What challenges do clinicians face when prescribing psychotropic medication in pregnancy?

Perinatal Psychiatry Essay 2013

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Word count: 2924
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Introduction

Mental disorder in pregnancy is a significant public health challenge. Data from the 2000-2002 Confidential Enquiries into Maternal Deaths found that suicide was the leading cause of maternal deaths(1) and, while the data for 2006-2008 shows this is no longer the case, suicide remains one of the major causes of maternal death(2). Depression and anxiety are particularly prevalent in pregnancy(3,4).

Mental disorders may be treated with psychotropic medications such as anti-depressants, mood stabilisers and antipsychotics which have a myriad of possible adverse effects in pregnancy including preterm birth, birth defects and poor neonatal adaptation. Risks due to the mental disorder itself can be as worrying as or more worrying than the risks of the medications for example, preterm birth, pre-eclampsia and heavy use of alcohol(5-7). The clinician must balance the risks of the specific individual’s illness with the risks of taking the relevant medication. Three scenarios based on real patients are shown in Table 1 to illustrate the potential issues.

| Case 1: Maria | Maria is a 19 year old lady admitted to a mental health unit and found to be 19 weeks pregnant. This is thought to be an episode of acute and transient psychosis. She has no previous psychiatric history. She does not currently have capacity to make a decision about treatment. Should she be started on medication? |
| Case 2: Sarah | Sarah is a 39 year old with a diagnosis of bipolar affective disorder. She is on lithium and olanzapine. When manic she binge drinks but she rarely drinks otherwise. She is planning to get pregnant. Should the medication be continued? |
| Case 3: Alice | Alice is a 23 year old with a history of depression, self-harm and impulsive behaviour. She has been on paroxetine for a year but has just found out she is 10 weeks pregnant. Should the paroxetine be stopped? |
Effects of mental health disorders in pregnancy

Depression, bipolar disorder, affective psychosis and schizophrenia are all associated with low birth weight and preterm birth(7-10). The most commonly occurring mental disorders in pregnancy, depression and anxiety, are associated with poor obstetric, foetal and neonatal outcomes(11). Furthermore, prenatal depression is a risk factor for post-partum depression(12). Maternal depression may have a significant impact on the behaviour and development of the infant(13). Table 2 describes many possible links between features of mental disorders and harm to mother and baby.

Table 2. Features of mental disorders which may have adverse effects in pregnancy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Possible adverse consequences</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biological</td>
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<tr>
<td>Malnourishment</td>
<td>Low birth weight</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of sleep</td>
<td>Preterm birth, difficult labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>Pre-eclampsia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Suicidal ideation</td>
<td>Suicide</td>
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<tr>
<td>Obsessive thoughts</td>
<td>Infanticide</td>
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<tr>
<td>Low mood</td>
<td>Postpartum depression, poor maternal attachment to infant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delusions e.g. denial of pregnancy</td>
<td>Inadequate weight gain, no recognition of signs of labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-compliance with medication e.g. folic acid</td>
<td>Neural tube defects</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-attendance to appointments</td>
<td>Late detection of complications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illicit drug use e.g. cocaine, cannabis</td>
<td>Birth defects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol use</td>
<td>Foetal alcohol syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of inhibitions e.g. unprotected sex</td>
<td>Congenital infections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antisocial behaviour</td>
<td>Social isolation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>Financial difficulties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking</td>
<td>Preterm birth, low birth weight, obstetric complications</td>
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</table>
These risks are a compelling argument for treating mental disorders in pregnancy but there is evidence that psychotropic medications are not always effective at reducing these risks. Antidepressants may prevent relapse of major depression(14) or they may not(15) and they may increase or decrease the risk of pre-eclampsia in depression in pregnancy(6,16). Similarly it is unclear whether mood stabilisers for bipolar disorder or antipsychotics for schizophrenia improve outcomes in pregnancy(17,18).

Safety of psychotropic medications in pregnancy

Prescription of psychotropic medications in pregnancy is a highly emotive topic, particularly because of the risk of birth defects. Many perceive psychotropic medications to be highly teratogenic. Over 80% of women rated as “very important” the following three concerns about use of psychopharmacological medication in pregnancy: harm to the foetus, infant development and long-term effect on the child(20).

Antidepressants

Antidepressants are commonly prescribed in pregnancy(21) and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) are the most commonly used. Many women stop taking their antidepressants before or after they get pregnant; recently a large cohort study found that 75% of women who filled antidepressant prescriptions before pregnancy discontinued use before or during the first trimester(22). Their perception of a high level of risk may not be accurate.

Birth defects are one of the most feared risks of antidepressant use in pregnancy but results of meta-analyses have been varied. One meta-analysis found an association between antidepressant use and cardiovascular malformations but no association with congenital malformations overall(23). Another meta-analysis synthesized data on individual SSRIs and found that fluoxetine and paroxetine are associated with increased risk of major malformations and paroxetine with cardiac malformations while sertraline and citalopram are not associated with congenital malformations(24). The risk of birth defects is thought to be highest with antidepressant use in the first trimester as the foetus is in a stage of early development. The background risk of birth defects has been stated to be 3 in 100 and paroxetine has been shown to raise the risk to 4 in 100(25). Paroxetine also increases the risk of heart defects from 1 in 100 to 2 in 100(25). Thus paroxetine is contraindicated in
pregnancy. According to National Institute of Clinical Excellence (NICE) guidelines, the risk with other antidepressants is lower than paroxetine and therefore they can be used in pregnancy with caution(26).

Maternal antidepressant use is strongly associated with increased risk of poor neonatal adaptation(27). This risk may be related to timing (that is, late in the pregnancy)(28) or duration of use(29). Poor neonatal adaptation is a transient condition that is usually mild. Its features include jitteriness, respiratory distress and seizures. It may be prevented by discontinuation of the medication prior to delivery but timing of delivery can be unpredictable, discontinuation is likely to result in relapse of the mental disorder and there is no evidence for its efficacy.

A large recent study found that use of SSRIs in late pregnancy increased the risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn from 1.2 in 1000 to 3 in 1000(30). While this was a statistically significant difference, one could argue that it is not a clinically significant increase in risk.

Other adverse effects of antidepressant use during pregnancy may include spontaneous abortion(31), postpartum haemorrhage(32), low birth weight(33), preterm birth(33,34), pulmonary diseases(35) and autistic spectrum disorder(36). Exposure to antidepressants in utero is not thought to affect child neurodevelopment(37).

Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) are generally considered safer than SSRIs; NICE guidelines state that TCAs have “lower known risks during pregnancy than other antidepressants”(26). Studies have not shown a risk of birth defects with use of TCAs in pregnancy but there is a risk of poor neonatal adaptation(38). Serotonin-noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors such as duloxetine do not appear to increase the risk of major malformations(39).

**Mood stabilisers**

Lithium is a first-line mood stabiliser for bipolar disorder. The risks of lithium include floppy infant syndrome and heart defects, particularly Ebstein’s anomaly(40). The risk of Ebstein’s anomaly is especially high when lithium is taken early in the first trimester(41). Anti-epileptics such as sodium valproate, carbamazepine and lamotrigine are often used as mood stabilisers second-line. There is a high risk of major congenital malformations with use of
these anti-epileptics during pregnancy(42). Sodium valproate has the highest rate of congenital malformations of the medications used for bipolar disorder, particularly neural tube defects(43). Sodium valproate is also associated developmental delay(43). Carbamezpine and lamotrigine have teratogenic effects, particularly on the nervous system, gastrointestinal tract and heart(26).

**Antipsychotics**

Antipsychotics in pregnancy do not appear to be associated with birth defects(44). On the other hand, antipsychotics such as olanzapine may increase the risk of gestational diabetes(17). Gestational diabetes is a serious condition associated with increased risk of pre-eclampsia, macrosomia (large for gestational age) and caesarean delivery(45). There is also an increased risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome in the mother(46). Risk factors for gestational diabetes and weight gain such as current weight, ethnicity and family history should be taken into account when prescribing olanzapine to a pregnant woman(26) such as Sarah (Table 1).

Clozapine should not be prescribed in pregnancy because of the risk of agranulocytosis in the foetus. Use of typical antipsychotics in pregnancy can result in extra-pyramidal side-effects in the neonate(47). Atypical antipsychotics do not appear to be associated with birth defects but may be associated with postnatal disorders such as jitteriness and seizures(48). Data is lacking on the safety of depot medications in pregnancy.

In some cases, more than one psychotropic medication may need to be prescribed. Evidence suggests that such combinations may be harmful(49). However, mono-therapy may be insufficient to adequately treat the mother.

**Discussion**

**Risk-benefit analysis**

A detailed risk-benefit analysis is required to determine whether psychotropic medication should be started or continued in pregnancy. Many factors may play a role in the clinician’s decision (Table 3). It is important to establish the biological, psychological and social impact of the mother’s illness to determine whether it would be safe not to treat with medication.
Table 2. The past, current and future circumstances of the mother and her family should also be taken into consideration.

Table 3. Factors to consider when prescribing psychotropic medications in pregnancy

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<th>Factor</th>
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<td>Suicidal intent</td>
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<td>Lack of capacity</td>
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<td>History of overdose</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of family support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of weeks gestation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strategies for dealing with stress</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frequency and severity of relapse</td>
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<tr>
<td>Family history of congenital disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of violent behaviour and aggression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Known substance misuse and alcohol abuse when not treated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal desire not to take any medications during pregnancy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Severe depressive episodes associated with previous pregnancies</td>
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The psychiatric interview, background and collateral history are invaluable in assessing risk. Patients with their first presentation to mental health services may be more challenging to assess such as Maria in Case 1 (Table 1). Without a previous psychiatric history, it is unclear how long Maria’s episode is likely to last and what the chances of relapse are. Family history and identification of triggers for this episode may shed light on the course of the illness. In Maria’s case, antipsychotic medication is likely to be warranted to treat her current psychotic episode in the hope that her mental state will improve and she will regain capacity to make a decision about her treatment.

Case 2 (Table 1) is another example where a complex risk assessment is required. It is important to know the nature of Sarah’s manic episodes, how frequently they occur, what triggers them, her functioning in between episodes and how she plans to cope during future episodes (particularly regarding use of alcohol). The risk of foetal alcohol syndrome is greater than the risks of the medication but if her manic episodes occur only once a year the alcohol intake is unlikely to cause harm. It is important to enquire further about the alcohol use and her current social circumstances. For example, Sarah may have had success with a
detoxification programme, been abstinent for 6 months with the support of a partner and having a child may be a protective factor for her. Under these circumstances, not using medication may be justifiable. Gauging the chances of relapse and the possible consequences is therefore an essential part of the clinician’s assessment.

Minimising risk

Given the potential risks of psychotropic medications in pregnancy, psychological therapies should first be considered. PROMISES is a randomised controlled trial currently underway in women with depression and/or anxiety. This trial will evaluate the effect of cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT) during pregnancy on emotional and behavioural problems in the child at 18 months compared with usual care(50). However, this trial does not look at obstetric or neonatal outcomes. Psychological therapies such as CBT could be a useful alternative for women on antidepressants who are planning pregnancy.

In case 3 (Table 1), Alice has already been on paroxetine for most of her first trimester. NICE guidelines recommend she be taken off paroxetine and another antidepressant started, perhaps a TCA(26). However, if Alice’s risk is deemed to be low perhaps she could gradually be taken off antidepressants altogether. Previous response to treatment can help guide the decision whether or not to continue using an antidepressant. Discontinuing the paroxetine should be accompanied by frequent monitoring of Alice’s mental state and a contingency plan in the event of relapse. Sudden discontinuation of paroxetine should be avoided to prevent relapse and withdrawal symptoms. Unfortunately stopping the paroxetine does not mean a congenital malformation will not occur and this must be carefully explained to Alice. NICE guidelines recommend avoiding use of psychotropic medications with known teratogenic risk, such as paroxetine and valproate, in women of child-bearing age so this type of event does not occur(26).

Another method of limiting possible harm of psychotropic medication is to start at the lowest dose and slowly increase it because some risks are dose-related(51). However, it is important to ensure the dose is sufficiently high at the end of titration as many women have been found to be treated sub-optimally(52). Avoidance of poly-therapy has also been recommended to reduce the risk of harm(26) but severity of the disorder may mean that multiple medications are required.
Communicating with the pregnant woman

It is helpful to first elicit the mother’s opinions and values. Naturally mothers value the safety of their unborn children highly and may believe that psychotropic medications are not safe to be taken during pregnancy (20). This perception may be reinforced by media coverage of research findings and lawsuits (19). These women may not be aware of the ways in which their illness may affect the foetus. In this situation, educating the mother is a priority including highlighting behaviours that could be harmful to the foetus such as smoking and drinking alcohol.

A good rapport is helpful when communicating the risk to the mother and explaining the advantages of taking the medication. Sometimes trust can break down between the mother and the clinician and other medical professionals such as pharmacists or nurses may act as providers of information. Provision of leaflets or other written material may also be helpful. One useful communication technique is to describe risk using natural frequencies rather than percentages and using a common denominator such as 100 (26).

Once fully informed of the risks of taking and not taking the medication the mother may still refuse the medication. In this event, the medical team must accept her decision not to take the medication even if they think this decision is unwise, unless there is reason to believe she does not have capacity. It may be necessary to use the Mental Capacity Act 2005 to assess capacity. A meeting with the family and medical professionals is likely to help determine best interests, for example in Maria’s case (Table 1).

Ethics

The clinician may face an ethical dilemma in making their decision. Clinicians have a duty not to harm and may believe that therefore, deliberately increasing risk to the foetus is morally wrong. However, practically the risk of the medication to the foetus cannot be considered in isolation. The effects of the disorder on the mother and the foetus must be considered at the same time as the risk of the medication. Guidelines take a more consequentialist approach, that is weighing up the risks and benefits to determine what would result in the best outcome overall.
Study design

Associations found in observational studies such as the link between SSRIs and PPHN may be the result of uncontrolled confounding factors. Only randomised controlled trials can reconcile the conflicting results about the type and level of risk of psychotropic medications in pregnancy and equip clinicians with information to guide decision-making. Some argue that it is not ethical to expose pregnant women to medications which may cause birth defects but a systematic review by Coverdale et al suggests that randomised controlled trials of antidepressants in pregnant women are ethically justified(53).

Conclusion

Mental health disorders are a significant cause of maternal morbidity and mortality and poor neonatal outcomes. NICE guidelines indicate that antidepressants can be used in pregnancy despite increases in risks of birth defects and poor neonatal adaptation. However paroxetine should be not be used in pregnancy as it significantly increases risk of birth defects, especially heart defects. TCAs are thought to be safer than SSRIs. If an SSRI must be used, sertraline or citalopram are preferred. Some mood stabilisers can be used in pregnancy but valproate should not be used due to the high risk of neural tube defects. Antipsychotics can be used in pregnancy although there is an increased risk of gestational diabetes. However clozapine should not be used in pregnancy due to the potential risk of agranulocytosis(26).

The weighing up of the relative risks of the mental disorder versus the risks of the medication in pregnancy is complex for two reasons. Firstly, many factors contribute to the assessment of the risk posed by the disorder itself including the nature of past episodes and likely future social circumstances. Secondly, there is a lack of data available about the safety of a variety of psychotropic medications during pregnancy and no randomised controlled trials. However, the available data support the use of numerous psychotropic medications in pregnancy.
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