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### TRANSCRIPT OF PROCEEDINGS

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION

#### ANTIVIRAL DRUGS ADVISORY

COMMITTEE MEETING

VOLUME III

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# DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION CENTER FOR DRUG EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

## ANTIVIRAL DRUGS ADVISORY COMMITTEE MEETING

**VOLUME III** 

Wednesday, November 3, 1999 8:30 a.m.

Holiday Inn Gaithersburg Two Montgomery Village Avenue Gaithersburg, Maryland

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Joanne L. Rhoads, M.D.

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### PROCEEDINGS

Call to Order

DR. HAMMER: I would like to call into session the Antiviral Drugs Advisory Committee meeting. This is day two of our consideration of HIV drug resistance in the setting of drug development.

I would like to begin again by having the members and guests of the committee introduce themselves for the record. I will begin on my left with Dr. Charache.

DR. CHARACHE: I am Patricia Charache. I am Professor of Pathology, Medicine, and Oncology at Johns Hopkins.

DR. WOOLSON: Robert Woolson. I am Professor of Biostatistics, University of Iowa.

DR. MATHEWS: Chris Mathews, Department of Medicine, UC/San Diego.

DR. KUMAR: Princy Kumar, Infectious Diseases,
Georgetown University Medical Center.

DR. GULICK: Roy Gulick, Infectious Diseases, Cornell University.

DR. STANLEY: Sharilyn Stanley, Texas Department of Health.

DR. YOGEV: Ram Yogev, Children's Memorial
Hospital, Chicago.

DR. HAMILTON: John Hamilton, Adult Infectious

DR. HAMMER: Thank you. I would like to turn to Rhonda Stover who will read the conflict of interest statement.

#### Conflict of Interest Statement

MS. STOVER: The following announcement addresses the issue of conflict of interest with regard to this meeting and is made **a** part of the record to preclude even the appearance of such at this meeting.

Since the committee's discussions of issues related to testing for development of resistant human immunodefiency virus will not have a unique impact on any particular firm or product, but rather may have widespread implications with respect to an entire class of products, in accordance with 18 United States Code 208, general matters waivers have been granted to each member and consultant participating in the committee's discussions.

A copy of these waiver statements may be obtained by submitting a written request to the FDA's Freedom of Information Office, Room 12A-30 of the Parklawn Building.

In the event that the discussions involve any products or firms not already on the agenda for which an FDA participant has a financial interest, the participants are aware of the need to exclude themselves from such involvement, and their exclusion will be noted for the record.

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1	With respect to <b>all</b> other participants, we ask in
2	the interest of fairness that they address any current or
3	previous involvement with any firms whose products they may
4	wish to comment upon.
5	<b>DR.</b> HAMMER: Thank you.
6	One quick announcement. For those who are
7	interested, we will be discussing regulatory scenarios this
8	afternoon, and copies of those scenarios and the slide
9	formats are out on the desk for you to pick up if you would
10	like at the break.
11	Now I would like to turn to Joanne Rhoads, who
12	will introduce Session 3.
13	SESSION 3
14	Practical Considerations for the Use of
15	Resistance Testing in Antiretroviral
16	Drug Development and Use
17	Introduction
18	DR. RHOADS: Good morning. I am Joanne Rhoads
19	from the Division of Antiviral Drug Products, FDA. I would
20	like to introduce Session 3, which is devoted to practical
21	considerations for the use of resistance testing in
22	antiretroviral drug development.

genotypic and phenotypic assay technology current available,

the performance characteristics and limitations of these

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assays, and evidence from retrospective and prospective studies supporting their clinical utility.

Today, before we continue to discuss the role of resistance testing in drug development, we will consider the prevalence of drug resistant HIV-1 in selected U.S. populations and also discuss in more depth some of the factors which may complicate the interpretation of resistance data.

These factors which were touched on many times yesterday include the presence of naturally occurring polymorphism, sampling issues, the complexity introduced by combination therapy, pharmacological properties of a drug, and anatomic and cellular compartmentalization of HIV.

The session objectives are:

- 1. To review the prevalence of genotypic variants and/or reduced susceptibility in selected U.S. populations.
- 2. To illustrate possible limitations in the practical clinical use or application of resistance assays in clinical investigations.
- 3. To examine how cofactors associated with treatment outcome confound interpretation of resistance testing.
- Dr. Susan Little will present data addressing the prevalence of drug resistant HIV in selected U.S. populations of newly infected individuals, and Richard

1	D'Aquila will provide a review of factors which may confound
2	interpretation of resistance data.
3	Once again, we look forward to an interesting and
4	productive discussion. I will introduce the first speaker
5	and then turn the session over to our chair, Dr. Scott
6	Hammer.
7	Dr. Susan Little will now present Transmission and
8	Prevalence of Drug Resistant HIV.
9	Thank you.
10	Transmission and Prevalence of HIV Resistance
11	DR. LITTLE: Thank you.
12	[Slide. 1
13	The transmission of drug resistant HIV was first
14	reported in 1992 by Erice and Colleagues at the 32nd ICAAC.
15	In this report, $oldsymbol{a}$ patient with primary HIV
16	infection had blood samples obtained which showed a reduced
17	susceptibility to AZT and sequence data then showed the
18	presence of <b>a</b> tyrosine at position 215, conferring AZT
19	resistance.
20	Since this first report, there have been numerous
21	reports of the sexual transmission of drug resistant HIV,
22	first in the setting of single drug and more recently in the
23	setting of multi-drug resistant HIV.
24	The initial reports, not surprisingly, documented
25	transmission of single drug AZT resistance and more recently

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3 TC resistance, while more recent reports, first in the form of isolated case reports and more recently in larger cohort studies document the transmission of multi-drug resistant HIV.

[Slide.]

The transmission of drug resistant HIV is not limited, however, to the sexual transmission of HIV. The transmission of drug resistant HIV has also been documented by several groups in the setting of perinatal or vertical transmission following injection drug use transmission, and between two children following a presumed unrecognized blood contact.

[Slide. 1

These studies have clearly shown, however, that the transmission of virus with reduced drug susceptibility is not associated with lower pretreatment viral loads. As was covered yesterday, it is not known what level of reduced susceptibility is reproducibly associated with virologic failure for each drug.

As a result, completely arbitrary classifications of reduced drug susceptibility have been adopted by most investigators and they are shown here for the two most common assay types that are going to be discussed today, so I won't review them again.

[Slide.]

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As an introduction to this kind of interpretation
or how to interpret these tests, I am going to present a
little bit of data from our own cohort study. We evaluated
antiretroviral susceptibility using the virologic
susceptibility assay among 141 subjects with primary HIV
infection from five cities across the United States.

The number of patients from each city are shown here - 48 in San Diego, 48 in Los Angeles, 19 in Dallas, 13 in Denver, 13 in Boston.

We estimated the date of HIV infection in these study patients using the date of high risk exposure or symptom onset in symptomatic seroconverters or the date of the first positive HIV test in asymptomatic seroconverters.

[Slide.]

The percent of patients with any level of reduced drug susceptibility to the nucleosides and non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors are shown here. The dark blue boxes and the dark red boxes indicate the proportion of patients with higher level or greater than IO-fold reductions in drug susceptibility.

Overall, the proportion of patients with reduced susceptibility to the nucleosides was relatively low with only 3 percent of our study cohorts showing reduced susceptibility to one or more of the nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. The lighter boxes, I should say,

indicate reduced susceptibility in the 2.5 to lo-fold range.

In contrast, the proportion of patients with reduced susceptibility to the non-nucleosides was surprisingly high given that the use of these compounds was not widespread at the these patients were identified.

The level of reduced susceptibility, however, that was identified was generally lower than has been described in patients with genotypic resistance. Again, only 1 percent of the study cohort had a greater than IO-fold reduction in susceptibility to the non-nucleosides. Similarly, only 1 percent of the study cohort had a greater than lo-fold reduction in susceptibility to the nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors.

[Slide.]

The percentage of patients with any level of reduced susceptibility to the protease inhibitors varied from 1 percent for saquinavir, 2 percent for indinavir, 5 percent for ritonavir, and 9 percent for nelfinavir, again, darker boxes indicating those patients with greater than 10-fold reductions in susceptibility.

Overall, 10 percent of our study cohort had some level of reduced susceptibility to the protease inhibitors with only 1 percent again having a greater than IO-fold reduction in susceptibility.

[Slide.]

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We then evaluated reverse transcriptase and
protease sequence in the 39 patients in whom we identified
some level of reduced drug susceptibility. In the setting
of what is now a very extensive list of amino acid
substitutions that have been reported to date in association
with in vitro or in vivo drug resistance, we chose to
identify or report only those well-characterized amino acid
substitutions which have been clearly associated with in
vitro drug resistance according to the 1998 JAMA consensus

These guidelines identify a set of so-called primary drug resistance mutations shown here for reverse transcriptase and protease. These primary drug resistance mutations are generally selected early in the process of accumulation of drug resistance mutations, tend to have a discernible effect on drug susceptibility, and are often drug specific.

guidelines on antiretroviral drug resistance published by

[Slide.]

Hirsch and colleagues.

Those, as Dr. Richman introduced yesterday, are these black and white mutations. These are the gray. These guidelines also identified a group of secondary mutations, shown here again for reverse transcriptase and protease.

These mutations tend to accumulate in viral genomes that already contain one or more of the primary drug

resistance mutations. They may have a more limited effect on drug susceptibility and may, in fact, be selected because they improve viral fitness.

[Slide.]

So, using population-based sequence analysis on those 39 patient isolates, there were three patients in our cohort for whom we identified a major reduction or greater than lo-fold reduction in drug susceptibility. Among these three patients, primary drug resistance mutations in reverse transcriptase and protease are shown here, the primary drug resistance mutation shown in yellow and/or bold, and the secondary mutation show in white.

These were observed in the background of numerous other polymorphisms. There was one of these three patients in our cohort who had an isolated high-level or greater than IO-fold reduction in susceptibility just to the non-nucleosides, and in this patient we did not identify any primary drug resistance mutations.

In contrast, among the 36 patients in whom we identified a moderate reduction in susceptibility, we identified one -- and this is the merit of Power Point, I changed these slides this morning -- we identified one well-characterized drug resistance mutation, the presence of a T215Y mutation in a patient who had an 8.4-fold reduction in susceptibility. It didn't make the cut-off of 10 for the

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major reduction in susceptibility.

So, in the setting of only one well-characterized drug resistance mutation, in the background again of numerous polymorphisms, this suggests that these may, in fact, be wild type viruses with reduced susceptibility, which are really of unknown clinical significance.

[Slide.]

We also evaluated the isolates in our study according to the year in which their baseline sample was identified, beginning in 1989 through 1998.

Although 70 percent or nearly 70 percent of our study cohort was identified in 1997 or later after the release of the first really potent protease inhibitors, we did not identify any increase in the proportion of patients identified over time with some level of reduced susceptibility to the protease inhibitors, nor for that matter, for the non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors.

Again, these numbers are really quite small, but we did not see any trends. Like other of the larger cohort studies, however, the two patients in our study who had high level or greater than IO-fold reductions in susceptibility to the protease inhibitors were both identified in 1998.

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So, using this kind of interpretation, I have

taken great liberties with the data that has been presented and published by numerous other North American, European, and Australian investigators, and re-analyzed their published and presented data using these guidelines, these criteria for primary and secondary drug resistance mutations and cut-offs for the established two phenotypic assays to try and determine whether there is any degree of consensus among the many published and presented studies now in terms of the overall prevalence of drug resistance in patients with primary or recent HIV infection.

To talk through this table, these are the North American studies using our study first as an example, again, 141 patients, our population was patients with primary HIV infection of less than 12 months duration. The mean time from seroconversion, approximately two months.

We identified again 2 out of 141 patients with primary drug resistance mutations, again with the caveat shown down here, we did not sequence all samples or at least as of the date of this table, had not sequenced all samples, but only sequenced those samples in which we identified any level of reduction or reduced drug susceptibility. So, I think it is unlikely that this is going to be substantially higher when we put in the data from all of those samples that we have now sequenced with wild type susceptibility, but it could change slightly.

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67 or 15 percent.

So, again, 2 out of 141 or 1 percent of the cohort 1 2 of the primary drug resistance mutations, 31 out of 141 or 22 percent with secondary drug resistance mutations. 3 Again, we used the virologic assay using this cutoff of greater than lo-fold, 3 out of 141 or 2 percent of 5 the cohort with greater than lo-fold reductions, 26 percent 6 with 2.5 to lo-fold reductions in susceptibility. 7 The Boden study, published the same month in JAMA, 8 80 patients, their population less than 6 months from 9 seroconversion, again mean time from seroconversion 2 10 11 months. They identified primary drug resistance mutations 12 the same primary that I used, in 8 out of 80 patients or 10 13 percent, and secondary drug resistance mutations in 48 out 14 of 80 or 60 percent using the same virologic assay, but 15 unfortunately, with a different cut-off that I haven't yet 16 been able to resolve, of greater than 5-fold reduction in 17 susceptibility, they found 8 out of 67 or 12 percent with a 18 greater than 5-fold reduction in susceptibility. 19 So, again, once this number is adjusted to conform 20 to the greater than 10-fold cut-off, this number may 21 actually fall to be more in consensus with the others. 22

In the 2.5- to 5-fold, they identified 10 out of

The Wegner study, 114 patients, all with recent

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HIV infection less than three years duration, mean **time** from seroconversion approximately 12 months.

They identified primary drug resistance mutations in 6 of 95 or 6 percent, secondary in 22 percent, using the Virco assay with their cut-offs greater than lo-fold in 8 percent, greater than 4- to lo-fold in 19 percent.

Bob Grant's study, 89 patients, again primary infection less than 12 months duration, primary drug resistance mutation only for the nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors. That is the only data I had access to for this.

10 of 89 or 11 percent with primary drug resistance mutations, they only presented data on the lower level or 2.5- to lo-fold reductions in susceptibility to only the non-nucleosides, but again just to show that they are seeing the same fairly high number in terms of frequency associated with this lower level reduced susceptibility to the non-nucleosides.

This study by Weinstock, 99 patients, recent infection less than 24 months, 5 percent of their cohort with primary drug resistance mutations, roughly 21 percent with secondary. 1 out of 12 or 8 percent showed greater than lo-fold reductions in susceptibility, 4 out of 12 or 33 percent showed 2.5- to lo-fold.

Verbiest, 230 patients. Treatment-naive patients

with chronic infection. 5 out of 199 or 3 percent with primary drug resistance, 15 percent with secondary. They used the Virco assay. 3 percent with greater than IO-fold reductions in susceptibility and 11 percent with 4- to 10-fold.

[Slide. 1

I also reviewed less completely the European and Australian and a few Canadian data. The French study looked at 370 treatment-naive patients with chronic HIV, but I was most interested in this subset of 103 patients within their group that had primary HIV infection or infection of less than 12 months duration.

Again, 8 out of 103 or 8 percent had primary drug resistance mutations, 3 out of 103 had secondary, again, the caveat being that in this cohort, the protease domain was sequenced only if the reverse transcriptase domain showed mutations. So, again, this may underestimate. This might move up if they were to sequence more of their isolates.

The Spanish study, 150 patient, treatment-naive, 18 out of 149 with primary drug resistance mutations, but with the caveat that this is the Mirex line probe assay, which interrogates only primary reverse transcriptase inhibitor mutations.

Yerly, the Swiss study, 82 patients, approximately less than 6 months duration of infection, so primary HIV

infection. Again, 8 out of 82 or 10 percent with primary mutations, 51 percent with secondary, but they only called secondary protease mutations.

She used a different phenotypic assay, an in-house, home brew assay, but it had the same cut-offs actually of greater than 4 to 10, and greater than IO-fold for their different categories.

2 out of 14 or 14 percent had greater than IO-fold reductions in susceptibility, but again, they assessed susceptibility only if primary or secondary protease mutations were identified.

So, again, this number might increase if they also looked at those patients that had primary or secondary RT mutations. 8 percent with the lower level 4- to IO-fold reduction in susceptibility.

Balotta, the Italian study, 37 patients, less than six months duration, 11 percent of this cohort had primary resistance mutations. Again, this was only the RT domain that was sequenced. 30 out of 33 had secondary mutations.

The Australian study, 84 patients, very recent infection. Again, 14 percent had primary reverse transcriptase inhibitor mutations.

Finally, Veronica Miller's data, 46 patients, less than six months duration, 5 percent had primary mutations, 54 percent had secondary mutations.

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So, in an effort to try and summarize all of this, at least the North American data, a major reduction in susceptibility, that is, greater than IO-fold reduction, has been observed in 2 percent of subjects with primary HIV infection and 3 to 8 percent of treatment-naive subjects with recent infection.

Primary drug resistance mutations have been observed in 1 to 11 percent of subjects with primary HIV infection and 3 to 6 percent of treatment-naive subjects with recent infection.

So, if I am permitted to very broadly round, something like 5 percent of patients with primary or recent HIV infection in the United States appear to be infected with clinically relevant drug resistant virus.

[Slide.]

Many of these larger cohort studies have also identified patients infected with multi-drug resistant virus, that is, virus with resistance, primary drug resistance to greater than one class of antiretroviral drugs. This has been shown in multiple cities now in the United States and Europe with frequencies in the 1 to 4 percent range.

In many of these cases, there was no exposure history to suggest the transmission of multi-drug resistant

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22 HIV with which to promote or advocate a more selective use 1 of resistance testing. Thus, strategies are desperately needed to permit rapid identification of these individuals. 3 [Slide.] As one such example, in our own cohort study, 5 patient 98-1186, shown in blue here, resistance was not 6 suspected in this patient. He was started very rapidly 7 after seroconversion on a regimen of AZT, 3TC, and 8 indinavir, and showed a rather slow virologic response, 9 10 which is fairly self-evident when compared to a more typical 11 patient, initiating the exact same regimen who shows a much 12 more rapid viral decay. Because of his slow virologic response, sequence 13 analysis was performed and showed primary drug resistance 14 15 mutations to AZT, 3TC, and multiple protease inhibitors. As 16 a result of this data, his treatment regimen was switched to an entirely new, non-nucleoside-based combination regimen, 17 which resulted in complete suppression to viral load less 18 than 50, which I am told has now been sustained for six 19 20 months even beyond the follow-up shown in this slide. [Slide.] 2.1 Thus, moderate reductions in drug susceptibility 22

to certain drugs are highly prevalent and frequently not associated with recognized drug resistance mutations.

The presence of moderate reductions in

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1	susceptibility may actually, we believe, represent wild type
2	virus that is simply being discerned with greater confidence
3	using these more precise phenotypic assays.
4	However, we cannot exclude the possibility that
5	subpopulations of more resistant virus are present and not
6	being detected by our population-based sequence analyses.
7	Alternatively, there is, in fact, greater, as was
8	shown yesterday, natural variability in the susceptibility
9	of wild type virus to the NNRTIs and some of the PIs, which
10	may explain the variability that we observed.
11	The treatment implications of infection with virus
12	of moderately reduced susceptibility are currently unknown.
13	[Slide.]
14	So, now that we know something about the
15	prevalence of drug resistant HIV in North America, what
16	about the transmissibility of drug resistant HIV?
17	Several groups have identified an apparent
18	selection against the transmission of resistant virus. In a
19	study by Wahlberg, they identified 4 patients or subjects
20	with recent HIV infection and their sexual source partners
21	or donors.
22	Although all 4 source partners were infected with
23	AZT resistant virus, only 1 donor transmitted resistant
24	virus to the sexual partner recipient.

Similarly, in a study by Colgrove, 4 mothers who

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were infected with mixtures of AZT resistant and sensitive virus, 3 of these transmitted only the wild type to their infected infant or only 1 transmitted drug resistant virus to the infected infant.

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Another issue that is going to be relevant to the issue of transmission of drug resistant virus is that of compartmentalization. A study by Zhu in which patients, 5 acute seroconverters were identified and again their respective sexual source partners or donors were identified.

They compared gp120 sequences in the seroconverters from the time of seroconversion out to 6 months of follow-up, and gp120 sequences in both the blood and genital secretions of the donor as close to the transmission event as was possible.

They identified a sequence heterogeneity in the blood and genital secretions of all of the donors and relative homogeneity of the viral population in the recipients from seroconversion out to 6 months of follow-up.

In all cases, the transmitted virus was a minor variant present at 0.5 to 27 percent within the population and the semen of the transmitter, suggesting that a selection process occurred during transmission.

Somewhat in contrast, a study by Poss showed 6 recently infected Kenyan women in whom they also evaluated

envelope sequence evolution over time, again, from the time of seroconversion out to 6 months of follow-up.

They identified more heterogeneous viral populations that were present in the cervical secretions and blood of these women from shortly after seroconversion out to 6 months of follow-up, suggesting that either less of a selection process occurred or perhaps there may have been more subtle sampling differences which may have explained these discrepancies.

[Slide.]

The transmission of drug resistant virus is almost certainly going to occur more frequently in patients who are receiving or have received antiretroviral therapy in the absence of complete virologic suppression, however, even in the setting of complete virologic suppression, replication competent virus has been isolated from the seminal cells of 2 of 7 subjects that Zhang studied, who were receiving HAART and had plasma viral loads of less than 400.

Actually, in those 2 in whom they were able to isolate replication competent virus, both had viral loads less than 50 on all of the days that they were evaluated. So, even with complete virologic suppression, these kind of data suggest that the transmission of virus may at least be theoretically possible although to my knowledge it has not yet been documented in this setting.

Both the study by Zhang and that by Overvaugh demonstrate that the viral strain detected in the genital secretions may represent a minor variant of the genotype in the blood, suggesting that even with all of these advanced methodologies that we have access to, we may have a very difficult time predicting who is going to transmit what to whom.

[Slide.]

So, finally, to summarize, we need additional studies to monitor the prevalence of drug resistance, particularly with an eye toward identifying any possible geographic patterns of variability and differences that may exist among persons who acquire HIV through different risk exposures.

We need to better understand the mechanisms and the rates of transmission of drug resistant virus. We need to learn more about the clinical significance of primary infection with resistant virus and learn the most efficient manner of identifying these patients.

Finally, we need to understand treatment responses among patients infected with virus showing moderate reductions in drug susceptibility since these virus populations seem to be so widely prevalent among patients with primary and recent HIV infection.

Thank you.

1	DR. HAMMER: Thank you very much.
2	Are there questions for Dr. Little?
3	Please, Dr. Kaplan
4	DR. KAPLAN: That was a beautiful presentation.
5	Thanks very much.
6	I wanted to ask you about the very last point,
7	which becomes obviously really important in the data you
8	presented showing the moderate phenotypic resistance
9	particularly to NNRTIs, which appears to be common, and we
10	heard about this quite a bit yesterday.
11	I wonder if, in your studies in San Diego, you
12	will have any opportunity to look at what the clinical
13	significance of what that moderate resistance is, in other
14	words, are any of those patients being treated with NNRTIs
15	or are you using the results of your testing to get around
16	NNRTIs in your treatment.
17	DR. LITTLE: Yes. I tried to look at this in the
18	San Diego cohort, and it is just too small a number of
19	patients with too diverse treatment regimens.
20	So, what I have recently proposed is to the NIH
21	Primary Infection Group, and to the group that has
22	participated in this first study, is a study to look at the
23	clinical responses of most of the North American patients
24	with primary HIV infection, which should give us a much
25	larger denominator to look at despite varied treatment

regimens. 1 It will be a retrospective look, but we should be 2 able to look at treatment responses in patients evaluated 3 with the same phenotypic susceptibility assay over time. So, my hope is yes, I will be able to answer that. 5 DR. HAMMER: Dr. Jolson. 6 Dr. Little, thank you for your 7 DR. JOLSON: 8 presentation. Just a quick question. In terms of interpreting 9 the prevalence of mutations of reduced susceptibility, in 10 your cohort, do you know if any of those patients had 11 received prophylaxis to some sort of occupational or other 12 exposure? 13 None in our cohort. I am not aware 14 DR. LITTLE: 15 in the other cohorts, but in most of the presentations I have heard it has never been mentioned. All the patients I 16 17 presented were either treatment-naive or had had less than seven days of therapy to the best of my knowledge. 18 DR. HAMMER: Dr. Pomerantz. 19 DR. POMERANTZ: Again, Susan, that was a great 20 21 talk. That is Thank you for re-analyzing all that data. 22 extremely helpful. But my question is, getting back to 23 those moderate resistant strains, because that I think is a 24

unique finding if they really are wild type that have

differences compared to your controls, have you had a chance
-- you quoted our study in the New England Journal -- we
only looked at genotypic markers, so we could have missed in
those seminal samples, and we have actually three more
patients that go with those -- we could have missed the ones
that are moderately resistant, and have you had a chance to
look for moderate resistance phenotypically in general
secretions in either men or women that were treated?

DR. LITTLE: No, we have not. We are collecting genital secretions, but have not yet done any susceptibility assays in those samples.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Mathews.

DR. MATHEWS: Susan, could you clarify something for me? I am quite confused about what is actually meant by polymorphism, because nearly all of the studies that you showed, showed a much higher prevalence of the secondary mutations than primary mutations, so are you saying that if the secondary mutations are present along with the primary mutations, they are resistance mutations, and if not, they are possibly polymorphisms?

DR. LITTLE: Sort of. My interpretation, most of the secondary drug resistance mutations do occur as natural polymorphisms or genetic variants in untreated patients.

So, the presence of one or more secondary drug resistance mutations in an untreated patient, to me does not imply drug

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resistance or moderate reductions in susceptibility that one should expect that in that population.

However, when present in association with primary drug resistance mutations, I think I would more likely predict that they might confer some additional perhaps reduction in susceptibility, but in terms of an actual breakdown of -- I mean lots of people are trying to do this -- which secondary drug resistance mutations, how many of them, in what combination, and appearing in what frequency predict reduced drug susceptibility. I certainly do not know.

I believe that most of the secondary drug resistance mutations that were identified or I should say the amino acid substitutions that were identified in these patient populations are more likely to be natural variants. I cannot prove that at this point, but that is my estimation based on the range of reduced susceptibility of the samples that we saw.

They were mostly in nelfinavir and the non-nucleosides, which, as I said, are known to have a much wider range of susceptibility. So, my bet is that those are natural polymorphisms, but we are going to be looking into that.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Hamilton, then Dr. Stanley.

DR. HAMILTON: Is it possible to determine from

1	your analysis and/or re-analysis whether there is a
2	correlation between viral load and number of resistance
3	mutations?
4	DR. LITTLE: I didn't address that, so, no, I
5	couldn't. Most of the patients in these groups that were
6	identified with primary infection, their baseline isolate
7	was collected fairly recently after seroconversion on the
8	order of two to sometimes six months out. So, in general,
9	their viral loads were quite a bit higher than mean viral
10	:loads in many of the chronically infected cohorts, but other
11	than saying their viral loads were in general higher, no, I
12	haven't addressed that.
13	DR. STANLEY: Just a point of clarification, on
14	your slide on compartmentalization, the study by Zhu with
15	the five pairs, are those all MSM or were there some
16	Ineterosexual?
17	DR. LITTLE: One heterosexual.
18	DR. HAMMER: Dr. Pomerantz.
19	DR. POMERANTZ: I forgot to ask you one question.
20	Again, back to those moderately resistant
21	patients, they were all shown by the virologic system,
22	correct, the phenotypic moderate resistance?
23	DR. LITTLE: In our study, yes.
24	DR. POMERANTZ: Have you confirmed any of those in
25	a nonchimeric backbone doing your typical PBMC resistance?

1	DR. LITTLE: No.
2	DR. POMERANTZ: So, you don't know whether the
3	switch to chimeric backbone might have affected that. Okay.
4	DR. RICHMAN: When we did the original nevirapine
5	studies 10 years ago using the old-fashioned assays, these
6	sorts of observations were also seen, but we never bothered
7	to write up the baseline thing because we didn't know what
8	to make of it, and we didn't have the type of precision of
9	the data, but I think this information does exist. The data
10	with these assays are confirmed.
11	DR. HAMMER: Dr. Gulick, and then Dr. Jackson.
12	DR. GULICK: Did you get a feel for the
13	demographics of the patients? We talk about the North
14	American experience, but it is my suspicion that this
15	represents select cities and select groups of patients being
16	characterized. Do you have a feel for that?
17	DR. LITTLE: It is definitely overrepresented as
18	one would predict in this country. The patients that are
19	most frequently sampled are men who have sex with men, the
20	largest proportion of whom are white.
21	So, certainly trying to look at all of the North
22	American studies, there is some geographic variability, but
23	even in the other studies, they seem to be more weighted to
24	the West Coast than the East.

So, I think at this point, it is fairly

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representative of most study cohorts in the sense that they are probably something in the order of 80, 85 percent male, and the majority of them, men who have sex with men is their primary respector. I didn't break it down, but that is my guess looking at most of the studies having about the same breakdown.

DR. JACKSON: Could you comment on Dr. Kaplan's point about the treatment response or perhaps the clinical relevance of these sort of moderately reduced susceptible viruses, particularly to the NNRTIs? I wasn't clear how much reduced it was.

For example, with nevirapine, these levels in vivo are typically 200 to 400 times the IC50, and so it is not clear whether these findings are going to have any relevance to treatment response.

DR. LITTLE: Agreed. I mean I think the level of reduced susceptibility was quite a bit lower than has been generally associated with virus that carries genotypic resistance. For instance, in the one patient in our cohort who had up to 20-fold reduced susceptibility to multiple NNRTIs, not a single primary drug resistance mutation for the NNRTIs was identified.

So, evaluating treatment responses in patients with moderate reductions in susceptibility to the protease inhibitors, I think will be easier than to the NNRTIs,

simply because it is going to be impossible I think to
evaluate treatment responses within patients in whom
moderate reductions in NNRTI resistance or susceptibility
are noted, who are then not treated with a primary NNRTI-
containing regimen.
So, we will have a much smaller subset of those

So, we will have a much smaller subset of those patients, particularly in late '98, '99. Some patients are initiating NNRTI protease-sparing based therapies, and we may be able to address that in a smaller group, but I still think that is going to be the most difficult group even retrospectively with a large number of patients to evaluate.

DR. RAMMER: Thank you very much for a superb presentation. I think we will move on now.

The next speaker is Dr. Richard D'Aquila, who will discuss factors confounding interpretation of resistance testing.

# Factors Confounding Interpretation of Resistance Testing

DR. D'AQUILA: I would like to thank the committee for the opportunity to speak today.

[Slide.]

Many of the factors that confound interpretation of resistance testing have been discussed yesterday, and I think a good subtitle for my talk might be why it might be optimal to have an 800 megahertz multitasking processor to

keep track of all the different factors, whether that processor is carbon based or silicon based probably doesn't matter as much.

[Slide.]

I think everyone is familiar with the fact that drug resistance may not always be the initiator of treatment failure. Drug resistant virus can be present, as we have heard, pre-existing before treatment is started or it can be emerging during treatment, and it can initiate failure, but obviously, some inhibitory drug levels or reduction in the host immune responses against HIV can also lead to persistent viral replication, which allows then subsequent evolution of drug resistance and the final common pathway to drug failure.

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This is a partial list of what I consider the most important factors confounding the interpretation of drug resistance tests. In addition to the fact that drug resistance need not be the initiator of failure, I think we have to account for many of these factors.

The biology of drug resistant HIV includes very complex interactive effects of the mutations. The issue of detection of minorities of resistant virus has been much discussed. We have also heard a bit about linkage of multiple resistance mutations within the same genome, and

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issues of latency or persistence of the resistant virus.

Another factor is the presence of the selecting drug, which is clearly related to the level of drug or drug concentrations that are present in vivo during therapy, and multiple drug combination regimens, the presence of other drugs in addition to the one to which the virus may be resistant. All of these also have to be taken into account.

Then, keeping in mind the issue of what initiates drug failure, timing of sampling blood from a patient who is failing a treatment regimen is very important in interpreting the results of a resistance test from that specimen. The timing relative to viral load rebound when in the process of viral load rebound, the sample is obtained.

Finally, I will touch-very briefly on issues related to anatomic compartments and cellular mechanisms of resistance.

[Slide.]

The mutation effects are very complicated, but indeed we do have pretty good correlations between geotype and drug susceptibility of clinical isolates. These correlations are not perfect and there may be some easy explanations for why they are not perfectly correlated.

The mutation effects that we see in clinical isolates may not be identical to the effects that were noted in site-directed mutants that have been studied in

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preclinical laboratory tests. There are differences in genetic background and other sequences of the virus remote from the mutation of interest that lead to variation in the effect of a given mutation, and we really have not defined these to any great extent. Only a few of these are really defined.

[Slide.]

I think this is one reason why we see this kind of data where there really is a very good correlation between a genotypic sensitivity score and a phenotypic sensitivity score. This is data from ACTG 372 with a 0.75 correlation coefficient, but there is some splay in the data. It is not perfect. You cannot predict the exact IC50 given a predetermined mutation.

[Slide.]

I think there are several potential reasons for discordances between phenotype and genotype, and those discordances can be in two directions.

The phenotype may indicate drug susceptibility when the genotype indicates resistance. The two most likely reasons for this are that there are mixtures of wild type and mutant basis at a position conferring resistance, or, the second major point down here, that there are interactive effects of mutations causing resistance reversal. The most well defined mutation that does this is the effect of the

M184V substitution on AZT resistance, but let's go back for a minute to the issue of mixtures of wild type and mutant basis.

A minority of resistant variant may be detectable by genotyping, which generally has a level of detection of at least 20 percent, but that may not be a large enough proportion within the virus population to increase the IC50 in a phenotypic assay.

Now, this may or may not provide an early warning of resistance, and I think we need more data on that. We need to address the question of whether the resistant minority will become dominant and then demonstrate a concordant effect in a phenotypic test if the same treatment is continued for somewhat longer.

[Slide.]

Discordance can also occur in the opposite direction where the phenotype may be resistant and the genotype may indicate susceptibility. The most likely reason for that, I think, is that there are previously uncharacterized mutations or combinations of mutations, and indeed we have seen some examples of this just in the past couple of years with the identification of the 69 insertion mutation in the RT and some other, more recently identified mutations, which were identified by screening for samples that would have resistant phenotype without any of the known

mutations, and then going ahead and thoroughly characterizing those viruses genotypically to identify the new mutations.

I think that is going to continue to occur particularly as we use drugs in different combinations and as we get more new drugs into our patients.

The other reason why there might be this type of discordance is that there might be mixtures of wild type and mutant at a position conferring resistance. Again, a minority of a resistant variant may be detected by phenotyping and not by genotyping.

Again, it could be related to relative differences in amplification where a minority variant might be better amplified in the genotypic assay than it could be in the genotypic assay.

Will any detection of resistance with either method minimize false negatives? I think this is an important question for future research, and one of the rationales for studying for some of the clinical trials that are ongoing or in development that will attempt to use both genotyping and phenotyping.

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Now, the complexity of mutation effects also leads to difference in the rule-based algorithms that are used by different laboratories to interpret drug susceptibility or

resistance from a genotype. It varies to some extent which
mutations are included in the rule for calling resistance to
a specific drug, and I think that leads to some of the
differences in interpretations that you may see from
different laboratories, and different algorithms account for
interactive effects, such as resistance reversal, some may
account for it, and some may not

Finally, there may be preclinical site-directed mutant data that is incomplete or not directly relevant to the specific mutational pattern seen in a clinical specimen.

[Slide.]

This leads to some very difficult interpretations, and these are just some examples of that. There may be on mutation which does not confer increased resistance by itself, but may contribute to resistance when additional mutations are added.

One situation like that is where you might see in a clinical isolate less than a complete RT 151-complex multinucleoside resistance genotype.

Now, this has been studied in site directed mutants in one study, where this constellation of mutations was studied separately, as well as together. The 151M mutation alone conferred some nucleoside resistance in the site directed mutant, but any of the other mutations in 62, 75, 77, or 116, any one of those others alone did not confer

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a detectable level of phenotypic resistance.

But if you put several of these together, then, you do get very broad cross-resistance to all of the nucleosides.

So, how do you interpret a finding of 151 alone? That is pretty easy. We have some data. We would probably all agree that that is likely to be a nucleoside resistant virus, resistant to most of the nucleosides.

But what about if you have 62 alone or 77 alone or 116 alone, does that indicate that the virus is still susceptible to the nucleosides, or might there be other genotypes under the surface, below the limit of detection, which have one or two or three additional mutations, and therefore that isolate should be considered as potentially resistant. We really can't give a definite answer to that problem today.

The same issue occurs with the RT 69 insertion, which together with the characteristic AZT selected mutations confers broad multinucleoside resistance in site directed mutants, but when it is present by itself, doesn't give as much resistance.

The same problem may also occur with many single protease active site resistance mutations. They may not confer much resistance to some of the protease inhibitors, but one always has to wonder, in all of these situations,

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whether there are additional mutations under the surface in vivo and whether an isolate with just one of the mutations night be predisposed to more rapidly develop further resistance.

Again, this is a very difficult interpretation, and I don't know in every case that the answer will always be the same.

[Slide.]

Again, the biology of the drug resistant virus is what leads to this complexity. As you know, it replicates as a genetically heterogeneous swarm of different quasispecies, and a resistant mutant may be present at any proportion including very, very low proportions in the total population, and the current tests only detect optimally 20 percent minority.

Indeed, the ENVA panels, which were presented at this past summer's resistance workshop suggested that some academic laboratories might miss a 50 percent mixture of mutant and wild type.

There has been speculation in discussion of those data that operator experience is important, and I think we need to investigate that further, but that is clearly another issue in the interpretation - how good is the lab, how low is the actual limit of detection in that lab for that operator on that day.

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[Slide.]

Now, there is some potential to improve the level of detection of minorities. Hybridization-based analyses of a pool of PCR products with one of several methods that are in development by different manufacturers do have relatively lower limits of detection, maybe down at best to about 1 percent of a population, but the tradeoff there is that these methods don't give you sequence in every codon, so that they are limited to specific codons rather than giving you the entire sequence of protease in RT.

The other approach to improve minority detection might be to evaluate multiple molecular clones of PCR products, and in a study from my laboratory, which was published in the Journal of Clinical Microbiology in September, 60 percent of the 30 specimens we examined with both bulk PCR product sequencing, the current state-of-theart, and with a clonal analysis looking it up to 15 clones.

Sixty percent of these specimens had a minority mutation detected in the multiple clones, that was not detected in the bulk PCR product sequence.

So, I think this might incrementally improve things, but again it comes at great cost in terms of the amount of labor and resources that are required to do this, and I think it is not really feasible on any large scale at this point in time, but again perhaps technology will

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advance far enough, so that this will become feasible. [Slide.]

One issue was raised yesterday that it is important to account for the linkage of multiple mutations, and another issue with using bulk PCR product sequencing is that that is giving you the dominant base at each position in the population, and that need not necessarily indicate genetic linkage.

All those mutations don't necessarily have to be in the same genome. There could be equal proportions of different genomes with mutations at different positions which will give you that same result in a bulk PCR product analysis.

But to date, clonal analyses do support the assumption that when there are multiple dominant mutations noted, they generally are in the same genome. This is clearly important when we are dealing with salvage therapy choices, because potentially, if you have mixtures of viruses with different mutational patterns, you might be able to construct a regimen where one drug will get 20 percent of the population and another drug will get a different 30 percent, and thereby try to construct a regimen that is more effective.

But to date with really a very small number of specimens from highly experienced patients being reported in

the literature, multiple mutations from these heavily 1 2 pretreated patients have been linked in the same clones. 3 [Slide.] This shows you one example of this from a specimen that we studied, that shows clonal analysis detecting a 5 minority population and the linkage of multiple mutations in this minority population. Of the 15 clones on this slide, 7 the two on the bottom -- and I apologize, this really is not а very legible -- but the two on the bottom contain multiple 10 resistance mutations including major active site, major 11 primary protease mutations in codons 48 and 82, and primary 12 RT resistance mutation in codons 184, 215, and several 13 important secondary mutations, as well. So, it is not a swarm of different mutational 14 patterns, but they are all linked together. 15 The other important thing about this slide and 16 this specimen -- and I will ask you to remember this pattern 17 as we go to the next slide, please --18 [Slide.] 19 -- is that that specimen was obtained several weeks after a 2.0 21 combination drug regimen was stopped and the patient was off 2.2 all drug therapy. It illustrates the point that within weeks of drug 23 withdrawal, the virus population may shift from a multiply 2.4

mutated virus to a dominant wild type virus population.

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Now, this comes at some risk. The risk is a decline in CD4 count. I dcn't want to discuss this as a treatment strategy right now. My point today is that resistance testing should always be done when drug selection pressure is present because otherwise it can lead to quite misleading results.

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Those results may be misleading because those resistant mutants may not disappear. This is a very instructive anecdote from John Condra, which he has presented at a meeting several years ago, that indicates that resistant mutants can remain either latent or persistent, below the level of detection, and rapidly reappear.

This is a patient who started treatment with indinavir as monotherapy, developed an 82 mutant in the protease that was 100 percent of the virus population. The y axis is the frequency of the mutant in the virus population.

Using sophisticated clonal analyses, after indinavir was stopped, this mutant declined to being 0.04. That would be 4 in 100 viruses in this plasma RNA population. But many months later, the clinicians thought, well, why don't we try again to restart indinavir, and very quickly this mutant moved from being 5 in 10,000 up to 80

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percent of the virus population, indicating, I think, that these resistant mutants may remain archived in one way or another, but I have shown you an anecdote here which is very instructive, and I think probably very common, but we don't have a lot of very hard data on this phenomenon, and I think we need to look for this phenomenon more as we begin to use resistance testing more commonly, because I really don't know how commonly this will occur.

I suspect it will be common, but I think it is important for us to study how commonly this will occur.

[Slide.]

I want to now move to another factor, and this is moving into the area of drug concentrations. Not only does the drug have to be present, but its concentration when the drug is being used is also very important, because resistance is a relative, not an absolute, phenomenon.

As you heard yesterday, there is still some effectiveness of these drugs even against resistant virus. The inactive drugs, I believe it was in the GART study, John Baxter told us that there was some drop in viral load associated with use of inactive drugs.

I think this is also one possible explanation for the lack of immediate decline in CD4 cells when viral load rebounds on triple combination regimens. There is still some ability to suppress.

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[Slide.]

Again, we have said many times at this meeting that the level of resistance needed to overcome the drug concentration that is present in the blood is unknown for any drug. I arbitrarily call this an IC50 cut-off.

It is likely that trough blood concentrations are the relevant measure for the protease inhibitors and the non-nucleoside RT inhibitors, and perhaps it would be useful to adjust for protein binding of those drugs.

For the nucleosides, the situation is much more complicated because we need to evaluate cellular triphosphate levels, and that is just a whole additional Layer of complexity.

Given all of this, monitoring individual drug Levels, as well as resistance, will undoubtedly improve the prediction of drug effect.

[Slide.]

You saw one example of that presented by Dr. Clevenbergh from the VIRADAPT study yesterday, where patients were categorized into these four groups with suboptimal trough PI concentrations or optimal trough PI concentrations either in the control arm or the arm that had treatment chosen based on genotyping.

[Slide.]

There was this very nice discrimination where the

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best viral load responses were seen in those who had genotyping to help guide regimen choices, and who had optimal protease inhibitor trough drug concentrations.

I don't want to spend a lot of time on this, but I think clearly, this is where we need to move in the future to combine resistance test results with analyses of drug levels in order to fully interpret the resistance results.

[Slide.]

Can resistance be overcome by higher drug levels? Some drugs which are now in development do achieve higher concentrations in blood relative to the virus' IC50 against that drug than the current drugs.

For current drugs, as we have heard, the level of drug in the blood is probably at most 5- to IO-fold above the wild type virus IC50.

[Slide.]

But Dale Kempf and his colleagues from Abbott were kind enough to provide me with some very interesting recent information looking a new compound ABT-378/ritonavir in PI-experienced patients. Some of this data has been presented at the resistance workshop, but Dale and his colleagues undertook another analysis of the data from their study M97-765, using the data analysis plan or the DAP that you saw presented yesterday, and I am going to show you just a couple slides about that.

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This compound is coformulated with ritonavir and it produces steady-state trough levels that exceed the protein binding corrected IC50 for wild type virus by at least 30-fold. The activity of this drug plus nevirapine and two nucleosides was studied in PI-experienced individuals. The virologic responses at 24 and 48 weeks were analyzed retrospectively according to the DAP.

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This shows you a schema of screening for PI-experienced patients who changed their PI on study day one to 378 ritonavir at one of two doses. They made only that change for two weeks, and then at study day 15 added nevirapine and also changed their nucleosides with one new nucleoside being new. The study was evaluated at weeks 24 and 48.

[Slide.]

There was something there yesterday. We did look at it yesterday.

Well, what it shows is that there is some resistance to all of the other protease inhibitors, and I can actually see it a little bit. It is a mean of 8-fold to 23-fold resistance for indinavir, nelfinavir, saquinavir, and ritonavir.

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But the point is that the responses were not

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1	predicted by the baseline drug susceptibility phenotype to
2	APT-378 ritonavir. The wild type IC50 levels listed here,
3	4-fold, the IC50 of wild type virus to 378 is also listed
4	there. The dots indicate the IC50s of the isolates from
5	these patients at entry to the study, and the patients who
6	failed, the six patients who failed really all cluster down
7	here. This is at week 24, failing by week 24, dropouts as
a	censored.
9	You can see that there is a wide range of IC50 for
10	the viral isolates, and what is indicated on top here are
11	the mean drug levels in this study at this dose. So,
12	really, even the highest IC50s appear to be below the levels
13	of drug that are present in vivo.
14	[Slide.]
15	This is similar data at week 48. Again, the
16	failures do not all cluster at the high end of IC50.
17	[Slide.]
18	This is looking at the number of mutations.
19	Again, there is no relationship between at week 24, the PI
20	mutation score in either success or failure. The failures
21	are in yellow here. Some have no mutations.
22	[Slide.]
23	This the same analysis at week 48, dropouts as
24	censored.

[Slide.]

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So, what Dale and his colleagues concluded from this was that at both week 24 and 48, there were very good responses. The response was not associated with a 4-fold change in phenotypic susceptibility or the number of PI mutations at baseline.

In these DAP analyses, only the baseline RNA level was identified as potentially associated with virologic responses in these subjects, and these findings could be consistent with the high sustained plasma concentrations of 378.

Now, I would like to add just some of my own personal opinions about this. I think it certainly does suggest that we need to evaluate this phenomenon more. I do not take from this the conclusion that there will be no resistance to this drug, and I think no one should walk away from this thinking that. I think we need further studies looking at patients who have PI experience than those who were studied here, and potentially looking at different regimens.

I will remind you that here, everybody had nevirapine added to their regimen at two weeks, so that clearly has to be taken into account when looking at these effects, but I think the general point that I would like to make from this is that there may be some drugs which will have high enough levels, so that it will be similar to

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intermediate resistance of pneumococcus.

One can still use penicillin against a pneumococcus which has intermediate resistance to penicillin. That does not indicate that there are no pneumococci out there which have higher levels of resistance for which penicillin will not be an adequate treatment.

I think it also suggests to me that it will be 'very important in drug development to perhaps -- and this should be discussed later -- perhaps ask sponsor to design studies where, in fact, the resistance pattern can be identified, where some viruses that are resistant can be selected on study and the resistance mutational pattern identified in those viruses.

[Slide.]

Looking at multi-drug combination regimens adds further complexity, and you have already heard about genotypic and phenotypic sensitivity scores, and the data from 372 are what suggested this, and that was what was used in the DAP.

[Slide.]

This just shows you those data. If you look at a genotypic sensitivity score, it very nicely predicts time to failure.

[Slide.]

There is another issue. That first regimen

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failure may not give you the same mutational pattern as later failures. There are several studies listed here showing that early during failure of the first triple combination regimen, you can see RTI resistance without PI resistance.

[Slide.]

But the timing of sampling during rebound is very important here. Most commonly early on, only resistance to 3TC is seen, but in these first regimen failures it is possible that PI resistant minorities may be present at a lower level and might eventually become detectable if the failing drug regimen is continued.

That remains a research question, and I think we need trials that either continue or intensify the PIs to address the issue about how to use resistance testing in this specific setting. Again, it may differ in those failing a second or a later regimen.

[Slide.]

This shows you just one isolate from a patient we studied early in indinavir, AZT, 3TC failure, and this patient had prior AZT treatment, and they showed up with resistance mutations to AZT, 3TC, and depicted on this slide, PI resistance mutations, as well. Trip Gulick has presented data from the Merck 035 study that also shows pretreated patients presenting with mutations to several of

the drugs.

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Anatomic compartments are another complexity. If resistance testing does not identify a resistant mutant in blood, could it already be present and rapidly emerge from a compartment such as CSF or semen where virus can evolve independently?

To date, resistant virus has rarely, if ever, been present in semen in the absence of detection of resistance in blood. Only a subset of patients in general, only a subset of patients with PI resistant virus in blood have PI resistant virus in semen, and I have cited here some work that we presented last year, and there are several other groups that have similar data.

I think there are fewer studies of CSF. Joe Wong has some very interesting studies on this, and I think that merits further study because I think there may be greater potential for resistant virus to be present in CSF, if not in blood.

[Slide.]

Cellular mechanisms of resistance are also necessary to be considered. There may be no virus resistance and yet patients may be failing. We know of several mechanisms for this. PIs are substrates for the P-glycoprotein multi-drug resistance gene 1, encoded P-

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glycoprotein, and there is another MDR transporter, the MRP4 that is induced by adefovir in vitro and effluxes nucleoside monophosphates out of cells.

Obviously, there are also other enzymatic mechanisms possible for the nucleosides including changes in the cellular enzymes involved in phosphorylation, and this is still largely uncharted territory.

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In conclusion, the current resistance tests are imperfect predictors of drug responses, and one needs to take into consideration, in addition to the resistance test result, many viral and drug-related biologic factors.

Improved essays may be developed in the future. Interpretation criteria can be better standardized, but I think perfection shouldn't be the enemy of the good.

[Slide.]

I think these limits shouldn't stop us from using resistance testing. The IAS-USA Resistance Testing

Consensus Panel, that published recommendations in JAMA in 1998, is updating those recommendations. That paper is being submitted, this week I believe, and much broader recommendations will be outlined in that update based on the retrospective and prospective studies that you heard summarized at this meeting.

In general, the recommendations will be to

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consider resistance testing for pretreatment screening for the recently infected patient, not for the patient with long-term, established infection, and to consider resistance testing at the point of regimen failure if you are about to change drug regimens. Regimen failure is defined as viral load rebound. This is recommended either when the first or later regimen is failing.

Thank you very much for your attention.

DR. HAMMER: Thank you, Rich. That was a terrific talk. These first two talks have set quite a standard for our second day, but a great kickoff.

I have a couple of questions to start this off, and I think there is no better person to answer a couple of these questions.

The first is that resistance mutations are not all created equal. One of the questions that has come up is the functional consequences of some of the mutations, particularly some of the work you have done in RT, but also the issue of protease mutations and replicate of capacity and functional consequences.

Can you make some -- perhaps it is unfair -- general comments about that and what you think because one of the issues we dealt with yesterday, and we will deal with again later today, is resistance in relation to outcome, and if a virus is impaired, the outcome may be different

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irrespective of the virus load.

DR. D'AQUILA: I am very glad you asked that question because it didn't quite fit into my topic, but I want to address it because none of the current resistance tests assess the replicative fitness, replicative capacity of the virus. I think that may be something we will be able to assess routinely in the future, but my read on it is that it is not predictable in advance to say that mutation A will lead to a less fit virus, and mutation B will not lead to a less fit virus.

I think it is quite complicated and, in part, can vary based on the genetic background that the mutation is present in. So, I think we can't make assumptions that a particular class of mutants will always be relatively unfit or relatively fit.

I do think again we need much more study. It has largely been studied only in vitro, but I think that fitness is probably a relevant factor. It is probably another factor that has to be taken into account in looking at viral load responses to drug regimens.

I think a virus that is less fit and grows less well in the absence of drug may be better able to be inhibited by any drug. So, I think that is something that again we can't factor in easily right now.

DR. HAMMER: Let me ask you a different question,

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and that relates to looking at different points on the virus inhibitory curve, and there are pros and cons to looking at IC50 or IC90 or 95 depending upon how you want to look at the virus population, but this also gets to the issue of sort of uniformity and analyses particularly in drug development issues and what this committee might see.

Do you have opinions about whether it is best to look at an IC50 or an IC90 or 95 in relation to a drug's activity and particularly in relation to looking at the pharmacologic/pharmacodynamic interactions and the results?

DR. D'AQUILA: I think many of the people in the room will recall when we first started working on this, we chose IC50s for a completely technical reason, because the measurement of an IC50 is a bit more robust. In the laboratory, you can really have greater confidence in that measurement.

But I think biologically, our goal is to maximally suppress the virus, so that I think a measure, such as an IC90 or IC95, if it could be as reproducible as an IC50 would be a better measure, but that means doing much more expensive testing and many more replicates, and I think for practical considerations, an IC50 is probably a more relevant measure to use for clinical purposes.

DR. HAMMER: Questions from the committee?
Dr. Pomerantz.

DR. POMERANTZ: I want to actually continue, Rich,
on what Scott brought up because I know you left out some
slides on fitness, and clearly, there is data that there may
be differences in fitness, at least in vitro, between
different viruses, but fitness is really, as you know,
reaching a local peak on an evolutionary landscape, and that
is associated with replication. It does not say anything
about the pathogenesis or the effects on the host.

so, my questions are twofold. One is do you think that fitness, as defined or as it is being evaluated, will always correlate with virulence or the destruction of CD4 cells either by direct or indirect methods and mechanisms?

Secondly, isn't it formally possible that a less fit virus without drug is actually quite fit in the presence of drug, a little bit like some bacteria are now?

DR. D'AQUILA: I will address your second part first. Absolutely, that is why you see them. I think we have to be very careful when we use the term. Resistance mutation allows the virus to have better fitness in the presence of the drug, and it can only lead to decreased fitness in another situation, when another drug is being used or no drugs are being used.

DR. POMERANTZ: I don't want to go too far on that, but don't you, though, have to measure the replicative capacity of that resistant virus in the presence of drug and

compare it to the wild type without drug, not both without 2 druq? That would be a more direct DR. D'AOUILA: 3 reflection of the in vivo situation, but it is much harder 4 to do, yes. 5 Just to address your other question about 6 virulence, I don't think there is an absolute correlation. 7 1 think what we are looking at here, particularly for protease and RT, are viral replicative enzymes. 9 So, what we call fitness really relates only to 10 There clearly can be effects of other genes 11 replication. 12 that cause more or less CD4 depletion or other virulence effects. 13 Dr. Wong. DR. HAMMER: 14 I have two questions. I think one is DR. WONG: 15 pretty easy, and one might be a little harder. 16 The easier one is you showed the proportion of 17 protease inhibitor resistant virus that reappeared when a 18 19 protease inhibitor was reinstituted in one case, but you didn't give the absolute number. So, I wonder if you could 20 give that in addition to the proportions. 21 I am sorry, I don't understand. 22 DR. D'AOUILA: DR. WONG: You showed that it went from less than 23 24 1 percent to 80 percent when a new drug was instituted, but 25 it was only the proportional data you gave as opposed to the

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number of --2 DR. D'AOUILA: I don't have access to that data, but my recollection of John's presentation -- I don't know 3 if John wants to comment on this, I think he is here -- is 5 that that variant was dominant in the plasma RNA at the point that was shown on that slide. 6 John, please come to the microphone 7 DR. HAMMER: and identify yourself for the transcriptionist. 8 DR. CONDRA: John Condra, Merck Research Labs. 9 Unfortunately, we don't really know the absolute. 10 We can't really interpret the absolute viral load in that 11 circumstance because the patient was on and off RT 12 13 inhibitors during the time that the protease inhibitors were used, and withdrawn and reinstituted. 14 So, there is really no simple way to interpret the 15 relationship between the viral load in that patient and the 16 17 proportions of that mutants in that particular situation. 18 DR. WONG: Thank you. The second question I guess goes to the data you 19 20

The second question I guess goes to the data you showed about analysis of individual clones in people receiving or not receiving drugs. I guess it worries me that -- as I am sure it worries you -- that looking at bulk genotypes or even bulk phenotypes may not accurately represent what is happening.

I understand that it is going to be a tremendous

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increment in the amount of work that would be required, but should we, at this point, really focus on trying to introduce the idea of clonal analysis and resistance testing and characterizing the individual members of populations as opposed to bulk populations as a goal down the line. I mean is this something that we really should be focusing technology development on?

DR. D'AQUILA: Well, I would say yes, but in follow up, I would say we have spent more than a year trying to do that, and to date, have not found viruses that look tremendously different in a clonal analysis than they look in a population analysis.

Yes, you get more information, but the take-home message, the important bottom-line message is the same.

That is based on study of a dozen or so viruses in this kind of detail, and this is our unpublished ongoing work. I still think it is important to develop that area, but I don't think -- I mean the take-home message that I would like everyone to leave with is that so far the bulk assays do appear adequate. They do not seem to be missing major minor species.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Yogev.

DR. YOGEV: A comment and a question. The comment is about the IC50. Both in the study you showed us, for example, the 378, and non-anecdotal data, the IC50 or the

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wild type is almost the lowest level of the virus tested
during the study. YOU also said the IC90 and 95 are very
difficult to get, but maybe a factor of 4 of 10 of IC50
should be added now, especially for the experienced patient,
because every time we use the IC50, upfront giving 50
percent of population sensitivity.

The question I have this is the second time I see on a study of experienced patient that those who failed have much lower mutation than one would expect. For example, the study you present was more than 50 percent had no mutation, and yet they failed.

Are there factors of those which you mentioned as a reason for the failure should be now included when a drug is developed, and not only the genotype, phenotype presentation?

DR. D'AQUILA: I certainly would think that information on levels of the drug in the blood are relevant to the drug development process. I am not sure that one would need to go very far beyond that. Obviously, tolerability, toxicity is a concern, and that is relevant for adherence. I think the major issue in my mind would be again merging the pharmacology and the resistance data.

DR. YOGEV: You pulled the rug under my foot when you showed the data of the 378, because that is exactly what I thought, but all the patients were below the level unless

1	the individuals were not, but the level you showed versus
2	the failures, they were all below. About half of them have
3	IC50.
4	DR. D'AQUILA: That is correct.
5	DR. YOGEV: So, you would expect that those would
6	not fail.
7	DR. RAMMER: Rich was meant to confound us. That
8	was the point of his talk.
9	DR. D'AQUILA: I can't explain why they failed.
10	DR. RAMMER: Dr. Pettinelli.
11	DR. PETTINELLI: You mentioned that the new IAS
12	Resistance Consensus Panel is recommending pre-therapy
13	screening for recently infected patients, but not for
14	patient who has been infected for a longer period of time.
15	Can you explain the rationale for that?
16	DR. D'AQUILA: The rationale is based on a
17	theoretic concern that in a patient with established
18	infection where the virus has had a long time to replicate
19	in the absence of any drug selection pressure, it may be
20	possible for a more wild type virus population to become
21	dominant.
22	The committee was concerned that we didn't have a
23	lot of data in that setting and we did have good data in
24	recently infected patients, as you heard from Susan's
25	presentation, so that we went there.

I think the issue is are the tests currently sensitive enough to detect the mutants if they have declined over time to be now a minor proportion of the total population, and I think we just need to study that before we

recommend very broad screening.

I mean the other point that I would say is something that came out in the case that Susan showed, that one doesn't have to always screen before starting if one is concerned that the viral load is not dropping, that is a very appropriate point at which to get resistance testing.

DR. HAMMER: I would also just make the important point related to the recommendations of the consensus panel, that they haven't been -- they are about to be submitted, they haven't been peer-reviewed yet, so I don't think they should be widely, publicly disseminated as clear cut.

The other thing is that I don't think we should infer a black or white recommended or not recommended. Each population is dealt with independently in the draft paper, and there are different levels of "consideration and recommendation" that are being put forward by the panel.

So, I think we need to say it is not recommended or not recommended for particular populations. Each one is being handled with the level of data that the panel thought was available.

DR. D'AQUILA: Thank you, Scott.

I think we need to move on. Thank DR. HAMMER: 1 2 you very much, Rich. Questions to the Advisory Committee 3 DR. HAMMER: There are three questions for the 4 committee in this session, which I think we can deal with 5 relatively efficiently, hopefully. We have a long agenda 6 today, I just would remind the committee members, so we need 7 to stay focused and on time, and some of the members need to 8 leave early. The first question is: Please comment on the 10 types of patient populations in which HIV resistance testing 11 12 might be useful in drug development. Again, let's focus on the drug development issue. 13 14 That is why are here. Who would like to comment? 15 Dr. Pettinelli. Thank you. 16 DR. PETTINELLI: My opinion, you know, there are 17 several point of drug development. One aspect is that 18 19 patient experienced a first failure, because I think at this point, we are dealing with more understandable pattern of 20 mutation, so that is definitely a patient population that 21 2.2 will be interesting to study. 23 DR. HAMMER: Dr. Yogev. DR. YOGEV: I think it is a difficult question if 24 you want to exclude any population because now we are 25

getting to the point that you can get an infection with a resistant strain although it is only 25 percent of your patients, but in the pediatric population, for example, we start seeing patients where they are resistant to the drug, we want to use like AZT, so I think when a drug is developed, we should basically go to any population where they use initial therapy and later they will be different, no question, but I think we need to have some data how the drug is really going to do, which is going to increase percentage 'of resistance in so-called naive patients.

DR. RAMMER: Dr. Mayers.

DR. MAYERS: One patient population that I have been very concerned about is the heavily pre-exposed population, and currently at Ford, 48 percent of our patients have failed two PIs and a non-nuke and have detectable virus.

The problem that you see is that most of the pharmaceutical development is focused on naives and first failures, and so what you have is the drugs are coming out with data on very early treated populations, but are immediately then going to be placed into extended access into the very sickest, latest stage patients we have with almost no data.

There has to be some mechanism early on in the process to get some data on what the impact of these drugs

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are going to be on heavily pretreated patients even though that may not be on a direct line to the early accelerated approval because that is where these drugs go almost immediately in the clinical arena.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Wong and then Dr. Hamilton.

DR. WONG: I guess I have been very impressed by the data that we have seen over the past couple of days, and although it is not the case that -- I mean Dr. D'Aquila is perfectly correct that no one has demonstrated precise correlations between resistance testing results and the results of therapy of any drug.

It would be my opinion for any new drug that is coming along, I would want to see these sorts of data on any new drug in all populations that are studied for registration purposes at least, at least in patients in whom we are going to be asked to assess was the drug efficacious or not.

DR. HAMILTON: I think the sponsor is going to want to know what the various reasons are for success or non-success in the conduct of their clinical trials, and this is but one variable. So, I think they are going to want to use these parameters in virtually all patient populations.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Kumar.

DR. KUMAR: Again, we know very little on the

resistance profile in the inner city patient population because everything that has been published so far, and even as Dr. Little said, has all been in certain areas and among white men and whose main factor has been different from what we are seeing in the inner city.

So, I think it should be done for any newly developed trial. That is the only way we are going to be able to see whether it is going to be effective in all patient populations.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Kaplan may wish to comment, but there are studies underway to look at, as was mentioned yesterday, naive populations in at least some of the inner cities around the country.

DR. KAPLAN: Yes, I would agree. I think it became apparent this morning that most of the data that we have so far are mostly in white men who have sex with men, and I think we would like to see more demographically diverse data.

Since I have got the microphone on, I guess I would just concur with what we have been hearing from others, that I think we want to see data in all populations in which the drug that is being proposed would be used, and that would include not only experienced patients, but like Dr. Mayers said, people who have been heavily pretreated with other drugs or people with acute retroviral infection

or other recently acquired infection.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Pomerantz.

DR. POMERANTZ: Just to join the band, I think
Brian said it very well in that you have to -- and just to
reiterate -- you have to do a different analysis if you are
thinking about drug development versus how you are treating
patients in the clinic when it comes to resistance testing,
and we have had trouble even on this committee separating
the two things.

I think Brian is right. For drug development now, it would be very important to test virtually everyone in the drug studies, all the patient populations, especially upfront, because unlike some patients in the clinic, where upfront testing is still somewhat controversial, this will be a unique way to not only develop the drugs, but give the information for other drugs that are still out there, especially looking at these moderately resistant strains that may be wild type out there. Studying during drug development may be key to getting an answer to those and will help with the development of the particular drug.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Jolson.

DR. JOLSON: I am going to ask the committee to take this question just one step further. It sounds like there are potentially many populations, if not everyone, in whom it would be useful to have baseline genotypic or

phenotypic information for purposes of future data analysis.

My next question to you would be for which patient populations would you recommend either prescreening and eligibility based on knowledge of genotype or phenotype and consequently exclusion because of failure to have susceptibility at baseline.

DR. HAMMER: I might start since no hands are raising immediately.

I think it partly depends, of course, on the drug you have got and its target populations are and where you are studying the drug. For example, if it is a drug that is not specifically with a high profile to go after drug resistance, and so it is a standard sort of drug development, you are looking at, let's say, a naive population for activity, then, I think the epidemiologic data -- that we are accumulating, and we saw this morning -- should help drive the need to test all patients before those patients enter the trial.

We should also recognize that **some** drug development is going on outside of the United States with trials that are going to be evaluated here in populations chat are truly naive, so I think we have to be careful about recommending drug susceptibility testing in every patient in every trial.

So, I think one has to factor in what the

likelihood is of resistance and then determine whether it is a subset or the entire population that needs to be evaluated for resistance testing in a "standard" drug development process.

If, however, it is a drug that has a particular profile against drug resistant virus, and is to be tested in that fashion, then, I think we should move to prospective testing, in which case testing should be done at baseline with the knowledge of that going into the trial, and either randomizing on the basis of that or stratifying for analysis on the basis of that or whatever, but that is a situation in which the entire population, I think, should have resistance testing if, in fact, you are going after the indication that is going to be safe and effective in a treatment drug resistant population.

Did that raise questions? Good.

Dr. Mathews.

DR. MATHEWS: This was something we sort of touched on yesterday. My feeling is that if you know, for example, somebody has K103, and there is a trial that could randomize them to an NRTI, it would be absurd to put somebody in that if you had that information.

On the other hand, if the question is does a particular mutational pattern enhance the response to the drug, then, you -- I mean to handle it up-front by

stratifying the randomization, so that you could actually
examine it with adequate numbers of patients rather than to
have to stratify retrospectively where you wouldn't
necessarily have balance.

DR. HAMMER: I agree about the 103, but I think it gets very complicated as we have talked about this morning with data that Rich showed from the ABT-378 trial, that it may be that pharmacologic factors will overcome a particular level of what was previously thought to be resistant, and we have also seen some data where a measure of susceptibility of the regimen and response was statistically significant and correlated, but individual drug susceptibilities phenotypically or genotypes were not.

So, we need more data in that regard, but it is very complicated.

Mr. Harrington.

MR. HARRINGTON: I just think that we have seen a lumber of mutations and their complexity. There is going to be huge sample size issues in trying to get statistical significance out of things that might be biologically very significant, but for a relatively small number of people, so you want to know the answer, but I don't really know if you would want to exclude people on the basis of certain nutations except for in the cases where they were extremely common and extremely well characterized like, you know, a

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drug active against people with 184 or something like that.

But I would think in many cases, you would be denying yourself information about how the drug really works in the clinic if you excluded people, but you in some cases would want to gather the information at baseline.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Woolson, did you have a comment?

DR. WOOLSON: I think this is a follow up to a comment that you made earlier, Dr. Hammer. I think we really need to remember the importance of sampling in particular in clinical trials. It is not going to be necessary for us to do this in every single patient entering a trial, but perhaps subsets of them.

I guess I am particularly concerned that if we only sequence individuals who are treatment failures, that it is going to be very difficult to sort a lot of the data out, so I think we do need to have a mechanism where we are actually getting a broader base sampling, but it doesn't have to be again on every individual.

DR. HAMMER: Although I would take Dr.

Pettinelli's statement, take it a little more broadly.

Basically, the populations need to be well defined and they can be naive by history, but we need to document that now I think by testing.

First failures are the clearest picture in many ways as to what is happening and it taught us a lot about

what patients are failing, whether virologically, and those have to be separated from multiple failures, because that level of complexity is more than one order of magnitude higher.

Dr. Gulick.

DR. GULICK: It just occurred to me during the discussion that one unique population to look at would be the expanded access programs, perhaps requiring that resistance be part of any expanded access program given that that is the clinical situation where you have the most advanced patients and that may be a patient group where the clinicians are willing to take the chance of just using one drug at a time, which we all think would be a problem, but here you sort of get out of the ethical dilemma because the primary care doctor and the physician have made that decision.

That would be a unique opportunity, I think, to really assess what the resistance pattern is in that population.

DR. HAMMER: That raises a huge question, (a) financially, where is that burden going to fall, and it also raises a question that this committee has dealt with historically, and that is, trying to turn expanded access data into some sort of experiential data that can be analyzed in a quasi-clinical trial sort of fashion, but we

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probably can't go up on that right now.

Dr. Stanley, did you have a comment?

DR. STANLEY: Well, it was really to reiterate something that I think you already said, which is we have asked for preclinical in vitro data on resistance patterns and where a drug might have an advantage, and so you are clearly going to want to validate that in clinical studies where you target patients that appear to have the resistance

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Wong, and then we will move on to the next question.

pattern that you think your drug is going to overcome.

DR. WONG: I just want to echo what Mr. Harrington said. I would be very careful about trying to mandate that certain patients be excluded from trials unless it has been demonstrated in advance that the drug being studies would be ineffective in that patient, and it is unlikely that that is going to be known before it is tried.

So, I wouldn't exclude people, but I would expect chat the sponsors collect the data and analyze the results in light of the pre-randomization susceptibility results.

I can well envision a situation in which the overall results of a drug might not be that great, but within a population, for example, that has susceptible virus, that the drug would be effective, and in those circumstances, I could see voting for approval even though

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the drug overall was less impressive.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Mayers.

DR. MAYERS: I think the one thing that has really changed in the last few years is the fact that you used to have to go to PBMCs and grow them up, and it was very expensive to expect a sponsor to sock cells down in every patient at baseline.

I think things have changed. Now that we are sequencing plasma virus and we are doing RVA assays out of plasma virus, I think it is not unreasonable to expect the sponsors to put plasma down on every patient going into their studies including expanded access potentially, so that they can go back and look at these issues, and then for the failure patients, pare that baseline sample of a failure sample.

This is a very inexpensive requirement. They are getting HIV-RNAs on these patients, and this I think would allow them to do the studies that need to be done if it was just simply collected.

DR. HAMMER: I think it is fair to state that for the most part -- and I may be wrong -- that, in fact, that is being done. Plasma storage is going on in almost every Phase I, II, and III trial that I am aware of, and I think that is appropriate.

You can prospectively test whatever sample you

wish. It allows you to retrospectively test the remainder if you need to, so I would echo that. I just wanted to make it clear that I don't think we should glibly state every patient in every study for drug development should have resistance testing at baseline.

I think it basically needs to be evaluated on a population, drug, and study basis. We have to be careful what we say because sometimes these statements are overinterpreted.

Just to summarize this question, I think we have answered it. On the types of patient populations in which drug resistance testing might be useful in development, essentially, it is very population that may be studied.

I think for the most part, you know, drug resistance testing is going to be useful in primary infection, established infection, first failure, multiple failure, and in pregnancy. For the most part, as far as drug development, we are talking about established infection and failure patients.

I think the committee's consensus is that all of those are relevant populations in which drug resistance testing is useful. You need to factor in again the activity of the drug, its target population, its target indication, and the epidemiologic data that tells you about your population at that time.

So, I don't think we really have excluded any population from resistance testing, and I think that is probably the answer. I wouldn't do it on every patient in every trial at this point necessarily.

For example, if you had a 700-patient Phase III trial in a drug that wasn't going to be particularly active necessarily drug resistant virus, and you selected your population for a very low risk prevalence in the community, or, in fact, it was an international trial where there were no drugs, I don't think you have to test everybody.

2. Please comment on the timing of HIV resistance testing in the setting of a clinical trial.

I would just ask that we make our responses targeted here, so we can stay on time.

Dr. Mayers.

DR. MAYERS: I think that probably the most efficient way to do it is to get the baseline and when they fail, get a failure sample and test it against the paired baseline sample, and for naives, that would take care of most of your requirements. For the experienced, you are going to have to do some of the baselines, as well, but I think that pairing your failure sample with your baseline gives you most of what you need and allows you to find out what mutations are being selected by the drug.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Mathews.

DR. MATHEWS: I was just wondering, do you think 1 there is a role for systematically testing at least a subset 2 of the population irrespective of failure, so that the 3 patterns of evolution of these resistance mutations and 4 their correlation with phenotypic resistance could be better 5 characterized. 6 7 Can I answer that, Scott? DR. MAYERS: I think it was directed DR. HAMMER: Absolutely. 8 9 at you, so please do. DR. MAYERS: The problem becomes how because if 10 you are defining failure as a viral load coming up to 500, 11 and people were defined as successful when they are below 12 50, you are not going to be able to sample with existing 13 14 technologies the patients who are doing well, so I think it nnakes sense in a statistical way, but I am just not sure how 15 to do it technically. 16 So, I think the answer is in most patients, you 17 are going to have to assume that if they are below limits of 18 19 detection of your ultra-sensitive assay, they are probably 2.0 still drug susceptible. I may have missed this, but I think 21 DR. HAMMER: testing, if you are going to do baseline and follow up on 22 23 the failures, you need some proportion of the successes at 24 baseline to compare in a case cohort or some other design.

Dr. Yogev.

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1	DR. YOGEV: I just need to add to a similar
2	situation, for example, if a company come around and said
3	that drug X is working in resistant strain, what combination
4	of drug do they want to use, for example, addition of a drug
5	similar to DDI or the ABT, that a test has to be done
6	prospectively to identify this population as a subset to
7	work with, and make sure that it does work, because, for
8	example, into the study introduce people who are not
9	involved in the study at week 12, for example, the
10	contention is really working to that specific group is not,
11	which was identified as resistant is not suffering from the
12	study if it goes for 24, 48 weeks, so I think there are some
13	studies that you have to do it prospectively as part of the
14	inclusion criteria.
15	DR. HAMMER: I think there is consensus about
16	that.
17	Dr. Stanley.
18	DR. STANLEY: And then just to state the obvious,
19	that we were told this morning the example we were given
20	that if you are testing at the time of drug failure, they
21	need to still be on the drug when you collect the sample.
22	DR. HAMMER: Right. I think actually, there were
23	maybe two parts to this question, the timing in the setting

of the clinical trial. I think one is the broader question

whether it is prospective testing or retrospective testing,

and I think the sense is that increasingly we are moving towards prospective testing and clearly baselines, depending upon the relevance of the population and whether you are going to randomize on the basis of that or not, and follow-up specimens at the time of failure, I think have all been recommended by the committee. I think this is fairly obvious based on the discussions over the last day.

The third question. I am going to take the Chair's prerogative here. The question is: Please comment on factors that may confound the interpretation of resistance testing in the setting of clinical trials and what may be done to reduce these effects.

At least the first part of that question, I personally think Dr. D'Aquila answered better than any of us can answer, but I would state that just personally and let the rest of the committee comment, but also what may be done to reduce these confounders is potentially where we might contribute something.

So, Question 3. Does anyone disagree with my premise? Dr. Charache.

DR. CHARACHE: I agree with your premise. I think in terms of reducing confusion, high on my suggestion list, as has been pointed out by Dr. Jackson, as well, is that the IC50 has clearly proven very useful as an interpretative point, but I think with new drug development, it would be

very helpful to also relate the interpretations to the pharmacology of the sponsor's drug.

So, I think it would be very important to provide this information, not only as it pertains to comparison with the lab strain of virus, but also in terms of achievable blood levels and trough levels and area under the curve, and I think that data should be provided.

I think there should be similar information for all drugs a patient is on, since they are going to be on a scrap basket of drugs, and that might help make it easier to interpret the results that you are looking at in terms of clinical failure or success.

Finally, I think it would be very important for the sponsor to be able to validate the competency of any laboratory that is used to derive this information. I think the Virco and virologic models are outstanding, but I think also they may want to, if they use other units or even those to have testing done between laboratories because this is going to be absolutely critical to make sense out of this very difficult area.

- DR. HAMMER: Thank you. Well stated.
- Dr. Hamilton.
- DR. HAMILTON: It seems to me to evaluate the results of genetic and/or phenotypic testing in the context of a clinical outcome, one needs the simultaneous collection

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of additional data that can easily or alternatively explain the clinical event, namely, drug exposure, drug adherence, 'and I would strongly recommend that if genetic and phenotypic testing is to be done, and it appears that there is a move that it should be in virtually all drug populations, I think there should be simultaneous collection of those other parameters.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Kaplan.

DR. KAPLAN: This is part of Question 3, and I guess it also relates back to 2 a little bit.

If a company is going to propose use of a drug for recently infected persons, then, an interesting issue that has come for discussion is whether the best timing of an initial specimen is before treatment or maybe after the person has been on drug for a couple of weeks, because then perhaps anything that has partially reverted to wild type will have a chance to pop up.

That may be less of a factor for recently acquired infections where there hasn't been that much of an opportunity to revert to wild type than for people who are farther along, but I would be interested in what others think about the timing of that initial specimen if the drug is going to be proposed for those conditions.

DR. HAMMER: I think it is quite difficult although in some trials that have been designed have

specifically stated that eligibility criteria include having remained on the failing regimen until a specimen is obtained, at least a plasma specimen is in the freezer, and I think if one wants to ensure that, that it is the best way to ensure the selective pressure, then, that is the way the inclusion criteria should be.

However, it excludes populations that come on and off drugs, and I think one thing that is difficult, at least for me, I will just state it, is a patient has come off a failing regimen, asking a patient to go back-on a failing regimen to reselect in order to make them eligible for a trial, I personally find difficult to do, and have not done that in trials I have been involved in where the question has come up.

So, I think the point is well taken, and it is an issue of again carefully defining your population for the trial, and so that you can analyze it in the best way possible, and then what the broader applicability is to populations who had come off.

I think that what that is going to be is a compendium of trial results that will tell us, again with all the interest in salvage therapies after treatment interruptions, and there will be a flurry of data over the next year and plus that will tell us more about whether that is a reasonable strategy or not, I think we will be able to

put this stuff together, but I think the selective pressure question can be handled by the eligibility criteria.

Dr. Yogev.

DR. YOGEV: I think you might consider around three months or 16 weeks, if you are not less than 400, those should be also tested because even if you have the wild type, and you got the reduction, did you get a reduction of the wild type alone or in combination of the resistant one, you can pick it up at that point in time, so I would not wait until the end of the study. I would do it at that point, but I would not exclude patients for entering the study.

DR. HAMMER: Dr. Mayers.

DR. MAYERS: I think that as the issues of PK come up and potentially adherence come up, that it is clear the companies aren't going to do PK on each patient in the study, but I think that what you can do now is get a time on your drug levels, your last dose at each visit, and with the new technologies of plasma, you can, with 2 mL of plasma get a genotype, a phenotype, and drug levels for all the drugs that your patient is on.

So, if the effort is made to attain the time of the last dose of each drug at the visit, they can then go back and actually map out whether the patient had a low exposure, no exposure by that level or not, and if you don't

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get that data, you simply can't do it.

So, I think if you we are going to try and relate resistance and drug levels to failure, there is going to have to be an attempt to be able to at least pair the timing of the last dose with the plasma sample.

DR. HAMMER: Let me just summarize. The confounding factors I think as far as trying to reduce them, I would reiterate that what they are was well stated in Richard's talk. To reduce them, as one suggests, the simultaneous obtaining of particularly pharmacologic information and drug adherence information, that may vary trial to trial, but they are the two major factors in trying to determine what failure is all about, and since resistance testing is related to failure on study in at least one circumstance, I think that is the critical issue.

Up front, I think it is the issue of defining the population that you are studying and then deciding whether you are going to do resistance testing at baseline, which we have talked about several times.

Anything else? Dr. Mathews.

DR. MATHEWS: A couple of other things just having to do with conduct of the trials, and it is not a problem right now, but one of the scenarios related to this, that people could start using resistance testing during the conduct of a trial and drop out on the basis of resistance

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testing.

Now, you could say, well, they wouldn't get it if they were nondetectable, but it is easy to just withdraw from drug for several days, rebound, measure it. I don't know whether these things will happen, but they are certainly within the range of possibility.

So, selective dropout for that basis could affect the interpretation of the resistance assay.

Another issue relates to what is the appropriate control for interpreting the response to a particular mutational pattern. It may not be the particular site or codon that is the issue, and if the trial wasn't randomized on the basis of the mutational pattern, then, there will be a fair amount of heterogeneity.

So, mutation A in the setting of several other mutations may not have the same effect as in another context, and so I think it will require quite a bit of thought to figure out what is the appropriate comparison group in a trial.

DR. HAMMER: That is a very important point, and it brings up a corollary point, and that is the interpretation of resistance testing, how that factors in to any clinical trial design, and trying to create balance in interpretive skill and recommendations for regimens that may be as a result of some strategic intervention with the

results of resistance testing since we have seen that imbalance in certain trials so far, and we have also seen the complexity of interpreting these tests.

So, I think that is a factor we haven't talked about in trial design, but it certainly confounds the interpretation of how resistance testing is applied in trials because it is no better than who interprets it.

We are running 15 minutes behind, but I think we should stop for a break and reconvene at 10:45.

Thank you.

[Break.]

DR. HAMMER: I would like to officially reconvene and turn to Dr. Jeffrey Murray, who will introduce Session 4.

#### SESSION 4

# Potential Roles of Resistance Testing in Drug Development

#### Introduction

DR. MURRAY: Session 4 is entitled Potential Roles of Resistance Testing in Drug Development. From our perspective, this is the mother of all sessions because this is where we are expecting the most lush feedback from the committee. That is why we also wanted to get this session started, get the presentations out of the way in the morning, so there would be a lot of chance to talk on the

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regulatory scenarios which are coming up. 1 The objectives for this session are: to obtain committee recommendations on the amount and type of in vitro 3 resistance data sufficient to initiate and to support a clinical development program; 5 To obtain committee recommendations on the amount 6 and type of in vitro and clinical resistance data sufficient 7 to characterize the clinical activity of an antiretroviral 9 drug against resistant viral isolates; To obtain committee recommendations on the amount 10 and type of clinical resistance data appropriate to 11 determine an antiretroviral drug's potential to induce 12 resistance and cross-resistance; 13 14 To obtain committee recommendations on testing can be optimally incorporated into Phase II/III clinical trial 15 design. 16 Our two presentations, the first one is Dr. Gary 17 Chikami, who is Division Director of Anti-Infective Drug 18 19 Products. He will talking on Susceptibility Testing in Drug I think 2.0 Development from an Anti-Infectives Perspective. this will give us good groundwork to then talk about how it 21 22 would be applied in the HIV arena.

## Historical Perspective from the Antibacterial Analogy and Contrasts with Virology

DR. CHIKAMI: Thanks, Jeff.

On the original agenda, my sort of charge was to sort of talk about the historical perspective the development of resistance testing, and I think that is sort of a daunting task, so what I want to do in the few minutes that I am going to be talking, about 20 minutes, is to provide sort of the framework that has been developed over the years for susceptibility testing and how it is used for the development of antibacterials, and touch on two regulatory issues with regard to how susceptibility information is included in produce labeling.

A related concept which has really come to the fore recently with the rise of the importance of antibiotic resistance, the development of products specifically for resistant indications, and how we have attempted to deal with those in terms of drug development and how those would be included in package labeling.

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With respect to antibacterials, the goal of susceptibility testing is to predict the likely outcome of treating a patient's infection with a particular antimicrobial agent. This would be useful and important for organisms that are not particularly predictably susceptible to drugs of choice either because of an acquired resistance.

These tests should do a couple of things. One is detect frank resistance. Moreover, they can also be useful

for the quantitative measurement of susceptibility to
antimicrobial agents with some species where there may be
direct therapeutic relevance.

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For example, the magnitude of penicillin, cephalosporin MICs for Strep pneumoniae, and that was referred to by one of the talks this morning where, in certain circumstances, an intermediate Strep pneumoniae in fact may be treatable with higher doses of penicillin.

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Over the years, a framework for the standardization of susceptibility test methods have been developed by numerous organizations. The NCCLS, for example, which provides standard protocols, and also reviews data to send interpretative criteria.

Those sorts of activities are also important at the FDA as we review drug development and approve drugs for marketing.

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In regard to the regulatory responsibility for antibacterials, in vitro diagnostic tests are reviewed and approved in the Center for Radiologic Health, Medical Devices and Radiologic Health or CDRH, with consultation of CDER, the drug review divisions.

Sort of the two steps involved in standardization of the test methods are defining optimal assay methods and

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development of the interpretive criteria.

Later in my talk I will touch on again these two regulatory issues, that is, the inclusion of susceptibility information in product labeling and then specific claims of effectiveness for the treatment of infections due to resistant bacteria.

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In regard to the development of test methods, the goals are to develop reproducibility and reliability in the test method. These include a number of sort of physical, chemical, and other specifications including standard assay conditions, sort of a caveat in this or sort of the driving force is measurement of a minimal inhibitory concept is not a physical or chemical measurement.

It is a measurement of the interaction of the test drug with the test organism that may be affected by a number of sort of conditions of the test, temperature, ion concentration, inoculum effects. All of these things, in fact, may affect the observed test results, and it is critically important that all of these be optimized and specified in a standardized way, so that the measured results again are reproducible and reliable.

Secondly, specification of quality control parameters are very important. Again, this relates to standardization of the assay conditions, but also a standard

battery of test microorganisms and their expected results.

Again, these tests are done in multiple laboratory conditions, different labs, different quality of laboratories. So, having built into the system an ability to assess the performance of the test, not just with the target organisms, but standardized organisms is very important in being able to develop interpretable results.

The third point in terms of developing reproducible and reliable test methods is correlations of different methods that may be used under different clinical conditions for bacterial susceptibility testing, common sort of methods that are used include dilution methods. They may be macro or micro dilutions or disc diffusion methods.

In the course of developing these assays, and standardizing them, correlations of these two different methodologies are very important in being able again to develop interpretable results that can then be used in the next step of the process.

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And that is the development of interpretive criteria. Interpretive criteria relate the quantitative results of susceptibility testing to again that overall goal of the testing methodology, which is to predict the likely outcome of therapy.

There are a couple of caveats here.

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Susceptibility in vitro does not necessarily predict successful therapy. Host factors are often more important in terms of eventual clinical outcome.

Secondly, we would like to have methods where resistance in vitro should predict therapeutic failure, and again in terms of understanding why a patient may not respond to therapy or being able to guide therapy in patients in which it may not be obvious what is the optimal choice of therapy.

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From that follows these three definitions which are commonly used or which are used for development of interpretive criteria for bacterial susceptibility testing.

A strain is called susceptible to the test drug if it may be appropriately treated with a dosage of the antimicrobial agent recommended for that type of infection.

An intermediate classification are strains with MICs that approach usually obtainable blood levels or tissue levels and for which response rates may be lower than that for susceptible isolates.

There are several factors built in or other considerations built into this intermediate category. There are also conditions, for example, where an intermediate MIC may be appropriate or use of a drug with an intermediate MIC may be appropriate at a tissue site where the drug is

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concentrated, for example, the use of quinilones in the treatment of urinary tract infection.

Some other considerations are also for drugs with a narrow therapeutic index where, in fact, inaccuracies in the assay may, in fact, have great therapeutic import.

Finally, the third category is resistant, and these are strains which are not inhibited by the usual achievable concentration of the agent with normal dosage schedules and/or or fall in the range where specific microbial resistance mechanisms are likely and clinical efficacy has not been reliable in treatment studies. An example of that is, for example, an organism and betalactamase.

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With these definitions in mind that have been applied to anti-infectives, what are the sorts of information that are considered in setting these interpretive criteria?

Just parenthetically, breakpoints as they are called, or interpretive criteria, are developed early on in the course of development of an antibiotic. Much of the information, for example, the in vitro activity, animal model data, and early pharmacokinetic information which would allow the setting of tentative breakpoints, say, at Phase I or Phase II within a drug development process.