



**Ethnic differences in drug utilization pattern during pregnancy: a cross-sectional study**

Journal:	<i>The Journal of Maternal-Fetal &amp; Neonatal Medicine</i>
Manuscript ID:	DJMF-2012-0075
Manuscript Type:	Original Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	29-Jan-2012
Complete List of Authors:	Baraka, Mohamed; Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Pharmacology (FARC) Steurbaut, Stephane; UZ Brussel and Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Clinical Pharmacology and Pharmacotherapy Coomans, Danny; Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Biomedical Statistics and Informatics Dupont, Alain; UZ Brussel and Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Clinical Pharmacology and Pharmacotherapy
Keywords:	Drug utilization, medication, pregnancy, ethnicity, Arab women

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

Only

# Ethnic differences in drug utilization pattern during pregnancy: a cross-sectional study

M A Baraka<sup>1\*</sup>, S Steurbaut<sup>2</sup>, D Coomans<sup>3</sup> and A G Dupont<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmacology. Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Laarbeeklaan 103, Belgium.

<sup>2</sup>Department of Clinical Pharmacology and Pharmacotherapy, UZ Brussel and Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Laarbeeklaan 101, Belgium.

<sup>3</sup>Department of Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, Faculty of Medicine and Pharmacy, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Laarbeeklaan 103, Belgium.

\*Corresponding author: Mohamed Abdelhamid Mohamed Baraka

Tel.: +32 488251065; fax: +32-2-4774113

Address: Laarbeeklaan, 103 B-1090 Jette, Brussels, Belgium.

E-mail address: [Mohamed.Baraka2020@gmail.com](mailto:Mohamed.Baraka2020@gmail.com)

**Running title:** Drug exposure in multi-ethnic pregnant women

**Key words:** Drug utilization, medication, pregnancy, ethnicity, Arab women.

**Abstract**

**Objective** to investigate differences in exposure to medications in a cohort of multi-ethnic pregnant women.

**Methods** 641 pregnant women of Western, Arab/Turkish and “other origins” participated in this cross-sectional study using a questionnaire in a university hospital in Brussels, Belgium. Assessment of the drug safety was done using the food and drug administration (FDA) risk classification system. Data analysis was performed using SPSS.

**Results** In overall cohort, 83.8% used at least one preparation (including multivitamins) during pregnancy and 37.0% of women used at least one drug (excluding multivitamins). Significantly more Western women (43.7%) used one or more medications compared to Arab/Turkish women (28.7%; $p=0.000$ ). This difference in exposure was most pronounced for over-the-counter drugs for occasional and pregnancy-related complaints, and was observed for potentially unsafe drugs or drugs with unknown safety. None of the women reported use of FDA X category drugs.

**Conclusions** The use of drugs known to be harmful was not observed but a higher prevalence of exposure to potentially harmful drugs (FDA C/D) was found among Western women who also consumed more over-the-counter drugs. This highlights the need for cautious prescribing for women in the fertile age in general and for continuous monitoring of medication use during pregnancy.

## Introduction

Prescribing medications for pregnant women is a challenge for healthcare providers especially since the thalidomide disaster in the 1960s [1,2]. The use of medications during pregnancy indeed poses a potential risk to both the mother and the foetus. Despite the lack of evidence on the safety of many medications during pregnancy, many studies have reported high percentages of drug use during pregnancy [3-5]. Data on medication use during pregnancy appear to differ between countries due to differences in ethnicity, socio-cultural differences, methods of data collection and differences in study design [4,6,7]. Drug exposure during pregnancy can also be influenced by the pregnancy stage and the indication of use (chronic, occasional or pregnancy-related conditions) [7]. Assessment of medication use in multi-ethnic pregnant women in Europe, where immigration is continuously increasing, has not been given much attention so far [4]. Therefore, the aims of this study were to investigate possible differences in exposure to medications (including contraceptives and multivitamins) in a cohort of multi-ethnic pregnant women. We investigated the pattern of medication use before and during pregnancy in relation to the type of medicines, the reason for their use and their risk to the foetus. Moreover, we also focused in particular on assessing possible differences in these patterns of use between Western and immigrant Arab and Turkish women, i.e. the largest non-Western ethnicity in Belgium and a group of women that has not often been studied.

## Methods

This cross-sectional study was conducted between February and September 2009 in the obstetrics outpatient clinic of the UZ Brussel, a university hospital and main medical referral centre in Brussels attracting a multi-ethnic population. After giving written informed consent, the participants completed a questionnaire that was available in four languages (Dutch, French, English and Arabic) to collect information on ethnicity and details of medication use before and during pregnancy (including multivitamins and contraceptives). Regardless of age or ethnicity, women were eligible to participate in the study if they spoke any of the four languages of the questionnaire and had enough waiting time (around 15 minutes). Among the pregnant women visiting the obstetrics clinic, a random sample of 641 women was invited for participation in the study that was approved by the local Ethical Committee. To maximize the amount of information collected, women were interviewed in the 2<sup>nd</sup> or the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester of pregnancy.

Women were classified into three groups according to ethnical origin (Table 1): “Western” (European, Australian and North American), “Arab/Turkish” (including women originating from all Arab regions and Turkey), and women from “Other origins” (Asian, African and South American).

All medications (except contraceptives and multivitamins) were classified into three mutually exclusive categories according to the reason for their use (Table 2): (1) drugs for chronic conditions, (2) drugs for occasional and short-time use and (3) drugs for pregnancy-related symptoms. Drugs were also classified according to the Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) coding system (WHO ATC) [8], as well as according to the FDA risk classification (A, B, C, D and X) [9]. Category A: controlled studies show no risk; category B: no evidence of risk in humans; category C: risk can not be ruled out; category D: positive evidence of risk and category X: contraindicated in pregnancy. Drugs labelled as A or B and C or D were combined together in two categories for statistical analysis purposes. Drugs for which no FDA information was available about safety were assigned as U (unknown safety).

The exposure to drugs was investigated per trimester after excluding multivitamins and contraceptives. Trimesters were defined as: 1<sup>st</sup> trimester (0-14 weeks of gestation), 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester (15-28 weeks) and 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester (29-42 weeks). Drugs used in more than one trimester were counted in each trimester separately, e.g., drug use that started in the 1<sup>st</sup> trimester and extended to the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester was considered as exposure in the 1<sup>st</sup> as well as in the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester.

**Data analysis**

The prevalence of the use of contraceptives (analysed separately), medications (with and without multivitamins; prescription and non-prescription drugs) and multivitamins was determined for the total study population. Subsequently, differences in these prevalences among the three ethnic subgroups were analyzed using  $\chi^2$  tests. ANOVA test with post hoc Bonferroni correction was used to compare the mean number of medications used among the three ethnic groups. The percentage of women exposed to certain drug categories was calculated and compared for the three ethnic groups using the significance test for comparing two proportions that is available online at: <http://math.uc.edu/~brycw/classes/149/wang.htm> [10]. Spearman correlation was performed to investigate the correlation between the exposures to the different drug categories. The level of statistical significance was set as  $p$ -value < 0.05. Data analysis was performed using SPSS (IBM-SPSS v19). The total number of patients differs according to the availability of data with regard to the different variables analyzed each time.

## Results

### Characteristics of the study populations

Of the 641 participants, 334 (52.1%) were Western, 209 (32.6%) Arab/Turkish and 98 (15.3%) were women from “Other origins”. Women were interviewed once, either in the 2<sup>nd</sup> (244 or 38.1%) or in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester (397 or 61.9%), with almost the same distribution mentioned above for each ethnic group within each trimester. The age of the women ranged from 16 to 48 years with a mean of 30 years. No significant difference was observed in age categories among the three ethnic groups ( $p = 0.172$ ; Table 1). A higher percentage of multiparous women was observed among Arab/Turkish women (75.9%) compared to Western women (50.6%) as shown in Table 1.

*Table 1 to be inserted here.*

### Patterns of contraceptive use

As shown in Table 1, 295 out of 636 women (46.4%) reported contraceptive use before pregnancy: 181 (61.4%) used oral contraceptives, 46 (15.6%) used other contraceptive methods such as intrauterine devices (IUDs), implants or transdermal delivery systems, and 68 (23.0%) women did not report which contraceptive method they used. Contraception use was continued in 33 women after conception with 21 of them exposed to estrogen/progesterone based oral contraception. Overall, the use of contraceptives was significantly ( $p = 0.000$ ) different among the three ethnic groups. The difference was, however, only significant between the Western (51.8%) and the “Other origins” group (21.6%). Among the 227 women who reported which kind of contraceptive method they used, Arab/Turkish women used contraceptive pills (89.5%) more often than Western women (75.6%;  $p = 0.029$ ). Continuation of contraceptive use after conception was less prevalent in Western women than in the two other ethnic groups ( $p = 0.000$ , Table 1).

### Medication use before and during pregnancy

A total of 537 (83.8%) women used at least one preparation (including multivitamins) during pregnancy, and the total number of preparations used was 1133. After exclusion of multivitamins, more than one third of women (237; 37.0%) used a total of 374 drugs, whereas 505 (78.8%) women used a total of 759 multivitamin preparations. Less than half (167; 44.6%) of these medications were prescription drugs and 205 (54.8%) over the counter (OTC) drugs.

1  
2  
3 About a quarter of the drugs were for chronic use (103; 27.5%), about half were drugs for occasional use (192;  
4 51.3%) and the remaining drugs were for pregnancy related use (78; 20.9%). Only 104 (16.2%) women reported no  
5 use of any medication at all during pregnancy. Two drugs could not be assigned as either prescription or OTC  
6 because women did not report the medication names and, for the same reason, 1 drug could not be classified as being  
7 for chronic, occasional or pregnancy related use.  
8  
9

10  
11  
12 ***Table II to be inserted here.***  
13

#### 14 15 **Drug use according to ATC classification** 16

17  
18 Of the 374 medications used by women, 88 (23.5%) were drugs for the alimentary tract and metabolism including  
19 insulin (A), 81 (21.7%) for the nervous system (N), 68 (18.2%) for the respiratory system (R), 40 (10.7%) anti-  
20 infectives for systemic use (J), 26 (7.0%) systemic hormones excluding sex hormones and insulin (H), 19 (5.1%)  
21 drugs for blood and blood forming organs (B), 17 (4.5%) cardiovascular drugs (C), 15 (4.0%) genitourinary drugs  
22 and sex hormones (G), 12 (3.2%) dermatologicals (D), 6 (1.6%) drugs for sensory organs and 2 (0.5%) drugs for the  
23 musculo-skeletal system (M).  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31

#### 32 **Drug use according to FDA risk classification** 33

34  
35 Half of the drugs used (86; 49.7%) were classified as safe or reasonably safe (A + B), 95 (25.4%) were potentially  
36 harmful (C + D), and no use (0.0%) of harmful drugs (X) was reported. A quarter (90; 24.1%) of the drugs had no  
37 FDA classification (unknown safety U) and 3 drugs could not be assigned as their names were not reported.  
38  
39  
40  
41

#### 42 **Drug use according to active molecule** 43

44  
45 The top 10 drugs used were paracetamol (72; 19.3%), followed by the thyroid hormones (18; 4.8%), metoclopramide  
46 (14; 3.7%), salbutamol (9; 2.4%), amoxicillin (8; 2.1%), ranitidine (8; 2.1%), progesterone (8; 2.1%), antacids (8;  
47 2.1%), domperidone (7; 1.9%) and insulin (7; 1.9%). Most of these drugs are considered to be safe but salbutamol,  
48 progesterone and domperidone are potentially harmful (FDA category C).  
49  
50

51  
52 Out of 759 multivitamin preparations used by women, the most frequently used were folic acid preparations (499;  
53 65.7%) followed by iron preparations (132; 17.4%) and magnesium preparations (51; 6.7%).  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



### Correlation between exposures to different drug categories

Exposure to OTC drugs significantly correlated with the exposure to occasionally used drugs ( $r = 0.419$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), pregnancy-related drugs ( $r = 0.200$ ;  $p = 0.002$ ) and drugs with unknown safety ( $r = 0.252$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ), whereas exposure to prescription drugs significantly correlated with the exposure to potentially harmful drugs ( $r = 0.231$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ) and drugs for chronic conditions ( $r = 0.464$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ).

### Evolution of drug use before and during pregnancy

As shown in Table 3, the percentage of women exposed to pregnancy related drugs in the 1<sup>st</sup> trimester was five times that before conception ( $p = 0.000$ ); in the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester it was six times higher ( $p = 0.000$ ) and in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester four times higher than before pregnancy ( $p = 0.013$ ). No significant difference was detected in any of the three trimesters in exposure to chronic or occasionally used drugs compared to the preconception use. However, a significant reduction of the exposure to occasionally used drugs was observed in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester compared to the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester exposure ( $p = 0.043$ ). In addition, a trend to lower use of pregnancy related drugs ( $p = 0.056$ ) and chronic drugs ( $p = 0.098$ ) was detected in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester compared to the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester without reaching statistical significance.

A significantly higher percentage of women used OTC drugs in the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester compared to the preconception period ( $p = 0.026$ ). Exposure to prescription drugs was higher in both the 1<sup>st</sup> ( $p = 0.026$ ) and the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester ( $p = 0.001$ ) when compared to preconception exposure, and decreased in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester when compared to the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester ( $p = 0.006$ ). No significant difference was observed between the three pregnancy trimesters in OTC drug exposure.

The percentage of women exposed to safe or reasonably safe (A + B) or potentially harmful (C + D) drugs did not vary significantly in any of the pregnancy trimesters when compared to the preconception exposure. However, the difference was significant for drugs with unknown safety (U) for the 1<sup>st</sup> ( $p = 0.005$ ), the 2<sup>nd</sup> ( $p = 0.000$ ) and the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester ( $p = 0.037$ ) when compared with the preconception use. The exposure to these drugs increased significantly from the 1<sup>st</sup> to the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester ( $p = 0.009$ ) and then decreased again by 50% in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester ( $p = 0.008$ ). In general, the total percentage of women exposed to drugs (excluding multivitamins) was significantly higher in both the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester when compared to the preconception exposure.

**Table III to be inserted here.**

### Ethnic differences in drug exposure

As shown in Table 1, no significant difference was detected among the three ethnic groups in overall medication use including multivitamins ( $p = 0.085$ ) or in multivitamin use alone ( $p = 0.059$ ). However, a significant difference in the use of medications among the three groups was found when multivitamins were excluded ( $p = 0.001$ ). Significantly more Western women used one or more medications other than multivitamins compared to Arab/Turkish women ( $p = 0.000$ ) and "Other origins" women ( $p = 0.033$ ).

The mean number of medications, including multivitamins, used in the population as a whole was significantly different among the three groups ( $p = 0.000$ ; Table 4). Pair wise comparisons revealed that the mean number of medications in Western women (2.02) was significantly higher than in Arab/Turkish (1.50;  $p = 0.000$ ) and "Other origins" women (1.48;  $p = 0.002$ ). Similarly, Western women used on average more drugs other than multivitamins (0.72) compared to both Arab/Turkish (0.42;  $p = 0.000$ ) and "Other origins" women (0.46;  $p = 0.035$ ). The number of multivitamins used was also significantly higher in Western women (1.29) compared to both Arab/Turkish (1.09;  $p = 0.024$ ) and "Other origins" women (1.02;  $p = 0.022$ ; Table 4). As for the whole group, pair wise comparisons of women who took at least one medication revealed a significantly higher mean number of medications including multivitamins in Western women (2.35) compared to Arab/Turkish (1.79;  $p = 0.000$ ) and "Other origins" women (1.93;  $p = 0.028$ ). However, no significant difference was detected when drug use was studied excluding multivitamins ( $p = 0.200$ ). Multivitamin use differed significantly among the different ethnic user groups ( $p = 0.034$ ) but statistical significance was not reached when pair wise analyses between the three groups were performed.

### *Table IV to be inserted here.*

There were also differences between the ethnic groups when the exposure to medications was investigated in function of the medication category. As shown in table 5, the percentage of women exposed to chronic drugs was significantly higher among Western (15.0%) compared to "Other origins" women (6.0%;  $p = 0.026$ ). The exposure to pregnancy related drugs was also significantly higher among Western (13.0%) compared to "Other origins" women (6.0%;  $p = 0.047$ ). The exposure to occasionally used drugs was significantly higher among Western (26.0%) compared to Arab/Turkish women (14.0%;  $p = 0.002$ ). The percentage of women exposed to OTC drugs during pregnancy was significantly higher among Western women (29.0%) compared to both Arab/Turkish (15.0%;  $p =$

1  
2  
3 0.000) and “Other origins” women (18.0%;  $p = 0.041$ ). No significant difference was observed among the three  
4  
5 ethnic groups in the exposure to prescription drugs, although a trend to more frequent use was observed among  
6  
7 Western women (22.0%) compared to both Arab/Turkish (16.0%;  $p = 0.058$ ) and “Other origins” women (18.0%;  $p$   
8  
9 = 0.387).

10  
11 With respect to the safety of the drugs that were used, the percentage of Western women exposed to safe or  
12  
13 reasonably safe (A + B) drugs was significantly higher (28.0%) than that of “Other origins” women (17.0%;  $p =$   
14  
15 0.032). At the same time, significantly more Western women (16.0%) were exposed to potentially unsafe (C + D)  
16  
17 drugs than Arab/Turkish women (7.0%;  $p = 0.002$ ). Similarly, the percentage of Western women exposed to drugs  
18  
19 with unknown safety (U) was significantly higher (16.0%) than that of Arab/Turkish women (8.0%;  $p = 0.004$ ).  
20  
21 Potentially unsafe drugs were mainly anti-asthmatic drugs (salbutamol), corticosteroids (hydrocortisone,  
22  
23 prednisolone, fluticasone and budesonide), codeine, tramadol, miconazole, progesterone, aspirin in low dose as an  
24  
25 antithrombotic agent and in high dose as an analgesic (one woman), nervous system drugs (citalopram, paroxetine  
26  
27 and lorazepam), insulin analogues, domperidone, omeprazole and sulfasalazine. Drugs with an unknown safety  
28  
29 profile were mainly for acid related disorders (alginic acid as well as calcium, magnesium and aluminum based  
30  
31 combinations), laxatives (macrogol, ispaghula and others), antihistaminics (ketotifen, ebastine and dimetindene),  
32  
33 cough suppressants, nasal preparations, diosmin, zopiclone and cinchocaine.  
34  
35

36 ***Table V to be inserted here.***  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Discussion

The present study demonstrates a high prevalence of medication use throughout pregnancy when the total study population is considered. More than 80% of women used at least one medication (including multivitamins). This is similar to the results of a register-based study reported by Bakker et al (2006) and an interview-based study reported by Kebede et al (2009), who found a prevalence of medication use including multivitamins of 79% and 71.3%, respectively [7,11]. As in other studies, multivitamins, iron and folic acid preparations were the most frequently used multivitamin preparations [11,12].

Our finding that 37% of the pregnant women used medications other than multivitamins are also comparable to those of other studies conducted in Glasgow and Ethiopia who reported a drug use excluding multivitamins of 34.8% and 34.1%, respectively [11,13]. The mean number of medications including multivitamins used by our study population as a whole (1.77) was concordant with other studies reporting a mean number of 1 to 3 medications [14,15]. Our study showed that 16.2% of the women reported no use of any medication at all, which is similar to the percentage found by the European Collaborative Group on Drug Use in Pregnancy who reported that 14% of women did not take any drug [16].

The most frequently used classes of medications were analgesics followed by antibacterials, antacids, asthma medications and drugs for gastrointestinal disorders (antispasmodic and antiemetic drugs). This is in line with other studies also reporting that anti-infectives and analgesics are the most commonly used medications after multivitamins [11,17,18].

More than half of the drugs used by the pregnant women were OTC drugs. Correlations between exposures to different drug categories suggest that most of these OTC drugs were for occasional and pregnancy-related use. The analysis further suggests that OTC drugs are often drugs with unknown safety, whereas the exposure to prescription drugs was more often associated with potentially harmful drugs that were used for chronic conditions.

The use of contraceptive pills prior to pregnancy was extended to the 1<sup>st</sup> trimester in a considerable number of women before they recognized they were pregnant. This puts the foetus at a high risk due to the hormonal content of these pills. Most women do not realize they are pregnant until the 3<sup>rd</sup> week after conception [7].

1  
2  
3 As can be expected, pregnancy-related drug use was significantly higher in all trimesters compared to the  
4 preconception use despite a slight decline in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester. Such decline was also observed by Pinto Pereira et al  
5 (2010) and may be due to a decrease of the frequency of pregnancy-related complaints in the 3<sup>rd</sup> trimester and/or  
6 women becoming more tolerant to these complaints in this trimester [5]. Our results indicate that the higher use of  
7 drugs during pregnancy compared to the preconception phase is solely due to the increased use in pregnancy- related  
8 medications, which is in line with the observation of Bakker et al (2006) [7]. OTC drugs were more frequently used  
9 in the 2<sup>nd</sup> trimester compared to the preconception period but the pattern of use was not significantly different  
10 between the three trimesters.  
11  
12

13  
14  
15 Although it is well accepted that rational and safe drug use during pregnancy is essential for maternal health and  
16 foetal development [5], the present study indicates that a considerable number of pregnant women were exposed to  
17 potentially harmful drugs.  
18

19  
20 While the exposure to these drugs may have been unavoidable and justified in a number of cases, e.g. because being  
21 prescribed for chronic conditions, this was certainly not always the case. Aspirin for example, a drug known to be  
22 associated with potential foetal harm, was given to a woman as an analgesic/antipyretic, whereas paracetamol could  
23 have been used as a safer alternative. As reported by Wen et al (2008), asthma drugs such as salbutamol were also  
24 frequently used by our study population [19]. It is important to control asthma during pregnancy but salbutamol is  
25 known to be associated with an increased risk of congenital malformations [20]. Instead, alternative beta-agonists  
26 such as salmeterol, formoterol, or inhaled corticosteroids such as beclomethasone and budesonide are more  
27 acceptable for asthma therapy in pregnancy [21]. Domperidone was also one of the top 10 drugs used in our study  
28 and has not been classified by the FDA risk classification system. It was used occasionally by many women as an  
29 anti-emetic despite the availability of safer alternatives (FDA category B) such as metoclopramide [9]. Our  
30 observations are in line with a study conducted in the Netherlands reporting that 1.7% of chronically used and 2.3%  
31 of occasionally used drugs were harmful [7]. The zero prevalence of exposure to category X drugs in our study is a  
32 reassuring finding when compared to other studies that reported percentages ranging from 0.2 to 3.9% of exposure to  
33 proven harmful drugs during pregnancy [11,18,19,22]. However, many women were exposed to drugs without FDA  
34 safety labelling. The absence of safety information may be misleading to both the patient and the physician and  
35 creates a false perception of safety. Indeed, non-classified drugs are not necessarily safe for use during pregnancy  
36 and counselling of women concerning their use during pregnancy may be necessary [12]. In our study, these drugs  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 were mainly antacids, laxatives, antihistaminics, cough suppressants, nasal preparations and diosmin, which were  
4  
5 used significantly more during pregnancy compared to preconception. Our results indicate that these drugs with  
6  
7 uncertainty about their safety account for the higher use of OTC drugs and those used for pregnancy-related  
8  
9 disorders. Evaluation of the safety of these commonly used drugs with unknown safety is warranted to help women  
10  
11 and their health providers take informed decisions regarding drug use during pregnancy [2]. Educating patients about  
12  
13 the risks of OTC drugs during pregnancy is necessary to reduce the exposure to drugs with unknown safety.

14  
15  
16 In Belgium, one study on drug use during pregnancy was conducted more than 30 years ago but the impact of  
17  
18 ethnicity on drug use was not investigated [23]. An important finding of our study is the observation that there are  
19  
20 ethnic differences in the use of certain medications during pregnancy. Contraceptive methods were equally utilized  
21  
22 by Western and Arab/Turkish women, but “Other origins” women were less likely to use contraception.  
23  
24 Arab/Turkish women used oral contraceptives more frequently compared to Western women who used relatively  
25  
26 more often IUDs and transdermal patches. There was also a significantly higher postconception exposure to  
27  
28 contraceptive drugs among Arab/Turkish women and among the “Other origins” women compared to Western  
29  
30 women, possibly related to a higher unawareness of the pregnancy. This highlights the need for preconception care  
31  
32 programs to increase the awareness of women towards the proper use of contraceptive drugs. The exposure to oral  
33  
34 contraceptives early in pregnancy could be due to contraceptive failure resulting in an unintended pregnancy [24].

35  
36 There was a significant difference in the mean number of drugs used (excluding multivitamins) by the three ethnic  
37  
38 groups in total but this difference disappeared when investigated among users only per ethnic group. This indicates  
39  
40 that the difference in drug use was a reflection of the percentage of women exposed rather than the number of drugs  
41  
42 used by each woman using at least one medication. This was also confirmed by the significant differences in the  
43  
44 percentages of women exposed to the different drug categories according to ethnicity. Western women used more  
45  
46 often OTC drugs and medications for occasional use than Arab/Turkish women, and significantly more Western  
47  
48 women were exposed to potentially unsafe drugs than Arab/Turkish women, as well as to drugs with unknown  
49  
50 safety. The finding that Western women used more frequently drugs during their pregnancy than Arab/Turkish and  
51  
52 “Other origins” women, may reflect differences in sociocultural attitudes towards medications worthwhile to further  
53  
54 investigate in order to improve rational drug use among pregnant women.

### Strengths and limitations of our study

Our study was not based on medical records but on data from interviewees. Therefore, it reflects real life drug use and exposure misclassification can be excluded. The study also provides information about OTC drugs and use of drugs dispensed to women outside our hospital. Although in such analysis recall bias cannot be excluded, we believe that interviewing our patients during the antenatal care visits helped in minimizing this bias as poorer recall is higher in the postnatal period [25]. The FDA risk classification system which we used to evaluate drug safety is a widely used risk classification system. However, it might be prone to misinterpretation and misapplication, and is now under review to provide a more reliable and clinically useful model [26,27]. We do not know if the encouraging finding of zero exposure to category X drugs in our study population is limited to our hospital or reflects a general careful attitude by pregnant women and their health care providers in Belgium. This merits further investigation.

In conclusion, the present findings demonstrate that the majority of women participating in the study take medications during their pregnancy but with a general conservative behaviour towards the use of drugs known to be harmful and with a complete absence of exposure to FDA category X drugs. However, many pregnant women use OTC drugs for occasional use or for pregnancy-related disorders of which the safety remains uncertain. A clear difference in drug utilization pattern was found between Western and Arab/Turkish women and a higher prevalence of exposure to potentially harmful drugs was observed among Western women. This highlights the need for cautious prescribing during pregnancy as well as for women in the fertile age in general, and for continuous monitoring of medication use during pregnancy. Further research is warranted to reveal the determinants of the ethnic differences in drug use during pregnancy.

**Acknowledgement**

We thank Prof. Dr. Walter Foulon, head of the Obstetrics department at the UZ Brussel hospital. Our thanks also go to Dr. Monika Laubach, head of the Obstetrics clinic for helping with the access to data, to the women who participated in the study and to the midwifery of the hospital's antenatal clinic for their assistance in distributing and collecting the questionnaires. We are grateful to the pharmacist Seham Zaitoon for her help in the data entry and to the Erasmus Mundus organization for funding this research.

**Declaration of interest**

The authors report no declarations of interest.



## References

1. Lagoy CT, Joshi N, Cragan JD, Rasmussen SA (2005) Medication use during pregnancy and lactation: an urgent call for public health action. *J Womens Health*: 14: 104-9.
2. Lee E, Maneno MK, Smith L, Weiss SR, Zuckerman IH, Wutoh AK, Xue Z (2006) National patterns of medication use during pregnancy. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*: 15: 537-45.
3. Berthier M, Bonneau D, Perault MC, Oriot D, Chabot F, Maillauchaud MC, Magnin G, Vandiel B (1993) Medications exposure during pregnancy: a study in a university hospital. *Therapie*: 48: 43-6.
4. Checa MA, Peiro R, Pascual J, Cerreras R (2005) Drug intake behavior of immigrants during pregnancy. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*: 121: 38-45.
5. Pinto Pereira LM, Nayak BS, Abdul-Lateef H, Matmungal V, Mendes K, Persad S, Ramnath G, Bekele I, Ramasewak S (2010) Drug utilization patterns in pregnant women: A case study at the Mount Hope women's hospital in Trinidad, West Indies. *West Indian Med J*: 59: 561-6.
6. Bonati M, Bortolus R, Marchetti F, Romero M, Tognoni G (1990) Drug use in pregnancy: an overview of epidemiological (drug utilization) studies. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*: 38: 325-8.
7. Bakker MK, Jentink J, Vroom F, Van Den Berg P, De Walle H, De Jong-Van Den Berg L (2006) Drug prescription patterns before, during and after pregnancy for chronic, occasional and pregnancy-related drugs in the Netherlands. *BJOG*: 113: 559-68.
8. WHO Collaborating Center for Drug Statistics Methodology. ATC/DDD Index (2011). [http://www.whocc.no/atc\\_ddd\\_index/](http://www.whocc.no/atc_ddd_index/). Accessed 9 May 2011.
9. Briggs GG, Freeman RK, Yaffe SJ (2008) *Drugs in Pregnancy and Lactation: A Reference Guide to Foetal and Neonatal risk*, 8<sup>th</sup> edn, Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore.
10. Comparing two proportions: significance test for comparing two proportions. <http://math.uc.edu/~brycw/classes/149/wang.htm>. Accessed 15 July 2011.
11. Kebede B, Gedif T, Getachew A (2009) Assessment of drug use among pregnant women in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*: 18: 462-8.
12. Henry A, Crowther C (2000) Patterns of medication use during and prior to pregnancy: the MAP study. *Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol*: 40: 165-72.
13. Rubin PC, Craig GF, Gavin K, Summer D (1986) Prospective survey of use of therapeutic drugs, alcohol, and cigarettes during pregnancy. *Br Med J*: 292: 81-3.
14. Rubin JD, Ferenez C, Loffredo C. The Baltimore-Washington infant study group (1993) Use of prescription and non-prescription drugs in pregnancy. *J Clin Epidemiol*: 46: 581-9.
15. Donati S, Baglio G, Spinelli A, Grandolfo ME (2000) Drug use in pregnancy among Italian women. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*: 56: 323-8.
16. Collaborative Group on Drug Use in Pregnancy (C.G.D.U.P) (1992) Medication during pregnancy: an international cooperative study. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet*: 39: 185-96.

17. Aviv RI, Chubb K, Lindow SW (1993) The prevalence of maternal medication ingestion in the antenatal period. *S Afr Med J*: 83: 657-60.
18. Riley EH, Afflick EF, Jackson RA, Escobar GJ, Brawarsky P, Schreiber M, Haas JS (2005) Correlates of prescription drug use during pregnancy. *J Womens Health*: 14: 401-9.
19. Wen SW, Yang T, Krewski D, Yang Q, Nimrod C, Garner P, Fraser W, Olatunbosun O, Walker MC (2008) Pattern of pregnancy exposure to prescription FDA C, D and X drugs in a Canadian population. *J Perinatol*: 28: 324-9.
20. Kallen B, Otterblad Olausson P (2007) Use of anti-asthmatic drugs during pregnancy 3. Congenital malformations in the infants. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*: 63: 383-8.
21. Mehta N, Larson L (2011) Pharmacotherapy in pregnancy and lactation. *Clin Chest Med*: 32: 43-52.
22. Malm H, Martikainen J, Klaukka T, Neuvonen PJ. Prescription of hazardous drugs during pregnancy (2004) *Drug Saf*: 27: 899-908.
23. Meire F, Vuylsteek K, Buylaert W, Bogaert M (1979) Drug utilization during pregnancy. *Ned Tijdschr Geneesk*: 123: 703-6.
24. Foster DG, Bley J, Mikanda J, Induni M, Arons A, Baumrind N, Darney PD, Stewart F (2004) Contraceptive use and risk of unintended pregnancy in California. *Contraception*: 70: 31-9.
25. Bryant HE, Visser N, Love EJ (1989) Records, recall loss, and recall bias in pregnancy: a comparison of interview and medical records data of pregnant and postnatal women. *Am J Public Health*: 79: 78-80.
26. Doering PL, Boothby LA, Cheek M (2002) Review of pregnancy labeling of prescription drugs: Is the current system adequate to inform risks? *Am J Obstet Gynecol*: 187: 333-9.
27. Andrade SE, Gurwitz JH, Davis RL, Chan KA, Finkelstein JA, Fortman K, McPhillips H, Raebel MA, Roblin D, Smith DH, Yood MU, Morse AN, Platt R (2004) Prescription drug use in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*: 191: 398-407.

**Table I: General characteristics and medication use according to ethnicity [n = 641]**

Variables	Total n (%)	Western (R) n (%)	Arab/Turkish n (%)	Other origins n (%)	p-value
	641 (100)	334 (52.1)	209 (32.6)	98 (15.3)	
Age	[n=641]	[n=334]	[n=209]	[n=98]	
< 26 years	117 (18.3)	55 (16.5)	37 (17.7)	25 (25.5)	<b>0.172</b>
26 – 35 years	398 (62.0)	218 (65.3)	124 (59.3)	56 (57.1)	
> 35 years	126 (19.7)	61 (18.3)	48 (23.0)	17 (17.3)	
Parity	[n=618]	[n=324]	[n=199]	[n=95]	
Nulliparous	247 (40.0)	160 (49.4)	48 (24.1)*	39 (41.4)	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>
Multiparous	371 (60.0)	164 (50.6)	151 (75.9)*	56 (58.9)	
Use of contraceptive method	[n=636]	[n=332]	[n=207]	[n=97]	
Yes	295 (46.4)	172 (51.8)	102 (49.3)	21 (21.6)*	<b>0.000</b>
No	341 (53.6)	160 (48.2)	105 (50.7)	76 (78.4)*	
Contraceptive method (users)	[n=227]	[n=135]	[n=76]	[n=16]	
Pills	181 (79.7)	102 (75.6)	68 (89.5)*	11 (68.8)	<b>0.029</b>
Others	46 (20.3)	33 (24.4)	8 (10.5)*	5 (31.3)	
Stopped contraceptive after conception	[n=262]	[n=153]	[n=90]	[n=19]	
Yes	229 (87.4)	144 (94.1)	74 (82.2)*	11 (57.9)*	<b>0.000</b>
No	33 (12.6)	9 (5.9)	16 (17.8)	8 (42.1)	
Use of medications including multivitamins	[n=641]	[n=334]	[n=209]	[n=98]	
Yes	537 (83.8)	287 (85.9)	175 (83.7)	75 (76.5)	<b>0.085</b>
No	104 (16.2)	47 (14.1)	34 (16.3)	23 (23.5)	
Use of medications excluding multivitamins	[n=641]	[n=334]	[n=209]	[n=98]	
Yes	237 (37.0)	146 (43.7)	60 (28.7)*	31 (31.6)*	<b>0.001</b>
No	404 (63.0)	188 (56.3)	149 (71.3)*	67 (68.4)*	
Use of multivitamins	[n=641]	[n=334]	[n=209]	[n=98]	
Yes	505 (78.8)	274 (82.0)	161 (77.0)	70 (71.4)	<b>0.059</b>
No	136 (21.2)	60 (18.0)	48 (23.0)	28 (28.6)	

n : number of valid data available for each combination of variables may be less than 641 because of missing data in some variables or the analysis is restricted to users only as in contraceptive use details.

p < 0.05 (overall for the 3 groups) indicates a significant association based on Chi-square test of independence.

\*: indicates a significant difference when compared to the Western reference group (R).

Table II: Categorisation of drugs according to reason for use

Category I: Drugs for chronic conditions	Category II: Drugs for occasional and short-time use	Category III: Pregnancy-related drugs
Gastrointestinal bile and liver therapy (A05)	Stomatological preparations (A01)	Antacids (A02A)
Drugs used in diabetes (A10)	Antispasmodic and anticholinergic agents and propulsives (A03, excl. A03FA01)	Antiemetics (A03FA01, R06AE)
Antithrombotic agents (B01)		
Cardiovascular antihypertensive drugs (C02)	Antidiarrhoeals, intestinal anti-inflammatory/anti-infective agents (A07)	Laxatives (A06)
Lipid modifying agents (C10)		
Corticosteroids, dermatological preparations (D07)	Antihemorrhagics (B02)	Gynaecological anti-infectives and antiseptics (G01)
Pituitary and hypothalamic hormones and analogues (H01)	Vasoprotectives (C05)	Sex hormones and modulators of the genital system (G03)
Corticosteroids for systemic use (H02)	Antifungals for dermatological use (D01)	
Thyroid therapy (H03)	Antipruritics, including antihistamines, anesthetics, etc (D04)	
Anti-infective systemic antivirals (J05)	Antibiotics and chemotherapeutics for dermatological use (D06)	
Anti-inflammatory and antirheumatic products (M01)	Antiseptics and disinfectants (D08)	
Anti-Parkinson drugs (N04)	Antiacne preparations (D10)	
Antipsychotics (N05A)	Antibacterials for systemic use (J01)	
Antidepressants (N06A)	Immune sera and immunoglobulins (J06)	
Antiasthmatics (R03)	Analgesics and antipyretics (N02B)	
	Anxiolytics (N05B)	
	Hypnotics and sedatives (N05C)	
	Antihistamines for systemic use (R06, excl. R06AD and R06AE)	
	Ear, eye, nose and throat preparations (S01, R01, R02A, R05)	

Table III: Differences in exposure to drugs before and throughout pregnancy

	Before conception	% women exposed (number of women)£	First trimester	% women exposed (number of women)£	<i>p</i> -value	Second trimester	% women exposed (number of women)£	<i>p</i> -value	Third trimester	% women exposed (number of women)\$	<i>p</i> -value
	Number of drugs		Number of drugs			Number of drugs			Number of drugs		
<b>Reason of use:</b>											
<b>Chronic</b>	64	7.0 (44)	84	9.0 (60)	<b>0.102</b>	78	9.0 (56)	0.697 <b>0.211</b>	33	6.0 (23)	0.098 <b>0.557</b>
<b>Occasional</b>	64	9.0 (58)	80	10.0 (65)	<b>0.507</b>	97	12.0 (78)	0.249 <b>0.070</b>	38	8.0 (33)	0.043 <b>0.623</b>
<b>Pregnancy related</b>	9	1.0 (8)	31	5.0 (29)	<b>0.000</b>	43	6.0 (40)	0.173 <b>0.000</b>	16	4.0 (14)	0.056 <b>0.013</b>
<b>Prescription or OTC:</b>											
<b>OTC</b>	62	9.0 (58)	90	12.0 (74)	<b>0.142</b>	104	13.0 (83)	0.443 <b>0.026</b>	42	9.0 (37)	0.076 <b>0.883</b>
<b>Prescription</b>	74	8.0 (53)	106	12.0 (77)	<b>0.026</b>	113	14.0 (90)	0.281 <b>0.001</b>	44	8.0 (33)	0.006 <b>0.980</b>
<b>FDA risk factor:</b>											
<b>A/B</b>	83	12.0 (78)	104	15.0 (93)	<b>0.218</b>	99	14.0 (88)	0.688 <b>0.406</b>	48	11.0 (42)	0.136 <b>0.437</b>
<b>C/D</b>	41	5.0 (34)	62	7.0 (48)	<b>0.110</b>	62	8.0 (49)	0.916 <b>0.089</b>	24	5.0 (21)	0.142 <b>0.992</b>
<b>U</b>	12	2.0 (12)	33	5.0 (30)	<b>0.005</b>	58	8.0 (53)	0.009 <b>0.000</b>	17	4.0 (16)	0.008 <b>0.037</b>

£: number of women for whom information was available (n = 641).

\$: number of women for whom information was available (n = 397).

Third trimester drug use: information was only available for 397 women (third trimester interviewee) and proportions for the third trimester were calculated according to this number.

% women exposed: represents the percentage of women who used drugs from the respective categories; Proportions were calculated as: number of women exposed to certain kind of drugs / total number in each group.

The **bold** font *p*-values: compared to the **before conception** exposure.

The normal font *p*-values: compared to the preceding trimester.

First trimester exposure was by default compared to the preceding period.

$p < 0.05$ : indicates a statistically significant difference based on the significant test for comparing two proportions (Two-sided z-test). The test is available online: <http://math.uc.edu/~brycw/classes/149/wang.htm>.

Table IV: Differences in mean number of preparations used according to ethnicity

	Total population	<i>p</i> -value overall test	Western (R)	Arab/Turkish	<i>p</i> -value	Other origins	<i>p</i> -value
<b>ANOVA test (mean number for the whole group):</b>							
Medications including multivitamins	1.77	<b>0.000</b>	2.02	1.50	<b>0.000</b>	1.48	<b>0.002</b>
Medications excluding multivitamins	0.58	<b>0.000</b>	0.72	0.42	<b>0.000</b>	0.46	<b>0.035</b>
Multivitamins	1.18	<b>0.004</b>	1.29	1.09	<b>0.024</b>	1.02	<b>0.022</b>
<b>ANOVA test (mean number for users only in each group):</b>							
Medications including multivitamins	2.11	<b>0.000</b>	2.35	1.79	<b>0.000</b>	1.93	<b>0.028</b>
Medications excluding multivitamins	1.58	<b>0.200</b>	1.66	1.45	<b>0.352</b>	1.45	<b>0.683</b>
Multivitamins	1.50	<b>0.034</b>	1.58	1.41	<b>0.059</b>	1.43	<b>0.373</b>

n : number of valid data available for each group

*p* < 0.05 (overall for the 3 groups or pair-wise) indicates a significant difference based on ANOVA test (with Bonferroni post hoc test) and using the Western group as the reference group (R).

Table V: Differences in exposure to drugs among the three ethnic groups

	Total drug use	Western women (R) (n = 334)	% women exposed (number of women)	Arab/ Turkish women (n = 209)	% women exposed (number of women)	<i>p</i> -value	Other origins women (n = 98)	% women exposed (number of women)	<i>p</i> -value
	Number of drugs	Number of drugs		Number of drugs			Number of drugs		
<b>Reason of use:</b>									
<b>Chronic</b>	103	69	15.0 (49)	26	10.0 (21)	<b>0.118</b>	8	6.0 (6)	<b>0.026</b>
<b>Occasional</b>	192	120	26.0 (86)	42	14.0 (30)	<b>0.002</b>	30	24.0 (24)	<b>0.801</b>
<b>Pregnancy related</b>	78	50	13.0 (45)	19	9.0 (18)	<b>0.085</b>	7	6.0 (6)	<b>0.047</b>
<b>Prescription or OTC:</b>									
<b>OTC</b>	205	135	29.0 (96)	47	15.0 (32)	<b>0.000</b>	23	18.0 (18)	<b>0.041</b>
<b>Prescription</b>	167	105	22.0 (75)	39	16.0 (33)	<b>0.058</b>	22	18.0 (18)	<b>0.387</b>
<b>FDA risk factor:</b>									
<b>A/B</b>	186	113	28.0 (94)	50	22.0 (45)	<b>0.086</b>	23	17.0 (17)	<b>0.032</b>
<b>C/D</b>	95	66	16.0 (52)	19	7.0 (14)	<b>0.002</b>	10	8.0 (8)	<b>0.062</b>
<b>U</b>	90	61	16.0 (54)	18	8.0 (16)	<b>0.004</b>	11	10.0 (10)	<b>0.144</b>

% women exposed: represents the proportion of women who used drugs from the respective categories; Proportions were calculated as: number of women exposed to certain kind of medications / total number in each group.

The Western group is the reference group (R) that was compared with the Arab/Turkish and with the "Other origins" group.

n : number of valid data available for each group.

The total number of medications is less than 374 because of missing values.

$p < 0.05$  (overall for the 3 groups) indicates a statistically significant difference based on the significant test for comparing two proportions (Two-sided z-test). The test is available online: <http://math.uc.edu/~brycw/classes/149/wang.htm>.