

Pregnancy in Chronic Kidney Disease and Kidney Transplantation

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Complete List of Authors:	Webster, Philip; Imperial College, Section of Renal Medicine and Vascular Inflammation Lightstone, Liz; Imperial College School of Medicine, Renal Section, Division of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine McKay, Dianne; University of California at San Diego, Medicine/Nephrology Josephson, Michelle; University of Chicago, Medicine
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2 3	1	Pregnancy in Chronic Kidney Disease and Kidney Transplantation
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7 8	3	Philip Webster ¹ , Liz Lightstone ¹ , Dianne B. McKay ² , Michelle A. Josephson ³
9 10 11	4	¹ Section of Renal Medicine and Vascular Inflammation, Department of Medicine, Imperial
12 13	5	College London, UK
14 15 16	6	² Division of Nephrology, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Diego,
17 18	7	California
19 20 21	8	³ Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL
22 23	9	
24 25	10	CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Michelle A Josephson,
26 27 28	11	The University of Chicago, 5758 S Maryland Ave, Chicago, IL 60637, United States
29 30	12	Phone: +1 773-702-1500 Email: mjosephs@medicine.bsd.uchicago.edu
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25 ABSTRACT

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) affects up to 6% of women of childbearing age in high income countries, and is estimated to affect 3% of pregnant women. Advanced renal dysfunction, proteinuria, hypertension and poorly controlled underlying primary renal disease are all significant risks for adverse maternal, fetal and renal outcomes. In order to achieve the best outcomes it is therefore of paramount importance that these pregnancies are planned, where possible, to allow the opportunity to counsel women and their partners in advance and to optimize these risks. These pregnancies should be deemed high risk and they require close antenatal monitoring from an expert multidisciplinary team. We discuss the effect of pregnancy on CKD, and also current guidelines and literature with specific reference to transplantation, autoimmune disease and medication use in pregnancy. We also discuss the benefits of pre-pregnancy counselling and give practical

37 recommendations to advise pregnant women with renal disease.

49 THE IMPACT OF KIDNEY FUNCTION ON PREGNANCY OUTCOME

50 CKD stage and outcomes

The pregnancies of most normotensive women with mild or even moderate renal dysfunction succeed, but are prone to more complications than those of gravidas with normal renal function. However, pregnancy is much more hazardous when kidney dysfunction is advanced. Women with advanced chronic kidney disease (CKD) have a lower likelihood of conceiving because of the decreased fertility associated with the hormonal changes of worsening kidney function and ESRD.¹ When they do conceive, advanced CKD predisposes to intrauterine growth restriction and preterm delivery,² and pregnancy has been blamed for hastening the rate of decline of kidney function, increasing proteinuria, and hypertension.³ Such views however are based on insufficient data. Thus the level of kidney function/dysfunction and its effect on pregnancy remains a debated area.

62 An evolving state of understanding

Currently there is controversy reflecting the swinging pendulum of attitudes related to pregnancy in women with CKD, as well as the evolution of how the nephrology community assesses renal function. In 1975, an anonymously authored Lancet editorial noted that physicians in the past preferred avoiding pregnancy in women with any degree of CKD by noting: "Children of women with renal disease used to be born dangerously or not at all not at all if their doctors had their way".⁴ The editorial took the then provocative stance that as most pregnancies succeed in the setting of mild kidney dysfunction, this attitude should be changed. Davison and Lindheimer⁵ noted in 2010 that studies in the decades after the Lancet editorial led to a better understanding of outcomes for pregnancy in women with kidney dysfunction. Observational studies indicated that outcomes depended

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73 on the degree of renal insufficiency pre-pregnancy, and the presence or absence of hypertension.⁶ Based on these parameters, women were grouped into three categories: 74 75 mild, moderate, or severe dysfunction. Normotensive women with preserved or mildly 76 decreased but stable kidney function (defined as a serum creatinine (SCr) of \leq 1.4 mg/dL) did 77 well with over 95% live births, 75% of which were appropriate size for gestational age. 78 However, prognosis worsened with moderate dysfunction (SCr \geq 1.4 mg/dL-2.8 mg/dL) and more so with severe impairment (SCr level $\geq 2.8 \text{ mg/dL}$).⁷ These estimates were based on a 79 80 26-year literature review (1984-2010), as well as personal patient files by John Davison, 81 most recently published in a NephSAP editorial by Drs Lindheimer and Davison, in the issue 82 devoted to renal disease and hypertension in pregnancy (reproduced with permission in Table 1).⁸. 83

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85 Creatinine vs eGFR

In 2002 the Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiative (KDOQI) released a new chronic 86 87 kidney disease (CKD) classification designating five categories based on estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR).⁹ Ignoring the question of whether this classification system 88 over-diagnosed kidney disease and dysfunction in some, the eGFR based system provided 89 another filter through which to consider pregnancy outcomes. Piccoli and colleagues¹⁰ used 90 91 the classification and looked at pregnancy outcomes in 504 pregnancies in women with CKD 92 compared with 836 low-risk pregnancies in women without CKD. They considered whether 93 hypertension, proteinuria (> 1 gram/day), systemic disease, or CKD stage at baseline 94 affected pregnancies. Outcomes assessed were: cesarean section, preterm delivery, early 95 preterm delivery, small for gestational age, need for neonatal intensive care unit, new onset 96 of hypertension, new onset/doubling of proteinuria, CKD stage shift, and a combined

Page 5 of 79

Kidney International

outcome. The majority of patients in the study were classified as CKD stage 1. The authors concluded that adverse outcomes increased with increasing stage of CKD, including surprisingly stage 1, even in the absence of hypertension, baseline proteinuria, and systemic diseases. The eGFR was calculated based on the Cockcroft–Gault, Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD), and Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) formulas. As CKD-EPI and MDRD have been found to underestimate GFR in pregnancy^{11,12} and Cockcroft-Gault has been demonstrated to both underestimate and overestimate GFR in hypertensive pregnant women,¹³ it is possible that some of the patients in Piccoli's study had lower GFRs than the group in which they were classified. Some of the individuals reported to have CKD stage 1, could therefore have had a higher stage. While Piccoli et al's findings were primarily in women with mild and moderate dysfunction Imbasciati et al studied 49 women with preconception stage 3 to 5 CKD observed for a mean of 39 months after delivery. In the latter study only individuals with both GFR less than 40 ml/min/ $1.73m^2$ and greater than 1 gram of proteinuria per day were noted to have poor fetal outcomes and accelerated kidney function loss.¹⁴ A meta-analysis by Zhang et al of 23 studies that included 1514 pregnancies with CKD found no significant difference in renal outcomes in pregnant women with CKD compared with non-pregnant women with CKD. The study did however find that adverse pregnancy outcomes, including preeclampsia, premature births, SGA/low birth weight, cesarean section, stillbirth, fetal death, and neonatal death, were increased in women with CKD compared to those without. The conclusions that can be drawn from the meta-analysis must be put into context because the literature review focused on patients with CKD stages 1-3, thus excluding those with stage 4 or 5 who are most vulnerable for progression of disease.¹⁵

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> In their review and recent editorial Lindheimer and Davison^{5,8} underscore that most eGFR 120 121 formulae correlate poorly with measured GFR in pregnant women, and that obstetricians 122 familiar with absolute values of creatinine may be unfamiliar with the nephrology 123 community's CKD system . However, despite the seeming differences between those who 124 are considering pregnancy outcomes through an eGFR based CKD stages filter, and those 125 who are more comfortable with the serum creatinine based assessment, proponents of 126 both agree that degree of kidney function plays an important role in outcome. Neither 127 group advocates returning to the pre-1975 mindset of avoiding pregnancy in women with 128 mild kidney dysfunction, however defined.

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130 Additional contributing factors

Whilst clearly important, kidney function alone does not uniformly predict pregnancy outcomes. There are likely to be additional contributing factors to pregnancy outcomes, such as active systemic disease or endothelial injury. For example certain specific diseases such as Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (SLE) may exert a greater adverse effect on the pregnancy making it impossible to isolate the role of kidney function per se on outcomes.¹⁶ Similarly kidney transplantation does not present a pristine model to look at kidney function alone because of the effects of immunosuppression.

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139 Kidney transplantation and outcome

A national UK cohort study demonstrated that most pregnancies after renal transplantation are successful, although the risks of pre-eclampsia still remain higher than controls¹⁷ and this higher risk of pre-eclampsia affects even those with good GFRs.¹⁸ Patients should be counselled of this accordingly and the other precautions discussed in the pre-pregnancy Page 7 of 79

Kidney International

counselling section, initiated. How does the connection between kidney function and pregnancy outcomes relate to pregnancy outcomes in kidney transplant recipients? Similar to findings in advanced kidney failure, transplant patients appear to have a lower pregnancy rate than the general public.¹⁹ Registry, cohort, and meta-analysis studies demonstrate that pregnancies in transplant recipients, which are more likely to be complicated by hypertension, are at greater risk for prematurity, small for gestational age, cesarean sections, the diagnosis of preeclampsia and perinatal mortality.^{17,18,20} Of note while pregnancy and renal function outcomes in transplant recipients have been studied based on creatinine levels, we could locate no assessments based on the CKD staging system. In transplant recipients, there are the additional factors of immunosuppression medications. These factors make it hard to isolate and define the kidney function effect on pregnancy in this group. Long term follow-up of transplant recipients with and without a history of pregnancy supports the idea that pregnancy does not worsen long term outcomes.²¹ However, there may be subsets of transplant patients in whom pregnancy accelerates renal function decline. Data from the UK Pregnancy registry indicate that women with kidney allografts whose pre-pregnancy SCr is greater than 150μ mol/L (approximately 1.7 mg/dL) have an increased serum creatinine after pregnancy, suggesting that the pregnancy itself may negatively affect graft function.²² Despite limitations of available data in the transplant recipient, guidelines advise that amongst other factors, the basis for determining reasonable timing for pregnancy is the presence of adequate and stable graft function (arbitrarily set as

a SCr<1.5 mg/dL).²³ The American Society of Transplantation recommends that prior to pregnancy there should be no rejection for one year, adequate and stable graft function, no acute infections, and stable immunosuppression dosing.²⁴ Pregnancy should be delayed until at least one year after renal transplantation²⁵ as postponement is associated with

better outcomes.²⁶ A recent study by Rose et al that examined allograft outcome and pregnancy timing in the first 3 post-transplant years of Medicare insured kidney transplant recipients suggests that pregnancy in the first 2 post-transplant years is associated with increased allograft loss compared with waiting an additional year.²⁷ Beyond optimal post-transplant pregnancy timing, there are many other unanswered questions about pregnancy in transplant recipients including the optimal pre-pregnancy kidney function and whether having pre-existent donor specific antibodies affects pregnancy outcomes, or the transplanted kidney. This last consideration is of particular concern given the usual pre-pregnancy modification of immunosuppression, with discontinuation of mycophenolic acid formulations.

178 Kidney donors

Pregnancy in kidney donors may be the perfect model in which to consider the role of kidney function. Donors are intensively medically screened and only allowed to donate a kidney if healthy. Their post-donation level of kidney function is approximately 75-80% of normal.²⁸ They do not have systemic disease and their remaining kidney, though hypertrophied and hyperfiltering, is normal. Three studies have found that post-donation pregnancies may be at increased risk for complications. Garg et al performed a population study and found a significantly higher incidence of gestational hypertension or preeclampsia in donors compared with matched non-donors.²⁹ Ibrahim et al's survey of previous kidney donors documented subjects reporting significant increases in diagnosed preeclampsia, hypertension, and gestational diabetes in pregnancies after donation compared with before.³⁰ Reisaeter et al found more pre-eclampsia diagnosed in women after donation compared with pregnancies before.³¹

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192 Kidney function impact

Taken together the studies, case series, and registries indicate that kidney function alone plays a role in pregnancy outcomes, though usually limited unless kidney dysfunction is moderate and proteinuria is present. Whether pregnancy in women with CKD changes the course of their kidney disease, is less clear. Kidney donors aside, patients with CKD (with or without kidney transplants) have other factors that may independently influence pregnancy outcomes, be it underlying disease, medications, proteinuria, or hypertension.

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200 BLOOD PRESSURE

201 Hypertension during pregnancy is an increasingly recognized problem, and one that has led to the creation of several management guidelines.^{32–35} Using hospital discharge data from 202 203 the Nationwide Inpatient sample (NIS) part of the Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project, a 204 2012 population-based study examined 56,494,634 deliveries between 1995 and 2008. During this period the prevalence of primary and secondary hypertension increased from 205 0.9% to 1.52% and 0.07% to 0.24% respectively.³⁶ Hypertension during pregnancy can be 206 207 broken down into four types as outlined in Table 2: pre-eclampsia / eclampsia, chronic 208 hypertension, chronic hypertension with superimposed pre-eclampsia, and gestational hypertension.³² Management of hypertension during pregnancy differs from that in non-209 210 pregnant states. Blood pressure goals are more permissive during gestation. However the 211 American College of Obstetricians and Gynecology (ACOG) recommends that if there is 212 evidence of end organ damage, treatment goals should be as rigid as in the non-pregnant state.³² 213

	215	The reasoning behind why management in the pregnant and non-pregnant state differs is
	216	several-fold including that pregnancy is a time limited event in which the benefits of
	217	treatment are not easily realized, and treatment exposes the fetus to medications which
)	218	may affect intrauterine programming and may lead to reduced utero-placental blood flow
<u>}</u> }	219	with compromised fetal circulation. ^{37,38} Whether or not blood pressure management should
 	220	differ in pregnancy from non-pregnant states is a point of current debate. Those who
}	221	advocate that the 2 should not differ note that hypertension during pregnancy is not as
)	222	benign as once thought. Hypertension during pregnancy has been associated with an
2	223	increased risk for acute kidney injury (AKI), pulmonary edema, need for ventilator support,
, , ;	224	and cerebrovascular complications. ^{39,40} There is also now evidence that a hypertensive
) ,	225	pregnancy is associated with later-in-life left ventricular hypertrophy. ⁴¹ An
5))	226	echocardiography study of pregnant and non-pregnant women who were normotensive or
2	227	had essential hypertension suggested that pregnancy and hypertension have synergistic
} 	228	effects in causing myocardial hypertrophy. ⁴² This latter study indicates that cardiac changes
)) ,	229	may be seen not only years after delivery, but during the pregnancy too.
})	230	The debate over whether or not blood pressure goals in pregnant women with hypertension
)	231	should be relaxed or stringent and the ACOG guidelines are timely as the Tight Control of
- } -	232	Hypertension in Pregnancy Study (CHIPS) recently demonstrated that pregnancy outcomes
))	233	and maternal complications were not significantly different in pregnant women whose
3	234	hypertension was controlled more or less tightly. ⁴³ However this debate is not germane to
)	235	CKD because CKD is a form of end organ damage and the CHIPS trial excluded individuals
2 3 L	236	with renal dysfunction. Consequently we suggest that such patients should be treated
r))	237	more aggressively, that is in a manner similar to the non-pregnant state i.e. aiming for tight
, }	238	control.
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Fetal and maternal outcomes for pregnant women with CKD are markedly worse in the presence of hypertension. Bateman et al observed odds ratios of stillbirth, poor fetal growth, and spontaneous delivery <37 weeks gestation to be 7.29, 7.49 and 8.60 compared with 1.74, 2.29 and 2.25 respectively in women with CKD plus hypertension compared with those with CKD alone.³⁶ Maternal complications were also markedly increased in women with CKD who had chronic hypertension compared with those with CKD but without chronic hypertension. For example, preeclampsia and AKI odds ratios were 27.87 and 253.4 compared with 3.28 and 62.4 respectively. Whether or not blood pressure control in women with CKD and chronic hypertension would reduce these risks has not been studied. The United Kingdom's National Institute of Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) clinical guidelines recommend keeping BP lower than 140/90 mmHg in pregnant women with target-organ damage, including CKD.³⁷ However, the evidence behind this blood pressure goal is scant at best.

The optimal blood pressure target for pregnant women with CKD and hypertension remains an unanswered question and important knowledge gap. Identifying that target is becoming increasingly important as the prevalence of CKD in pregnant women has increased from a range of 0.1% to 1% in the past to an estimated current prevalence of around 3%,⁴⁴ with recent literature suggesting that up to 6% of women of child-bearing age in high income countries are affected by CKD.⁴⁵

PRE-PREGNANCY COUNSELLING

The value of pre-pregnancy counselling has been recognized in women with diabetes for
 several decades.⁴⁶ Pre-pregnancy counselling in women with chronic kidney disease offers

263	the opportunity to minimize disease activity, optimize blood pressure control and
264	proteinuria, alter teratogenic medications and also to educate couples about potential fetal
265	and maternal adverse events that may occur during pregnancy and the puerperium in this
266	high risk group. It also allows discussion of the inheritance of genetic disorders of the kidney
267	including cystic diseases, metabolic diseases and glomerular basement membrane
268	disorders. The confidential enquiries into maternal deaths in the UK endorses that pre-
269	pregnancy counselling should be routinely commissioned and offered to women with pre-
270	existing medical illnesses in view of the morbidity and mortality triggered by these
271	diseases. ⁴⁷ The advice given is clearly dependent on underlying renal disease, baseline renal
272	function, proteinuria and blood pressure at conception and this should be delivered in a
273	patient focused, individualised manner. Women with chronic kidney disease should be
274	counselled prior to pregnancy of the increasing risk of maternal and fetal complications as
275	GFR declines. These risks include fetal growth restriction, pre-term birth, pre-eclampsia,
276	fetal death and deterioration of maternal renal function / disease flare. ⁴⁸
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278	Fertility

Women may need to be advised that advanced chronic kidney disease impairs fertility.⁴⁹ This is due to a multitude of reasons, although these are poorly characterized in the literature. Hyperprolactinemia is common in patients with CKD, due to reduced renal clearance and increased production from suppression of dopaminergic activity, and this inhibits gonadotropin secretion. This manifests as amenorrhea in women.^{50,51}. Levels of leutinising hormone and follicle stimulating hormone are also elevated in CKD, although the physiological surge in LH usually seen during the mid-cycle of healthy women is not seen in those with CKD, and this can lead to anovulation.⁵¹ These hypothalamic-pituitary axis

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dysfunctions, in combination with the psychological impact of CKD causing depression and reduced libido, can significantly reduce the chances of conception. However, fertility can be restored after renal transplantation.⁵² As pregnancy outcomes are progressively poorer with advancing chronic kidney disease, younger women who want to become pregnant are often advised to be transplanted first. If this is not possible, nocturnal haemodialysis may restore menses and improve the chances of pregnancy.^{53,54}

294 Optimization Before Pregnancy

Blood pressure should be optimized before pregnancy. Both KDIGO and UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) recommend that adults with CKD, without proteinuria should aim for a blood pressure below 140/90mmHg. NICE recommend that those with CKD who have diabetes or those with proteinuria (ACR >70mg/mmol) aim for a blood pressure below 130/80mmHg. KDIGO also recommend this level for patients with an ACR >30mg/mmol. ^{55,56} These targets should be achieved prior to conception with drugs that are safe to continue during pregnancy (summarized in table 3). ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers should be stopped prior to pregnancy or as early as possible after discovering pregnancy. A recent systematic review of the management of hypertensive disorders in pregnancy recommends the preventative use of low dose aspirin to reduce preeclampsia, and in severe hypertension. ⁵⁷ UK NICE guidelines also advocate the use of aspirin from 12 weeks of gestation in women at high risk to reduce the incidence of preeclampsia.⁵⁸ Such risk factors include chronic kidney disease and autoimmune diseases such as systemic lupus erythematosus. This is based on a Cochrane review of 59 trials.⁵⁹ Proteinuria may occur in 30% of women who do not have proteinuria before pregnancy,⁶⁰

310 and may confer poorer feto-maternal outcomes^{61,62}. Proteinuria should therefore, where

possible, be controlled during pre-pregnancy counselling, and the main way to achieve this
is through optimizing treatment of baseline renal disease and blood pressure control.
Women with proteinuria should be counselled about the potential requirement for
thromboprophylaxis during pregnancy.

. Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) affects women of child bearing age without affecting fertility and so pregnancy is not uncommon. A meta-analysis of 2751 women with SLE showed that those with active lupus nephritis (LN) had an increased risk of maternal hypertensive disorders and premature birth.⁶³ Disease flare, high initial creatinine and proteinuria at conception are predictive of worse outcomes. In addition, flares may cause a decline in renal function and accelerate progression to end-stage renal disease. Pregnancy should be planned and drugs altered accordingly prior to pregnancy, including stopping / substituting mycophenolic acid products. A minimum six month period of disease quiescence prior to pregnancy is therefore recommended.^{64,65} The PROMISSE (Predictors of Pregnancy Outcome: Biomarkers in Antiphospholipid Antibody Syndrome and Systemic Lupus Erythematosus) study, a large prospective cohort study including 385 patients, recently demonstrated that 81% of pregnancies in women with inactive or stable mild/moderate disease were uncomplicated.⁶⁶ Features indicating a higher risk for adverse pregnancy outcomes, included a positive lupus anticoagulant, antihypertensive use, a low platelet count, Hispanic or non-white ethnicity, and a physician's global assessment score >1; and those women without these generally had favourable outcomes.

332 Pre-implantation diagnosis

333 It is important to discuss the option of preimplantation genetic diagnosis (PGD) with women
334 whose CKD is secondary to a genetically inherited cause. Recent advances in techniques

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used for in vitro-fertilisation allow removal of one or two cells at the eight cell stage of
blastocyst formation.⁶⁷ These blastomeres can then be analysed for the mutations
responsible for conditions such as Alports Syndrome or Adult Polycystic Kidney Disease.⁶⁸
Although there are limited data, initial reports suggest PGD is associated with similar
success in pregnancy outcome when compared with routine IVF.

Pre-pregnancy counselling improves knowledge and changes behavior prior to pregnancy⁶⁹ which may help to reduce adverse events. The optimum way of offering pre-conception counselling has not been established. Patients with diabetes agreed that being informed of the risks prior to pregnancy is crucial, but existing childcare and work commitments prevented attendance to such services. They also stressed that the positive aspects of having children should be discussed rather than only medical complications.⁷⁰ In a retrospective analysis of 179 women with chronic kidney disease undergoing pre-pregnancy counselling in a large single centre, consultations included the multi-disciplinary team of a consultant obstetric physician, obstetrician and nephrologist.⁷¹ These women had an overwhelmingly positive experience, with approximately 90% finding the clinic informative, with understandable information and helpful in deciding about pursuing pregnancy. However, 17% found the process intimidating, but this may prove difficult to abrogate in such a highly emotive situation. Clearly the inclusion of midwives, general practitioners, counsellors, psychologists and clinical geneticists when required, may prove an extremely useful addition to this team. Electronic media including the internet and DVDs have also proven beneficial.^{72,73}

358 MEDICATIONS

Women with CKD including those with a kidney transplant are prescribed different types of medications that have the potential to adversely affect the pregnancy outcomes. These include immunosuppressive, anti-hypertensive and anti-viral medications. Each is important for the mother's overall health, but their effects on the pregnant woman and her developing fetus have been a concern for many practitioners. The major classes of medications used in women with CKD and in transplant recipients and their known effects on the mother and her offspring will be described below. See table 3.

367 Immunosuppressants:

Maintaining adequate immunosuppressive drug levels can be a challenge because drug levels change dramatically during gestation, primarily due to changes in blood volume and placental metabolism. Due to a natural increase in glomerular filtration rate, small changes in renal function can indicate significant rejection in pregnant transplant recipients⁷⁴ and close monitoring of renal function and drug levels is important. It is important to closely monitor drug levels throughout all phases of gestation and collaboration with the transplant center is mandatory during and immediately after the pregnancy.

There are no guidelines about dosing of immunosuppressant medications during pregnancy, but several studies have provided recommendations. Kim *et al* recently reported on blood levels of calcineurin inhibitors during gestation in 88 pregnancies from 75 transplant recipients.⁷⁵ In 80 cases the serum creatinine was decreased by an average of 0.14mg/dl during pregnancy and returned to pre-pregnancy levels after delivery. Tacrolimus blood trough levels decreased during the second trimester (from 5.8 ±2.8 ng/ml) to 4.2 ±1.8ng/ml). Likewise, cyclosporine levels decreased during the second trimester from 125.1

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2 3 4	383	± 65.1 ng/ml to 75.4 ± 35 ng/ml. The recommendations of this study were to increase
5 6	384	calcineurin inhibitor dose by approximately 20-25% during gestation to maintain optimal
7 8	385	drug levels. Aktürk also reported on the pharmacokinetics of tacrolimus during pregnancy
9 10	386	and recommended calcineurin inhibitor dosing is significantly increased in order to maintain
11 12 13	387	adequate trough levels during pregnancy. ⁷⁶ Women should be informed that tacrolimus
14 15 16	388	levels need to be closely monitored in pregnancy. It is highly bound to plasma protein and
16 17 18	389	erythrocytes, with complicated pharmacokinetics that are even further altered by normal
19 20	390	physiological changes in pregnancy such as anaemia, hypoalbuminaemia and increased
21 22 23	391	creatinine clearance. Maintaining whole blood tacrolimus levels after conception risks
23 24 25	392	toxicity but no dose change may incur under-treatment. Unbound trough concentrations
26 27	393	may be the most appropriate level to monitor during pregnancy, ⁷⁷ but these are technically
28 29	394	challenging to measure in routine practice.
30 31 32	395	Immunosuppressive medications cross the maternal-placental-fetal interface ^{74,78} and
33 34	396	therefore there are always concerns about their effect on fetal development. The fetal liver,
35 36 37	397	which is interposed between the umbilical vein and fetal inferior vena cava, filters the
38 39	398	pharmacologic agents that pass through the placenta, including immunosuppressants.
40 41	399	Calcineurin inhibitors are well-known to cross the placenta and enter the fetal circulation. ⁷⁴
42 43 44	400	Zheng et al recently reported on tacrolimus concentrations in maternal and umbilical cord
44 45 46	401	blood at delivery in eight transplant recipients and found that umbilical cord venous blood
47 48	402	concentrations were 71% that of maternal concentrations. The lower fetal blood
49 50	403	concentrations were proposed to be caused by the active transport of tacrolimus from the
51 52 53	404	fetus toward the mother by placental P-glycoprotein. ⁷⁹ Whether in utero exposure to
54 55	405	tacrolimus has adverse effects on fetal development however is not known. In animal
56 57	406	studies it was recently shown that rats treated with cyclosporine (CSA) during pregnancy
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407 experienced impaired kidney development, suggesting a predisposition to chronic kidney 408 disease and hypertension in adult life.⁸⁰ Despite this, tacrolimus is deemed safe in 409 pregnancy⁸¹ and breastfeeding.⁸²

410 Corticosteroids pass through the placenta, but most of the maternal dose undergoes 411 placental metabolism⁷⁴ and therefore the fetus is generally protected from adverse effects 412 of corticosteroids. While adverse effects associated with in utero exposure to 413 corticosteroids are rare, there have though been sporadic reports of adrenal suppression in 414 newborns of pregnant transplant recipients particularly when the corticosteroids dose was 415 high.

Azathioprine also passes into the fetal circulation, but the fetus lacks inosinate pyrophosphorylase, which is required for the conversion of azathioprine to its active metabolite 6-mercaptopurine.⁷⁴ Therefore, concerns about the use of azathioprine in pregnancy have been less than for other immunosuppressive.⁸³ Indeed, mycophenolic acid products are routinely substituted for azathioprine before and during pregnancy.²³ Substantial data have shown that mycophenolic acid products are associated with an increased incidence of spontaneous abortion and a distinct pattern of birth defects.⁸⁴ The spectrum of mycophenolate embryopathy includes ocular anomalies, corpus callosum agenesis, heart defects, kidney malformations, diaphragmatic hernia and skeletal deformities.⁸⁵ Numerous reports of mycophenolate-associated malformations led the FDA to issue a black box warning on its use during pregnancy.

428 Less is known about the effects of sirolimus in pregnancy. Sifontis reported on seven 429 pregnancies with sirolimus exposure in seven pregnancies.⁸⁶ In three there were 430 miscarriages and four resulted in live births. No malformations were observed but sirolimus

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was switched to azathioprine during the first trimester in one case and in another the
immunosuppressive regimen was switched from mycophenolate to sirolimus at 24 weeks. In
the latter case the infant was born with features typical of mycophenolate embryopathy.
There are several reports of sirolimus exposure during the whole pregnancy, without
apparent adverse effects on the fetus.^{87–90}

Recently there have been several reports about pregnancy in transplant recipients taking the mTOR inhibitor everolimus during their pregnancy.^{91,92} One report of an unplanned pregnancy in a heart transplant recipient described a normal baby without obvious congenital defects. The fetus was exposed to everolimus as concentrations were similar in maternal and neonatal umbilical blood, and fetal blood levels were detected for 5 days after birth. In contrast CsA levels, which were also detected in umbilical blood, disappeared within 2 days of delivery in fetal blood.⁹³ Other reports have been published recently describing exposure to everolimus during pregnancies in kidney transplant recipients without apparent congenital malformations.^{94,95} Although the few reports of unremarkable pregnancies with the use of mTOR inhibitors are encouraging, additional data are needed to confirm their safe use during pregnancy.

Treatment of rejection with corticosteroids is the mainstay during pregnancy and is generally considered safe to the fetus.⁹⁶ Recently Kutzler et al reported on the safe use of anti-thymocyte globulin (ATG) to successfully treat a pregnant renal transplant recipient with mixed acute cellular rejection and antibody-mediated rejection.⁹⁷ The patient was also treated with high-dose corticosteroids, intravenous immunoglobulin and plasmapheresis in addition to ATG; and she gave birth to a healthy baby boy. The safety of rejection treatment with ATG or other monoclonal or polyclonal antibodies has not been evaluated in clinical

Page 20 of 79

Kidney International

454 trials in pregnant transplant recipients and only scattered case reports are available. There455 are no data on the long term impact on the exposed children's immune repertoire.

Management of lupus nephritis (LN) and other causes of autoimmune glomerulonephritides in pregnancy remains challenging due to limited safe therapeutic options. Cyclophosphamide and mycophenolate mofetil are teratogenic, and are generally to be avoided in pregnancy, although can be considered from the third trimester.⁹⁸ Steroids are often used in pregnancy as they are not associated with congenital abnormalities⁹⁹ but can cause premature rupture of membranes, preterm delivery, maternal sepsis and gestational diabetes.¹⁰⁰ Data on Rituximab use in pregnancy are limited but it does cross the placenta and lymphopaenia has been reported in new born children.¹⁰¹ Hydroxychloroguine and azathioprine are safe in pregnancy and should be considered in treatment regimens prior to conception, along with aspirin. Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) reduces the risk cardiac manifestations of neonatal lupus in anti-Ro-positive mothers and is actively recommended in women with LN before and during pregnancy.¹⁰² Tacrolimus may be a useful alternative or adjunctive therapy for LN flare during pregnancy.¹⁰³

470 Anti-Hypertensives:

Adverse effects of renin angiotensin system (RAS) blockade have been shown for some time, and ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers are teratogenic.¹⁰⁴⁻¹⁰⁷ In a recent retrospective study performed through the Midwest Pediatric Nephrology Consortium, RAS blocker fetopathy was identified and confirmed to depend on the timing of exposure, with the most severe renal manifestations occurring with exposure after the first trimester.¹⁰⁴ Beta blockers are commonly used during pregnancy and recent meta-analyses showed that first-trimester oral beta-blocker exposure was associated with no increase in major

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congenital anomalies, but examination of organ-specific malformations revealed increased odds of cardiovascular defects, cleft lip/palate, and neural tube defects.¹⁰⁸ There is significant heterogeneity in the reports and thus it is not clear at this time whether beta-blockers are associated with these defects. Calcium channel blockers have recently been used in the management of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm labor. Teratogenicity with calcium channel blockers has been shown in animals, but no cases have yet been reported in humans and at this time are reported to be safe for use in pregnancyassociated hypertension.¹⁰⁹

487 Antivirals:

Several antivirals have been used during pregnancy. The most commonly used antiviral agents target CMV infection. All of these have fetal toxicity. Valganciclovir should not be used as animal studies have revealed it can cause embryolethality, fetotoxicity, teratogenicity, and mutagenicity. Valganciclovir may cause impaired fertility in both males and females.¹¹⁰ If CMV prophylaxis is required, valaciclovir is considered safe though possibly less effective. Lamivudine and tenofovir are safe for Hepatitis B prophylaxis.^{111, 112}

CONCLUSIONS

497 Pregnancy in women with CKD and kidney transplant should be planned, considered high 498 risk, and ideally managed by an expert multidisciplinary team. The best outcomes are likely 499 seen where there has been careful pre-pregnancy evaluation and planning, and close 500 monitoring during antenatal care. The outcomes for women and babies continue to improve

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2 3 4	501	but we still need better biomarkers e.g. placental growth factor (PIGF) to identify those
5 6	502	women at higher risk of developing superimposed pre-eclampsia. ¹¹³
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10 11	504	DISCLOSURES
12 13 14	505	Michelle A. Josephson is member of the Mycophenolate Pregnancy Registry Advisory
15 16	506	Committee
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49	785	Legends:
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51	787	Table 1: Prepregnancy kidney function in patients with CKD with estimates of problems in
52 53	788	pregnancy (fetal growth restriction, preeclampsia, preterm delivery, and significant kidney
53 54	789	function loss in pregnancy [>25% SCr increment]), obstetric outcome, and loss of kidney
55	790	function: The effect of altering cut-off between moderate and severe dysfunction from 2.8
56	791	mg/dL (≥250μmol/L) to 2.0 mg/dL (≥180μmol/L), respectively
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2 3	793	Table 2: Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy
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7	796	Table 3: Drug Safety in Pregnancy
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1	Pregnancy in Chronic Kidney Disease and Kidney Transplantation
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3	Philip Webster ¹ , Liz Lightstone ¹ , Dianne B. McKay ² , Michelle A. Josephson ³
4	¹ Section of Renal Medicine and Vascular Inflammation, Department of Medicine, Imperial
5	College London, UK
6	² Division of Nephrology, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Diego,
7	California
8	³ Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL
9	
10	CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Michelle A Josephson,
11	The University of Chicago, 5758 S Maryland Ave, Chicago, IL 60637, United States
12	Phone: +1 773-702-1500 Email: mjosephs@medicine.bsd.uchicago.edu
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14	RUNNING HEADLINE : Pregnancy in CKD & Kidney Transplantation
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25 ABSTRACT	
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Chronic kidney disease (CKD) affects up to 6% of women of childbearing age in high income countries, and is estimated to affect 3% of pregnant women. Advanced renal dysfunction, proteinuria, hypertension and poorly controlled underlying primary renal disease are all significant risks for adverse maternal, fetal and renal outcomes. In order to achieve the best outcomes it is therefore of paramount importance that these pregnancies are planned, where possible, to allow the opportunity to counsel women and their partners in advance and to optimize these risks. These pregnancies should be deemed high risk and they require close antenatal monitoring from an expert multidisciplinary team.

We discuss the effect of pregnancy on CKD, and also current guidelines and literature with specific reference to transplantation, autoimmune disease and medication use in pregnancy. We also discuss the benefits of pre-pregnancy counselling and give practical recommendations to advise pregnant women with renal disease.

49 THE IMPACT OF KIDNEY FUNCTION IN AND OF ITSELFON PREGNANCY OUTCOME

50 <u>CKD degreestage and outcomes</u>

The pregnancies of most normotensive women with mild or even moderate renal dysfunction succeed, but are prone to more complications than those of gravidas with normal renal function. However, pregnancy is much more hazardous when kidney dysfunction is advanced. Women with advanced chronic kidney disease (CKD) have a lower likelihood of conceiving because of the decreased fertility associated with the hormonal changes of worsening kidney function and ESRD.¹ When they do conceive, advanced CKD predisposes to intrauterine growth restriction and preterm delivery,² and pregnancy has been blamed for hastening the rate of decline of kidney function, increasing proteinuria, and hypertension.³ Such views however are based on insufficient data. Thus the level of kidney function/dysfunction and its effect on pregnancy remains a hot debated areatopic.

62 An evolving state of understanding

Currently there is controversy reflecting the swinging pendulum of attitudes related to pregnancy in women with CKD, as well as the evolution of how the nephrology community assesses renal function. In 1975, an anonymously authored Lancet editorial noted that physicians in the past preferred avoiding pregnancy in women with any degree of CKD by noting: "Children of women with renal disease used to be born dangerously or not at all not at all if their doctors had their way".⁴ The editorial took the then provocative stance that as most pregnancies succeed in the setting of mild kidney dysfunction, this attitude should be changed. Davison and Lindheimer⁵ noted in 2010 that studies in the decades after the Lancet editorial led to a better understanding of outcomes for pregnancy in women with kidney dysfunction. Observational studies indicated that outcomes depended

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on the degree of renal insufficiency pre-pregnancy, and the presence or absence of hypertension.⁶ Based on these parameters, women were grouped into three categories: mild, moderate, or severe dysfunction. Normotensive women with preserved or mildly decreased but stable kidney function (defined as a serum creatinine (SCr) of \leq 1.4 mg/dL) did well with over 95% live births, 75% of which were appropriate size for gestational age. However, prognosis worsened with moderate dysfunction (SCr \geq 1.4 mg/dL-2.8 mg/dL) and more so with severe impairment (SCr level $\geq 2.8 \text{ mg/dL}$).⁷ These estimates were based on a 26-year literature review (1984-2010), as well as personal patient files by John Davison, most recently published in a NephSAP editorial by Drs Lindheimer and Davison, in the issue devoted to renal disease and hypertension in pregnancy (reproduced with permission in Table 1).⁸See Table 1.

85 <u>Creatinine vs eGFR</u>

In 2002 the Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiative (KDOQI) released a new chronic kidney disease (CKD) classification designating five categories based on estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR).⁹ Ignoring the question of whether this classification system over-diagnosed kidney disease and dysfunction in some, the eGFR based system provided another filter through which to consider pregnancy outcomes. Piccoli and colleagues¹⁰ used the classification and looked at pregnancy outcomes in 504 pregnancies in women with CKD compared with 836 low-risk pregnancies in women without CKD. They considered whether hypertension, proteinuria (> 1 gram/day), systemic disease, or CKD stage at baseline affected pregnancies. Outcomes assessed were: cesarean section, preterm delivery, early preterm delivery, small for gestational age, need for neonatal intensive care unit, new onset of hypertension, new onset/doubling of proteinuria, CKD stage shift, and a combined

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97	outcome. The majority of patients in the study were classified as CKD stage 1. The author
98	concluded that adverse outcomes increased with increasing stage of CKD, including
99	surprisingly stage 1, even in the absence of hypertension, baseline proteinuria, and system
100	diseases. The study analysis had sufficient data to confirm that adverse outcomes increase
101	with increasing stage of CKD, including surprisingly stage 1, even in the absence
102	hypertension, baseline proteinuria, and systemic diseases. The eGFR was calculated base
103	on the Cockcroft-Gault, Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD), and Chronic Kidn
104	Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI) formulas. As CKD-EPI and MDRD have be
105	found to underestimate GFR in pregnancy ^{11,12} and Cockcroft-Gault has been demonstrate
106	to both underestimate and overestimate GFR in hypertensive pregnant women, ¹³ it
107	possible that some of the patients in Piccoli's study had lower GFRs than the group in whi
108	they were classified. Some of the individuals reported to have CKD stage 1, could therefore
109	have had a higher stage. While Piccoli et al's findings were primarily in women with mild a
110	moderate dysfunction Imbasciati et al studied 49 women with preconception stage 3 to
111	CKD observed for a mean of 39 months after delivery. In the latter study only individua
112	with both GFR less than 40 ml/min/1.73m ² and greater than 1 gram of proteinuria per d
113	were noted to have poor fetal outcomes and accelerated kidney function loss. ¹⁴ A met
114	analysis by Zhang et al of 23 studies that included 1514 pregnancies with CKD found i
115	significant difference in renal outcomes in pregnant women with CKD compared with no
116	pregnant women with CKD. The study did however find that adverse pregnancy outcome
117	including preeclampsia, premature births, SGA/low birth weight, cesarean section, stillbirt
118	fetal death, and neonatal death, were increased in women with CKD compared to tho
119	without. The conclusions that can be drawn from the meta-analysis must be put in

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	120	context because the literature review focused on patients with CKD stages 1-3, thus
	121	excluding those with stage 4 or 5 who are most vulnerable for progression of disease. ¹⁵
	122	In their review and recent editorial Lindheimer and Davison ^{5,8} underscore that most eGFR
)	123	formulae correlate poorly with measured GFR in pregnant women, and that obstetricians
<u>2</u> 3	124	familiar with absolute values of creatinine may be unfamiliar with the nephrology
5	125	community's CKD system . However, despite the seeming differences between those who
5 7 3	126	are considering pregnancy outcomes through an eGFR based CKD stages filter, and those
)	127	who are more comfortable with the serum creatinine based assessment, proponents of
 2	128	both agree that degree of kidney function plays an important role in outcome. Neither
5 1 5	129	group advocates returning to the pre-1975 mindset of avoiding pregnancy in women with
5 5 7	130	mild kidney dysfunction, however defined.
3	131	
) 2	132	Additional contributing factors
3 4	133	Whilst clearly important, kidney function alone does not uniformly predict pregnancy
5 6	134	outcomes. There are likely to be additional contributing factors to pregnancy outcomes,
, 3 9	135	such as active systemic disease or endothelial injury. For example certain specific diseases
) I	136	such as Systemic Lupus Erythematosus (SLE) may exert a greater adverse effect on the
2 3 1	137	pregnancy making it impossible to isolate the role of kidney function per se on outcomes. ¹⁶
5	138	Similarly kidney transplantation does not present a pristine model to look at kidney function
7 3	139	alone because of the effects of immunosuppression.
)) I	140	
2 3	141	Kidney transplantation and outcome
1 5	142	A national UK cohort study demonstrated that most pregnancies after renal transplantation
) 7	143	are successful, although the risks of pre-eclampsia still remain higher than controls ¹⁷ and
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2 3 4	144	this higher risk of pre-eclampsia affects even those with good GFRs. ¹⁸ Patients should be
5	145	counselled of this accordingly and the other precautions discussed in the pre-pregnancy
7 8	146	counselling section, initiated. How does the connection between kidney function and
9 10 11	147	pregnancy outcomes relate to pregnancy outcomes in kidney transplant recipients? Similar
12 13	148	to findings in advanced kidney failure, transplant patients appear to have a lower fertility
14 15	149	pregnancy rate than the general public. ¹⁹ Registry, cohort, and meta-analysis studies
16 17 18	150	demonstrate that pregnancies in transplant recipients, which are more likely to be
19 20	151	complicated by hypertension, are at greater risk for prematurity, small for gestational age,
21 22	152	cesarean sections, the diagnosis of preeclampsia and perinatal mortality. ^{17,18,20} Of note
23 24 25	153	while pregnancy and renal function outcomes in transplant recipients have been studied
26 27	154	based on creatinine levels, we could locate no assessments based on the CKD staging
28 29	155	system. In transplant recipients, there are the additional factors of immunosuppression
30 31 32	156	medications. These factors make it hard to isolate and define the kidney function effect on
33 34	157	pregnancy in this group. Long term follow-up of transplant recipients with and without a
35 36	158	history of pregnancy supports the idea that pregnancy does not worsen long term
37 38 39	159	outcomes. ²¹
40 41	160	However, there may be subsets of transplant patients in whom pregnancy accelerates renal
42 43	161	function decline. However, there may be subsets of transplant patients in whom it does.
44 45 46	162	Data from the UK Pregnancy registry indicate that women with kidney allografts whose pre-
47 48	163	pregnancy SCr is greater than 150 μ mol/L (approximately 1.7 mg/dL) have an increased
49 50	164	serum creatinine after pregnancy, suggesting that the pregnancy itself may negatively affect
51 52 53	165	graft function. ²² Despite limitations of available data in the transplant recipient, guidelines
54 55	166	advise that amongst other factors, the basis for determining reasonable timing for
56 57 58 59	167	pregnancy is the presence of adequate and stable graft function (arbitrarily set as a SCr<1.5
60		The International Society of Nephrology (http://www.isn-online.org/site/cms)

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168	mg/dL). ²³ The American Society of Transplantation recommends that prior to pregnancy
169	there should be no rejection for one year, adequate and stable graft function, no acute
170	infections, and stable immunosuppression dosing. ²⁴ Pregnancy should be delayed until at
171	least one year after renal transplantation ²⁵ as postponement is associated with better
172	outcomes. ²⁶ A recent study by Rose et al that examined allograft outcome and pregnancy
173	timing in the first 3 post-transplant years of Medicare insured kidney transplant recipients
174	suggests that pregnancy in the first 2 post-transplant years is associated with increased
175	allograft loss compared with waiting an additional year. ²⁷ Beyond optimal post-transplant
176	pregnancy timing, there are many other unanswered questions about pregnancy in
177	transplant recipients including the optimal pre-pregnancy kidney function and whether
178	having pre-existent donor specific antibodies affects pregnancy outcomes, or the
179	transplanted kidney. This last consideration is of particular concern given the usual pre-
180	pregnancy modification of immunosuppression, with discontinuation of mycophenolic acid
181	formulations.
182	
183	Kidney donors
184	Pregnancy in kidney donors may be the perfect model in which to consider the role of
185	kidney function. Donors are intensively medically screened and only allowed to donate a
186	kidney if healthy. Their post-donation level of kidney function is approximately 75-80% of
187	normal. ²⁸ They do not have systemic disease and their remaining kidney, though
188	hypertrophied and hyperfiltering, is normal. Three studies have found that post-donation
189	pregnancies may be at increased risk for complications. Garg et al performed a
190	populationcohort study and found a significantly higher incidence of gestational

191 hypertension or preeclampsia in donors compared with matched non-donors.²⁹ Ibrahim et

al's survey of previous kidney donors documented subjects reporting significant increases in
 diagnosed preeclampsia, hypertension, and gestational diabetes in pregnancies after
 donation compared with before.³⁰ Reisaeter et al found more pre-eclampsia diagnosed in
 women after donation compared with pregnancies before.³¹

197 <u>Kidney function impact</u>

Taken together the studies, case series, and registries indicate that kidney function alone plays a role in pregnancy outcomes, though usually limited unless kidney dysfunction is moderate and proteinuria is present. Whether pregnancy in women with CKD changes the course of their kidney disease, is less clear. Kidney donors aside, patients with CKD (with or without kidney transplants) have other factors that may independently influence pregnancy outcomes, be it underlying disease, medications, proteinuria, or hypertension.

205 BLOOD PRESSURE

206	Using hospital discharge data from the Nationwide Inpatient sample (NIS) part of the
207	Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project, a 2012 population-based study examined
208	56,494,634 deliveries between 1995 and 2008. During this period the prevalence of primary
209	and secondary hypertension increased from 0.9% to 1.52% and 0.07% to 0.24%
210	respectively. ²⁵ —Hypertension during pregnancy is an increasingly recognized problem, and
211	one that has led to the creation of several management guidelines. ^{32–35} Using hospital
212	discharge data from the Nationwide Inpatient sample (NIS) part of the Healthcare Cost and
213	Utilization Project, a 2012 population-based study examined 56,494,634 deliveries between
214	1995 and 2008. During this period the prevalence of primary and secondary hypertension
215	increased from 0.9% to 1.52% and 0.07% to 0.24% respectively. ³⁶ _Hypertension during

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Page 45 of 79

Kidney International

216	pregnancy can be broken down into four types as outlined in Table 2: pre-eclampsia /
217	eclampsia, chronic hypertension, chronic hypertension with superimposed pre-eclampsia,
218	and gestational hypertension. ³² Women who require antihypertensive medications before
219	pregnancy or whose hypertension begins before the 20 th week of pregnancy, or whose
220	hypertension continues for more than 12 weeks following delivery are defined as having
221	chronic hypertension. By contrast gestational hypertension is diagnosed when blood
222	pressure elevation occurs after the 20 th week of pregnancy in the absence of proteinuria or
223	thrombocytopenia, impaired liver function, new onset of kidney dysfunction, pulmonary
224	edema, or new cerebral or visual disturbances. ³⁰ -Management of hypertension during
225	pregnancy differs from that in non-pregnant states. Blood pressure goals are more
226	permissive during gestation. Furthermore, there are substantial differences as to when to
227	start pharmacological therapy between the American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology
228	(ACOG) and several other National and International guidelines. ³¹ The report of the
229	American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists' Task Force on Hypertension in
230	Pregnancy recommends "For women with chronic hypertension and BP less than 160 mm
231	Hg systolic or 105 mm Hg diastolic that they not be treated with pharmacologic
232	antihypertensive therapy." However, for those women who have chronic hypertension and
233	are already treated with antihypertensive medications, the target range is 120-160 mm Hg
234	systolic and 80 105 mm Hg diastolic." However the American College of Obstetricians and
235	Gynecology (ACOG) They also-recommendsed that if there is evidence of end organ damage,
236	treatment goals should be as rigid as in the non-pregnant state. ³²
237	
200	The reasoning behind why management in the program and non-program state differs is

The reasoning behind why management in the pregnant and non-pregnant state differs is
several-fold including that. This includes at least in part that as pregnancy is a time limited

24	event <u>in which</u> , the benefits of treatment are not easily <u>realized</u> appreciated during the
24	time,. Another guiding principal behind the more relaxed blood pressure thresholds is that
24	2 and medication-treatment exposes-not only the mother, but also the fetus to medications
24	which may affect intrauterine programming and may lead to reduced utero-placental blood
24	flow with compromised fetal circulation. ^{37,38} Whether or not blood pressure management
24	should differ in pregnancy from non-pregnant these 2 states is a point of current debate.
24	16 Those who advocate that the 2 should not differ lower thresholds for treatment note that
24	hypertension during pregnancy is not as benign as once thought. Hypertension during
24	18 pregnancy has been associated with an increased risk for acute kidney injury (AKI),
24	pulmonary edema, need for ventilator support, and cerebrovascular complications. ^{39,40}
2	50 There is also now evidence that a hypertensive pregnancy is associated with later-in-life left
2	51 ventricular hypertrophy. ⁴¹ An echocardiography study of pregnant and non-pregnant
2	women who were normotensive or had essential hypertension suggested that pregnancy
2	and hypertension have synergistic effects in causing myocardial hypertrophy. ⁴² This latter
2	54 study indicates that cardiac changes may be seen not only years after delivery, but during
2	55 the pregnancy too.
2	56 The debate over whether or not blood pressure goals in pregnant women with hypertension
2!	57 should be relaxed or stringent and the ACOG guidelines are timely as the Tight Control of
2	8 Hypertension in Pregnancy Study (CHIPS) recently demonstrated that pregnancy outcomes
2!	i9 and maternal complications were not significantly different in pregnant women whose
20	50 <u>hypertension was controlled more or less tightly.</u> ⁴³ <u>However this debate is but are</u> not
20	germane to CKD. This is because CKD is a form of end organ damage and the CHIPS trial
20	62 <u>excluded individuals with renal dysfunction</u> . , and <u>Consequently we suggest that such</u>

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patients should be treated more aggressively, that is in a manner similar to the non-pregnant state i.e. aiming for tight control.

Fetal and maternal outcomes for pregnant women with CKD are markedly worse in the presence of hypertension. Bateman et al observed odds ratios of stillbirth, poor fetal growth, and spontaneous delivery <37 weeks gestation to be 7.29, 7.49 and 8.60 compared with 1.74, 2.29 and 2.25 respectively in women with CKD plus hypertension compared with those with CKD alone.³⁶ Maternal complications were also markedly increased in women with CKD who had chronic hypertension compared with those with CKD but without chronic hypertension. For example, preeclampsia and AKI odds ratios were 27.87 and 253.4 compared with 3.28 and 62.4 respectively. Whether or not blood pressure control in women with CKD and chronic hypertension would reduce these risks has not been studied. Nevertheless, the treatment goals for blood pressure during pregnancy in the setting of CKD are lower. The United Kingdom's National Institute of Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) clinical guidelines recommend keeping BP lower than 140/90 mmHg in pregnant women with target-organ damage, including CKD.³⁷ However, the evidence behind this blood pressure goal is scant at best.

The optimal blood pressure target for pregnant women with CKD and hypertension remains an unanswered question and important knowledge gap. Identifying that target is becoming increasingly important as the prevalence of CKD in pregnant women has increased from a range of 0.1% to 1% in the past to an estimated current prevalence of around 3%,⁴⁴ with recent literature suggesting that up to 6% of women of child-bearing age in high income countries are affected by CKD.⁴⁵

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287 PRE-PREGNANCY COUNSELLING

288	The value of pre-pregnancy counselling has been recognised recognized in women with
289	diabetes for several decades. ⁴⁶ Pre-pregnancy counselling in women with chronic kidney
290	disease offers the opportunity to minimiseminimize disease activity, optimise optimize blood
291	pressure control and proteinuria, alter teratogenic medications and also to educate couples
292	about potential fetal and maternal adverse events that may occur during pregnancy and the
293	puerperium in this high risk group. It also allows discussion of the inheritance of genetic
294	disorders of the kidney including cystic diseases, metabolic diseases and glomerular
295	basement membrane disorders. The confidential enquiries into maternal deaths in the UK
296	endorses that pre-pregnancy counselling should be routinely commissioned and offered to
297	women with pre-existing medical illnesses in view of the morbidity and mortality triggered
298	by these diseases. ⁴⁷ The advice given is clearly dependent on underlying renal disease,
299	baseline renal function, proteinuria and blood pressure at conception and this should be
300	delivered in a patient focused, individualised manner. Women with chronic kidney disease
301	should be counselled prior to pregnancy of the increasing risk of maternal and fetal
302	complications as GFR declines. These risks include fetal growth restriction, pre-term birth,
303	pre-eclampsia, fetal death and deterioration of maternal renal function / disease flare. ⁴⁸
304	
305	<u>Fertility</u>
306	Women may need to be advised that advanced chronic kidney disease impairs fertility. ⁴⁹
307	This is due to a multitude of reasons, although these are poorly characterized in the
308	literature. Hyperprolactinemia is common in patients with CKD, due to reduced renal
309	clearance and increased production from suppression of dopaminergic activity, and this
310	inhibits gonadotropin secretion. This manifests as amenorrhea in women. ^{50,51} . Levels of

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	311	leutinising hormone and follicle stimulating hormone are also elevated in CKD, although the
3	312	physiological surge in LH usually seen during the mid-cycle of healthy women is not seen in
3	313	those with CKD, and this can lead to anovulation. ⁵¹ These hypothalamic-pituitary axis
) :	314	dysfunctions, in combination with the psychological impact of CKD causing depression and
2 3	315	reduced libido, can significantly reduce the chances of conception. However, fertility can be
4 5 3	316	restored after renal transplantation. ⁵² As pregnancy outcomes are progressively poorer with
7 2	317	advancing chronic kidney disease, younger women who want to become pregnant are often
	318	advised to be transplanted first. If this is not possible, nocturnal haemodialysis may restore
1	319	menses and improve the chances of pregnancy. ^{53,54}
3 4 <u></u>	320	
5 7	321	Optimization Before Pregnancy
3	322	Blood pressure should be optimized before pregnancy. Both KDIGO and UK National
) 1 2	323	Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) recommend that adults with CKD, without
3 4	324	proteinuria should aim for a blood pressure below 140/90mmHg. NICE recommend that
5	325	those with CKD who have diabetes or those with proteinuria (ACR >70mg/mmol) aim for a
, 3 9	326	blood pressure below 130/80mmHg. KDIGO also recommend this level for patients with an
	327	ACR >30mg/mmol. 55,56 These targets should be achieved prior to conception with drugs
2 3 : 4	328	that are safe to continue during pregnancy (summarized in table 3). ACE inhibitors and
5	329	angiotensin receptor blockers should be stopped prior to pregnancy or as early as possible
7 3 3	330	after discovering pregnancy. A recent systematic review of the management of hypertensive
)) :	331	disorders in pregnancy recommends the preventative use of low dose aspirin to reduce pre-
3	332	eclampsia, and in severe hypertension. 57 UK NICE guidelines also advocate the use of
4 5 3	333	aspirin from 12 weeks of gestation in women at high risk to reduce the incidence of pre-
5 7		

334	eclampsia. ⁵⁸ Such risk factors include chronic kidney disease and autoimmune diseases such
335	as systemic lupus erythematosus. This is based on a Cochrane review of 59 trials. ⁵⁹
336	Proteinuria may occur in 30% of women who do not have proteinuria before pregnancy, ⁶⁰
337	and may confer poorer feto-maternal outcomes ^{61,62} . Proteinuria should therefore, where
338	possible, be controlled during pre-pregnancy counselling, and the main way to achieve this
339	is through optimizing treatment of baseline renal disease and blood pressure control.
340	Women with proteinuria should be counselled about the potential requirement for
341	thromboprophylaxis during pregnancy.
342	There are a number of clinical practice guidelines for the management of hypertensive
343	disorders of pregnancy worldwide. A recent systematic review showed that there is good
344	inter guideline consistency for the definitions of chronic hypertension, proteinuria and
345	gestational hypertension. Also consistent were the preventative use of low dose aspirin to
346	reduce pre-eclampsia, and in severe hypertension. ⁵² Prior to conception, women should be
347	educated about the symptoms of pre-eclampsia. ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor
348	blockers should be stopped prior to pregnancy or as early as possible after discovering
349	pregnancy.
350	UK NICE guidelines advocate the use of aspirin from 12 weeks of gestation in women at high
351	risk to reduce the incidence of pre-eclampsia. ⁵³ Such risk factors include chronic kidney
352	disease and autoimmune diseases such as systemic lupus erythematosus. This is based on a
353	Cochrane review of 59 trials. ⁵⁴
354	Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) affects women of child bearing age without affecting
355	fertility and so pregnancy is not uncommon. A meta-analysis of 2751 women with SLE
356	showed that those with active lupus nephritis (LN) had an increased risk of maternal
357	hypertensive disorders and premature birth. ⁶³ Disease flare, high initial creatinine and

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2		
2 3 4	358	proteinuria at conception are predictive of worse outcomes. In addition, flares may cause a
5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15	359	decline in renal function and accelerate progression to end-stage renal disease. Pregnancy
	360	should be planned and drugs altered accordingly prior to pregnancy, including stopping /
	361	substituting mycophenolic acid products. A minimum six month period of disease
	362	quiescence prior to pregnancy is therefore recommended. ^{64,65} The PROMISSE (Predictors of
	363	Pregnancy Outcome: Biomarkers in Antiphospholipid Antibody Syndrome and Systemic
16 17 18	364	Lupus Erythematosus) study, a large prospective cohort study including 385 patients,
19 20	365	recently demonstrated that 81% of pregnancies in women with inactive or stable
21 22	366	mild/moderate disease were uncomplicated. ⁶⁶ Features indicating a higher risk for adverse
23 24 25	367	pregnancy outcomes, included a positive lupus anticoagulant, antihypertensive use, a low
26 27	368	platelet count, Hispanic or non-white ethnicity, and a physician's global assessment score
28 29	369	>1; and those women without these generally had favourable outcomes.
30 31 32	370	Women with chronic kidney disease should be counselled prior to pregnancy of the
33 34	371	increasing risk of maternal and fetal complications as GFR declines. These risks include fetal
35 36	372	growth restriction, pre-term birth, pre-eclampsia, fetal death and deterioration of maternal
37 38 39	373	renal function / disease flare. ⁵⁶ Advanced chronic kidney disease impairs fertility ⁸⁸ which can
40 41	374	be restored after renal transplantation. ⁸⁹ -As pregnancy outcomes are progressively poorer
42 43	375	with advancing chronic kidney disease, younger women who want to become pregnant are
44 45 46	376	often advised to be transplanted first. A national UK cohort study demonstrated that most
47 48	377	pregnancies after renal transplantation are successful, although the risks of pre-eclampsia
49 50	378	still remain higher than controls ¹⁵ and this higher risk of pre-eclampsia is even in those with
51 52		
	379	good GFRs. ¹⁷ Patients should be counselled of this accordingly and the other precautions
52 53 54 55	379 380	good GFRs. ¹⁷ -Patients should be counselled of this accordingly and the other precautions discussed here initiated. Pregnancy should be delayed until one year after renal
53 54		

382	Society of Transplantation recommend that prior to pregnancy there should be no rejection			
383	for one year, adequate and stable graft function, no acute infections, and stable			
384	immunosuppression dosing. ⁹²			
385	Pre-implantation diagnosis			
386	It is important to discuss the option of preimplantation genetic diagnosis (PGD) with women			
387	whose CKD is secondary to a genetically inherited cause. Recent advances in techniques			
388	used for in vitro-fertilisation allow removal of one or two cells at the eight cell stage of			
389	blastocyst formation. ⁶⁷ These blastomeres can then be analysed for the mutations			
390	responsible for conditions such as Alports Syndrome or Adult Polycystic Kidney Disease. ⁶⁸			
391	Although there are limited data, initial reports suggest PGD is associated with similar			
392	success in pregnancy outcome when compared with routine IVF.			
393				
394	Pre-pregnancy counselling improves knowledge and changes behavior prior to pregnancy ⁶⁹			
395	which may help to reduce adverse events. The optimum way of offering pre-conception			
396	counselling has not been established. Patients with diabetes agreed that being informed of			
397	the risks prior to pregnancy is crucial, but existing childcare and work commitments			
398	prevented attendance to such services. They also stressed that the positive aspects of			
399	having children should be discussed rather than only medical complications. ⁷⁰ In a			
400	retrospective analysis of 179 women with chronic kidney disease undergoing pre-pregnancy			
401	counselling in a large single centre, consultations included the multi-disciplinary team of a			
402	consultant obstetric physician, obstetrician and nephrologist. ⁷¹ These women had an			
403	overwhelmingly positive experience, with approximately 90% finding the clinic informative,			
404	with understandable information and helpful in deciding about pursuing pregnancy.			
405	However, 17% found the process intimidating, but this may prove difficult to abrogate in			

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406	such a highly emotive situation. Clearly the inclusion of midwives, general practitioners,
407	counsellors, psychologists and clinical geneticists when required, may prove an extremely
408	useful addition to this team. Electronic media including the internet and DVDs have also
409	proven beneficial. ^{72,73}
410	
411	MEDICATIONS
412	Women with CKD including those with a kidney transplant are prescribed different types of
413	medications that have the potential to adversely affect the pregnancy outcomes. These
414	include immunosuppressive, anti-hypertensive and anti-viral medications. Each is important
415	for the mother's overall health, but their effects on the pregnant woman and her developing
416	fetus have been a concern for many practitioners. The major classes of medications used in
417	women with CKD and in transplant recipients and their known effects on the mother and
418	her offspring will be described below. See table <u>3</u> 2.
418 419	her offspring will be described below. See table <u>3</u> 2.
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419 420 421	Immunosuppressants: These are routinely required by women with renal transplants and often in women with
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430 is important to closely monitor drug levels throughout all phases of gestation and
431 collaboration with the transplant center is mandatory during and immediately after the
432 pregnancy.

There are no guidelines about dosing of immunosuppressant medications during pregnancy, but several studies have provided recommendations. Kim et al recently reported on blood levels of calcineurin inhibitors during gestation in 88 pregnancies from 75 transplant recipients.⁷⁵ In 80 cases the serum creatinine was decreased by an average of 0.14mg/dl during pregnancy and returned to pre-pregnancy levels after delivery. Tacrolimus blood trough levels decreased during the second trimester (from 5.8 ±2.8 ng/ml) to 4.2 ±1.8ng/ml). Likewise, cyclosporine levels decreased during the second trimester from 125.1 ± 65.1 ng/ml to 75.4 ± 35 ng/ml. The recommendations of this study were to increase calcineurin inhibitor dose by approximately 20-25% during gestation to maintain optimal drug levels. Aktürk also reported on the pharmacokinetics of tacrolimus during pregnancy and recommended calcineurin inhibitor dosing is significantly increased in order to maintain adequate trough levels during pregnancy.⁷⁶ Women should be informed that tacrolimus levels need to be closely monitored in pregnancy. It is highly bound to plasma protein and erythrocytes, with complicated pharmacokinetics that are even further altered by normal physiological changes in pregnancy such as anaemia, hypoalbuminaemia and increased creatinine clearance. Maintaining whole blood tacrolimus levels after conception risks toxicity but no dose change may incur under-treatment. Unbound trough concentrations may be the most appropriate level to monitor during pregnancy,⁷⁷ but these are technically challenging to measure in routine practice.

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Immunosuppressive medications cross the maternal-placental-fetal interface^{74,78} and therefore there are always concerns about their effect on fetal development. The fetal liver, which is interposed between the umbilical vein and fetal inferior vena cava, filters the pharmacologic agents that pass through the placenta, including immunosuppressants. Calcineurin inhibitors are well-known to cross the placenta and enter the fetal circulation.⁷⁴ Zheng et al recently reported on tacrolimus concentrations in maternal and umbilical cord blood at delivery in eight transplant recipients and found that umbilical cord venous blood concentrations were 71% that of maternal concentrations. The lower fetal blood concentrations were proposed to be caused by the active transport of tacrolimus from the fetus toward the mother by placental P-glycoprotein.⁷⁹ Whether in utero exposure to tacrolimus has adverse effects on fetal development however is not known. In animal studies it was recently shown that rats treated with cyclosporine (CSA) during pregnancy experienced impaired kidney development, suggesting a predisposition to chronic kidney disease and hypertension in adult life.⁸⁰ Despite this, tacrolimus is deemed safe in pregnancy⁸¹ and breastfeeding.⁸²

Corticosteroids pass through the placenta, but most of the maternal dose undergoes placental metabolism⁷⁴ and therefore the fetus is generally protected from adverse effects of corticosteroids. While adverse effects associated with in utero exposure to corticosteroids are rare, there have though been sporadic reports of adrenal suppression in newborns of pregnant transplant recipients, particularly when the corticosteroids dose was high.

475 Azathioprine also passes into the fetal circulation, but the fetus lacks inosinate 476 pyrophosphorylase, which is required for the conversion of azathioprine to its active

metabolite 6-mercaptopurine.⁷⁴ Therefore, concerns about the use of azathioprine in pregnancy have been less than for other immunosuppressive.⁸³ Indeed, mycophenolic acid products are routinely substituted for azathioprine before and during pregnancy.²³ Substantial data have shown that mycophenolic acid products are associated with an increased incidence of spontaneous abortion and a distinct pattern of birth defects.⁸⁴ The spectrum of mycophenolate embryopathy includes ocular anomalies, corpus callosum agenesis, heart defects, kidney malformations, diaphragmatic hernia and skeletal deformities.⁸⁵ Numerous reports of mycophenolate-associated malformations led the FDA to issue a black box warning on it's use during pregnancy.

Less is known about the effects of sirolimus in pregnancy. Sifontis reported on seven pregnancies with sirolimus exposure in seven pregnancies.⁸⁶ In three there were miscarriages and four resulted in live births. No malformations were observed but sirolimus was switched to azathioprine during the first trimester in one case and in another the immunosuppressive regimen was switched from mycophenolate to sirolimus at 24 weeks. In the latter case the infant was born with features typical of mycophenolate embryopathy. There are several reports were-of sirolimus exposure during the whole pregnancy, without apparent adverse effects on the fetus.^{87–90}

494 Recently there have been several reports about pregnancy in transplant recipients taking 495 the mTOR inhibitor everolimus during their pregnancy.^{91,92} One report of an unplanned 496 pregnancy in a heart transplant recipient described a normal baby without obvious 497 congenital defects. The fetus was exposed to everolimus as concentrations were similar in 498 maternal and neonatal umbilical blood, and fetal blood levels were detected for 5 days after 499 birth. In contrast CsA levels, which were also detected in umbilical blood, disappeared 500 within 2 days of delivery in fetal blood.⁹³ Other reports have been published recently

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describing exposure to everolimus during pregnancies in kidney transplant recipients
without apparent congenital malformations.^{94,95} Although the few reports of unremarkable
pregnancies with the use of mTOR inhibitors are encouraging, additional data are needed to
confirm their safe use during pregnancy.

Treatment of rejection with corticosteroids is the mainstay during pregnancy and is generally considered safe to the fetus.⁹⁶ Recently Kutzler et al reported on the safe use of anti-thymocyte globulin (ATG) to successfully treat a pregnant renal transplant recipient with mixed acute cellular rejection and antibody-mediated rejection.⁹⁷ The patient was also treated with high-dose corticosteroids, intravenous immunoglobulin and plasmapheresis in addition to ATG; and she gave birth to a healthy baby boy. The safety of rejection treatment with ATG or other monoclonal or polyclonal antibodies has not been evaluated in clinical trials in pregnant transplant recipients and only scattered case reports are available. There are no data on the long term impact on the exposed children's immune repertoire.

Management of lupus nephritis (LN) and other causes of autoimmune glomerulonephritides in pregnancy remains challenging due to limited safe therapeutic options. Cyclophosphamide and mycophenolate mofetil are teratogenic, and are generally to be avoided in pregnancy, although can be considered fromin the third trimester.⁹⁸ Steroids are often used in pregnancy as they are not associated with congenital abnormalities⁹⁹ but can cause premature rupture of membranes, preterm delivery, maternal sepsis and gestational diabetes.¹⁰⁰ Data on Rituximab use in pregnancy are limited but it does cross the placenta and lymphopaenia has been reported in new born children.¹⁰¹ Hydroxychloroguine and azathioprine are safe in pregnancy and should be considered in treatment regimens prior to conception, along with aspirin. Hydroxychloroquine (HCQ) reduces the risk cardiac manifestations of neonatal lupus in anti-Ro-positive mothers and is actively recommended

525 in women with LN before and during pregnancy.¹⁰² Tacrolimus may be a useful alternative
526 or adjunctive therapy for LN flare during pregnancy.¹⁰³

528 Anti-Hypertensives:

Adverse effects of renin angiotensin system (RAS) blockade have been shown for some time, and ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers are teratogenic.^{104–107} In a recent retrospective study performed through the Midwest Pediatric Nephrology Consortium, RAS blocker fetopathy was identified and confirmed to depend on the timing of exposure, with the most severe renal manifestations occurring with exposure after the first trimester.¹⁰⁴ Beta blockers are commonly used during pregnancy and recent meta-analyses showed that first-trimester oral beta-blocker exposure was associated with no increase in major congenital anomalies, but examination of organ-specific malformations revealed increased odds of cardiovascular defects, cleft lip/palate, and neural tube defects.¹⁰⁸ There is significant heterogeneity in the reports and thus it is not clear at this time whether beta-blockers are associated with these defects. Calcium channel blockers have recently been used in the management of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and preterm labor. Teratogenicity with calcium channel blockers has been shown in animals, but no cases have yet been reported in humans and at this time are reported to be safe for use in pregnancyassociated hypertension.¹⁰⁹

545 Antivirals:

546 Several antivirals have been used during pregnancy. The most commonly used antiviral 547 agents target CMV infection. All of these have fetal toxicity. Valganciclovir should not be 548 used as animal studies have revealed it can cause embryolethality, fetotoxicity,

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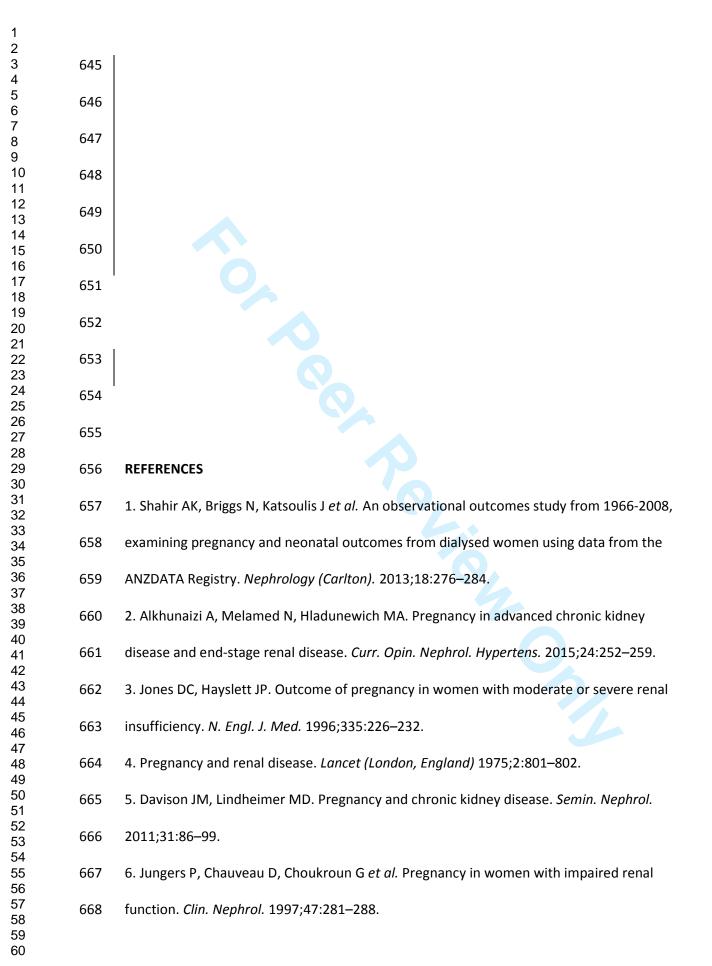
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2 3 4	549	teratogenicity, and mutagenicity. Valganciclovir may cause impaired fertility in both males
5 6	550	and females. ¹¹⁰ If CMV prophylaxis is required, valaciclovir is considered safe though
7 8	551	possibly less effective. Lamivudine and tenofovir are safe for Hepatitis B prophylaxis. ^{111, 112}
9 10 11	552	
12 13	553	PRE-PREGNANCY COUNSELLING
14 15	554	The value of pre-pregnancy counselling has been recognised in women with diabetes for
16 17 18	555	several decades. ⁷⁸ -Pre-pregnancy counselling in women with chronic kidney-disease offers
19 20	556	the opportunity to minimise disease activity, optimise blood pressure control and
21 22	557	proteinuria, alter teratogenic medications and also to educate couples about potential fetal
23 24 25	558	and maternal adverse events that may occur during pregnancy and the puerperium in this
26 27	559	high risk group. It also allows discussion of the inheritance of genetic disorders of the kidney
28 29 30	560	including cystic diseases, metabolic diseases and glomerular basement membrane
30 31 32	561	disorders. The confidential enquiries into maternal deaths in the UK endorses that pre-
33 34	562	pregnancy counselling should be routinely commissioned and offered to women with pre-
35 36 37	563	existing medical illnesses in view of the morbidity and mortality triggered by these
38 39	564	diseases. ⁷⁹ -The advice given is clearly dependent on underlying renal disease, baseline renal
40 41	565	function, proteinuria and blood pressure at conception and this should be delivered in a
42 43 44	566	patient focused, individualised manner.
45 46	567	There are a number of clinical practice guidelines for the management of hypertensive
47 48	568	disorders of pregnancy worldwide. A recent systematic review showed that there is good
49 50 51	569	inter-guideline-consistency for the definitions of chronic hypertension, proteinuria and
52 53	570	gestational hypertension. Also consistent were the preventative use of low dose aspirin to
54 55 56	571	reduce pre-eclampsia, and in severe hypertension. ⁸⁰ Prior to conception, women should be
56 57 58	572	educated about the symptoms of pre-eclampsia. ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor
59 60		

573	blockers should be stopped prior to pregnancy or as early as possible after discovering
574	pregnancy.
575	UK NICE guidelines advocate the use of aspirin from 12 weeks of gestation in women at high
576	risk to reduce the incidence of pre-eclampsia. ⁸¹ Such risk factors include chronic kidney
577	disease and autoimmune diseases such as systemic lupus erythematosus. This is based on a
578	Cochrane review of 59 trials. ⁸²
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580	fertility and so pregnancy is not uncommon. A meta-analysis of 2751 women with SLE
581	showed that those with active lupus nephritis (LN) had an increased risk of maternal
582	hypertensive disorders and premature birth. ⁸² Disease flare, high initial creatinine and
583	proteinuria at conception are predictive of worse outcomes. In addition, flares may cause a
584	decline in renal function and accelerate progression to end-stage renal disease. Pregnancy
585	should be planned and drugs altered accordingly prior to pregnancy, including stopping /
586	substituting mycophenolic acid products. A minimum six month period of disease
587	quiescence prior to pregnancy is therefore recommended. ^{84,85} The PROMISSE (Predictors of
588	Pregnancy Outcome: Biomarkers in Antiphospholipid Antibody Syndrome and Systemic
589	Lupus Erythematosus) study, a large prospective cohort study including 385 patients,
590	recently demonstrated that 81% of pregnancies in women with inactive or stable
591	mild/moderate disease were uncomplicated. ⁸⁶ Features indicating a higher risk for adverse
592	pregnancy outcomes, included a positive lupus anticoagulant, antihypertensive use, a low
593	platelet count, Hispanic or non-white ethnicity, and a physician's global assessment score
594	>1; and those women without these generally had favourable outcomes.
595	Women with chronic kidney disease should be counselled prior to pregnancy of the
596	increasing risk of maternal and fetal complications as GFR declines. These risks include fetal

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17	627	CONCLUSIONS
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21 22	629	risk, and ideally managed by an expert multidisciplinary team. The best outcomes are likely
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25	630	seen where there has been careful pre-pregnancy evaluation and planning, and close
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27	631	monitoring during antenatal care. The outcomes for women and babies continue to improve
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29	632	but we still need better biomarkers e.g. placental growth factor (PIGF) to identify those
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31 32	633	women at higher risk of developing superimposed pre-eclampsia. ¹¹³
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36	635	DISCLOSURES
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38	636	Michelle A. Josephson is member of the Mycophenolate Pregnancy Registry Advisory
39 40		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
40 41	637	Committee
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916Legends:917Table 1: Prepregnancy kidney function in patients with CKD with estimates of problems in
pregnancy (fetal growth restriction, preeclampsia, preterm delivery, and significant kidney
function loss in pregnancy [>25% SCr increment]), obstetric outcome, and loss of kidney920function: The effect of altering cut-off between moderate and severe dysfunction from 2.8
mg/dL (≥250µmol/L) to 2.0 mg/dL (≥180µmol/L), respectively923

- 924 Table 2: Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy
- 926927Table 3: Drug Safety in Pregnancy928

The International Society of Nephrology (http://www.isn-online.org/site/cms)



Table 1:

Renal Status (<i>dysfunction</i>)	Scr (mg/dL)	Problems in Pregnancy (%)	Successful Obstetric Outcome (%)	Compared to pre-pregnancy a permanent PP loss of kidney function (>25% increment in Scr) (%)	ESRF within 1 year PP (%)
Mild	≤1.4 (≤125µmol/L)	26	96	<2	-
Moderate	≥1.4 (≥125µmol/L)	50	90	25	3
Severe ⁺⁺	≥2.8 (≥250µmol/L)	86	74	55	40
Mild	≤1.4 (≤125µmol/L)	26	96	<2	-
Moderate	≥1.4 (≥125µmol/L)	42	95	15	1
Severe ⁺⁺	≥2.0 (≥180µmol/L)	79	78	50	38

Estimates are on the basis of a 26 year literature review (1984-2010) of pregnancies that attained \geq 24-weeks gestation. PP = post-partum; ESRF = end stage renal failure. From Lindheimer and Davison NephSap

Table 2: Hypertensive Disorders of Pregnancy	Characteristics Preeclampsia is diagnosed in the setting of
	hypertension in association with
	thrombocytopenia, impaired liver function tests,
	the new development of renal insufficiency,
	pulmonary edema , or new-onset cerebral or visual
	disturbances
Chronic hypertension	Anti-hypertensive requirement before pregnancy
	or hypertension beginning before the 20 th week of
	pregnancy or hypertension continuing for more
	than 12 weeks after delivery
Chronic hypertension with superimposed pre- eclampsia	Combination of the two
Gestational hypertension	BP elevation after 20 weeks of gestation in the
	absence of proteinuria, thrombocytopenia,
	impaired liver function, new onset of kidney
	dysfunction, pulmonary edema, or new cerebral or
	visual disturbances

Table 3:

	Safe	Not Safe	Safety Not Determined
Immunosuppressants	Tacrolimus	Cyclophosphamide	Sirolimus
	Cyclosporin	Mycophenolate products	Everolimus
	Azathioprine	Rituximab	
	Corticosteroids		
	Hydroxychloroquine		
Anti-Hypertensives	Labetalol	ACE inhibitors	
	Calcium Channel	Angiotensin Receptor	
	Antagonists	Blockers	
	Methyldopa	Minoxidil	
	Hydralazine		
	Furosemide		
Antibiotics	Aciclovir	Ganciclovir	
Commonly Used in	Valaciclovir	Valganciclovir	
Immunosuppressed		Co-Trimoxazole	
Patients	Lamivudine	Quinolones	
	Tenofovir		
	Isoniazid		
	Nystatin (topical)		

DING THE FIGHT AGAINST KIDNEY DISEASE

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