology*, 2024; 2(3): 33-44
30. Obeagu EI, Obeagu, GU. Impact of Blood Transfusion on Viral Load Dynamics in HIVPositive Neonates with Severe Malaria: A Review. *Elite Journal of Scientific Research and Review*, 2024; 2(1): 42-60
31. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. L-selectin and HIV-Induced Immune Cell Trafficking: Implications for Pathogenesis and Therapeutic Strategies . *Elite Journal of Laboratory Medicine*, 2024; 2(2): 30-46
32. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. Exploring the Role of L-selectin in HIV-related Immune Exhaustion: Insights and Therapeutic Implications. *Elite Journal of HIV*, 2024; 2(2): 43-59
33. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. P-Selectin Expression in HIV-Associated Coagulopathy: Implications for Treatment. *Elite Journal of Haematology*, 2024; 2(3): 25-41
34. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. P-Selectin and Immune Activation in HIV: Clinical Implications. *Elite Journal of Health Science*, 2024; 2(2): 16-29
35. Obeagu EI, Amaeze AA, Ogbu ISI, Obeagu GU. B Cell Deficiency and Implications in HIV Pathogenesis: Unraveling the Complex Interplay. *Elite Journal of Nursing and Health Science*, 2024; 2(2): 33-46
36. Obeagu EI, Obeagu, GU. Platelet Dysfunction in HIV Patients: Assessing ART Risks. *Elite Journal of Scientific Research and Review*, 2024; 2(1): 1-16
37. Kibaru EG, Nduati R, Wamalwa D, Kariuki N. Impact of highly active antiretroviral therapy on hematological indices among HIV-1 infected children at Kenyatta National Hospital-Kenya: retrospective study. *AIDS research and therapy*. 2015; 12:1-8.
38. Enawgaw B, Alem M, Addis Z, Melku M. Determination of hematological and immunological parameters among HIV positive patients taking highly active antiretroviral treatment and treatment naïve in the antiretroviral therapy clinic of Gondar University Hospital, Gondar, Northwest Ethiopia: a comparative cross-sectional study. *BMC hematology*. 2014; 14:1-7.
39. Gudina A, Wordofa M, Urgessa F. Immuno-hematological parameters among adult HIV patients before and after initiation of Dolutegravir based antiretroviral therapy, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Plos one*. 2024; 19(10):e0310239.
40. Geletaw T, Tadesse MZ, Demisse AG. Hematologic abnormalities and associated factors among HIV infected children pre-and post-antiretroviral treatment, North West Ethiopia. *Journal of blood medicine*. 2017:99-105.
41. Jegede FE, Oyeyi TI, Abdulrahman SA, Mbah HA, Badru T, Agbakwuru C, Adedokun O. Effect of HIV and malaria parasites co-infection on immune-hematological profiles among patients attending anti-retroviral treatment (ART) clinic in Infectious Disease Hospital Kano, Nigeria. *PLoS One*. 2017; 12(3):e0174233.
42. Obeagu EI, Obeagu GU. ART and Platelet Dynamics: Assessing Implications for HIV Patient Care. *Elite Journal of Haematology*. 2024; 2(4):68-85.
43. Obeagu EI, Ayogu EE, Obeagu GU. Impact on Viral Load Dynamics: Understanding the Interplay between Blood Transfusion and Antiretroviral Therapy in HIV Management. *Elite Journal of Nursing and Health Science*. 2024;2(2):5-15.
44. Ciccacci F, Lucaroni F, Latagliata R, Morciano L, Mondlane E, Balama M, Tembo D, Gondwe J, Orlando S, Palombi L, Marazzi MC. Hematologic alterations and early mortality in a cohort of HIV positive African patients. *PLoS One*. 2020; 15(11):e0242068.
45. Ashenafi G, Tibebu M, Tilahun D, Tsegaye A. Immunohematological Outcome Among Adult HIV Patients Taking Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy for at Least Six Months in Yabelo Hospital, Borana, Ethiopia. *Journal of Blood Medicine*. 2023:543-554.
46. Obeagu EI, Goryacheva OG. The Role of Inflammation in HIV and Sickle Cell Disease Co-Morbidity. *Lifeline HIV*, 2025; 3(1): 1-12

47. Obeagu EI, Goryacheva OG. Oxidative Stress in HIV and Sickle Cell Disease: A Double Burden. Lifeline HIV, 2025; 3(1): 13-24
48. Obeagu EI, Goryacheva OG. HIV and Sickle Cell Disease: A Focus on Liver Dysfunction. Lifeline HIV, 2025; 3(1): 25-40

Access this Article in Online	
	Website: www.ijcrps.com
	Subject: Haematology
Quick Response Code	
DOI: 10.22192/ijcrps.2025.12.02.004	

How to cite this article:

Emmanuel Ifeanyi Obeagu. (2025). Management of Acute Chest Syndrome in HIV-Positive Sickle Cell Patients. Int. J. Curr. Res. Chem. Pharm. Sci. 12(2): 35-45.
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.22192/ijcrps.2025.12.02.004>