

hen the HIV-AIDS epidemic spread across the Western hemisphere and into the United States, we all were petrified. We've made great strides with research and investigation. Today, we have a greater understanding of the biology of the dis-

ease, ways to prevent its transmission, and methods of control. Medication development has moved rapidly.

However, in concert with this good news, patients have become less anxious and, to some extent, have let their guards down. The scare factor seems to have decreased among women and their partners. As a consequence, the rapid decline in incidence that we had

## MASTER CLASS Managing HIV in Pregnancy

hoped for has not materialized.

The number of reported HIV cases in the United States now exceeds 1 million, and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention estimates that about 25% of those living with HIV are unaware that they have the infection. Increasingly, women are at risk; the CDC reports that from 1999 to 2003, the estimate of AIDS cases increased by 15% among females and 1% among males.

Physicians will therefore continue to be confronted with women who are HIV infected. Like other women, these patients want to have children and provide for their families, so a thorough discussion of the management of HIV in pregnancy is most appropriate at this time. It is particularly important for obstetricians in urban areas, where the presentation of HIV-infected women can be higher. But it is also certainly important in suburban areas, which will see their share of pregnancies in HIV-infected women. Nobody is immune and no community is spared.

I am very pleased to have Howard L. Minkoff, M.D., as my Master Class guest professor this month. He is currently a distinguished professor of ob.gyn. at the State University of New York, and is chair of the department of ob.gyn. at Maimonides Medical Center, both in Brooklyn. Dr. Minkoff has done extensive research and has published widely on the topic of HIV in pregnancy.

DR. REECE, who specializes in maternal-fetal medicine, is the vice chancellor and dean of the college of medicine at the University of Arkansas in Little Rock.

# New Tests Would Help Lower Perinatal Transmission

he HIV epidemic continues to expand in Africa and beyond, and will continue to infect women as well as men. Tens of millions of people are already infected worldwide, more than a million of them in the United States where about 7,000 HIV-infected women give birth each year.

Yet we have reasons to be optimistic. When it comes to treating the disease, we're nowhere near where we were 20 years ago—or even 10 years ago. In communities with access to care, prognoses have improved significantly. As obstetricians, we now have the tools that allow us to provide effective care for HIV-infected pregnant women and to reduce perinatal transmission. Because of our increasing use of highly active antiretroviral therapy in addition to zidovudine chemoprophylaxis and the appropriate use of elective cesarean section, we now see only a few hundred HIV-infected newborns a year.

We could reduce perinatal transmission even further with two actions: embracing the Institute of Medicine's simple and practical "opt-out" approach to HIV testing, and using rapid screening tests more frequently. The use of a rapid screening test is an important evolving step, or shift, in the management of the HIV-infected pregnant woman. It is vital that these tests be used when necessary during labor.

Once a diagnosis is made, it is our job to guide the patient through the complex but promising process of treatment and monitoring, including, when necessary, the use of resistance testing. To do this,

obstetricians can partner with HIV specialists and access up-to-date, practical treatment information online.

#### 'Opt-Out' Testing, Rapid Tests

Many of the infants born HIV-positive today are infected because their mothers were not tested. Perhaps one in nine HIV-infected pregnant women gets minimal or no prenatal care. A significant number of others do not initiate care

until the third trimester. In 1999, the Institute of Medicine rec-

ommended an informed right-of-refusal approach to testing.

In this approach, the physician informs the patient that she is going to be tested for the virus that causes AIDS and that she has the right to refuse the test. She can



"opt out" by signing a consent form. That does not mean that there are few-

er safeguards with HIV testing. We're still respecting patients' autonomy. In fact, we are more cautious with this test than with other screening procedures that we routinely perform. For example, we don't have

individual, informed opt-out policies for breast exams that may detect cancer. HIV infection is treatable. With early diagnosis and therapy, women have decades to live and babies can be free of the disease.

Obstetricians need to put their imprimatur on the test. That's part of our role in caring for pregnant women. If we say, "You don't need this test, do you?" instead of saying "This is a test that's good

for everybody," we may as well not offer it. The goal simply put is to have HIV status determined as early as possible in all pregnancies.

The focus most recently among scientific and public health experts has been on rapid HIV tests. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention has recommended that physicians liberalize the use of rapid screening in labor and delivery suites, emergency departments, and other settings.

These tests should be offered to any woman in labor whose serostatus is unknown. Although not as reliable as the standard approach used for prenatal testing, these tests are sensitive enough to identify HIV-infected women, and the results can be used as a basis for offering treatment while confirmatory tests are performed. Obstetricians should not wait for definitive follow-up tests to begin intrapartum and early neonatal prophylaxis. We can tell patients that if confirmatory tests turn out negative, treatment will be discontinued.

#### Therapy

If a pregnant woman tests positive, it is the obstetrician's job to monitor her immunologic and virologic status. Studies have shown a direct correlation between viral load and perinatal transmission, with transmission lower at any given viral load if antiretroviral therapy is used.

The viral load also can be used to counsel women about the potential utility of cesarean section: With plasma HIV-1 RNA levels higher than 1,000 copies/mL, cesarean section will reduce rates of transmission. Below that level, the additive benefit of cesarean section, beyond that which can be achieved with highly active retroviral therapy, is less certain.

A lot has changed since 1994, when the Pediatric AIDS Clinical Trials Group reported that zidovudine could reduce the risk for mother-to-child transmission 70%. Current interventions for all HIV-infected individuals focus on early initiation of HAART (highly active antiretroviral therapy)—the term used for the more aggressive and more potent combination antiretroviral regimens that can better suppress viral replication, preserve immune function, and minimize the development of resistance.

Although there are special and complex considerations to be made with regard to the choice of HAART agents in pregnancy, pregnancy per se is not a reason to defer what is now standard therapy.

In pregnancy, zidovudine should still be used whenever possible as a component of HAART regimens. Although it is similar in many ways to other nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, it has the advantage of demonstrated efficacy in preventing perinatal transmission.

If you don't see a substantial number of HIV-infected women, or if you don't keep up with the ever-expanding body of literature on antiretroviral drugs and patient management, I would advise comanaging your patient with an HIV specialist.

The obstetrician's key role is to ask the consultant what he or she would recommend if the patient were not pregnant, and then to take the lead in evaluating the drugs' benefits, toxicities, and risks. Obstetricians—with their dual roles of optimizing the health of the mother and preventing transmission of the virus to the child, in that order of priority—should be the ones to modify the regimen if necessary.



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We often use category C drugs during pregnancy if we know that a drug is much more effective than a category B drug. However, specialists in other disciplines might recommend category B drugs, not because they are better but because of those specialists' unfamiliarity with the care of pregnant women and their fear of using category C drugs. We should be the ones to make that call, and should work with the HIV specialist in balancing efficacy and fetal safety.

The HIV specialists, on the other hand, are going to know all the ins and outs about drug combinations, about acceptable rates of viral load decrease, and about dosing schedules and other logistical details.

In general, the use of two nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors along with a protease inhibitor or a nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor is recommended. It also is often useful to choose a regimen that spares one class of antiretroviral agents in case resistance develops. There are choices within each of the three drug categories, but there also are certain medications that should not be used in combination because of overlapping toxicities or diminished efficacy.

There are also certain potential perinatal risks. Nevirapine, for instance, can cause fulminant liver disease in women who have CD4 counts greater than 250 cells/mm<sup>3</sup>. This drug should be used in pregnant women only if its benefit clearly outweighs the risk.

Treatment with efavirenz, for example, should be avoided during the first trimester because the drug has been associated with severe central nervous system anomalies. Overall, it's important to recognize and tell patients that we do not have long-term outcome data on the use during pregnancy of any of the available antiretroviral drugs.

The number of HAART regimens continues to increase, and there may be new reports of problems, so in addition to consulting with HIV specialists, obstetricians should also make use of the Public Health Service's Web site (www.aidsinfo.nih.gov/guidelines). The site provides thorough and regularly updated guidelines on the management of HIV in pregnant women, as well as fact sheets for patients. The perinatal guidelines—last updated in February—cover management broadly but also address the safety and toxicity of individual drugs.

#### Prevention of Resistance

Once therapy is underway, viral loads should be checked every month until the viral load is undetectable. At that point, monitoring should be done every 2-3 months. If the viral load is not dropping

or does not become	undete	ctabl	e withir
6 months, a decision	about	new	therapy
will have to be made.			

Before therapy is stopped, however, your patient must undergo resistance testing—a practice that has become a standard component of HIV care, mainly for identifying therapies that should not be used in the new regimen.

If you stop therapy first and draw blood just a week later, the wild-type virus (the nonmutant strain) may have overgrown a minority mutant strain, and the resistant virus may not be detected. You must draw blood before discontinuing therapy.

Also remember that second regimens do not work as well as first regimens, so it is important to do everything possible to prevent nonadherence. Patients who are only intermittently adherent—who have intermediate drug levels—are more likely to develop resistance.

Be sure to explain at the start that it is critical for the patient to be committed to therapy and to take drugs in a timely fashion. And if a patient develops nausea and vomiting, have her stop her drug regimen until the symptoms subside.

#### Mode of Delivery

As a rule, women who have scheduled a cesarean delivery before the onset of labor and before rupture of membranes have a lower rate of perinatal HIV-1 transmission. However, for a patient whose viral load is very low, there really is no evidence that scheduled cesarean delivery can lower the risk of transmission.

In addition, there is some preliminary evidence to support the notion that even some patients whose viral load is not that low—plasma HIV-1 RNA levels higher than 1,000 copies/mL—may not benefit from cesarean delivery if they are being given HAART. Those data remain to be confirmed.

Considering all that is known and unknown, I would advise a cesarean section for women whose viral load is greater than 1,000 copies/mL. When a patient's viral load is low, however, I would tell her that there is no proven benefit to delivering surgically.

### Indications for Plasma HIV RNA Testing

Clinical Indication	Information	Use
Syndrome consistent with acute HIV	Establishes diagnosis when HIV antibody test is negative or indeterminate	For diagnosis*
Initial evaluation of newly diagnosed HIV	Establishes baseline viral load set point	With CD4 T-cell count for decision to start or defer therapy
Every 3-4 months in patients not on therapy	Measures changes in viral load	With CD4 T-cell count for decision to start therapy
2-8 weeks after initiation of or change in antiretroviral therapy	Provides initial assessment of drug efficacy	In decision to continue or change therapy
3-4 months after start of therapy	Provides assessment of virologic effect of therapy	In decision to continue or change therapy
Every 3-4 months in patients on therapy	Measures durability of antiretroviral effect	In decision to continue or change therapy
Clinical event or significant decline in CD4 T cells	Confirms association with changing or stable viral load	In decision to initiate, continue, or change therapy

\*Diagnosis of HIV infection by HIV RNA testing should be confirmed by standard methods (ELISA and Western blot testing) 2-4 months after the initial indeterminate or negative test.

Notes: Acute illness (such as bacterial pneumonia, tuberculosis, herpes simplex virus, or *Pneumocystis jiroveci* pneumonia) and vaccinations can cause an increase in plasma HIV RNA for 2-4 weeks; viral load testing should not be performed during this time. Plasma HIV RNA results should usually be verified with a repeat determination before starting or making changes in therapy. Source: Department of Health and Human Services

# Drug Resistance Factors Into HIV Treatment Failures

#### BY HEIDI SPLETE Senior Writer

BETHESDA, MD. — Drug resistance poses a problem in treating HIV patients, in part because of the virus's high mutation rate, Roy M. Gulick, M.D., said at an annual conference on antimicrobial resistance sponsored by the National Foundation for Infectious Diseases.

Factors affecting HIV drug resistance include the virus itself, the antiretroviral drugs used, and the characteristics of the individual patient. Drug resistance is one of the main reasons why HIV treatments fail, said Dr. Gulick, director of the Cornell HIV Clinical Trials Unit at Weill Medical College of Cornell University, New York.

The goal of antiretroviral therapy (ART) is to suppress the viral load to as low a level as possible for as long as possible, he noted. Due to the high rate of mutation in the HIV virus, viral diversity is extensive. Failure to suppress viral load levels in the presence of antiretroviral drugs leads to the development of a resistant strain, Dr. Gulick explained.

Patient-related factors that can contribute to the development of resistance include the stage of disease, use of other medications, medication adherence, and side effects.

"We used to follow resistance clinically. If someone was taking their drugs, and their viral load went down, but then rose again, if we were sure that they were taking the medication, we assumed that they had developed resistance," he said. Today, genotypic tests provide viral sequencing of a patient's viral strain, and phenotypic tests can grow the patient's virus in vitro and assess resistance in the presence of the available antiretroviral drugs.

Are resistance tests clinically valuable? Dr. Gulick cited three studies, including one published in the Lancet, in which several hundred patients who had failed drug therapies were randomized to either genotypic or phenotypic drug resistance testing or standard care (Lancet 1999;353:2195-9).

Overall, the patients who fared better in terms of viral load reduction on their new regimens were those who had the resistance tests. "Simply put, resistance tests help clinicians choose active drugs for the next regimen," Dr. Gulick said. Guidelines from the Department of Health and Human Services recommend resistance tests in the clinical setting in cases of virologic failure, suboptimal virologic suppression, and acute HIV infection.

These tests could be considered in cases of HIV infection before starting ART, but they are generally not recommended for patients more than 4 weeks after ART drug use ends, or when viral load levels are less than 1,000 copies per million.

However, studies of the effectiveness of resistance testing are limited by several fac-

tors, including problems with the clinical cutoffs—when the drugs lose activity over time—and questions as to whether the studies had enrolled patients who had failed multiple treatments.

Other studies show conflicting results on the use of resistance tests, especially for highly resistant patients. "The best resistance tests can't help a patient if they have no drug options to go to," Dr. Gulick said.

Asked whether he recommends genotypic or phenotypic testing for patients who are just starting antiretroviral therapy or who already have resistance, Dr. Gulick commented that although sufficient clinical evidence is lacking, most experts recommend a genotype test for patients who are treatment naive or have failed their first regimen, when it is relatively easy to figure out what the mutations mean. But in patients who have been through multiple regimens, phenotype is easier to interpret.