

Exposure to antidepressants during pregnancy - prevalences and outcomes

Espen Jimenez-Solem

This review has been accepted as a thesis together with three previously published papers by University of Copenhagen on 6th September 2013 and defended on 28th November 2013

Tutor(s): Henrik Enghusen Poulsen, Christian Torp-Pedersen & Jon Trærup Andersen

Official opponents: Per Damkier, Morten Andersen & Øjvind Lidegaard

Correspondence: Laboratory of Clinical Pharmacology, Rigshospitalet
Department of Clinical Pharmacology, Bispebjerg Hospital, Bispebjerg Bakke 23, 2400
Copenhagen NV, Denmark
E-mail: Espen.Jimenez.Solem@regionh.dk

Dan Med J 2014;61(9): B4916

1. PREFACE

The PhD thesis is the result of studies performed during my fellowship at the Laboratory of Clinical Pharmacology Q7642 at Rigshospitalet, a remote function of the Department of Clinical Pharmacology, Bispebjerg Hospital, Copenhagen, between 2010 and 2013.

The thesis is based on three studies:

I

Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Andersen NL, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. (2013) **Prevalence of antidepressant use during pregnancy in Denmark, a nation-wide cohort study.** PLoS ONE 8(4): e63034. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0063034

II

Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Jensen JK, Afzal S, Gislason GH, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. **Exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and the risk of congenital malformations: a nationwide cohort study.** BMJ Open 2012;2:e001148. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2012-001148

III

Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Lander AR, Afzal S, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. **SSRI Use During Pregnancy and Risk of Stillbirth and Neonatal Mortality.** Am J Psychiatry. 2013 Jan 30. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp. 2012.1108125

2. ABBREVIATIONS

ATC	Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical Classification System
BMI	Body Mass Index (kg/m ²)
CI	Confidence Interval
ICD-10	International Classification of Diseases, version 10
OR	Odds Ratio
SSRI	Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor
TCA	Tricyclic Antidepressant

3. INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that approximately 20 % of women of childbearing age (25-45 years),^{1,2} and up to 15 % of pregnant women suffer from depressive symptoms.^{3,4} Untreated depression can have serious consequences for the mother, the newly born and their family. Depression during pregnancy is associated with preterm delivery, low birth weight, epidural analgesia, caesarean section, intensive ward admission, and disturbances in the child's neurocognitive and socioemotional development.⁴⁻⁸ Untreated depression during pregnancy is associated with a 6-fold risk increase of postpartum depression.^{4,9}

Treatment of depression during pregnancy is a challenge, where careful risk-benefit analyses have to be made for each individual patient. Mild depression is not usually treated with antidepressants, while major depression is treated pharmacologically. The most commonly prescribed pharmacological treatment against depression during pregnancy is selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs).¹⁰⁻¹³ Treatment with SSRIs during pregnancy in Denmark has doubled over a short span of time with 1.4 % of pregnancies treated in 2004 compared to 2.4 % in 2007. This rapid increase has also been observed in other countries where the proportion of pregnant women treated with an SSRI is reported to be even higher than in Denmark.¹¹⁻¹⁵ It is important to know the prevalence of prenatal exposure to antidepressants in order to estimate its potential public health consequences. Therefore, we set out to quantify the percentage of pregnant women in treatment with antidepressants in Denmark. We assessed temporal trends over the years 1997-2010, and use in relation to pregnancy. Additionally, we looked at maternal characteristics associated with antidepressant exposure.¹

Several studies have analysed the consequences of this treatment on pregnancy outcomes, and indicated an increased risk of congenital malformations^{16,17}, and more notably heart defects.¹⁸⁻²⁸ However, the data are conflicting^{18,20,23-25,29-39} and studies including up to a million pregnancies indicate little risk of congenital

Table 1:

Register	Information included in register	Study		
		I Use of antidepressants	II Risk of congenital malformations	III Risk of stillbirth and neonatal mortality
Medical Birth Register ⁴⁹	Mothers' age, parity, BMI and smoking. Offspring's time of gestation and conception.	Identification of study population: All pregnancies 1997-2010 N=920 639	Identification of study population: All pregnancies 1997-2009 N= 848 786	-
The Danish Fertility Database ⁵⁰⁻⁵²	Mothers' age and parity, Offspring's gestational age and time of death.	-	-	Identification of study population: All pregnancies 1995-2008 N= 920 620
The Danish National Hospital Register ⁵³	All admission dates, discharge dates and diagnoses.	Identification of hospitalization dates to calculate exposure periods.	Identification of hospitalization dates to calculate exposure periods. Diagnoses of congenital malformations	Identification of hospitalization dates to calculate exposure periods. Diagnoses of smoking.
The Danish National Prescription Register ^{54, 55}	Records of all redeemed prescriptions at community pharmacies; date, type, strength and quantity.	Identification of antidepressant exposure periods.	Identification of antidepressant exposure periods.	Identification of SSRI exposure periods.
Register of Income Statistics ⁴⁸	Annual income statistics for anyone who is economically active in Denmark.	Household income at birth year		
Register of Education and Training Statistics ⁴⁸	Annually updated information on highest obtained level of education for all residents in Denmark.	Highest obtained educational level of the mother		

Overview of information sources used to construct the individual study populations included in each study of the thesis^{I, II, III}

malformations^{18,23, 25, 37, 38}. On the other hand, studies show a clear association between SSRI use and persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn.⁴⁰ None of these studies have successfully managed to differentiate between the consequences of the drugs themselves and the underlying disease. Given the uncertainty of safety and the widespread use, we performed a nationwide study of the relation between use of antidepressants and congenital malformations with focus on congenital heart defects, and comparison with paused use during pregnancy to account for special characteristics of women using antidepressants.^{II} Some of these conditions and malformations are potentially fatal both *in utero* and during the neonatal period, but information on the risk of stillbirth or neonatal mortality for children exposed to SSRIs *in utero* is still limited.^{41, 42} Large cohorts are needed to assess the risk of these rare outcomes. Until now only one large cohort-study has dealt with this issue and found no increased risk of perinatal mortality.⁴¹ The Danish Medicines Agency issued in 2011 a warning about a possible association between *in utero* exposure to SSRIs and perinatal mortality. The concerns were based on several case reports of perinatal death after *in utero* exposure to SSRIs. The

etiologies of these cases were congenital anomalies, persistent pulmonary hypertension and/or serotonin withdrawal symptoms^{43, 44}. These conditions have previously been associated with maternal SSRI use during pregnancy^{23, 39}. Symptoms of discontinuation syndrome have been described in neonates exposed to SSRIs *in utero* for up to 28 days after birth.⁴⁵ We therefore investigated whether *in utero* exposure to SSRIs during pregnancy is associated with an increased risk of stillbirth or neonatal mortality.^{III}

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data from Danish nationwide health registers are the bases of the present PhD thesis. At birth, all Danish citizens are given a unique permanent identification number^{46, 47} that enables personalized information to be linked across databases, and places Denmark at the pinnacle of register-based research. Table 1 shows the information gathered from each register to construct the study population for each study included in the thesis. For detailed description of methods and materials, please consult the individual studies.^{I, II, III}

IDENTIFICATION OF ANTIDEPRESSANT PHARMACOTHERAPY

To estimate exposure prevalence we calculated dosages for each individual in the cohort, based on the dispense date of each prescription, strength and number of tablets prescribed. Detailed description of how exposure periods were calculated is described in Study I.^I

STATISTICS

Data management and all statistical analyses were performed using SAS, version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, N.C.). The threshold for statistical significance was set at a p value of 0.05. All statistical tests were two-sided. Odds ratios are presented with 95 % confidence intervals.

ETHICS

All personal information held in the registers was encrypted and analyzed on computers held by Statistics Denmark.⁴⁸ In Denmark The Act on Processing of Personal Data does not require ethical permission or obtained written informed consent for anonymised retrospective register studies. The present study has been approved by The Danish Data Protection Agency (No. 2008-41-2517).

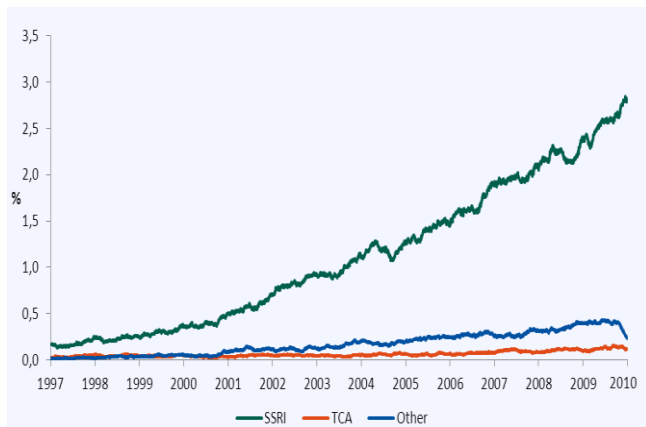
5. RESULTS

The main results are presented in the following, with focus on results considered in the discussion. For a more detailed presentation of the results, please consult the individual studies.^{I, II, III}

PREVALENCE OF ANTIDEPRESSANT USE DURING PREGNANCY IN DENMARK^I

We identified 19 740 pregnancies (2.2 %) exposed to an antidepressant at some point during pregnancy. These women were characterized by being older, having more prior pregnancies, having lower annual household income, having a shorter educational career, smoking more and having a higher BMI than unexposed women. Most were exposed to an SSRI (n=16 928), followed by other antidepressants (n=3 135) and TCAs (n=1 297).

Figure 1:



Point prevalence of pregnant women in treatment with an antidepressant between 1997 and 2010 based on estimated treatment periods. SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor; TCA, tricyclic antidepressants; AD, antidepressant.

Exposure between 1997 and 2010

Between January 1997 and January 2010, the percentage of pregnant women exposed to an antidepressant increased from 0.2 % in early 1997 to 3.2 % in December 2009 (figure 1). The biggest increase was seen for SSRIs, where citalopram and sertraline were the preferred SSRIs at the end of the period. In contrast, use of fluoxetine has been decreasing since 2007 (figure 2). The prevalence of exposure to TCAs remained steady since 1997 at an average of 0.03 % of pregnancies (figure 1). Amitriptyline and nortriptyline represented over 70 % of TCA exposure. Exposure to other antidepressants increased in the study period reaching a maximum peak point prevalence of 0.4 % of pregnant women in August 2009 (figure 1). Venlafaxine was the preferred antidepressant of its class.

Figure 2



Point prevalence of pregnant women in treatment with an SSRI based on estimated treatment periods.

Exposure in relation to pregnancy

At the time of conception, 16 962 (1.9 %) of all pregnancies were exposed to an antidepressant, of these, 51 % were still exposed at the time of delivery. The greatest decrease in antidepressant exposure is consistent with the period of pregnancy recognition (first trimester) (figure 3). 1 694 (0.2 %) pre-pregnancy treatment naïve women commenced treatment with an antidepressant at some point during pregnancy. Within the first twelve months after delivery 11 151 (1.2 %) commenced treatment among wom-

en who had never been in treatment with an antidepressant before the time of delivery.

This pattern of exposure from 6 months before to 12 months after pregnancy was similar for the individual antidepressants, except for fluoxetine (figure 4). For fluoxetine, we saw a rise in prevalence after pregnancy followed by a slight decrease until delivery.

Figure 3:

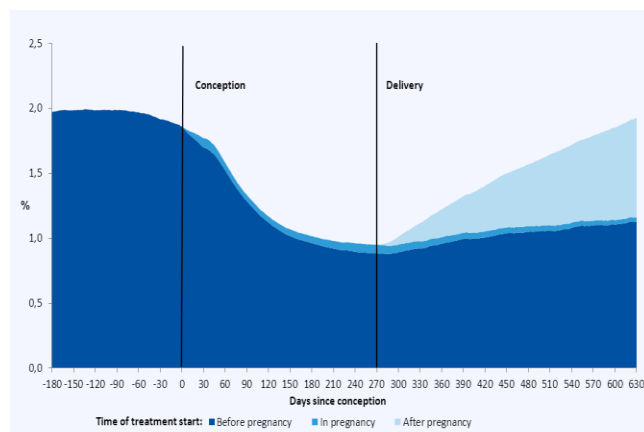
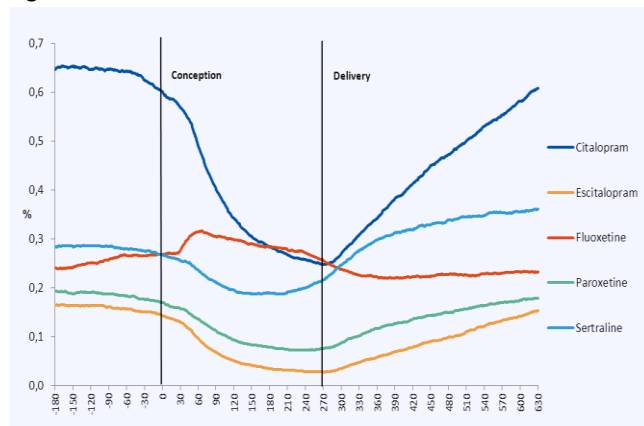


Figure 3 Percentage of pregnant women in treatment with an antidepressant for each day from 180 days before conception to 630 days after conception (approximately 1 year after mean time of delivery). The figure is divided into three areas of different color indicating the period of treatment start; before (dark blue), during (blue) or after pregnancy (light blue).

Figure 4:



Percentage of pregnant women in treatment with a specific SSRI for each day from 180 days before conception to 630 days after conception (approximately 1 year after mean time of delivery).

Antidepressant switch during pregnancy

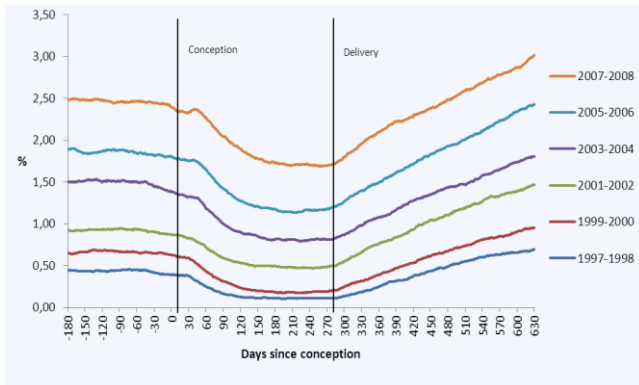
While 43.3 % (n=8 552) stopped antidepressant treatment during pregnancy, 11.3 % (n=2 224) of pregnant women switched to a different antidepressant. Among those who switched treatment, the preferred new antidepressant was fluoxetine (41.7 %) followed by citalopram (20.5 %) and sertraline (19.1 %).

Exposure in relation to pregnancy, 1997-2009.

Figure 5 shows changes in antidepressant exposure patterns in relation to pregnancy between 1997 and 2008. The same pattern can be seen for the analysed periods, with an absolute increase in exposure over time. However, the rate of antidepressant discontinuation has decreased over the years reaching 12 % in 2009 (figure 6). In contrast, the relative increase in exposure preva-

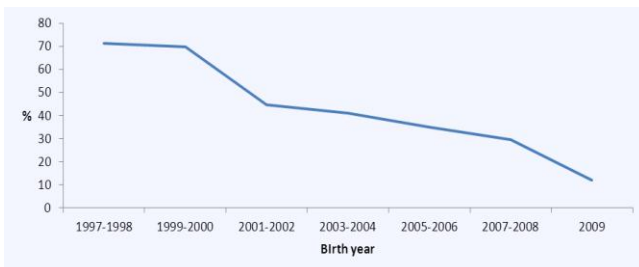
lence seen within one year after delivery has fallen from 7-fold increase in 1997-1998 to a 2-fold increase in 2007-2008 (figure 5).

Figure 5:



Percentage of pregnant women in treatment with an antidepressant for each day from 180 days before conception to 630 days after conception (approximately 1 year after mean time of delivery) according to birth year. 2009 is not included due to lack of data for the year after delivery.

Figure 6:



Percentage of women discontinuing treatment with an antidepressant during pregnancy according to birth year.

EXPOSURE TO SSRIS AND THE RISK OF CONGENITAL MALFORMATIONS¹¹

We identified 4 183 pregnancies exposed to an SSRI throughout the first trimester, 806 pregnancies with paused exposure, and 843 797 pregnancies not exposed to an SSRI. 83 % of pregnancies exposed to an SSRI throughout the first trimester went on to redeem a prescription of an SSRI during the third trimester. Table 2 presents the association between exposure to SSRIs and major congenital malformations and specific septal congenital defects of the heart.

First trimester exposure to any SSRI vs. no exposure

The rate of major congenital malformations among pregnancies exposed to any SSRI throughout the first trimester was 50 per 1000 pregnancies, compared to 35 per 1000 unexposed pregnancies. We found an association between SSRI exposure and major congenital malformations; adjusted OR=1.33 (95 % CI, 1.16-1.53) (table 2).

When analysing the association between exposure to any SSRI and the different major malformations according to the EUROCAT classification we found a statistically significant association with congenital malformations of the heart, and congenital malformations of the digestive system, but not the remaining major congenital malformations (table 2).

Paused exposure vs. unexposed

The rate of major congenital malformations among pregnancies with paused exposure during pregnancy was 45 per 1000 pregnancies. The risk of any major malformation for women with paused exposure to an SSRI during pregnancy was; adjusted OR=1.27 (95 % CI, 0.91-1.78) compared to unexposed pregnancies. When estimating the risk of specific major congenital malformations we found that paused exposure was associated with congenital malformations of the heart (table 2). We performed additional analyses increasing the drug-free period before pregnancy to six and nine months and found similar estimates as for the group pausing exposure three months before conception.

Table 2:

Outcome	Exposed to any SSRI				p-value ^a	No exposure N=843 797
	First trimester N=4183		Paused during pregnancy N=806			
	N (%)	OR (95 % CI)	N (%)	OR (95 % CI)		N (%)
Major malformations	208 (4.97)	1.33 (1.16-1.53)	36 (4.47)	1.27 (0.91-1.78)	0.90	29 703 (3.52)
Heart	77 (1.84)	2.01 (1.60-2.53)	13 (1.61)	1.85 (1.07-3.20)	0.94	7 755 (0.92)
Septal defects	49 (1.17)	2.04 (1.53-2.72)	11 (1.36)	2.56 (1.41-4.64)	0.35	4 826 (0.57)
Ventricular septal defects	21 (0.50)	1.62 (1.05-2.50)	9 (1.12)	3.74 (1.93-7.23)	0.97	2 803 (0.33)
Atrial septal defects	34 (0.81)	2.60 (1.84-3.68)	6 (0.74)	2.61 (1.17-5.84)	0.74	2 490 (0.30)
Digestive system	13 (0.31)	1.80 (1.04-3.12)	1 (0.12)	0.75 (0.11-5.35)	0.59	1 545 (0.18)
Internal urinary system	11 (0.26)	0.84 (0.45-1.57)	-	-	-	2 333 (0.28)
External genital organs	19 (0.45)	1.55 (0.99-2.44)	2 (0.25)	0.89 (0.22-3.59)	0.46	2 504 (0.30)
Limbs	53 (1.27)	0.93 (0.71-1.23)	14 (1.74)	1.37 (0.80-2.32)	0.18	11 785 (1.40)

Table 2 Risk of major congenital malformations. Estimates are presented as Odds Ratios (OR) with 95 % confidence intervals (95 % CI)

^a P-value for comparison of odds ratios between pregnancies exposed throughout the first trimester and pregnancies with paused exposure during pregnancy.

^b Multivariate logistic regressions are adjusted for mother's age, parity, income, education, smoking and year of conception.

Other Analyses

Specific heart defects

We performed a sub analysis of the specific congenital septal defects of the heart and their association with exposure to SSRIs and found an association between exposure to any SSRI and septal heart defects; adjusted OR=2.04 (95 % CI, 1.53-2.72) (table 2). Specifically, ventricular septal defects and atrial septal defects were associated with an increased risk. Increased risk of congenital septal defects was also found for pregnancies with paused exposure; adjusted OR=2.56 (95 % CI, 1.41-4.64) (table 2).

Dosage

We found an adjusted odds ratio for major malformations: OR 1.26 (95 % CI, 1.05-1.51) for low dose exposure and 1.44 (95 % CI, 1.15-1.79) for high dose exposure (p for difference=0.29).

Non-SSRI antidepressants

The association between congenital malformations and exposure to non-SSRI antidepressants: tricyclic antidepressants (ATC N06AA, n=223) and other antidepressants (ATC N06AX, n=831) was; adjusted OR=1.04 (95 % CI, 0.53-2.03) and; adjusted OR=0.70 (95 % CI, 0.47-1.05), respectively. The associations with congenital malformations of the heart were; adjusted OR=1.33 (95 % CI, 0.42-4.15) for tricyclic antidepressants and adjusted OR=0.99 (95 % CI 0.51-1.91) for other antidepressants.

EXPOSURE TO SSRIS AND THE RISK OF STILLBIRTH AND NEONATAL MORTALITYⁱⁱⁱ

The cohort of these analyses consists of 920 620 pregnancies, of which 12 425 were exposed to an SSRI: 3 982 with first-trimester exposure, 2 065 with first and second-trimester exposure, and 6 378 with exposure in all trimesters.

Risk of stillbirth

We identified 75 (0.60 %) stillbirths among women exposed to an SSRI during pregnancy compared to 3 938 stillbirths (0.43 % of all births) among unexposed women. In unadjusted analyses, exposure to an SSRI in all trimesters (but not for first-trimester or first- and second-trimester exposure) was significantly associated with stillbirth (OR=1.55, 95 % CI=1.14–2.10) compared with unexposed pregnancies. Adjusting our model rendered this association non-significant (OR=1.06, 95 % CI=0.71–1.58). When stratifying for different SSRIs, we did not find an increased risk of stillbirth with exposure in any trimester.ⁱⁱⁱ

Neonatal Mortality

There were 3 091 neonatal deaths (0.34 %) between 1995 and 2008 in our study population. We identified 47 (0.38 %) neonatal deaths among women exposed to an SSRI during pregnancy. We found no association between exposure to an SSRI in any trimester and neonatal mortality. Stratifying exposure to different SSRIs revealed an association between three-trimester exposure to citalopram and neonatal mortality: adjusted OR=2.49 (95 % CI, 1.33-4.65). Estimates for the remaining SSRIs and trimesters were not statistically significant.ⁱⁱⁱ

6. DISCUSSION

In order to assess whether antidepressants increase the risk of severe negative birth outcomes we performed a retrospective nation-wide cohort study analyzing the association between exposure to antidepressants during pregnancy and stillbirth, neonatal mortality and major congenital malformations. Furthermore we analyzed exposure patterns to antidepressants in relation to pregnancy. The overall hypothesis that antidepressants are associated with severe negative birth outcomes is not supported by our findings.

In the following, we discuss each study's results, and their relation to previously published literature.

PREVALENCE OF ANTIDEPRESSANT USE DURING PREGNANCYⁱ

Consequences of the use of antidepressants in relation to pregnancy is associated with great uncertainty. By ascertaining the possible relations between antidepressants and severe pregnancy outcomes we have given mothers and physicians better tools to decrease this uncertainty. In spite of the insecurity related to these drugs, the numerous publications and the extensive negative media coverage we find a pronounced increase (16-fold) in

their use during pregnancy over time. In comparison, use of drugs in Denmark increased 67 % between 1997 and 2007⁵⁶, and use of antidepressants in the general population increased 87 % between 1999 and 2011.⁵⁷ The increase in use seen among pregnant women is larger than the general population trend and therefore probably not solely due to the general increase of drug use in Denmark. The same is applicable for the increase in exposure over the years seen in the period of lactation (figure 5). We found an increase in prevalence of exposure during the study period from 0.2 % to 3.2 %. Furthermore we described a decrease in exposure to antidepressants related to the time of pregnancy recognition, and a steep increase in exposure among pre-pregnancy treatment-naïve after delivery.

Exposure rates, 1997-2010

The increase in prevalence over the years is comparable to studies from other countries, although our estimates are considerably lower.^{10, 12, 14, 15, 58, 59} Two studies from the USA describe prevalences of 7.6 % in 2005¹² and 13.3 % in 2003.⁵⁸ Two studies from The Netherlands reported prevalences of 2 % between 2000 and 2003 and 3 % in 2004.¹⁴ The first three studies were based on health insurance records and the fourth on data from a Dutch region. One study from the UK estimated a prevalence of 3.3 % in 2006, based on data from general practices.⁵⁹ None of the mentioned studies were based on nation-wide cohorts as the present study. Differences in prevalence could be accounted for by study methodology, and sociodemographic differences.

The increasing exposure to antidepressant during pregnancy until 2010 was mainly due to redemption of SSRIs, where citalopram was the most frequently used SSRI in 2009. Use of paroxetine has stagnated since 2004, and accounted for only 5.3 % of SSRI use in 2008 (figure 2), and could be due to reports published in 2005 by the FDA associating paroxetine with heart defects.⁶⁰ Use of TCAs and other antidepressants increased at a more moderate rate between 1997 and 2010.

One possible reason for the increase in antidepressant use over the last 13 years is the widening of usage and therapeutic indications for antidepressants to include anxiety disorders, premenstrual syndrome, posttraumatic stress disorders, migraine prophylaxis, pain and eating disorders.⁶¹ We hypothesize that a second reason could be a more liberal prescription of antidepressants during pregnancy. We find a decrease in the rate of antidepressant discontinuation during pregnancy in the study period (figure 6), which may support our hypothesis. In spite of many studies reporting increased risks of congenital malformations associated with antidepressants, the absolute risk increases are low. On the other hand, in spite of doctor recommendation, only 35 % of pregnant women reported to be willing to take antidepressants during pregnancy in an American study.⁶² Thirdly, it has been suggested that influence by the pharmaceutical industry could play a role in the increased use of antidepressants during pregnancy.⁶³

Increased rates of exposure to some newer antidepressants (e.g. escitalopram) will open for the possibility of safety studies on these drugs and their possible association with less frequent pregnancy outcomes (e.g. specific congenital malformations and persistent pulmonary hypertension of the new-born).

Exposure in relation to pregnancy

Overall, at the time of pregnancy recognition we see a considerable decrease in prevalence of antidepressant exposure, and an increase after delivery (figure 3).

Approximately half of all pregnancies discontinued treatment during pregnancy, which is in accordance with previously published literature.^{13, 14, 59, 64-66} However, we describe a change in this pattern, from 71 % of pregnant women discontinuing antidepressant treatment during pregnancy in 1997 to 12 % in 2009 (figure 6).

In our study, this decrease was not found for fluoxetine, for which the prevalence increased. This could indicate a switch in treatment to fluoxetine when pregnancy is detected, which is in accordance with recommendations from The Danish Society of Obstetrics and Gynecology (DSOG). DSOG recommends the use of fluoxetine or sertraline during pregnancy⁶⁷ which could explain why exposure to sertraline decreased only 26.5 % during pregnancy in contrast to citalopram (60.7 %), escitalopram (81.4 %) and paroxetine (56.0 %). During the first year after pregnancy (period of lactation) we see the steepest increase in use for citalopram (figure 4), which is not in accordance with DSOGs guidelines for treatment during lactation. During lactation DSOG recommends the use sertraline or paroxetine.⁶⁷

During pregnancy, only 1694 (0.19 %) treatment-naïve women commenced use of an antidepressant. This could indicate physicians and women's reluctance towards starting treatment during pregnancy, unless symptoms are severe. It is of note that most of these women continued treatment at least one year after delivery (figure 3).

Pregnancy does not seem to protect against the risk of depression relapse.⁶⁸ Discontinuation of antidepressant treatment during pregnancy is associated with a 5-fold increase in the risk of relapse of depression during pregnancy compared to women who maintained their medication⁶⁹ and is estimated to create a substantial economic burden on society due to added use of the health care system by mother and child.⁷⁰ The cause of discontinuation could be fear of harm to the foetus or physicians' recommendations.⁷¹ Elevated teratogenic risk perception has been correlated with depressive symptomatology during pregnancy.⁷² In our study, 27 % of women discontinuing treatment during pregnancy resumed treatment within one year after delivery. This could indicate a low rate of relapse in our Danish cohort comprising antidepressant users without information on depression severity. On the other hand, only 1.3 % of treatment-naïve women commenced antidepressant treatment during the first year after delivery.

RISK OF CONGENITAL MALFORMATIONS II

We found an association between exposure to an SSRI during the first trimester and major congenital malformations. More specifically; congenital malformations of the heart (ventricular septal defects and atrial septal defects) and congenital malformations of the digestive system. Furthermore, we found an association between women with paused SSRI exposure during pregnancy and congenital malformations of the heart. Based on findings described in the published literature we will centre the following discussion on major congenital malformations and congenital malformations of the heart for pregnancies exposed to SSRIs. Our study's results are in accordance with two earlier Danish studies^{27, 73} based on cohorts comprising only part of the entire nation. A third Danish nation-wide study by Pedersen et al found an increased estimate for major congenital malformations and congenital malformations of the heart, though not statistically significant, in the studied period 1996-2004.²⁴ The number of exposed women in their study was 1 370, compared to ours 4 183. Their study had therefore less power, which could explain

why our estimates reached statistical significance. The study concluded that there is a class effect of SSRIs on heart defects. Several studies have not found an association between exposure to any SSRI and major malformations overall.^{18, 20, 23, 25, 29-39} We find that some of these studies are not comparable to ours because most of them are case-control studies, and with cohorts much smaller than ours.^{20, 29-36, 38} Five of the studies are though similar to ours; based on nation-wide cohorts and national registers, and cohort-sizes comparable to ours. Four are based on Swedish data and are successive updates^{23, 25, 37, 38}, and one on Finnish data.¹⁸

The latest update of Swedish data found an increased risk of cardiovascular congenital malformations for pregnancies exposed to paroxetine, but not for the remaining individual SSRIs, or SSRI as a group.²⁵ Information on SSRI exposure was partly based on antenatal interviews which could give rise to recall bias. Furthermore, their analyses were adjusted for BMI. Adjusting our multivariate analysis for BMI had little effect on the estimates. The Finnish study found an increased risk of ventricular septal defects for pregnancies exposed to fluoxetine, but not for the remaining individual SSRIs, or SSRI as a group.¹⁸ The study is completely based on national registers, like our study. Exposure was though defined as redemption of at least one prescription between one month before pregnancy and the end of the first trimester. This could underestimate the number of exposed women if prescriptions for an SSRI were redeemed just before and after this chosen period. This could indicate continuous exposure during the first trimester and bias estimates towards unity, and, in theory, explain the lack of association with major congenital malformations, and specifically atrial septal defects.

None of the above mentioned studies assessed the risk of congenital malformations for women with paused exposure during pregnancy and thereby addressing the possibility of confounding by indication. Furthermore, neither the Swedish nor the Finnish studies adjusted their analyses for socioeconomic factors which in our study are unevenly distributed between our exposed and unexposed population. However, additional adjusted analyses not including socioeconomic factors yielded estimates and confidence intervals that did not differ from our fully adjusted analysis (data not shown). Importantly, we believe there are sociodemographic differences between the populations included in these Scandinavian studies compared to ours. Although Denmark resembles both Sweden and Finland, differences in culture and health care policies could account for the discrepancies in our results. Discrepancies between published studies could also be due to the low number of cases, where each case can have a significant effect on the estimate.

Congenital malformations of the heart have been associated with exposure to SSRIs in some studies^{17-19, 22-25, 34, 38, 73}, in contrast to studies not identifying this association.^{16, 20, 26, 33} Our analyses showed an increased risk of congenital heart defects for the individual SSRIs. Risks of atrial septal defects were furthermore associated with exposure to all individual SSRIs, except for escitalopram. The lack of statistical significance with escitalopram exposure could be due to low statistical power. We found the same increased risks for heart defects for those with paused exposure during pregnancy, which strengthens the assumption of confounding by indication.

Although statistically significant, the increased risks associated with SSRI exposure are small in absolute terms. For example, the populations' background risk of atrial septal defects is 0.30 %, and even if we estimate a two-fold risk increase associated with exposure to any SSRI the risk of giving birth to a child with this congenital

ital malformation would be approximately 6 cases for every 1000 births.

To account for a possible overestimation of exposure periods we performed additional analyses defining exposure as redemption of two SSRI prescriptions during pregnancy. The results of these analyses, which are not presented, yielded the same statistically significant association as our primary analyses. Furthermore, we cannot rule out that women defined as pausing their treatment three months before conception were misclassified and had treatment periods reaching into pregnancy. We addressed this issue by increasing the wash-out period before pregnancy and estimating risks for women pausing treatment six and nine months before conception. The results showed similar estimates as for women pausing exposure three months before pregnancy. ⁱⁱ

RISK OF STILLBIRTH AND NEONATAL MORTALITY ⁱⁱⁱ

We found no association between exposure to an SSRI during the three trimesters and stillbirth and neonatal mortality.

Our findings are in accordance with those of a previous study from Sweden of a cohort of 860 215 pregnancies, which reported, as a secondary finding, no increased rates of intrauterine or infant mortality among women redeeming an SSRI prescription during pregnancy. ³⁹ Several other studies have reported no increased risk of perinatal mortality, but these considered substantially fewer exposed pregnancies. ^{19, 29, 30, 33, 74, 75}

A case-control study by Wen *et al.* found an increased risk of fetal death (OR=2.23, 95 % CI=1.01-4.93), and infant death (OR=1.96, 95 % CI=0.97-3.94), in a small study of 972 women who redeemed an SSRI prescription in the year before delivery. ³⁶ It is of note that the confidence limits of this latter study almost encompassed a value of neutrality. In contrast to the study by Wen *et al.*, we used a large nationwide cohort including all births and all redeemed prescription in the study period. Furthermore, the adjustment variables used by Wen *et al.* are not comparable to ours. In our study, inclusion of covariates had a major impact on the results. ⁱⁱⁱ

A recent publication by Stephansson *et al* analyzed the risk of stillbirth and infant mortality in a cohort including all Nordic countries. ⁴¹ Their cohort comprised over 1.6 million pregnancies and was based on nation-wide register data. In comparison to our analyses, they included comorbidity (psychiatric disease, diabetes and hypertension) in their adjusted models, and we included socioeconomic factors (income and education). In spite of these methodological differences the results and conclusions are the same as ours; there is no increased risk of stillbirth or neonatal mortality for SSRI exposed. They do not present adjusted analyses for the individual SSRIs.

No previous study has examined the risk of stillbirth or neonatal mortality stratified for exposure to different SSRIs and trimesters. Although SSRIs have the same primary effect and act on the same 5HT-receptor, their mechanisms of action are not equivalent in terms of pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics. ⁷⁶

Causes of perinatal mortality for SSRI exposed during specific trimesters could include birth defects (first trimester), ^{23, 24, 39} intrauterine growth restriction (second trimester), ^{77, 78} and persistent pulmonary hypertension and serotonin withdrawal symptoms (third trimester). ^{39, 79} We identified no elevated risk for offspring exposed to an SSRI during the individual trimesters.

On the other hand, we found an association between third-trimester exposure to citalopram and neonatal mortality. We cannot rule out that this might be a chance finding or be due to confounding by indication. Upon correcting our results for multiple testing, using the Bonferroni method, the association ceases

to be statistically significant ($p=0.08$). Furthermore, we did not find this association for the remaining SSRIs, which further suggests that this is a chance finding if SSRIs' pharmacodynamics are comparable.

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

We had no information on compliance or the women's intention of commencing a treatment shortly after redemption of an antidepressant. This could lead to an overestimation of treatment periods. However, a Dutch study estimated that the majority of pregnant women redeeming a prescription take their medication. ⁸⁰ A small Danish study estimated that compliance in Denmark is 80 % for antidepressant treatment during pregnancy. ⁸¹ We did not have information on women discontinuing their treatment to commence treatment with herbal medications against depression (e.g. St John's Wort). A possible overestimation of treatment periods could bias our estimates towards unity and mask a possible association. However, exposure to antidepressants is based on information on prescriptions redeemed and paid for at the pharmacy, which thereby increases the probability of exposure. Information is recorded prospectively and not based on questionnaires or interviews, which eliminates recall bias. Data gathered from the registries include information on drug-names and quantities redeemed. This information is difficult to obtain through questionnaires or interviews of women who have to remember use of medications over a long period of time. ⁸²⁻⁸⁵

We had access to important covariates but it cannot be excluded that unaccounted confounders explain the results. Our study could furthermore be affected by a possible detection bias. Pregnant women exposed to SSRIs are reported to have increased rates of observed malformations, due to increased rates of ultrasound examinations compared to women not treated with SSRIs. ⁸⁶ This study was performed in Canada, and it may not be applicable to Danish women. However, if this assumption is correct, our results might reflect the consequence of closer monitoring of women in treatment, which may overshadow a possible negative effect of the SSRIs. In contrast, detection of a malformation during an ultrasound examination could lead to pregnancy termination, and thereby decreased rates of malformations among the SSRI exposed. On the other hand, infants of women redeeming prescriptions for SSRIs undergo, in the first year of life, approximately twice as many echocardiograms compared with infants of unexposed women. ⁸⁶ More frequent echocardiograms could increase the risk of heart defect detection and give rise to information bias (diagnostic suspicion bias). This bias could partly explain our findings. However, more frequent echocardiograms could indicate a more severe symptomatology among the exposed children due to an unaccounted factor.

Importantly, information on drug use for women experiencing a spontaneous or provoked abortion was not included in our analyses, and exposure rates during pregnancy could differ from those reported in our study. If pregnant women exposed to an antidepressant had a higher rate of provoked abortions due to severe malformations it could mask a possible teratogenic effect of the drugs.

The main strength of our studies is the completeness of the registries, including nearly all births in Denmark and the mothers' drug redemptions in the study period. The national Danish registers cover the entire nation and are considered valid. As part of the national health care reimbursement scheme, Danish pharmacies are required by law to register all redeemed prescriptions. Approximately 97.5 % of all redeemed prescriptions are noted in the

The Danish National Prescription Register.⁸⁷ The Danish Fertility Database contains records of more than 99 % of all births in the study period.⁸⁸ Thus, our study includes nearly all women giving birth in Denmark between 1995 and 2010. This minimizes confounding due to race, educational level, and other socioeconomic factors.

We were not able to fully adjust for potential confounding by indication due to the absence of data on treatment indication. Other potential confounders not included in our databases were the degree of depression, alcohol intake and cause of death for stillbirths.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to address a possible confounding by indication by assessing risks of congenital malformations associated with paused exposure to SSRIs during pregnancy. The congenital malformation diagnoses derived from the Danish National Patient Register have been validated and their quality found acceptable for epidemiological research.⁸⁹

7. CONCLUSIONS

PREVALENCE OF EXPOSURE

Although the overall prevalence of antidepressant use through the last 13 years has increased, half of all pregnant women discontinued their use during pregnancy, probably due to uncertainty of the safety of antidepressants. However, this tendency has changed over time and in 2009 only one out of every eight women discontinued treatment. Based on these findings it seems important for women of childbearing age and physicians to have information of high standards to help them in treatment decisions during pregnancy.

RISK OF CONGENITAL MALFORMATIONS

Our study shows with high confidence a relation between exposure to an SSRI during the first trimester and risk of congenital malformations of the heart. In addition, we found a nearly identical risk for women who used an SSRI before and after pregnancy but discontinued use during pregnancy. We find both associations strong enough to conclude that risks related to SSRI use during the first trimester are a result of an unaccounted confounder associated to the redemption of an SSRI prescription. This was sustained by the lack of relation between dose and risk. A possible explanation could be information bias, because children of women redeeming an SSRI are more likely to undergo an echocardiogram during the first year of life. However, based on our study's design we cannot rule out an actual causal relation between redemption of an SSRI and congenital malformations. We found no relation with non-SSRI antidepressants, which may indicate a particular risk with SSRIs, but which may also be explained by lack of power.

We therefore conclude that the apparent association between SSRI use and congenital malformations of the heart may be confounded by indications. The moderate absolute risk increase combined with uncertainty for causality still requires the risk versus benefit to be evaluated in each individual case.

RISK OF STILLBIRTH AND NEONATAL MORTALITY

Our analyses show no association between exposure to SSRIs during pregnancy and stillbirth or neonatal mortality, apart from a statistically significant association between third-trimester exposure to citalopram and neonatal mortality. We believe this may be a chance finding arising from multiple testing or a result of confounding by indication. This finding needs to be verified in an independent cohort.

8. PERSPECTIVES

Ever since N. M. Gregg demonstrated that rubella caused congenital cataract in 1941 it has been known that agents circulating in the mother's bloodstream could cross placenta and cause foetal harm.⁹⁰ This belief was strengthened in 1961 when W. G. McBride published a letter in *The Lancet* reporting a substantial risk of congenital malformations associated with intake of thalidomide during early pregnancy.⁹¹ The establishment of thalidomide's teratogenicity led to drugs being guilty until proven innocent if used during pregnancy. This has led to a variety of drugs being labelled as teratogenic (e.g. mycophenolate, isotretinoin and warfarin), but also to a substantial number of women being undertreated for serious illnesses during pregnancy.

It is challenging to prove causality between in utero exposure to a drug and foetal harm. Before a drug is introduced to the market, studies on teratogenicity have been performed on at least two mammalian species, but results can seldom be directly translated to pregnant women. Randomised controlled trials are not performed on pregnant women, and we are left with epidemiological cohort studies as the best alternative. In order to assess risks of rare outcomes, such as stillbirth or atrial septal defects, very large cohorts are needed which, for practical reasons, excludes randomised controlled trials. The ability to conduct large cohort studies has improved considerably through the past two decades with the development of prescription drug, birth and patient registries. Denmark is in the pinnacle of pharmacoepidemiological research due to their nation-wide registers. The size of the cohorts in these registries enables analyses of rare outcomes, such as specific heart defects, stillbirths or neonatal deaths which we analysed in the present study.

Our overall conclusion is that antidepressants are not associated with increased risks of serious outcomes. However, due to the observational design of our study we cannot rule out a possible causal relation.

The main question still remains though; should pregnant women be treated with antidepressants? The answer is that treatment has to be based on an individual assessment of each woman analysing possible risks versus possible benefit. Due to beliefs of antidepressants being guilty of negative fetal outcomes, a considerable number of pregnant women have discontinued treatment of much-needed antidepressants resulting in increased risks of worsening of symptoms and hospitalization. We believe that the present study brings us one step closer to a verdict of not guilty for the SSRIs. Based on our findings, reports have recently emerged suggesting that SSRIs should be acquitted from being major teratogenic agents.^{92, 93}

Further studies are needed to completely dismiss SSRIs, and other antidepressants, from causing fetal harm. The importance of such studies is enhanced by the increasing exposure to antidepressants seen in our Danish study and believed to be even more prominent in other countries, such as the USA. It is crucial for physicians and women of childbearing age to have the best possible information to help them in treatment decisions during pregnancy.

9. SUMMARY

Pharmacological treatment during pregnancy has been a huge challenge since the establishment of thalidomide's teratogenicity in the early sixties. Analyses of possible risks associated with drug intake during pregnancy are not possible by performing randomized trials, and interspecies extrapolation is challenging. The best available method is through epidemiological studies.

Key messages

- 16-fold increase in the use of antidepressants between 1997 and 2010. Half of all pregnant women discontinue treatment during pregnancy.
- No increased risk of congenital malformations of the heart for children exposed to an SSRI during the first trimester.
- No increased risk of stillbirth or neonatal mortality for children exposed to an SSRI *in utero*.

During the past decade use of antidepressants during pregnancy has been associated with negative birth outcomes, such as congenital malformations. In spite of a considerable number of studies on the subject, the data are still conflicting. The main challenge is how to discern between the effects of the drug and the effect of the depression itself.

We approached this dire problem conducting a nation-wide register based study analyzing the relation between use of antidepressants during pregnancy and the risk of congenital malformations and perinatal mortality. We performed our analysis with focus on women pausing treatment before pregnancy to account for special characteristics associated with women redeeming a prescription for an antidepressant. Furthermore, we report prevalences of antidepressant use, in Denmark, in relation to pregnancy and over time, between 1997 and 2010.

We found that use of antidepressants during pregnancy has increased from 0.2 % in 1997 to 3.2 % in 2010. This considerable increase is mostly due to exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). In addition, at the time of pregnancy recognition we saw a halving in prevalence of antidepressant exposure and a steep increase after delivery.

Our analyses showed an association between being in treatment with an SSRI and congenital malformations. However, this increased risk was also found for women pausing treatment before pregnancy. We conclude that the apparent risk associated with use of SSRIs during pregnancy is not related to the drug exposure, but to unknown characteristics associated with mothers redeeming a prescription for an antidepressant. We found no increased risk of stillbirths or neonatal mortality among offspring exposed *in utero* to an antidepressant in any of the three trimesters.

The overall conclusion is that antidepressants are not associated with increased risks of congenital malformations and perinatal mortality. However, we cannot rule out a possible causal relation, and treatment must therefore be based on an individual assessment of each woman analysing possible risks versus possible benefit.

10. LITERATURE

- I. Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Andersen NL, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. (2013) Prevalence of antidepressant use during pregnancy in Denmark, a nation-wide cohort study. *PLoS ONE* 8(4): e63034. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0063034
- II. Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Jensen JK, Afzal S, Gislason GH, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. Exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and the risk of congenital malformations: a nationwide cohort study. *BMJ Open* 2012;2:e001148. doi:10.1136
- III. Jimenez-Solem E, Andersen JT, Petersen M, Broedbaek K, Lander AR, Afzal S, Torp-Pedersen C, Poulsen HE. SSRI Use During Pregnancy and Risk of Stillbirth and Neonatal Mortality. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2013 Jan 30. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2012.11081251
1. Grigoriadis S, Robinson GE. Gender issues in depression. *Ann Clin Psychiatry* 2007;19(4):247-255.
2. Kessler RC, Berglund P, Demler O et al. The epidemiology of major depressive disorder - Results from the National Comorbidity Survey Replication (NCS-R). *Jama-Journal of the American Medical Association* 2003;289(23):3095-3105.
3. Bennett HA, Einarson A, Taddio A, Koren G, Einarson TR. Prevalence of depression during pregnancy: systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol* 2004;103(4):698-709.
4. Chatillon O, Even C. [Antepartum depression: Prevalence, diagnosis and treatment.]. *Encephale* 2010;36(6):443-451.
5. Bonari L, Pinto N, Ahn E, Einarson A, Steiner M, Koren G. Perinatal risks of untreated depression during pregnancy. *Can J Psychiatry* 2004;49(11):726-735.
6. Talati A, Wickramaratne PJ, Pilowsky DJ et al. Remission of maternal depression and child symptoms among single mothers: a STAR*D-Child report. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol* 2007;42(12):962-971.
7. Weissman MM, Wickramaratne P, Nomura Y, Warner V, Pilowsky D, Verdeli H. Offspring of depressed parents: 20 years later. *Am J Psychiatry* 2006;163(6):1001-1008.
8. Chung TKH, Lau TK, Yip ASK, Chiu HFK, Lee DTS. Antepartum Depressive Symptomatology Is Associated With Adverse Obstetric and Neonatal Outcomes. *Psychosom Med* 2001;63(5):830-834.
9. Beck CT, Records K, Rice M. Further development of the Postpartum Depression Predictors Inventory-Revised. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs* 2006;35(6):735-745.
10. Ververs T, Kaasenbrood H, Visser G, Schobben F, de Jong-van den Berg, Egberts T. Prevalence and patterns of antidepressant drug use during pregnancy. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2006;62(10):863-870.
11. Cooper WO, Willy ME, Pont SJ, Ray WA. Increasing use of antidepressants in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2007;196(6):544-545.
12. Andrade SE, Raebel MA, Brown J et al. Use of antidepressant medications during pregnancy: a multisite study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2008;198(2):194-195.
13. Alwan S, Reefhuis J, Rasmussen SA, Friedman JM, Prevention Study TNBD. Patterns of Antidepressant Medication Use Among Pregnant Women in a United States Population. *J Clin Pharmacol* 2010;0091270010373928.
14. Bakker MK, Kolling P, van den Berg PB, de Walle HE, de Jong van den Berg LT. Increase in use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in pregnancy during the last decade, a population-based cohort study from the Netherlands. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2008;65(4):600-606.
15. Wichman CL, Fothergill A, Moore KM, Lang TR, Heise RH, Jr., Watson WJ. Recent trends in selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor use in pregnancy. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2008;28(6):714-716.
16. Alwan S, Reefhuis J, Rasmussen SA, Olney RS, Friedman JM. Use of selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors in pregnancy and the risk of birth defects. *N Engl J Med* 2007;356(26):2684-2692.
17. Louik C, Lin AE, Werler MM, Hernandez-Diaz S, Mitchell AA. First-trimester use of selective serotonin-reuptake

- inhibitors and the risk of birth defects. *N Engl J Med* 2007;356(26):2675-2683.
18. Malm H, Artama M, Gissler M, Ritvanen A. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and risk for major congenital anomalies. *Obstet Gynecol* 2011;118(1):111-120.
 19. Bakker MK, Kerstjens-Frederikse WS, Buys CH, de Walle HE, de Jong-van den Berg LT. First-trimester use of paroxetine and congenital heart defects: a population-based case-control study. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 2010;88(2):94-100.
 20. Berard A, Ramos E, Rey E, Blais L, St-Andre M, Oraichi D. First trimester exposure to paroxetine and risk of cardiac malformations in infants: the importance of dosage. *Birth Defects Res B Dev Reprod Toxicol* 2007;80(1):18-27.
 21. Cole JA, Ephross SA, Cosmatos IS, Walker AM. Paroxetine in the first trimester and the prevalence of congenital malformations. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2007;16(10):1075-1085.
 22. Diav-Citrin O, Shechtman S, Weinbaum D et al. Paroxetine and fluoxetine in pregnancy: a prospective, multicentre, controlled, observational study. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2008;66(5):695-705.
 23. Kallen BA, Otterblad OP. Maternal use of selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors in early pregnancy and infant congenital malformations. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 2007;79(4):301-308.
 24. Pedersen LH, Henriksen TB, Vestergaard M, Olsen J, Bech BH. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in pregnancy and congenital malformations: population based cohort study. *BMJ* 2009;339:b3569.
 25. Reis M, Kallen B. Delivery outcome after maternal use of antidepressant drugs in pregnancy: an update using Swedish data. *Psychol Med* 2010;1-11.
 26. Wichman CL, Moore KM, Lang TR, Sauver JLS, Heise RH, Watson WJ. Congenital Heart Disease Associated With Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor Use During Pregnancy. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings* 2009;84(1):23-27.
 27. Wogelius P, Norgaard M, Gislum M et al. Maternal use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and risk of congenital malformations. *Epidemiology* 2006;17(6):701-704.
 28. Wurst KE, Poole C, Ephross SA, Olshan AF. First trimester paroxetine use and the prevalence of congenital, specifically cardiac, defects: a meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* 2010;88(3):159-170.
 29. Malm H, Klaukka T, Neuvonen PJ. Risks associated with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005;106(6):1289-1296.
 30. Kulin NA, Pastuszak A, Sage SR et al. Pregnancy outcome following maternal use of the new selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors: a prospective controlled multicenter study. *JAMA* 1998;279(8):609-610.
 31. Ramos E, St-Andre M, Rey E, Oraichi D, Berard A. Duration of antidepressant use during pregnancy and risk of major congenital malformations. *The British Journal of Psychiatry* 2008;192(5):344-350.
 32. Einarson A, Choi J, Einarson TR, Koren G. Incidence of major malformations in infants following antidepressant exposure in pregnancy: results of a large prospective cohort study. *Can J Psychiatry* 2009;54(4):242-246.
 33. Davis RL, Rubanowice D, McPhillips H et al. Risks of congenital malformations and perinatal events among infants exposed to antidepressant medications during pregnancy. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2007;16(10):1086-1094.
 34. Oberlander TF, Warburton W, Misri S, Riggs W, Aghajanian J, Hertzman C. Major congenital malformations following prenatal exposure to serotonin reuptake inhibitors and benzodiazepines using population-based health data. *Birth Defects Res B Dev Reprod Toxicol* 2008;83(1):68-76.
 35. Simon GE, Cunningham ML, Davis RL. Outcomes of Prenatal Antidepressant Exposure. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002;159(12):2055-2061.
 36. Wen SW, Yang Q, Garner P et al. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2006;194(4):961-966.
 37. Ericson A, Kallen B, Wiholm B. Delivery outcome after the use of antidepressants in early pregnancy. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1999;55(7):503-508.
 38. Kallen B, Otterblad Olausson P. Antidepressant drugs during pregnancy and infant congenital heart defect. *Reproductive Toxicology* 2006;21(3):221-222.
 39. Lennestål RM, Kallen BM. Delivery Outcome in Relation to Maternal Use of Some Recently Introduced Antidepressants. [Article]. *Journal of Clinical Psychopharmacology* 2007;27(6):607-613.
 40. Kieler H, Artama M, Engeland A et al. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors during pregnancy and risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension in the newborn: population based cohort study from the five Nordic countries. *BMJ* 2012;344:d8012.
 41. Stephansson O, Kieler H, Haglund B et al. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors during pregnancy and risk of stillbirth and infant mortality. *JAMA* 2013;309(1):48-54.
 42. Udechuku A, Nguyen T, Hill R, Szego K. Antidepressants in pregnancy: a systematic review. *Aust N Z J Psychiatry* 2010;44(11):978-996.
 43. Danish Medicines Agency. Risk of death or serious side effects in newborns following exposure to antidepressants (fluoxetine and other SSRIs). [www.laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk](http://laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk) . 1-3-2011. <http://laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk/en/topics/side-effects-and-trials/side-effects/news/risk-of-death-or-serious-side-effects-in--ther-ssris>. (accessed Apr 2013).
 44. Danish Medicines Agency. Data on deaths or serious side effects in newborns from use of antidepressants (SSRIs). [www.laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk](http://laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk) . 14-3-2011. <http://laegemiddelstyrelsen.dk/en/topics/side-effects-and-trials/side-effects/news/data-on-deaths-or-serious-side-effects-i--ants-ssris>. (accessed Apr 2013).
 45. Nordeng H, Lindemann R, Perminov KV, Reikvam A. Neonatal withdrawal syndrome after in utero exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors. *Acta Paediatr* 2001;90(3):288-291.
 46. Pedersen CB, Gotzsche H, Moller JO, Mortensen PB. The Danish Civil Registration System. A cohort of eight million persons. *Dan Med Bull* 2006;53(4):441-449.
 47. Pedersen CB. The Danish Civil Registration System. *Scand J Public Health* 2011;39(7 Suppl):22-25.

48. Statistics Denmark (2008) Containing detailed statistical information on the Danish Society. <http://www.dst.dk/en> (accessed Apr 2013)
49. Knudsen LB, Olsen J. The Danish Medical Birth Registry. *Dan Med Bull* 1998;45(3):320-323.
50. Blenstrup LT, Knudsen LB. Danish registers on aspects of reproduction. *Scand J Public Health* 2011;39(7 Suppl):79-82.
51. Knudsen LB. [Information on parity in the medical registry of births of the National Board of Health. Validation with the help of a new fertility database in Danish Statistics]. *Ugeskr Laeger* 1993;155(33):2525-2529.
52. Knudsen LB. The Danish Fertility Database. *Dan Med Bull* 1998;45(2):221-225.
53. Andersen TF, Madsen M, Jorgensen J, Mellemkjoer L, Olsen JH. The Danish National Hospital Register. A valuable source of data for modern health sciences. *Dan Med Bull* 1999;46(3):263-268.
54. Kildemoes HW, Sorensen HT, Hallas J. The Danish National Prescription Registry. *Scand J Public Health* 2011;39(7 Suppl):38-41.
55. Gaist D, Sorensen HT, Hallas J. The Danish prescription registries. *Dan Med Bull* 1997;44(4):445-448.
56. Madsen HK, Hallas J. [Danish drug consumption trends]. *Ugeskr Laeger* 2009;171(10):775-777.
57. Statens Serum Institut. MEDSTAT.DK. <http://medstat.dk/en>. 2013. (accessed Apr 2013)
58. Cooper WO, Willy ME, Pont SJ, Ray WA. Increasing use of antidepressants in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2007;196(6):544-545.
59. Petersen I, Gilbert RE, Evans SJ, Man SL, Nazareth I. Pregnancy as a major determinant for discontinuation of antidepressants: an analysis of data from The Health Improvement Network. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2011.
60. FDA (2009) FDA Advising of Risk of Birth Defects with Paxil. <http://www.fda.gov/NewsEvents/Newsroom/PressAnnouncements/2005/ucm108527.htm> (accessed Apr 2013).
61. Schatzberg AF. New indications for antidepressants. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000;61 Suppl 11:9-17.
62. Goodman JH. Women's attitudes, preferences, and perceived barriers to treatment for perinatal depression. *Birth* 2009;36(1):60-69.
63. De las CC, Sanz E. Do therapeutic indications of antidepressants change from one year to another? *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2004;13(5):309-314.
64. Munk-Olsen T GCLTM. Prevalence of antidepressant use and contacts with psychiatrists and psychologists in pregnant and postpartum women. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 2012.
65. Ramos E, Oraichi D, Rey E, Blais L, Berard A. Prevalence and predictors of antidepressant use in a cohort of pregnant women. *BJOG* 2007;114(9):1055-1064.
66. Reefhuis J, Rasmussen SA, Friedman JM. Selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors and persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn. *N Engl J Med* 2006;354(20):2188-2190.
67. Danish Society of Obstetrics and Gynaecology. [Behandling med serotoninoptagshæmmere i graviditeten og under amningen] DANISH. www.dsog.dk. (accessed Apr 2013)
68. Cohen LS, Nonacs RM, Bailey JW et al. Relapse of depression during pregnancy following antidepressant discontinuation: a preliminary prospective study. *Arch Womens Ment Health* 2004;7(4):217-221.
69. Cohen LS, Altshuler LL, Harlow BL et al. Relapse of major depression during pregnancy in women who maintain or discontinue antidepressant treatment. *JAMA* 2006;295(5):499-507.
70. O'Brien L, Laporte A, Koren G. Estimating the economic costs of antidepressant discontinuation during pregnancy. *Can J Psychiatry* 2009;54(6):399-408.
71. Einarson A, Selby P, Koren G. Abrupt discontinuation of psychotropic drugs during pregnancy: fear of teratogenic risk and impact of counselling. *J Psychiatry Neurosci* 2001;26(1):44-48.
72. Walfisch A. Maternal depression and perception of teratogenicity. *J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol* 2012;19(3):e376-e379.
73. Kornum JB, Nielsen RB, Pedersen L, Mortensen PB, Norgaard M. Use of selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors during early pregnancy and risk of congenital malformations: updated analysis. *Clin Epidemiol* 2010;2:29-36.
74. Goldstein DJ, Corbin LA, Sundell KL. Effects of first-trimester fluoxetine exposure on the newborn. *Obstet Gynecol* 1997;89(5 Pt 1):713-718.
75. Sivojelezova A, Shuhaiber S, Sarkissian L, Einarson A, Koren G. Citalopram use in pregnancy: Prospective comparative evaluation of pregnancy and fetal outcome. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;193(6):2004-2009.
76. Richelson E. Synaptic effects of antidepressants. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1996;16(3 Suppl 2):1S-7S.
77. Suri R, Altshuler L, Hellemann G, Burt VK, Aquino A, Mintz J. Effects of antenatal depression and antidepressant treatment on gestational age at birth and risk of preterm birth. *Am J Psychiatry* 2007;164(8):1206-1213.
78. Wisner KL, Sit DK, Hanusa BH et al. Major depression and antidepressant treatment: impact on pregnancy and neonatal outcomes. *Am J Psychiatry* 2009;166(5):557-566.
79. Kallen B, Olausson PO. Maternal use of selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitors and persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2008;17(8):801-806.
80. de Jong van den Berg LT, Feenstra N, Sorensen HT, Cornel MC. Improvement of drug exposure data in a registration of congenital anomalies. Pilot-study: pharmacist and mother as sources for drug exposure data during pregnancy. EuroMAP Group. *European Medicine and Pregnancy Group. Teratology* 1999;60(1):33-36.
81. Olesen C, Sondergaard C, Thrane N, Nielsen GL, de Jong van den Berg, Olsen J. Do pregnant women report use of dispensed medications? *Epidemiology* 2001;12(5):497-501.
82. Paganini-Hill A, Ross RK. Reliability of recall of drug usage and other health-related information. *Am J Epidemiol* 1982;116(1):114-122.
83. Tilley BC, Barnes AB, Bergstralh E et al. A comparison of pregnancy history recall and medical records.

- Implications for retrospective studies. *Am J Epidemiol* 1985;121(2):269-281.
84. Van den Brandt PA, Petri H, Dorant E, Goldbohm RA, Van de Crommert S. Comparison of questionnaire information and pharmacy data on drug use. *Pharm Weekbl Sci* 1991;13(2):91-96.
 85. West SL, Savitz DA, Koch G, Strom BL, Guess HA, Hartzema A. Recall accuracy for prescription medications: self-report compared with database information. *Am J Epidemiol* 1995;142(10):1103-1112.
 86. Bar-Oz B, Einarson T, Einarson A et al. Paroxetine and congenital malformations: meta-Analysis and consideration of potential confounding factors. *Clin Ther* 2007;29(5):918-926.
 87. Sorensen HT, Hansen I, Ejlersen E, Sabroe S, Hamburger H. Identification of patients treated with strong analgesics: an assessment of two Danish information systems with respect to epidemiological research. *J Med Syst* 1996;20(1):57-65.
 88. Knudsen LB. The Danish Fertility Database. *Dan Med Bull* 1998;45(2):221-225.
 89. Larsen H, Nielsen GL, Bendtsen J, Flint C, Olsen J, Sorensen HT. Predictive value and completeness of the registration of congenital abnormalities in three Danish population-based registries. *Scand J Public Health* 2003;31(1):12-16.
 90. Gregg NM. Congenital cataract following German measles in the mother. 1941. *Aust N Z J Ophthalmol* 1991;19(4):267-276.
 91. McBride WG. Thalidomide and congenital abnormalities. *The Lancet* 1961;(ii):1358.
 92. Koren G. Depression in pregnancy: time to stop terrifying pregnant women. *J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol* 2012;19(3):e369-e370.
 93. Koren G, Nordeng HM. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and malformations: case closed? *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med* 2013;18(1):19-22.