

## Prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy

MuM-PreDiCT Group

DOI:

10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585

Creative Commons: Attribution (CC BY)

Document Version Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Citation for published version (Harvard):

MuM-PreDiCT Group 2023, 'Prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy: a systematic review', BMJ open, vol. 13, no. 3, e067585. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585

Link to publication on Research at Birmingham portal

General rights

Unless a licence is specified above, all rights (including copyright and moral rights) in this document are retained by the authors and/or the copyright holders. The express permission of the copyright holder must be obtained for any use of this material other than for purposes

- •Users may freely distribute the URL that is used to identify this publication.
- •Users may download and/or print one copy of the publication from the University of Birmingham research portal for the purpose of private study or non-commercial research.
  •User may use extracts from the document in line with the concept of 'fair dealing' under the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 (?)
- •Users may not further distribute the material nor use it for the purposes of commercial gain.

Where a licence is displayed above, please note the terms and conditions of the licence govern your use of this document.

When citing, please reference the published version.

Take down policy

While the University of Birmingham exercises care and attention in making items available there are rare occasions when an item has been uploaded in error or has been deemed to be commercially or otherwise sensitive.

If you believe that this is the case for this document, please contact UBIRA@lists.bham.ac.uk providing details and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate.

Download date: 09. May. 2024

# **BMJ Open** Prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy: a systematic review

Astha Anand,<sup>1</sup> Katherine Phillips <sup>1</sup>, Anuradhaa Subramanian,<sup>1</sup> Siang Ing Lee <sup>1</sup>, Anuradhaa Subramanian,<sup>1</sup> Rebecca McCowan <sup>1</sup>, Utkarsh Agrawal,<sup>3</sup> Adeniyi Frances Fagbamigbe,<sup>3,4,5</sup> Catherine Nelson-Piercy,<sup>6</sup> Peter Brocklehurst,<sup>1</sup> Christine Damase-Michel, Maria Loane,<sup>8</sup> Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar <sup>1</sup>, Amaya Azcoaga-Lorenzo <sup>1</sup>, an behalf of the MuM-PreDiCT Group

**To cite:** Anand A, Phillips K, Subramanian A, *et al.* Prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy: a systematic review. *BMJ Open* 2023;**13**:e067585. doi:10.1136/ bmjopen-2022-067585

▶ Prepublication history and additional supplemental material for this paper are available online. To view these files, please visit the journal online (http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585).

Received 18 August 2022 Accepted 22 January 2023

#### ABSTRACT

**Objectives** The use of medications among pregnant women has been rising over the past few decades but the reporting of polypharmacy has been sporadic. The objective of this review is to identify literature reporting the prevalence of polypharmacy among pregnant women, the prevalence of multimorbidity in women taking multiple medications in pregnancy and associated effects on maternal and offspring outcomes.

**Design** MEDLINE and Embase were searched from their inception to 14 September 2021 for interventional trials, observational studies and systematic reviews reporting on the prevalence of polypharmacy or the use of multiple medications in pregnancy were included.

Data on prevalence of polypharmacy, prevalence of multimorbidity, combinations of medications and pregnancy and offspring outcomes were extracted. A descriptive analysis was performed.

Results Fourteen studies met the review criteria. The prevalence of women being prescribed two or more medications during pregnancy ranged from 4.9% (4.3%-5.5%) to 62.4% (61.3%-63.5%), with a median of 22.5%. For the first trimester, prevalence ranged from 4.9% (4.7%-5.14%) to 33.7% (32.2%-35.1%). No study reported on the prevalence of multimorbidity, or associated pregnancy outcomes in women exposed to polypharmacy. **Conclusion** There is a significant burden of polypharmacy among pregnant women. There is a need for evidence on the combinations of medications prescribed in pregnancy, how this specifically affects women with multiple longterm conditions and the associated benefits and harms. Tweetable abstract Our systematic review shows significant burden of polypharmacy in pregnancy but outcomes for women and offspring are unknown. PROSPERO registration number CRD42021223966.

## Check for updates

© Author(s) (or their employer(s)) 2023. Re-use permitted under CC BY. Published by BMJ.

For numbered affiliations see end of article.

#### Correspondence to

Dr Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar; k.nirantharan@bham.ac.uk

#### INTRODUCTION

Medications may be taken in pregnancy for the management of pregnancy-related symptoms (such as nausea and vomiting), pre-existing maternal health conditions or pregnancy-related complications. The use of medications among pregnant women has been rising over the past few decades, which could be attributed to a rise in the prevalence of maternal comorbidities, obesity

#### STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

- ⇒ A structured and substantial review of the literature, according to a preplanned and comprehensive search.
- Articles screened rigorous inclusion and exclusion criteria.
- ⇒ As there is no consensus definition, polypharmacy was reported according to a variety of definitions in this review.
- ⇒ Due to the methodological limitations of included studies, it could not be determined whether medications were prescribed concurrently or whether medication was complied with, meaning the prevalence of polypharmacy may have been overestimated.
- ⇒ No studies reporting on maternal or offspring outcomes associated with polypharmacy were found.

and, in the UK and other high-income countries, a rise in the average maternal age.<sup>7 8</sup> With this, the use of multiple medications is also likely to increase.<sup>3</sup> While many studies have assessed overall medication use among pregnant women, fewer studies have focused on polypharmacy.

Polypharmacy is broadly defined as the use of multiple medications by a single patient, but various definitions are found in the literature. A systematic review of polypharmacy definitions found that studies reported various numerical definitions (ranging from the use of two or more medication to eleven or more medications) and some also incorporated duration or appropriateness of therapy. As the number of medications taken together increases, medication interactions and adverse events are expected to increase also. It has been reported that, as the number of medications prescribed together increases, as does the number of potentially serious drug-drug interactions. <sup>10</sup> The use of multiple medication has been reported among specific subpopulation of pregnant women, such as women with psychiatric illness, epilepsy or





HIV. 11-13 However, the polypharmacy rate among general population of pregnant women is not as well understood.

Drug pharmacokinetics are altered in pregnancy due to physiological changes in the expectant mothers. For example, expanded plasma volume and maternal body fat in pregnancy increases the volume of distribution for hydrophilic and lipophilic drugs leading to lower plasma concentration. Moreover, increased hepatic and renal clearance during pregnancy can lead to subtherapeutic drug concentrations. <sup>14</sup> <sup>15</sup>

However, few clinical trials are undertaken among pregnant women due to concerns around maternal and fetal safety. <sup>16</sup> <sup>17</sup> It is therefore, unknown whether polypharmacy during pregnancy will worsen known side effects, result in novel adverse events or, indeed, have a synergistic or beneficial effect. <sup>10</sup> Understanding these effects will allow clinicians and women to make more informed decisions about continuing, starting or stopping medications before and during pregnancy.

The objective of this systematic review was to assess the published literature reporting on the prevalence of polypharmacy among pregnant women, the prevalence of multimorbidity in women taking multiple medications in pregnancy and the effect of multiple medication use on maternal and offspring outcomes.

#### **METHODS**

A systematic review of the literature was performed in order to identify relevant studies examining the prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy, the most common medication combination, rate of multimorbidity and outcomes among women exposed to polypharmacy.

#### **Protocol and registration**

Protocol for this systematic review has been published on PROSPERO (protocol ID CRD42021223966, available from: https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/prospero/display\_record.php?ID=CRD42021223966).<sup>18</sup>

#### **Eligibility criteria**

We included interventional trials, observational studies (cohort studies and case-control studies) and systematic reviews reporting the prevalence of polypharmacy or use of multiple medications in pregnant women, where the prevalence of polypharmacy could be extracted from tables or figures. The study authors' definition of polypharmacy was used and we retained the study authors' eligibility criteria for whether over-the-counter (OTC) medications were included. Where polypharmacy was not defined by the authors of the individual studies, we defined polypharmacy to mean the use of two or more medications.

#### **Exclusion criteria**

We excluded studies focused on specific subpopulations of pregnant women instead of general prevalence of polypharmacy (such as pregnant women with specific medical conditions, or with high-risk pregnancies), as we were interested in the population-based prevalence. We excluded expert opinions, conference abstract, case report, narrative review, laboratory and animal studies. Studies based on non-pregnant women were excluded and unpublished data were not sought.

We did not exclude non-English papers. For any non-English paper identified, native speaker would extract data where possible. Where this was not possible, two independent reviewers (AA and AA-L) extracted the data using an online translation service (Google Translate).

#### **Outcome measurement**

The primary outcome was prevalence of polypharmacy, as defined by the authors, or the use of two or more medications, where polypharmacy was not defined by the authors.

We also assessed the prevalence of multimorbidity and maternal or offspring outcomes among women exposed to polypharmacy. The individual studies' definition of multimorbidity was used where specified. Where the definition of multimorbidity was not specified by the authors, it was defined as the presence of two or more long-term health conditions, including mental health conditions.

#### **Search strategy**

MEDLINE was searched for relevant papers from 1946 to 14 September 2021 and Embase was searched from 1974 to 14 September 2021. A librarian helped to develop the search strategy. The full search strategy for Embase is provided in online supplemental appendix S1.

#### Study selection and data extraction

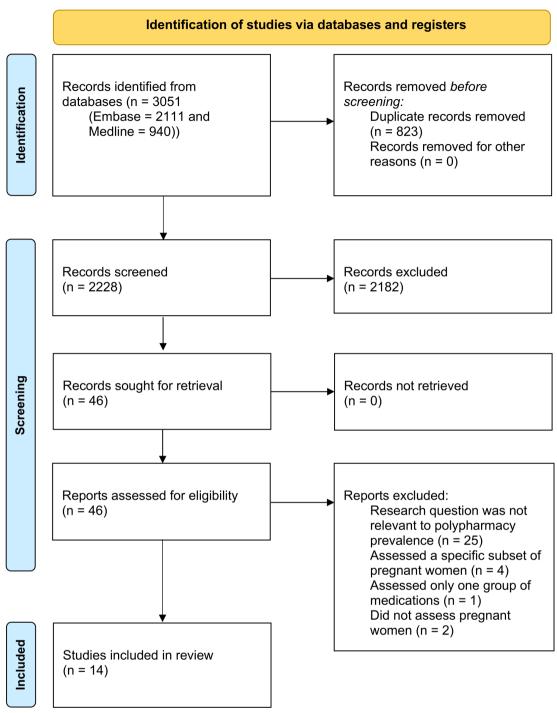
Study selection was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, title and abstracts were screened by two independent reviewers against the eligibility criteria (AA screened all papers, SIL, AS, AF, UA and ZW were the second reviewers). We retrieved full-text papers for all potentially eligible studies. In the second phase, full-text papers were assessed by two authors independently (AA and AA-L) against the eligibility criteria. For all eligible studies, two authors (AA and AA-L) independently extracted the data using a piloted data extraction form, and assessed the risk of bias. Discrepancies were reviewed and resolved by a third independent reviewer (ZW).

Data items extracted included: purpose of the study, setting, recruitment, inclusion and exclusion criteria, participant demographics (age, ethnicity, parity, deprivation), definition of polypharmacy, prevalence of polypharmacy, classification system for grouping medications, list of health conditions, follow-up length, any secondary outcomes, funding and conflict of interest.

We used the Newcastle-Ottawa critical appraisal checklist for observational studies to assess risk of bias in the individual studies during the data extraction stage.<sup>19</sup>

#### **Summary measures and results synthesis**

Results are presented as descriptive analysis. The primary outcome is presented as proportion or prevalence. We stratified the analysis according to the various definitions of polypharmacy from the primary studies (eg, two or



**Figure 1** 2020 Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) flow diagram. Adapted from: Page *et al.* <sup>66</sup> For more information, visit: http://www.prisma-statement-org/.

more medications) and the setting (primary or secondary care). Given the heterogenous nature of the studies, statistical pooling and analysis was not possible. Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) checklist for reporting of systematic reviews has been followed (online supplemental appendix S2).

#### Patient and public involvement

Patients were not involved in the development of the research question, study design or selection of outcome measures.

#### **RESULTS**

#### **Study selection**

We screened 2228 titles and abstracts. Of those, 46 papers were subjected to detailed evaluation in full-text screening, <sup>46 20-63</sup> and 14 met inclusion criteria. <sup>46 20-31</sup> The main reasons for exclusion were an inadequate method of reporting prevalence of polypharmacy or reporting on specific subpopulation of pregnant women. The results from each step of the review process are documented in a PRISMA flow diagram (figure 1).



#### **Study characteristics**

Table 1 shows the characteristics of the included studies. Studies were published between 1991 and 2020. The study populations ranged between 369 and 981 392. Six studies examined the prevalence of polypharmacy using administrative data, seven used surveys to collect self-reported medication use. One study used administrative data for prescription medications and self-report for the use of OTC medications.

In seven studies, women were recruited from hospitals (either birth hospital or antenatal clinic).  $^{4.6\ 21\ 22\ 26\ 28\ 29}$  In the other seven studies, participants were sampled from a national registry or population-based database (such as pharmacy records).  $^{20\ 23-25\ 27\ 30\ 31}$ 

Mitchell *et al* reported results from two different cohorts: Birth Defect Study (BDS) and National Birth Defects Prevention Study (NBDPS). Both studies contain data from mothers of babies born with birth defects and from a control group of mothers of babies born without birth defects. Mitchell *et al* reported data from both cases and controls in the BDS and from just the controls of the NBDPS. As pregnancies of mothers of babies born with birth defects are unlikely to be representative of the general population of pregnant women, only data from NBDPS were included in the results of this review.

#### Risk of bias within studies

Most of the study cohorts were considered representative of the population they were sampling from. Most studies ascertained pregnancy status using hospital or pharmacy records or from birth registries, which were considered likely to be accurate. van Gelder *et al* and Schirm *et al* used a pharmacy database to identify all children born within a given timeframe. Women of reproductive age living at the same address as the child were identified in the database and their prescription data was collected for the 270 days before the child's date of birth. There is a chance that women could have been misclassified as pregnant if the child was not living with their biological mother.

As discussed above, seven studies relied solely on self-reported medication use to measure outcomes, introducing the potential for recall bias. A 6 21 22 26 28 29 The follow-up period was considered adequate for each study. Nine studies reported multiple medication use across the entire pregnancy, He 20 21 23 24 26 29 30 while three studies reported for early pregnancy (first trimester) only. Period 22 27 Obadeji et al and Tinker et al employed a cross-sectional design and included women across all trimesters. Pollow-up rates were considered adequate for all studies, with no study having significant numbers of subjects lost to follow-up. Online supplemental table S1 shows the outcome of the risk of bias assessment.

#### **Prevalence of polypharmacy**

The prevalence of polypharmacy ranged from 0.2% to 62.4%, with a median value of 12.3%. The exclusion of OTC drugs does not change the spread of the prevalence of polypharmacy.

#### Prevalence by polypharmacy definition

The prevalence of polypharmacy, defined as the use or two or more medications, ranged from 4.9% (4.3%–5.5%) to 61.3% (61.3%–63.5%) based on eight papers, with a median value of  $22.5\%^{20.21.23.25-28.31}$  (figure 2). Only two studies explicitly defined polypharmacy. Olesen *et al* defined it as the use of four or more medications (prevalence 2.7%) and Haas *et al* defined it as the use of five or more medications (prevalence 13%). 6 30

Other studies did not define polypharmacy, but stratified results by the number of medications taken (figure 2). Mitchell *et al* and Gomes *et al* did not define polypharmacy and only reported the use of four or more medications (15.7%) and six or more drugs (24.9%), respectively. Malm *et al* reported that 0.2% of women purchased 10 or more different medications during the whole period of pregnancy. Due to heterogeneity within the data, meta-analysis was not undertaken.

#### Prevalence of polypharmacy by trimester

Two studies, Obadeji *et al* and Zhang *et al*, reported polypharmacy use across the whole pregnancy and also subdivided into trimesters. For these two studies, polypharmacy prevalence across the whole pregnancy has been summarised.<sup>27 29</sup> Obadeji *et al* reported a prevalence of 50.0% (95% CI 21.1% to 79.0%) in the first trimester compared with a prevalence of 38.3% (95% CI 33.4% to 43.26%) across all three trimesters. Zhang *et al* reported a prevalence of 3.8%% (95% CI 3.1% to 4.6%) in the first trimester compared with a prevalence of 9.2% (95% CI 8.3% to 10.2%) across all three trimesters.

Due to the design and nature of the study, Van Gelder *et al*, Cleary *et al* and Buitendijk *et al* have reported medication use during early pregnancy or the first trimester period only, reporting polypharmacy prevalence of 4.9% (95% CI 4.7% to 5.1%), 11.5% (95% CI 11.3% to 11.8%) and 33.7% (95% CI 32.2% to 35.1%). <sup>20</sup> <sup>28</sup> In a cross-sectional study, Tinker *et al* cover medication use in the last 30 days only but across the whole pregnancy. <sup>23</sup> Olesen *et al* cover a period from 12 weeks prenatal to 12 weeks postpartum in the analysis. <sup>30</sup> Figure 3 shows polypharmacy prevalence when including studies which covered the entire duration of pregnancy.

#### Prevalence of polypharmacy by medications included

While most of the studies reported any possible medication use, van Gelder *et al* report only the teratogenic medications used and not all possible medications.<sup>20</sup>

#### **OTC** medications

Eight studies include OTC medications in their analysis—results for polypharmacy prevalence, subdivided by inclusion of OTC drugs, are shown in figure 4. <sup>46 21 22 26–29</sup> Reported prevalence of polypharmacy for studies that included OTC medications ranged from 4.9% (Mitchell *et al* (95% CI 4.3% to 5.5%)) to 38.3% (Obadeji *et al* (95% CI 33.3% to 43.3%)). Reported prevalence of polypharmacy for studies that excluded OTC medications

4				
1				
	•	7	-	t
		L	_	,
		ï	ī	
		ι	L	,
		-	-	
		Ξ	_	•
		2	_	
		7		
		2	_	
		ī	_	ï
		•	_	
		7		
		7	-	
		ι		)
			۳	
	′	.`	5	١
	(	•	3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(	_	3	)
	(	_	3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		5	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	)
	(		3	•
	(		3	•
	•		3	•
	•		3	•

Table 1	List of included	List of included studies and study characteristics	y characteristics							
Author	Study design	Country/location	Inclusion criteria	Source (administrative data/self- reported)	Total number of prequancies	Trimester studied	Polypharmacy definition used in study	Definition of polypharmacy used in review	Medications included or excluded	Prevalence
Buitendijk and Bracken <sup>28</sup>	Retrospective survey	USA	All women who made their first prenatal visit to private obstetric or midwifery practice, a health maintenance organisation, or a hospital clinic and were scheduled for delivery at Yale New Haven Hospital	Self-report	4186	Early pregnancy (first trimester)	Polypharmacy not defined by author	2	Included OTC medications Excluded vitamins and minerals	33.70%
Olesen <i>et af</i> <sup>30</sup>	30 Retrospective cohort	Denmark	Primiparous women identified through Danish National Birth Registry	Administrative data	16 001	Across the three trimesters	More than three medications	≥4 (as defined by the authors)	Excluded vitamins and minerals	2.70%
Gomes et al <sup>22</sup>	Retrospective survey	Brazil	Pregnant women who gave birth in one of five participating hospitals	Self-report	1620	Across the three trimesters	Polypharmacy not defined by author	9 ^	Included OTC medications Excluded vitamins and minerals	24.90%
Malm et af <sup>24</sup>	A retrospective, register-based cohort study	Finland	All women who applied for maternal grants in 1999 and the mother has visited a maternity clinic before the end of the fourth month	Administrative record	43 470	Across the three trimesters	Polypharmacy not defined by author	≥10	Included some, but not all, OTC medications	0.20%
Schirm et al <sup>31</sup>	Cross-sectional Netherlands study	Netherlands	Female person (15–50 years older than child) at the same address as child aged 0–5 years, with no other female at the address	Administrative data	7500	Across the three trimesters	Polypharmacy not defined by author	≥2	Excluded OTC medications	62.41%
Refuerzo et al <sup>21</sup>	Prospective observational	USA	Women who gave birth at a single, university-based, tertiary-care hospital	Self-report	418	Across the three trimesters	Polypharmacy not defined by author	22	Included OTC medications	33.50%
Cleary et al <sup>26</sup>	6 Retrospective cohort	Ireland	Pregnancy booking and midwife care at tertiary level hospital	Self-report	61 252	Early pregnancy (first trimester)	Polypharmacy not defined by author	>2	Included OTC medications	11.53%
Mitchell et al (NBDPS Study Arm Reported)	Cross-sectional study	USA and Canada	NBDPS study controls were randomly selected from birth certificates or from birth hospitals	Self-report	5008	Across the three trimesters	Polypharmacy not defined by author	>4	Included OTC medications	4.90%
van Gelder e <i>t al</i> <sup>20</sup>	Retrospective cohort study	Netherlands	Female person (15–50 years older than child) at the same address as child aged 0–5 years, with no other female at the address	Administrative record	32 016	First trimester	First trimester Polypharmacy not defined by author	>5	Excluded vitamins and minerals	4.90%
										Continued

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585 on 6 March 2023. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on March 17, 2023 by guest. Protected by copyright.

BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585 on 6 March 2023. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on March 17, 2023 by guest. Protected by copyright

Prevalence reported 42.74% 38.30% 6.10% 9.19% 13% ≥5 (as defined by Included OTC the authors) medications Included OTC Included OTC Medications vitamins and vitamins and included and included or medications medications medication nsed when mentioned excluded Excluded Analysed excluded minerals minerals used in review polypharmacy **Definition of** 2 **%** 2 გ | definition used in Polypharmacy not Polypharmacy not Polypharmacy not Polypharmacy not defined by author defined by author defined by author defined by author during the same ≥5 medications **Polypharmacy** epoch study Prior 30 days (pregnancies (pregnancies across three across three trimesters) trimesters) trimesters **Trimester** trimesters trimesters the three the three sectional the three studied Across Across Across Crosscovering all 3 pregnancies pregnancies number of trimesters) 981 392 7946 (2896 Total 1350 9546 369 (administrative Administrative Administrative Administrative report for OTC drug and selfprescription Self-report Self-report data/selfreported) data for record aged between 12 and 54 years data Singleton deliveries, mothers born singletons during 1997-2012 to women aged between outpatient antenatal care at a Primiparous women, aged 13 years or above, in the first secondary healthcare facility Non-institutionalised civilian Pregnancies ending in live-All consecutive consenting women aged 15-44 years women who came for Country/location Inclusion criteria 15 and 55 years NBDPS, National Birth Defects Prevention Study; OTC, over-the-counter. trimester Denmark Cross-sectional Nigeria China Cross-sectional USA USA Retrospective Study design cohort study Prospective longitudinal Populationdescriptive Continued surveys based study cohort study Tinker et al<sup>23</sup> Zhang et al<sup>27</sup> Ingstrup et Haas et al<sup>6</sup> Obadeji et Table 1 Author



Study (stratified by definition of polypharmacy)		Prevalence of polypharmacy (95% CI)
Use of ≥ 2 medications		
Zhang et al, 2019	•	9.18 [ 8.13, 10.24]
Tinker et al, 2015	•	6.10 [ 4.82, 7.38]
Schirm et al, 2004	•	62.41 [ 61.31, 63.51]
Cleary et al, 2010		11.53 [ 11.28, 11.78]
Ingstrup et al, 2018		42.74 [ 42.64, 42.84]
Buitendijk et al, 1991	•	33.70 [ 32.27, 35.13]
Refuerzo et al, 2005		33.50 [ 28.98, 38.02]
van Gelder et al, 2014	•	4.90 [ 4.66, 5.14]
Use of ≥ 3 medications		
Obadeji et al, 2020	-	38.30 [ 33.34, 43.26]
Use of ≥ 4 medications		
Olesen et al, 1999	•	2.70 [ 2.45, 2.95]
Mitchell et al, 2011	•	4.90 [ 4.30, 5.50]
Use of ≥ 5 medications		
Haas et al, 2018	•	13.00 [ 12.33, 13.67]
Use of ≥ 6 medications		
Gomes et al, 1999	+	24.90 [ 22.79, 27.01]
Use of ≥ 10 medications		
Malm et al, 2004	•	0.20 [ 0.16, 0.24]
	0 20 40 60	

Figure 2 Forest plot showing prevalence of polypharmacy, subdivided by the definition of polypharmacy (number of medications taken).

ranged from 0.2% (Malm *et al* (95% CI 0.2% to 0.2%) to 62.4% (Schirm *et al* (95% CI 61.3% to 63.5%)). Of note, Malm *et al* include some but not all OTC medications, as some medications were reimbursable and therefore were included in the national medication prescription register used for the study. $^{24}$ 

#### Exclusion of vitamins and minerals

Five studies specifically excluded vitamins and minerals (such as folic acid and iron) from the study design. <sup>2022232830</sup> The definition of routine prenatal vitamins or minerals was determined by the authors of the original studies. Haas *et al* analysed medication use, when vitamins and

minerals were included and excluded. When including vitamins and minerals, Haas *et al* report 30.5% (95% CI 29.6% to 31.5%) of women use five or more medication; whereas, only 13% (95% CI 12.3% to 13.7%) use five or more medications if vitamins and minerals are excluded.

#### **Medications used during pregnancy**

The most commonly prescribed or taken medications described in the studies were antiemetics,  $^{4\ 6\ 23}$  antibiotics  $^{4\ 6\ 27-31}$  analgesia  $^{4\ 6\ 23}$  and antacids  $^{23\ 29\ 31}$  and vitamins or supplements  $^{6\ 28\ 31}$  However, no studies specified which medications were used in combination or were used by women exposed to polypharmacy.

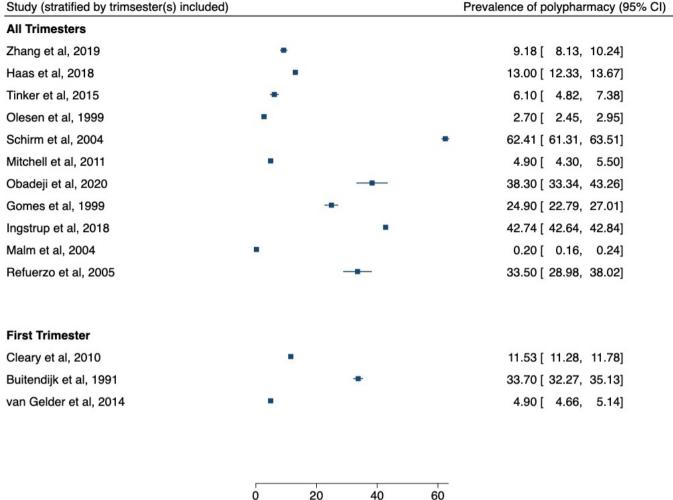


Figure 3 Forest plot showing prevalence of polypharmacy (as defined by the study), for studies which covered all trimesters of the pregnancy and the first trimester.

#### Multimorbidity and maternal or offspring outcomes

No studies were found describing which conditions women who were exposed to polypharmacy were treated for, and none specify how many women had multimorbidity or long-term illness. No studies were found that reported on maternal or offspring outcomes.

#### DISCUSSION **Main findings**

Studies of multiple medication use in pregnancy reported a wide range in the prevalence of polypharmacy. Where the definition of polypharmacy was two or more medications only, the prevalence of polypharmacy ranged from 5% to 62%. However, the definition of polypharmacy was varied, and most studies were not considered truly representative of all pregnant women.

#### **Strengths and limitations**

This systematic review has several important strengths. We developed a structured and substantial review of the literature, according to preplanned and comprehensive search terms with the help of a librarian, who is

trained to undertake searches in large database repositories. Screening was conducted according to a rigorous inclusion and exclusion criteria, and we used two independent reviewers for data extraction to minimise bias. Two databases were searched: MEDLINE and Embase. We did not limit our search to studies published in the English language to minimise language bias, although specific databases in languages other than English were not included.

There are limited studies specifically assessing polypharmacy in pregnancy. There is no consensus on the definition of polypharmacy and polypharmacy is often not explicitly defined in the studies. Where polypharmacy is defined, the definition varies from study to study. Only two studies in this systematic review subdivide polypharmacy use in different trimesters. Exclusion of routine prenatal vitamins is often determined by individual authors. Inclusion of OTC medications is variable and often determined by the data available.

The main caveat from these studies is that it is not clear whether the use of multiple medication in pregnancy was simultaneous or sequential. Additionally, prescription

Study (stratified by inclusion or exclusion of over-the-counter medications)		Prevalence of polypharmacy (95% CI)
Over-the-counter medications excluded		
Tinker et al, 2015	•	6.10 [ 4.82, 7.38]
Olesen et al, 1999		2.70 [ 2.45, 2.95]
Schirm et al, 2004	•	62.41 [ 61.31, 63.51]
Ingstrup et al, 2018		42.74 [ 42.64, 42.84]
Malm et al, 2004	•	0.20 [ 0.16, 0.24]
van Gelder et al, 2014	•	4.90 [ 4.66, 5.14]
Over-the-counter medications included		
Zhang et al, 2019	•	9.18 [ 8.13, 10.24]
Haas et al, 2018		13.00 [ 12.33, 13.67]
Cleary et al, 2010	•	11.53 [ 11.28, 11.78]
Mitchell et al, 2011		4.90 [ 4.30, 5.50]
Obadeji et al, 2020		38.30 [ 33.34, 43.26]
Gomes et al, 1999	-	24.90 [ 22.79, 27.01]
Buitendijk et al, 1991	•	33.70 [ 32.27, 35.13]
Refuerzo et al, 2005		33.50 [ 28.98, 38.02]
	0 20 40 60	_

Figure 4 Forest plot showing prevalence of polypharmacy, subdivided by inclusion or exclusion of over-the-counter medications.

and dispensation of medications do not equate to compliance. Qualitative studies show that women are less likely to use medications when pregnant, especially if potential risks to the fetus and benefits to the mother have not been adequately communicated.<sup>64</sup>

In majority of the studies identified in this systematic review, pregnancy was confirmed retrospectively or identified using birth records. Thus, not all pregnancies were captured and pregnancies resulting in terminations, miscarriages or stillbirth, were excluded. These pregnancy outcomes are clinically important and the use of multiple medications in these groups warrants further assessment.

While some of the studies outline common medications used by pregnant women overall, none of the studies describe the combinations of medications used in pregnancy. Pregnant women have been described as drug orphans, as they are often excluded from clinical trials. The maternal and offspring outcomes following medication exposure during pregnancy are often determined through retrospective observational studies. 16 17 The association between rates of miscarriage and preterm birth and medications used during pregnancy have been described in women with major psychiatric illnesses<sup>13</sup>; however, none of the studies assessing polypharmacy in this systematic review evaluate the effect of taking multiple medication for the women and their offspring.

#### Interpretation

The finding of 5%-62% of pregnant women taking two or more medications is in keeping with a previous systematic review of the literature evaluating individuallevel exposures to prescription medications in pregnancy. This review, which included only studies from developed (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)) countries, found 27%-93% of women filled at least one prescription during pregnancy reflecting high medication use during pregnancy.

The findings of this review should be interpreted with caution. As discussed above, the literature is not necessarily representative of the general pregnant population, inclusion of certain medications was variable and, where polypharmacy was defined, there were differences in the definitions used. This variation is in keeping with the findings of a systematic review of definitions of polypharmacy in older people. This review also found that, in some instances, safety and appropriateness of medications were taken into account when defining polypharmacy. This is an important consideration in pregnancy, although, as discussed, there is often not adequate safety information available.

Despite this, the median value of one in five women taking two or more medications, indicates that a significant proportion of women are potentially exposed to multiple medication in pregnancy. The lack of studies into combinations of medications taken during pregnancy and the effects of polypharmacy on maternal and offspring outcomes highlights the urgent need for further research in this area.

#### CONCLUSION

The reported prevalence of polypharmacy among pregnant women varies based on the number of BMJ Open: first published as 10.1136/bmjopen-2022-067585 on 6 March 2023. Downloaded from http://bmjopen.bmj.com/ on March 17, 2023 by guest. Protected by copyright



medications counted in the definition, the trimester considered and the types of medications included. Commonly, only pregnancies resulting in live birth are reported in studies assessing polypharmacy. This systematic review shows relatively large burden of polypharmacy among pregnant women and highlights the need to evaluate the outcomes for these women and for their offspring. This is especially relevant for women with multiple, long-term conditions, who are more likely to need multiple medications.

#### **Author affiliations**

- <sup>1</sup>Institute of Applied Health Research, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK <sup>2</sup>University of Glasgow, Glasgow, UK
- <sup>3</sup>Division of Population and Behavioural Sciences, University of Saint Andrews School of Medicine, St. Andrews, UK
- <sup>4</sup>Epidemiology and Medical Statistics, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria
- <sup>5</sup>Institute of Applied Health Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, UK <sup>6</sup>Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK
- <sup>7</sup>CHU Toulouse, Université Toulouse III, CHU Toulouse, Toulouse, France
- <sup>8</sup>Institute of Nursing and Health Research, University of Ulster, Belfast, UK

Twitter Adeniyi Frances Fagbamigbe @franstel74

Acknowledgements The authors thank Ms. Vicki Cormie, senior librarian (Academic Liaison) at University of St. Andrews for help with the search strategy. The authors thank Professor Helen Dolk for advice and comments on the manuscript.

Collaborators The MuM-PreDiCT Group: Beck Taylor, Buddhika Sudasinghe, Charles Gadd, Colin McGowan, Christopher Yau, Dermot O'Reilly, Francesca Crowe, Helen Dolk, Gillian Santorelli, Holly Hope, Jemma Healey, Jonathan Kennedy, Kelly-Ann Eastwood, Lisa Kent, Louise Locock, Mairead Black, Mohamed Mhereeg, Mohammed Usman, Natalia Hong, Neil Cockburn, Ngawai Moss, Rachel Plachcinski, Richard Riley, Sinead Brophy, Shakila Thangaratinam, Sharon Mccan, Steven Wambua, Stephanie Hanley, Kym Snell, Zoe Vowles

Contributors KN, AA and AA-L conceived the study and designed the protocol. AA and AA-L performed the literature search. AA, ZW, AS, SIL, UA, AF, RM and AA-L selected the studies and extracted the relevant information. AA synthesised the data and wrote the first draft of the paper. AA, KP, SIL, AS, RM, CN-P, PB, CD-M, ML, KN and AA-L critically revised successive drafts of the paper. AA is the guarantor of the review.

**Funding** This work was funded by the Strategic Priority Fund 'Tackling multimorbidity at scale' programme (grant number MR/W014432/1) delivered by the Medical Research Council and the National Institute for Health Research in partnership with the Economic and Social Research Council and in collaboration with the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council.

Competing interests None declared.

Patient and public involvement Patients and/or the public were not involved in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of this research.

Patient consent for publication Not applicable.

Ethics approval Not applicable.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

Data availability statement No data are available.

Supplemental material This content has been supplied by the author(s). It has not been vetted by BMJ Publishing Group Limited (BMJ) and may not have been peer-reviewed. Any opinions or recommendations discussed are solely those of the author(s) and are not endorsed by BMJ. BMJ disclaims all liability and responsibility arising from any reliance placed on the content. Where the content includes any translated material, BMJ does not warrant the accuracy and reliability of the translations (including but not limited to local regulations, clinical guidelines, terminology, drug names and drug dosages), and is not responsible for any error and/or omissions arising from translation and adaptation or otherwise.

**Open access** This is an open access article distributed in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 Unported (CC BY 4.0) license, which permits others to copy, redistribute, remix, transform and build upon this work for any

purpose, provided the original work is properly cited, a link to the licence is given, and indication of whether changes were made. See: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

#### **ORCID** iDs

Katherine Phillips http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0674-605X
Siang Ing Lee http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2332-5452
Rebecca McCowan http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2379-892X
Krishnarajah Nirantharakumar http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6816-1279
Amaya Azcoaga-Lorenzo http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3307-878X

#### REFERENCES

- 1 Kulkarni J, Worsley R, Gilbert H, et al. A prospective cohort study of antipsychotic medications in pregnancy: the first 147 pregnancies and 100 one year old babies. PLoS ONE 2014;9:e94788.
- 2 Beeson JG, Homer CSE, Morgan C, et al. Multiple morbidities in pregnancy: time for research, innovation, and action. PLOS Med 2018;15:e1002665.
- 3 Barnett K, Mercer SW, Norbury M, et al. Epidemiology of multimorbidity and implications for health care, research, and medical education: a cross-sectional study. Lancet 2012;380:37–43.
- 4 Mitchell AA, Gilboa SM, Werler MM, et al. Medication use during pregnancy, with particular focus on prescription drugs: 1976-2008. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2011;205:51.
- 5 Headley J, Northstone K, Simmons H, et al. Medication use during pregnancy: data from the Avon longitudinal study of parents and children. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 2004;60:355–61.
- 6 Haas DM, Marsh DJ, Dang DT, et al. Prescription and other medication use in pregnancy. Obstet Gynecol 2018;131:789–98.
- 7 Office for National Statistics. Birth characteristics in england and wales: 2019. 2019. Available: https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopula tionandcommunity/birthsdeathsandmarriages/livebirths/bulletins/birt hcharacteristicsinenglandandwales/2019
- 8 MuM-PreDiCT. Epidemiology of pre-existing multimorbidity in pregnant women in the UK in 2018: a cross sectional study using CPRD SAIL and SMR. 2021. Available: https://docs.google.com/ document/d/1mZf9YSqCIZIX8Og2ROy9epgloYQlabtq/edit
- 9 Masnoon N, Shakib S, Kalisch-Ellett L, et al. What is polypharmacy? A systematic review of definitions. BMC Geriatr 2017;17:230.
- 10 Guthrie B, Makubate B, Hernandez-Santiago V, et al. The rising tide of polypharmacy and drug-drug interactions: population database analysis 1995-2010. BMC Med 2015;13:74.
- 11 Okoli C, Schwenk A, Radford M, et al. Polypharmacy and potential drug-drug interactions for people with HIV in the UK from the climate-HIV database. HIV Med 2020;21:471–80.
- 12 Kinney MO, Morrow J. Epilepsy in pregnancy. *BMJ* 2016;353:i2880.
- 13 Peindl KS, Masand P, Mannelli P, et al. Polypharmacy in pregnant women with major psychiatric illness: a pilot study. J Psychiatr Pract 2007;13:385–92.
- 14 Feghali M, Venkataramanan R, Caritis S. Pharmacokinetics of drugs in pregnancy. Semin Perinatol 2015;39:512–9.
- 5 Pariente G, Leibson T, Carls A, et al. Pregnancy-associated changes in pharmacokinetics: a systematic review. PLoS Med 2016;13:e1002160.
- 16 Scaffidi J, Mol BW, Keelan JA. The pregnant women as a drug orphan: a global survey of registered clinical trials of pharmacological interventions in pregnancy. BJOG 2017;124:132–40.
- 17 Illamola SM, Bucci-Rechtweg C, Costantine MM, et al. Inclusion of pregnant and breastfeeding women in research-efforts and initiatives. Br J Clin Pharmacol 2018;84:215–22.
- 18 Astha Anand AS, Lee S, Nirantharakumar K, et al. Prevalence of polypharmacy in pregnancy and associated health outcomes in mothers and offspring crd.york.ac.uk: propero (national institute for health research). 2021. Available: https://www.crd.york.ac.uk/ prospero/display\_record.php?ID=CRD42021223966)
- 19 Wells G, Shea B, O'Connell D, et al. The newcastle-ottawa scale (NOS) for assessing the quality of nonrandomised studies in metaanalyses. 2013. Available: http://www.ohri.ca/programs/clinical\_ epidemiology/oxford.asp
- van Gelder MMHJ, Bos JHJ, Roeleveld N, et al. Drugs associated with teratogenic mechanisms. Part I: dispensing rates among pregnant women in the Netherlands, 1998-2009. Hum Reprod 2014;29:161–7.
- 21 Refuerzo JS, Blackwell SC, Sokol RJ, et al. Use of over-the-counter medications and herbal remedies in pregnancy. Am J Perinatol 2005;22:321–4.
- 22 Gomes KR, Moron AF, Silva R, et al. Prevalence of use of medicines during pregnancy and its relationship to maternal factors. Rev Saude Publica 1999;33:246–54.



- 23 Tinker SC, Broussard CS, Frey MT, et al. Prevalence of prescription medication use among non-pregnant women of childbearing age and pregnant women in the United States: NHANES, 1999-2006. Matern Child Health J 2015;19:1097–106.
- 24 Malm H, Martikainen J, Klaukka T, et al. Prescription of hazardous drugs during pregnancy. *Drug Saf* 2004;27:899–908.
- 25 Ingstrup KG, Liu X, Gasse C, et al. Prescription drug use in pregnancy and variations according to prior psychiatric history. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2018;27:105–13.
- 26 Cleary BJ, Butt H, Strawbridge JD, et al. Medication use in early pregnancy-prevalence and determinants of use in a prospective cohort of women. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2010;19:408–17.
- 27 Zhang J, Ung COL, Wagner AK, et al. Medication use during pregnancy in mainland China: a cross-sectional analysis of a national health insurance database. Clin Epidemiol 2019;11:1057–65.
- 28 Buitendijk S, Bracken MB. Medication in early pregnancy: prevalence of use and relationship to maternal characteristics. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1991;165:33–40.
- 29 Obadeji ST, Obadeji A, Bamidele JO, et al. Medication use among pregnant women at a secondary health institution: utilisation patterns and predictors of quantity. Afr Health Sci 2020;20:1206–16.
- 30 Olesen C, Steffensen FH, Nielsen GL, et al. Drug use in first pregnancy and lactation: a population-based survey among Danish women. The euromap group. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1999;55:139–44.
- 31 Schirm E, Meijer WM, Tobi H, *et al*. Drug use by pregnant women and comparable non-pregnant women in the Netherlands with reference to the Australian classification system. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2004;114:182–8.
- 32 Alani AHHDA, Hassan BAR, Suhaimi AM, et al. Use, awareness, knowledge and beliefs of medication during pregnancy in Malaysia. Osong Public Health Res Perspect 2020;11:373–9.
- 33 Zaki NM, Albarraq AA. Use, attitudes and knowledge of medications among pregnant women: a Saudi study. Saudi Pharm J 2014;22:419–28.
- 34 Handal M, Engeland A, Rønning M, et al. Use of prescribed opioid analgesics and co-medication with benzodiazepines in women before, during, and after pregnancy: a population-based cohort study. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 2011;67:953–60.
- 35 Nordeng H, Bayne K, Havnen GC, et al. Use of herbal drugs during pregnancy among 600 norwegian women in relation to concurrent use of conventional drugs and pregnancy outcome. *Complement Ther Clin Pract* 2011;17:147–51.
- 36 Hanley GE, Park M, Oberlander TF. Socieconomic status and psychotropic medicine use during pregnancy: a population-based study in British Columbia, Canada. Arch Womens Ment Health 2020;23:689–97.
- 37 Truong BT, Lupattelli A, Kristensen P, et al. Sick leave and medication use in pregnancy: a European web-based study. BMJ Open 2017;7:e014934.
- 38 Rouamba T, Valea I, Bognini JD, et al. Safety profile of drug use during pregnancy at peripheral health centres in burkina faso: a prospective observational cohort study. *Drugs Real World Outcomes* 2018;5:193–206.
- 39 Zhang J, Ung COL, Guan X, et al. Safety of medication use during pregnancy in mainland China: based on a national health insurance database in 2015. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth 2019;19.
- 40 Bérard A, Sheehy O. The quebec pregnancy cohort -- prevalence of medication use during gestation and pregnancy outcomes. *PLoS One* 2014;9:e93870.
- 41 Farooq MO, Reddy SK, Raghu Prasada MS, et al. Prescription pattern of the drugs among pregnant inpatients in tertiary care hospital. *J Pharm Res* 2014;8:981–5.
- 42 Rathod AM, Rathod RM, Jha RK, et al. Prescribing trends in antenatal care at a tertiary level teaching hospital of Vidarbha region. Res J Pharm Biol Chem Sci 2012;3:865–72.
- 43 Agarwal M, Nayeem M, Safhi MM, et al. Prescribing pattern of drugs in the department of obstetrics and gynecology in expected mothers in Jazan Region, KSA. Int J Pharm Pharm Sci 2014;6:658–61.
- 44 Makiabadi F, RajeswariR, JayashreeAK. Prescribing pattern of drugs in department of obstetrics and gynecology at a tertiary care teaching hospital, Bangalore, India. *PJMHS* 2021;15:1265–9.

- 45 Vafai Y, Yeung EH, Sundaram R, et al. Prenatal medication use in a prospective pregnancy cohort by pre-pregnancy obesity status. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2022;35:5799–806.
- 46 Sripada R, Suresh Kumar SV, Devanna N, et al. Pattern of possible drug-drug interactions among different specialties at an indian tertiary care teaching hospital. *Ijrps* 2020;11:3988–92.
- 47 Gharoro EP, Igbafe AA. Pattern of drug use amongst antenatal patients in Benin City, Nigeria. Med Sci Monit 2000;6:84–7.
- 48 Lee E, Maneno MK, Smith L, et al. National patterns of medication use during pregnancy. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2006;15:537–45.
- 49 Palmsten K, Hernández-Díaz S, Chambers CD, et al. The most commonly dispensed prescription medications among pregnant women enrolled in the U.S. Medicaid program. *Obstet Gynecol* 2015;126:465–73.
- 50 Havard A, Barbieri S, Hanly M, et al. Medications used disproportionately during pregnancy: priorities for research on the risks and benefits of medications when used during pregnancy. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2021;30:53–64.
- 51 Glavind J, Greve T, de Wolff MG, et al. Medication used in Denmark in the latent phase of labor-do we know what we are doing? Sex Reprod Healthc 2020;25:100515.
- 52 de Jonge L, Zetstra-van der Woude PA, Bos HJ, et al. Identifying associations between maternal medication use and birth defects using a case-population approach: an exploratory study on signal detection. *Drug Saf* 2013;36:1069–78.
- 53 Ilic M, Nordeng H, Lupattelli A. Medical care contact for infertility and related medication use during pregnancy – a European, crosssectional web-based study. Nor J Epidemiol 2021;29:97–106.
- 54 Baraka MA, Steurbaut S, Coomans D, et al. Ethnic differences in drug utilization pattern during pregnancy: a cross-sectional study. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2013;26:900–7.
- 55 Irvine L, Flynn RWV, Libby G, et al. Drugs dispensed in primary care during pregnancy: a record-linkage analysis in Tayside, Scotland. Drug Saf 2010;33:593–604.
- 56 Araujo M, Hurault-Delarue C, Sommet A, et al. Drug prescriptions in French pregnant women between 2015 and 2016: a study in the EGB database. *Therapies* 2021;76:239–47.
- 57 Girit N, Tugrul I, Demirci B, et al. Drug exposure in early pregnancy might be related to the effects of increased maternal progesterone in implantation period. J Psychosom Obstet Gynaecol 2018;39:7–10.
- 58 Bornhauser C, Quack Lotscher Katharina C, Seifert B, et al. Diet, medication use and drug intake during pregnancy: data from the consecutive Swiss health surveys of 2007 and 2012. Swiss Med Wkly 2017;147:51–2.
- 59 Galappatthy P, Ranasinghe P, Liyanage CK, et al. Core prescribing indicators and the most commonly prescribed medicines in a tertiary health care setting in a developing country. Adv Pharmacol Pharm Sci 2021;2021:6625377.
- 60 Merlob P, Stahl B, Kaplan B. Children born to mothers using multiple drug therapy during their pregnancy. *Int J Risk Saf Med* 1996;8:237–41.
- 61 Eze UI, Eferakeya AE, Oparah AC, et al. Assessment of prescription profile of pregnant women visiting antenatal clinics. *Pharm Pract* (*Granada*) 2007;5:135–9.
- 62 Belay M, Kahaliw W, Ergetie Z. Assessment of drug utilization pattern during pregnancy in adama riferral hospital, Oromia region, Ethiopia. *Int J Pharm Sci Res* 2013;4:1905–11.
- 63 van Gelder MMHJ, Vorstenbosch S, Te Winkel B, et al. Using webbased questionnaires to assess medication use during pregnancy: a validation study in 2 prospectively enrolled cohorts. Am J Epidemiol 2018;187:326–36.
- 64 Lynch MM, Amoozegar JB, McClure EM, et al. Improving safe use of medications during pregnancy: the roles of patients, physicians, and pharmacists. Qual Health Res 2017;27:2071–80.
- Daw JR, Hanley GE, Greyson DL, et al. Prescription drug use during pregnancy in developed countries: a systematic review. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf 2011;20:895–902.
- 66 Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:71.

### Appendix 1 – Search strategy

The search strategy for Embase and MEDLINE is shown below.

- 1. polypharmacy/
- 2. multiple medicatio\*.mp.
- 3. multiple medicine\*.mp.
- 4. multiple drug\*.mp.
- 5. many medicatio\*.mp.
- 6. many medicine\*.mp.
- 7. many drug\*.mp.
- 8. (more adj4 medication\*).mp.
- 9. polydrug\*.mp.
- 10. polymedication.mp.
- 11. polypharmacy.mp.
- 12. multi-drug therapy.mp.
- 13. multidrug therapy.mp.
- 14. multiple pharmacotherapy.mp.
- 15. poly pharmacy.mp.
- 16. polypragmasia.mp.
- 17. polypragmasy.mp.
- 18. exp pregnancy/
- 19. exp Pregnancy Complications/ or exp Pregnancy Disorders/
- 20. pregnan\*.mp.
- 21. mothers/
- 22. perinatal.mp.
- 23. maternal.mp.
- 24. obstetric\*.mp.
- 25. or/1-17
- 26. or/18-24
- 27. 25 and 26

## Appendix S2 – Prisma Checklist

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
TITLE			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review.	Title, abstract, methods
ABSTRACT			
Abstract	2	See the PRISMA 2020 for Abstracts checklist.	See below
INTRODUCTION			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of existing knowledge.	Introduction
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of the objective(s) or question(s) the review addresses.	Introduction
METHODS			
Eligibility criteria	5	Specify the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the review and how studies were grouped for the syntheses.	Methods – eligibility criteria
Information sources	6	Specify all databases, registers, websites, organisations, reference lists and other sources searched or consulted to identify studies. Specify the date when each source was last searched or consulted.	Methods – search strategy
Search strategy	7	Present the full search strategies for all databases, registers and websites, including any filters and limits used.	Methods – search strategy, Appendix S1
Selection process	8	Specify the methods used to decide whether a study met the inclusion criteria of the review, including how many reviewers screened each record and each report retrieved, whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Methods - study selection and data abstraction, author contribution
Data collection process	9	Specify the methods used to collect data from reports, including how many reviewers collected data from each report, whether they worked independently, any processes for obtaining or confirming data from study investigators, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Methods - study selection and data abstraction, author contribution
Data items	10a	List and define all outcomes for which data were sought. Specify whether all results that were compatible with each outcome domain in each study were sought (e.g., for all measures, time points, analyses), and if not, the methods used to decide which results to collect.	Methods - study selection and data abstraction, outcome measurement
	10b	List and define all other variables for which data were sought (e.g., participant and intervention characteristics, funding sources).  Describe any assumptions made about any missing or unclear information.	Methods - study selection and data

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
			abstraction, exclusion criteria
Study risk of bias assessment	11	Specify the methods used to assess risk of bias in the included studies, including details of the tool(s) used, how many reviewers assessed each study and whether they worked independently, and if applicable, details of automation tools used in the process.	Methods - study selection and data abstraction
Effect measures	12	Specify for each outcome the effect measure(s) (e.g., risk ratio, mean difference) used in the synthesis or presentation of results.	Methods – outcome measurement
Synthesis methods	13a	Describe the processes used to decide which studies were eligible for each synthesis (e.g., tabulating the study intervention characteristics and comparing against the planned groups for each synthesis (item #5)).	Methods - study selection and data abstraction and summary measures and results synthesis
	13b	Describe any methods required to prepare the data for presentation or synthesis, such as handling of missing summary statistics, or data conversions.	Methods - summary measures and results synthesis
	13c	Describe any methods used to tabulate or visually display results of individual studies and syntheses.	Methods - summary measures and results synthesis
	13d	Describe any methods used to synthesize results and provide a rationale for the choice(s). If meta-analysis was performed, describe the model(s), method(s) to identify the presence and extent of statistical heterogeneity, and software package(s) used.	Methods - summary measures and results synthesis
	13e	Describe any methods used to explore possible causes of heterogeneity among study results (e.g., subgroup analysis, meta-regression).	N/a
	13f	Describe any sensitivity analyses conducted to assess robustness of the synthesized results.	N/a
Reporting bias assessment	14	Describe any methods used to assess risk of bias due to missing results in a synthesis (arising from reporting biases).	Methods - study selection and data abstraction (risk of bias)
Certainty assessment	15	Describe any methods used to assess certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for an outcome.	Methods - study selection and data abstraction (risk of bias)
RESULTS			
Study selection	16a	Describe the results of the search and selection process, from the number of records identified in the search to the number of studies included in the review, ideally using a flow diagram.	Figure 1, Results

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
	16b	Cite studies that might appear to meet the inclusion criteria, but which were excluded, and explain why they were excluded.	Results, references
Study characteristics	17	Cite each included study and present its characteristics.	Results, Table s1
Risk of bias in studies	18	Present assessments of risk of bias for each included study.	Table S1, Results – risk of bias
Results of individual studies	19	For all outcomes, present, for each study: (a) summary statistics for each group (where appropriate) and (b) an effect estimate and its precision (e.g., confidence/credible interval), ideally using structured tables or plots.	Results, Figures 3-4
Results of	20a	For each synthesis, briefly summarise the characteristics and risk of bias among contributing studies.	Results
syntheses	20b	Present results of all statistical syntheses conducted. If meta-analysis was done, present for each the summary estimate and its precision (e.g. confidence/credible interval) and measures of statistical heterogeneity. If comparing groups, describe the direction of the effect.	N/a
	20c	Present results of all investigations of possible causes of heterogeneity among study results.	Results
	20d	Present results of all sensitivity analyses conducted to assess the robustness of the synthesized results.	Results
Reporting biases	21	Present assessments of risk of bias due to missing results (arising from reporting biases) for each synthesis assessed.	Results – risk of bias
Certainty of evidence	22	Present assessments of certainty (or confidence) in the body of evidence for each outcome assessed.	Results, Figures 3-4
DISCUSSION			
Discussion	23a	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence.	Discussion - interpretation
	23b	Discuss any limitations of the evidence included in the review.	Discussion – strengths and limitations
	23c	Discuss any limitations of the review processes used.	Discussion – strengths and limitations
	23d	Discuss implications of the results for practice, policy, and future research.	Conclusion
OTHER INFORMA	TION		
Registration and protocol	24a	Provide registration information for the review, including register name and registration number, or state that the review was not registered.	Methods – protocol and registration
	24b	Indicate where the review protocol can be accessed, or state that a protocol was not prepared.	Methods – protocol and registration and references

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Location where item is reported
	24c	Describe and explain any amendments to information provided at registration or in the protocol.	N/a
Support	25	Describe sources of financial or non-financial support for the review, and the role of the funders or sponsors in the review.	Funding
Competing interests	26	Declare any competing interests of review authors.	Disclosure of interest
Availability of data, code and other materials	27	Report which of the following are publicly available and where they can be found: template data collection forms; data extracted from included studies; data used for all analyses; analytic code; any other materials used in the review.	N/a

From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71

For more information, visit: <a href="http://www.prisma-statement.org/">http://www.prisma-statement.org/</a>

Section and Topic	Item #	Checklist item	Reported (Yes/No)				
TITLE							
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review.	Yes				
BACKGROUND							
Objectives	2	Provide an explicit statement of the main objective(s) or question(s) the review addresses.	Yes				
METHODS							
Eligibility criteria	3	Specify the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the review.	Yes				
Information sources	4	Specify the information sources (e.g. databases, registers) used to identify studies and the date when each was last searched.	Yes				
Risk of bias	5	Specify the methods used to assess risk of bias in the included studies.	Yes				
Synthesis of results	6	Specify the methods used to present and synthesise results.	Yes				
RESULTS							
Included studies	7	Give the total number of included studies and participants and summarise relevant characteristics of studies.	Yes				
Synthesis of results  8 Present results for main outcomes, preferably indicating the number of included studies and participants for each. If meta-analysis was done, report the summary estimate and confidence/credible interval. If comparing groups, indicate the direction of the effect (i.e. who group is favoured).		Yes					
DISCUSSION							
Limitations of evidence			Yes				
Interpretation	10	Provide a general interpretation of the results and important implications.	Yes				
OTHER							
Funding	11	Specify the primary source of funding for the review.	Yes				
Registration	12	Provide the register name and registration number.	Prospero protocol cited in methods and references				

From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. BMJ 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71

Table S1- Summary of Newcastle-Ottawa Quality Assessment Scale Score for Included Studies

	Sele	ction	Outcome		
Author	Representativeness of the cohort	Ascertainment of pregnancy	Assessment of polypharmacy	Was follow-up long enough	Adequacy of follow- up
<b>Buitendijk 1991 (29)</b>	*	*	-	*	*
Olesen 1998 (31)	*	*	*	*	*
Gomes 1999 (22)	*	*	-	*	*
Malm 2004 (24)	*	*	*	*	*
Schirm 2004 (32)	*	-	*	*	*
Refuerzo 2005 (21)	*	*	-	*	*
Cleary 2010 (26)	*	*	-	*	*
Mitchell 2011 (27)	*	*	-	*	*
Van Gelder 2014	*	-	*	*	*
(20)					
Tinker 2016 (23)	-	-	-	*	*
Haas 2018 (6)	*	*	-	*	*
Ingstrup 2018 (24)	*	*	*	*	*
Zhang 2019 (27)	*	*	*	*	*
Obadeji 2020 (29)	*	*	*	*	*

<sup>\*</sup> Indicates adequate quality in domain. A maximum of one star can be given for each domain