

1 **Using administrative healthcare database records to study trends in prescribed medication**
2 **dispensed during pregnancy in Belgium from 2003 to 2017**

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18 Abstract

19

20 Purpose: The aim of this study was to describe trends in medication prescriptions dispensed during
21 pregnancy in Belgium using administrative healthcare database records from a representative
22 sample of the Belgian population.

23

24 Methods: Pregnant women were identified with reimbursement codes associated with the delivery
25 of a baby. Data were extracted for three study periods, each over 3 years: 2003–2005, 2009–2011,
26 and 2015–2017. The age-standardized prevalence of dispensed medications during pregnancy were
27 computed and logistic regression models were used to evaluate the trends in prevalence across the
28 study periods. The most frequently dispensed medications were listed for each study period.

29

30 Results: The study included 23 912 pregnancies. The age-standardized prevalence of pregnant
31 women with at least one dispensed medication increased across the three study periods from 81.8%
32 to 89.3%. The median number and interquartile range of the different medications dispensed during

33 pregnancy rose from 2 (1–6) to 3 (1–7) between the first and last study periods. In the 2015–2017
34 period, the most frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy included progesterone (25.5%),
35 paracetamol (17.8%), and amoxicillin (17.1%). The data also showed an increasing trend for the
36 dispensation of ibuprofen and ketorolac during pregnancy across the three study periods.

37

38 Conclusions: The prevalence of prescribed medications dispensed during pregnancy increased in
39 Belgium from 2003 to 2017 with high proportion for Progesterone and Antibiotics. Utilization of
40 certain nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) increased between 2003 and 2017, despite
41 recommendations to avoid them.

42 KEYWORDS

43 administrative healthcare database, medication, pharmacoepidemiology, pregnancy

44 Key Points

- 45 • The proportion of women for whom at least one prescribed medication was dispensed
46 increased across the three study periods.
- 47 • The prescription of progesterone dispensed to the women included in our study was very
48 high, and potential overuse should be evaluated.
- 49 • The use of recommended vaccines during pregnancy increased drastically between 2003
50 and 2017.
- 51 • The use of ibuprofen and ketorolac during pregnancy increased between 2003 and 2017.
- 52 • The permanent sample database can be used to follow up medication prescriptions to pregnant
53 women in Belgium.

54

55 INTRODUCTION

56 The use of medications during pregnancy has reduced the risks associated with diseases, thereby
57 improving the health of mothers and fetuses during pregnancy. However, due to the lack of available
58 safety data, it is equally important to consider the possible risks associated with the use of
59 medications during pregnancy. The relatively high prevalence of medications dispensed during
60 pregnancy, varying from 60% to 97%, has been highlighted in several studies (1–5). Utilization should
61 be prudent, and any uptrend at the population level should be monitored.

62 Many factors can influence prescription practices at the local level, such as the health system and
63 reimbursement policies, the local prevalence of chronic diseases, and the average age of pregnant
64 women in the population concerned. The collection of data related to local prescribing practices is

65 important for the development of recommendations for health professionals, and there is a need for
66 more indepth research adapted to local needs.

67 In the Belgian context, little is known about medication prescribing practices during pregnancy. A
68 cross-sectional study conducted by Ceulemans et al. revealed that the prevalence of medication use
69 during the week prior to survey completion was 52% (6). A recent study conducted by an
70 independent Health Insurance Fund (Mutualités Libres/Onafhankelijke ziekenfondsen) indicated that
71 between 2013 and 2016, 8 out of 10 pregnant women had a medication prescription dispensed
72 during pregnancy (7). Most of the available data do not describe the use of medication during
73 pregnancy at the population level, and to date, no study, has looked specifically at trends in the use
74 of medications during pregnancy. One of the recurrent areas of concern is the potential overuse of
75 nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) during pregnancy. Several warnings were given by
76 Medicines Agencies in Europe about the risks associated with the use of NSAIDs during pregnancy.
77 More recently, in March 2020 the Belgian agency for medicines and health products warned that
78 pregnant women should avoid taking NSAIDs during pregnancy (8).

79 Indeed, many studies have shown that NSAID intake during pregnancy is an important risk factor for
80 multiple adverse effects. During the last trimester, the risk of premature closure of the ductus
81 arteriosus has been well documented, (9,10) and this might lead to cardiac and pulmonary
82 complications for the fetus. Other adverse effects associated with NSAID use include the risk of
83 miscarriage and the potential risk of congenital defects when taken during the first trimester of
84 pregnancy (11,12). This study provides more information about the trends in the prevalence of
85 medication dispensing during pregnancy across three periods of 3 years between 2003 and 2017.

86 In particular, we focus on the 20 most frequently dispensed medications and pay special attention to
87 the most frequently dispensed NSAIDs during pregnancy.

88

89 METHODS

90 Data sources: The permanent sample (EPS)

91 The permanent sample (EPS) is a 1/40 representative data sample of the Belgian population covered
92 by compulsory health insurance. It contains approximately 300 000 individuals and is representative
93 in terms of sex and age for the national population. The EPS contains anonymized information on all
94 reimbursed medications, only reimbursed medications are recorded from public pharmacies but all
95 prescribed and dispensed medications are recorded from hospital pharmacies. Medications are
96 captured in the database through a pharmaceutical product code containing a unique national code
97 number for every product (CNK-code), from public or hospital pharmacies. Each medication was

98 classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification at the fifth level for
99 extraction. Other information included in the database were the dispensing date, the region of
100 residence and some sociodemographic data (13). The EPS data can be used by health administrative
101 services or researchers based on strict authorization.

102

103 Participants

104 Participants were selected from the EPS. Participants were women who delivered within the three 3-
105 year periods (2003–2005, 2009– 2011, and 2015–2017) as per the data available in the EPS.

106 Pregnancies were identified by the INAMI-RIVIZ code nomenclature (14) related to all reimbursement
107 acts associated with obstetric deliveries. The code list is displayed in Table S1.

108 We restricted our study to pregnancies associated with mothers residing in Belgium who were
109 included in the EPS for the whole pregnancy period. Because self-employed persons in Belgium did
110 not benefit from medication reimbursement in the first period of study (2003–2005), we excluded
111 them for all three periods.

112

113 Periods of exposure and medication exposures

114 Because data on gestational age were not available, we used an algorithm that was previously used
115 by Andrade et al (15,16) to define the first day of exposure. The algorithm assumes a pregnancy
116 duration of 270 days. This period is then divided into three trimesters of 90 days, with the first
117 trimester starting 270 days before the delivery date. The ATC classification was used at the fifth level
118 to select and classify all medications. To list the 20 most dispensed medications during pregnancy all
119 reimbursed medications covered by the social security system and all medications prescribed and
120 dispensed at hospital level were considered. To define NSAID exposure we use a list of NSAID
121 excluding the Antithrombotic agents (ATC code B01). The NSAIDs list is displayed in Table S2. For
122 each delivery, we determined whether the different pregnancy periods involved exposure to
123 medication or not by determining if at least one prescribed medication was dispensed during the
124 period under consideration.

125

126 Statistical analysis

127 Statistical analyzes were carried out using SAS Enterprise Guide 7 and Stata 15. The level of
128 significance was fixed at 5%. The estimates prevalence of prescribed medications dispensed during
129 pregnancy across study periods were standardized by the direct method to the year 2017 of women

130 population distribution as reference from Belgian national statistic using age groups 15–19, 20– 29,
131 30–39 and 40–50 years. Age-standardized estimates were calculated overall and by region of
132 residence. Trends over time for the prevalence of prescribed medications dispensed during
133 pregnancy were assessed using logistic regression models, with the study periods entered as a
134 continuous variable. For each of the three study periods, we determined the 20 most dispensed
135 medications by calculating the crude prevalence of each chemical substance dispensed during
136 pregnancy. The crude prevalence of prescribed medications dispensed during pregnancy was
137 obtained by dividing the number of pregnancies involving exposure to at least one drug identified at
138 the fifth ATC level by the total number of pregnancies in the considered periods. Crude prevalence
139 was calculated for the entire pregnancy and for each pregnancy trimester.

140 The most frequently dispensed NSAIDs were determined by calculating the prevalence of each NSAID
141 reported in the preestablished NSAIDs list. We also present the prevalence with omission of the
142 seven-day exposure period before delivery, because NSAIDs are known to be prescribed and
143 dispensed for postpartum pain at the end of pregnancy. Trend tests in the crude prevalence of
144 NSAIDs exposure during pregnancy across the study periods were performed using χ^2 .

145

146 RESULTS

147 Data on medications dispensed during pregnancy were available for 26 346 pregnancies for the three
148 periods between 2003 and 2017. Women residing outside Belgium (n = 114), those not included in
149 the EPS for the whole pregnancy period (n = 289), and self-employed women (n = 2031) were
150 excluded, leaving 23 912 pregnancies in the study. The mean age of mothers at childbirth increased
151 by 0.9 years across the three study periods, from 29.4 years in 2003–2005 to 30.3 years in 2015–2017.
152 Table 1 shows the proportion of pregnancies in each age and region category for each three-year
153 period. Table 2 reports the prevalence of at least one prescription dispensed during pregnancy
154 overall and by maternal characteristics for the three periods of study.

155

156 For the 2003–2005 period, the age-standardized prevalence of at least one medication dispensed
157 during pregnancy was 81.8%. The age-standardized prevalence increased to 84.8% for the 2009–
158 2011 period and to 89.3.% for the 2015–2017 period. During the three consecutive periods, the
159 prevalence of medication dispensing increased significantly across all categories of maternal age
160 except ages ≥ 41 years. Similarly, all regions of residence had significant increase in prevalence of
161 medication dispensed. An increase in the mean and standard deviation (SD) prescription of different
162 medicines during pregnancy was also observed across the study periods, from 4.3 (5.4) for the 2003–

163 2005 period to 5 (5.2) for the 2015–2017 period. When we examined the median and interquartile
164 range (IQR), the number of different medications prescribed during pregnancy was found to increase
165 from 2 (1–6) for the 2003–2005 period to 3 (1–6) for the 2009–2011 period and to 3 (1–7) for the
166 most recent period (2015–2017). Table 3 presents the prevalence by pregnancy periods of the most
167 dispensed medications during pregnancy for the three study periods. There were 22 different drugs
168 among the top 20 for each period. Between 2003–2005 and 2015–2017, the three most significant
169 increases in prevalence were observed for influenza purified antigen (from 0.2% to 12.2%), pertussis
170 purified antigen (from 0% to 11%), and paracetamol (from 10.1% to 17.8%). Other increases of note
171 were progesterone (from 20% to 25.5%), and fosfomycin (from 6.1% to 13.2%). The three most
172 important declines in prevalence between 2003–2005 and 2015–2017 occurred for amoxicillin (from
173 20.2% to 17.1%), amoxicillin and beta-lactamase inhibitor (from 12.5% to 8.8%), and miconazole
174 (from 15.1% to 12.4%). Not considering the blood substitutes and perfusion solution ATC (B05),
175 nontherapeutic product ATC (V07), and antiseptic and disinfectant ATC (D08) subgroups, the most
176 frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy for the last study period (2015–2017) were
177 progesterone (25.5%), paracetamol (17.8%), and amoxicillin (17.1%).

178

179 Table 4 presents for each of the 22 most dispensed medications the distribution of dispensations
180 between the hospital and the community pharmacies. In the last study period (2015–2017),
181 considering the list of 22 most frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy, not including the
182 day of delivery, 60.4% of dispensed medications were inpatient medications and 39.6% were
183 outpatient medications.

184

185 Table 5 presents the prevalence by pregnancy periods of the six most dispensed NSAIDs during
186 pregnancy for the three study periods. In the last study period (2015–2017) not considering the 7
187 days before delivery, the six most prevalent NSAIDs dispensed during pregnancy were ibuprofen
188 (4.42%), diclofenac (2.54%), ketorolac (0.78%), naproxen (0.63%), indomethacin (0.41%), and
189 piroxicam (0.4%). Between 2003–2005 and 2015–2017, the dispensation of certain NSAIDs increased
190 sharply. The proportion of pregnancies exposed to NSAIDs more than doubled: From 2.44% to 4.42%
191 for ibuprofen and from 0.17% to 0.78% for ketorolac.

192

193 DISCUSSION

194 The use of medication during pregnancy is on the rise in Belgium

195 Between 2003 and 2017, the use of prescribed medications dispensed during pregnancy increased in
196 Belgium. It is difficult to compare our results with those of other studies, for example our study only
197 included reimbursed medications from public pharmacies while other studies might include over-the-
198 counter medications. Additionally, in our study, all inpatient medications prescribed and dispensed
199 were also accounted for while they are often not captured in other studies. The increasing trend
200 found in our study has been also observed in other contexts (1,17,18). Changes in the list of
201 reimbursed medications during the three study periods have possibly influenced our results. Some
202 medications could have been available in one period but not in the other. We have assessed the ATC
203 codes present in one period but not in another that appear in the list of medications removed from
204 reimbursement between 2002 and 2017. Two medications with a prevalence above 0.5% in the
205 period 2003–2005: the mepartricin (2.8%) and the propacetamol (2.1%), were both removed from
206 reimbursement in 2006. Other ATC codes had very low frequencies. In the two other periods, there
207 were 24 ATC codes removed from the reimbursement list and all had a prevalence below 0.06%.

208

209 Most frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy: Points of attention

210 Progesterone

211 Progesterone was found to be in the top three medications for each of the three study periods.
212 Compared to the Netherlands (8.3%) (19) and Italy (20.1%), (2) the use of progesterone during
213 pregnancy in Belgium appears to be rather high (25.5%) in 2015–2017 period and deserves to be
214 highlighted. The use of progesterone is common during pregnancy due to its expected reduction of
215 the risk of preterm delivery in women with a single gestation, a history of spontaneous preterm
216 delivery, or a short cervical length (20,21). On the contrary, potential side effects associated with the
217 use of progesterone during pregnancy may exist. Increases in psychiatric disorders have been shown
218 among children exposed to progesterone in utero (22). Other studies have associated vaginal
219 progesterone treatment with a risk of gravidic cholestasis (23,24). Therefore, we should be mindful
220 not to overprescribe progesterone.

221

222 Antibacterial for systemic use

223 Among the top 20 most frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy, the most represented
224 therapeutic subgroup was systemic antibacterial medications. This result is consistent with those
225 from other European and North American studies (25–27). In the context of a growing threat of
226 antibiotic resistance, we should be conscious of this high rate of antibiotic use during pregnancy and
227 be reasonable in the prescription of antibiotics, particularly fosfomycin, which showed a strong

228 increasing trend. Additionally, the level of safety in terms of risk associated with fosfomycin is less
229 documented, and in general the long-term risks associated with the use of antibiotics remain poorly
230 documented.

231

232 Increased use of recommended vaccinations

233 Vaccination rates during pregnancy increased sharply in Belgium between 2003 and 2017. This is
234 because the influenza vaccine has been recommended by the Advisory Committee on Immunization
235 Practices since 2004.²⁸ The pertussis vaccine has been recommended by the Superior Health Council
236 of Belgium during pregnancy since 2013, due to an increasing incidence of pertussis (29). In Belgium,
237 the pertussis vaccine is also available free-of-charge directly through specific health programs
238 subsidized by communities and is then not registered in our database of reimbursed medications.
239 Therefore, the rate in our study likely underestimates the actual rate of coverage in Belgium.

240

241 NSAIDs dispensing

242 We looked at the six most frequently dispensed NSAIDs during pregnancy for analgesic and anti-
243 inflammatory indications: ibuprofen, diclofenac, ketorolac, naproxen, indomethacin, and piroxicam.
244 We found that the majority of these NSAIDs were dispensed during hospital stays. In the 2015–2017
245 period and for pregnancy as a whole, the percentage of dispensation at the hospital level was 45.5%
246 for ibuprofen, 72.1% for diclofenac, 100% for ketorolac, 40.3% for piroxicam, 22.2% for
247 indomethacin, and 41.2% for naproxen. When we looked specifically at exposure during the third
248 trimester, an interesting finding was that approximately 75% of the cases of the six most frequently
249 dispensed during the third trimester occurred in the seven-day period before delivery. This high
250 prevalence could be explained by prescriptions being dispensed just before delivery but being used
251 afterward to treat pain in the postpartum period. The NSAIDs prescribed and dispensed during the
252 seven-day predelivery period were mainly ibuprofen and diclofenac, which are frequently used to
253 treat postpartum pain. Throughout the entire pregnancy, not considering the 7 days before delivery,
254 increasing trends were observed for the dispensation of ibuprofen and ketorolac across the three
255 study periods (from 2.44% to 4.42% and from 0.17% to 0.78%, respectively). More specifically, in the
256 third trimester, ibuprofen was the most frequently dispensed NSAID, with 0.52% of pregnancies
257 exposed, followed by diclofenac with 0.34%. A possible reason for the use of ibuprofen, diclofenac,
258 and indomethacin during the third trimester is that these NSAIDs can be used as tocolytics (30). A
259 network metaanalysis indicated that prostaglandin inhibitors (e.g., ibuprofen) can be used as a first
260 choice tocolytic agent, followed by calcium channel blockers as the second alternative. While our

261 data show that the majority of dispensations of the most frequently dispensed NSAIDs during
262 pregnancy occurred in the hospital, where the occurrence of ductus arteriosus can be monitored, a
263 significant number were dispensed by community pharmacists where the absence of monitoring
264 represents a clear concern.

265

266 The use of the permanent sample (EPS) database to study medication use during pregnancy:

267 Strength and limitations

268 The EPS database has some advantages. The database is a random sample representative of the
269 Belgian population. Pregnant women who have given birth can be extracted using their delivery
270 reimbursement codes. Maternal exposure to medications can then be determined because the
271 database contains information about the ATC codes of the medications dispensed, the quantities of
272 medications dispensed, the dispensing dates. Since data are available from 2002, this database offers
273 the opportunity to retrospectively study habits in drug prescription. However, it also presents
274 important limitations, including missing key information such as the exact date of the beginning of
275 the pregnancy. In this study, the start of the first trimester was estimated by subtracting 270 days
276 from the delivery date. By doing this, we might have included medications dispensed before the
277 beginning of the pregnancy and might miss medications dispensed for pregnancies lasting more than
278 270 days. We assumed that the medications dispensed were used by the mother during the same
279 trimester period, because this information was not available in the database. The medications
280 recorded from public pharmacies only included those reimbursed by health insurers, but some
281 medications are available over the counter. This might have led to an underestimation of medication
282 use during pregnancy. This is, for example, the case of NSAIDs also available over the counter. In
283 Belgium, before 2008, self-employed persons had a different benefit insurance scheme, so we
284 decided not to include them in the three study periods. We do not think that this affected the
285 generalizability of our study, as in the two last study periods, we compared the data with and
286 without the inclusion of self-employed persons, and the prevalence of the use of medications
287 remained very similar.

288

289 CONCLUSION

290 The study results indicate that the use of prescribed and dispensed medications during pregnancy is
291 increasing in Belgium. Progesterone exposure during pregnancy may be higher in Belgium compared
292 to in other contexts. The use of antibiotics remained high during the three study periods. The
293 dispensation of ibuprofen and ketorolac was shown to increase, despite recommendations to avoid

294 these medications during pregnancy. A welcome observation was the increase in dispensation of
295 recommended vaccines between 2003 and 2017. Having accurate information about the use of
296 medications during pregnancy should allow the development of better target campaigns to make
297 pregnant women aware of the potential risks associated with medication use during pregnancy. The
298 use of the permanent sample database EPS was useful as an exploratory approach to characterize
299 trends in prescription medication habits during pregnancy in Belgium.

300

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306

307 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

308 Lionel Larcin performed the statistical analysis and wrote the draft of the manuscript. Murielle Lona
309 and Güngör Karakaya contributed to the data acquisition and interpretation of data. Alexis Van Espen
310 has been involved in the data extraction and statistical analysis. Christine Damase-Michel contributed
311 to interpretation of data and revisions of the manuscript. Fati Kirakoya-Samadoulougou formulated
312 research goals and objectives, supervised statistical analysis, interpretation of
313 results and revisions of the manuscript. All authors have contributed to the design of the study and
314 approved the final version of the manuscript.

315

316 ETHICS STATEMENT

317 The authors state that no ethical approval was needed.

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398

399 **TABLES:**

Table 1. Ages and regions of residence of pregnant mothers in Belgium in the three study periods between 2003 and 2017.			
	Period 2003–2005 (N = 7779)	Period 2009–2011 (N = 8345)	Period 2015–2017 (N = 7788)
Variables	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Maternal age			
≤20 years	3.6 (277)	3 (248)	2.2 (168)
21–30 years	55.7 (4335)	54.8 (4572)	51.2 (3991)
31–40 years	39 (3038)	40.1 (3351)	44.1 (3433)
≥41 years	1.7 (129)	2.1 (175)	2.5 (197)
Region of residence			
Flanders	46.4 (3612)	47.9 (4001)	48.8 (3804)
Wallonia	41 (3189)	39.4 (3286)	37.8 (2945)
Brussels region	12.6 (978)	12.7 (1058)	13.3 (1039)

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Table 2. Prevalence of at least one medication dispensed during pregnancy in Belgium between 2003 and 2017.

	Period 2003–2005		Period 2009–2011		Period 2015–2017		<i>p</i> -Value
	N	% (<i>n</i>)	N	% (<i>n</i>)	N	% (<i>n</i>)	
Overall	7779	78.3 (6093)	8345	83.3 (6951)	7788	86.7 (6755)	<0.001 *
Maternal age (years)							<0.001 **
≤20 years	277	78.7 (218)	248	83.1 (206)	168	89.9 (151)	
21–30 years	4335	77.3 (3353)	4572	82.6 (3776)	3991	85.9 (3430)	
31–40 years	3038	79.1 (2402)	3351	84.1 (2817)	3433	87 (2986)	
≥41 years	129	93 (120)	175	86.9 (152)	197	95.4 (188)	
Region of residence							<0.001 **
Flanders	3612	73.7 (2661)	4001	80.7 (3228)	3804	85 (3232)	
Wallonia	3189	82.9 (2644)	3286	86.1 (2830)	2945	88.7 (2611)	
Brussels region	978	80.6 (788)	1058	84.3 (892)	1039	87.7 (911)	

* χ^2 for trends across the three periods.

** Pearson's χ^2 (only for 2015–2017).

Table 3. Prevalence of the most frequently dispensed medications during pregnancy in Belgium between 2003 and 2017.

Medication (ATC code)	Period 2003–2005 (N = 7779)				Period 2009–2011 (N = 8345)				Period 2015–2017 (N= 7788)			
	Pregnancies exposed % (n)				Pregnancies exposed % (n)				Pregnancies exposed % (n)			
	All	T1	T2	T3	All	T1	T2	T3	All	T1	T2	T3
progesterone (G03DA04)	20 (1559)	8.4 (655)	7.8 (603)	10.9 (848)	23.6 (1971)	10.4 (869)	8.5 (706)	12.8 (1072)	25.5 (1988)	11.7 (912)	8.7 (681)	13.4 (1041)
electrolytes (B05BB01)	19.2 (1496)	3.3 (256)	2.6 (205)	14.8 (1148)	22 (1832)	5.1 (422)	2.6 (216)	16.3 (1358)	25.6 (1991)	6 (468)	3.2 (246)	19.2 (1495)
amoxicillin (J01CA04)	20.2 (1573)	6.1 (474)	7.9 (618)	9.5 (742)	19.5 (1631)	6.2 (519)	7.4 (616)	8.8 (730)	17.1 (1329)	5.7 (443)	5.9 (463)	7.8 (605)
paracetamol (N02BE01)	10.1 (785)	1.5 (119)	1.4 (107)	7.7 (598)	14.1 (1176)	4.3 (356)	2.6 (217)	8.7 (725)	17.8 (1387)	6 (465)	3.5 (274)	10.4 (807)
miconazole (G01AF04)	15.1 (1175)	3.3 (253)	5.2 (402)	7.7 (600)	14 (1167)	2.9 (239)	5.1 (424)	7.4 (617)	12.4 (962)	2.5 (196)	4.4 (342)	6.4 (497)
solution for injection (V07AB40)	9.6 (743)	1.3 (101)	0.8 (59)	7.7 (602)	13.7 (1140)	3 (250)	1.1 (88)	10.1 (846)	17.2 (1341)	4.5 (354)	1.6 (123)	12.3 (957)
chlorhexidine (D08AC02)	11.3 (877)	1 (80)	1.4 (108)	9.4 (727)	12.7 (1056)	1.6 (134)	1.4 (118)	10.2 (855)	13.9 (1079)	2.1 (166)	1.9 (145)	11 (857)
carbohydrates (B05BA03)	13.4 (1043)	1.4 (107)	1.7 (129)	11 (855)	11.1 (929)	1.2 (96)	1 (84)	9.3 (779)	10.8 (840)	1.4 (108)	0.7 (57)	9 (699)
Amoxicillin and beta-lactamase inhibitor (J01CR02)	12.5 (969)	3.7 (287)	4.1 (321)	6.2 (479)	10.5 (879)	3.4 (281)	3.3 (277)	4.8 (399)	8.8 (686)	3.2 (246)	3 (230)	3.8 (299)
fosfomicin (J01XX01)	6.1 (472)	1 (78)	2 (156)	3.5 (274)	9.8 (820)	1.8 (149)	2.9 (243)	6 (498)	13.2 (1029)	2.4 (183)	4.8 (370)	7.6 (590)
oxytocin (H01BB02)	9 (702)	0.1 (6)	<0.01 (1)	9 (696)	9 (752)	0.1 (9)	0 (0)	8.9 (744)	9.9 (772)	0.1 (4)	0 (0)	9.9 (768)
lidocaïne (N01BB02)	7.9 (612)	1.1 (88)	1 (79)	5.8 (454)	9.1 (756)	1.7 (145)	1 (80)	6.6 (548)	10.2 (797)	2.1 (160)	0.8 (62)	7.7 (596)
sufentanil (N01AH03)	7.3 (570)	0.7 (53)	0.2 (15)	6.6 (511)	8.5 (712)	0.8 (65)	0.4 (33)	7.5 (623)	9.3 (723)	0.7 (52)	0.2 (16)	8.5 (661)
phytomenadione (B02BA01)	7.5 (581)	0 (0)	0 (0)	7.5 (581)	8.6 (721)	<0.1 (1)	0 (0)	8.6 (720)	8.8 (684)	<0.1 (1)	0 (0)	8.8 (683)
ropivacaine (N01BB09)	5.1 (399)	<0.01 (1)	<0.01 (2)	5.1 (397)	5.8 (481)	0.2 (15)	<0.1 (2)	5.6 (464)	6.4 (495)	0.2 (12)	0.1 (5)	6.1 (478)
influenza. purified antigen (J07BB02)	0.2 (13)	<0.1 (5)	<0.1 (3)	<0.1(5)	4.3 (362)	0.5 (39)	2.1 (179)	1.7 (144)	12.2 (952)	1 (79)	5.2 (408)	6 (467)
pertussis. purified antigen (J07AJ52)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1.1 (90)	<0.1 (3)	0.1 (9)	0.9 (78)	11 (857)	<0.1 (2)	0.8 (61)	10.2 (794)
ranitidine (A02BA02)	3.5 (275)	0.6 (46)	0.5 (42)	2.7 (2019)	6.2 (516)	1.4 (117)	1.6 (130)	3.9 (326)	9 (702)	1.8 (142)	2.1 (161)	6.3 (492)
levothyroxine sodium (H03AA01)	2.7 (210)	1.7 (131)	1.8 (137)	2.1 (160)	5.5 (457)	2.8 (230)	3.1 (256)	4.5 (378)	8.2 (642)	4.5 (350)	5.3 (409)	6.2 (483)
immunoglobulin anti-d rh (J06BB01)	4.2 (328)	0.4 (27)	1.8 (136)	2.4 (190)	7.6 (637)	0.5 (42)	1.4 (116)	6.4 (532)	7.6 (593)	0.6 (44)	1.1 (85)	6.7 (525)
butylscopolamine (A03BB01)	6 (464)	0.9 (73)	1.3 (102)	4.1 (318)	5.4 (453)	0.7 (54)	0.7 (60)	4.2 (354)	6 (468)	0.7 (57)	0.8 (61)	4.7 (366)
povidone iodine (D08AG02)	4.5 (346)	0.5 (38)	1 (79)	3.1 (240)	5 (420)	1 (86)	1.3 (107)	2.9 (245)	5.4 (421)	1.2 (96)	0.9 (72)	3.4 (262)

Table 4. Most frequently dispensed nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAID) dispensed during pregnancy in Belgium.

		The 6 most frequently dispensed NSAIDs					
Pregnancy period		ibuprofen (M01AE01)	diclofenac (M01AB05)	ketoralac (M01AB15)	naproxen (M01AE02)	indomethacin (M01AB01)	piroxicam (M01AC01)
Pregnancies exposed % (<i>n</i>) 2003–2005 (<i>N</i> = 7779)	all	2.74 (213)	4.1 (322)	0.46 (36)	1.7 (129)	0.43 (34)	1.25 (97)
	T1	1.8 (140)	1.12 (87)	0.13 (10)	0.89 (69)	0.013 (1)	0.85 (66)
	T2	0.48 (37)	0.44 (34)	0.03 (2)	0.22 (17)	0.14 (11)	0.17 (13)
	T3	0.67 (52)	2.64 (205)	0.31 (24)	0.64 (50)	0.33 (26)	0.3 (23)
	T3–last week	0.33 (26)	0.6 (46)	0.013 (1)	0.18 (14)	0.24 (19)	0.1 (8)
	Last week	0.33 (26)	2.04 (159)	0.3 (23)	0.46 (36)	0.06 (5)	0.19 (15)
	All without last week	2.44 (190)	2.15 (167)	0.17 (24)	1.22 (95)	0.37 (29)	1.05 (82)
Pregnancies exposed % (<i>n</i>) 2009–2011 (<i>N</i> = 8345)	all	4.46 (372)	4.77 (398)	0.93 (78)	1.05 (88)	0.53 (44)	0.49 (41)
	T1	2.8 (234)	1.79 (149)	0.42 (35)	0.78 (65)	0.03 (3)	0.43 (36)
	T2	0.74 (62)	0.46 (38)	0.1 (8)	0.11 (9)	0.11 (9)	0.02 (2)
	T3	1.11 (93)	2.62 (219)	0.43 (36)	0.2 (17)	0.38 (32)	0.05 (4)
	T3–last week	0.51 (43)	0.54 (45)	0.03 (3)	0.05 (4)	0.33 (28)	0.05 (4)
	Last week	0.6 (50)	2.08 (174)	0.4 (33)	0.16 (13)	0.05 (4)	0 (0)
	All without last week	3.88 (324)	2.79 (233)	0.55 (46)	0.89 (75)	0.48 (40)	0.49 (41)
Pregnancies exposed % (<i>n</i>) 2015–2017 (<i>N</i> = 7788)	all	5.61 (437)	4.38 (341)	1.1 (86)	0.64 (50)	0.45 (35)	0.4 (31)
	T1	3.53 (275)	2 (156)	0.71 (55)	0.58 (45)	0.012 (1)	0.36 (28)
	T2	0.56 (44)	0.3 (23)	0.05 (4)	0.06 (5)	0.14 (11)	0.06 (5)
	T3	1.84 (143)	2.25 (175)	0.35 (27)	0.03 (2)	0.32 (25)	0.012 (1)
	T3–last week	0.5 (40)	0.33 (26)	0.012 (1)	0.012 (1)	0.31 (24)	0.012 (1)
	Last week	1.32 (103)	1.91 (149)	0.33 (26)	0.012(1)	0.012 (1)	0 (0)
	All without last week	4.42 * (344)	2.54 (198)	0.78 * (61)	0.63* (49)	0.41 (32)	0.4* (31)

* Trend test across three study periods significant