PRUGS IN PREGNANCY AND LACTATION

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MEDICATION USE DURING PREGNANCY TERATOGENICITY

•	Is it safe t	o use <mark>hair d</mark> y	ve when I'm	pregnant?	

• Is it safe to continue breast-feeding if I'm pregnant with another child?

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Reasons?



Unplanned pregnancy

■Pregnancy is NOT a symptom-producing condition. As a result, many drugs regularly are consumed during gestation, including some that are potential teratogens

Limited data

The *limited availability* of scientific data from randomized trials complicates the decision to prescribe and recommend medications for pregnant women, even when they are medically necessary

Current methods to assess teratogenicity

- Pregnancy registries
- Case- control surveillance studies
- Epidemiologic studies
- Anecdotal experiences in humans
- Animal studies
 - These practices have proven insufficient to determine drug safety accurately

RCT in pregnancy

Randomized, controlled trials to assess the risk of fetal exposure to drugs
difficult and unethical



A few of the thousands

• Currently, <u>only a few therapeutic agents</u> of the <u>thousands</u> of drug therapies are <u>adequately studied</u> and considered <u>relatively low risk</u> on the development of the embryo and fetus.



only a few therapeutic agents



Risk benefit ratio

• The **potential benefits** of medication therapy must be *weighted* against the **possible risks** to the fetus.

Risk benefit ratio

Although drug-induced teratogenicity is a serious concern during pregnancy, most drugs required by pregnant women can be used safely



Risk benefit ratio Informed selection of drug therapy essential

Reliable resources?

• <u>Healthcare practitioners</u> must know <u>where to find</u> and <u>how to evaluate</u> evidence related to the safety of drugs used during pregnancy and lactation



TERMINOLOGY

- Teratogenicity
- Birth defects
- Congential anomalies
- Congential malformations

Teratogenicity definition

Agent that produce **abnormal development** in the *fetus* under <u>certain exposure conditions</u>

TERATOGEN

TERATOGEN

- A teratogen is defined as any environmental factor that can produce a:
- permanent abnormality in <u>structure</u> or <u>function</u>, restriction of <u>growth</u>, or <u>death of the embryo or fetus</u>

Birth defects

- National Institute of Child Health and Human Development:
- Birth defects are structural or functional abnormalities present at birth that can cause physical disability, intellectual and developmental disability (IDD), and other health problems. Some may be fatal, especially if not detected and treated early

■ The broader term <u>congential anomalies</u> include the <u>four</u> major manifestations of <u>abnormal</u> fetal <u>development</u> which include:

- GROWTH ALTERATIONS
- FUNCTIONAL DEFICITS
- STRUCTURAL MALFORMATIONS
- **AND FETAL DEATH**

• Teratogenicity = Birth defects = Congential anomalies

congential malformations

- **▶ Defined as**:
- Structural abnormalities of prenatal origin that are present at birth and that seriously interfere with viability or physical well-being."

DEFINITION

The <u>largest concern</u> risk of **congential** malformations

functional abnormalities

- Some drug-induced defects relate to changes in functions or conditions that are not structural abnormalities, e.g.
- Mental retardation
- CNS depression
- Deafness
- Tumors
- Biochemical changes

Extent of affect on development

- Depends on the:
- physical and chemical properties of the drug
- Dose
- Duration
- Route
- Timing of exposure
- Genetic composition and biological susceptibility of the mother and fetus

BACKGROUNDRISK

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TERATOGENICTY

BACKGROUND RISK

A thorough *assessment*, including knowledge of the teratogenic potential of the drug, the critical period of exposure, and magnitude of risk must be compared with the *background risk*

The background incidence of birth defects



3%

(4 to 6 percent) in the general population

This number has been derived from large epidemiologic studies completed over the past several decades

MEDICATIONS

Medication exposure is estimated to account for LESS THAN 1% of all birth defects

LESS ITIMIN 1 70

LESS THAN 1%

OTHER CAUSES

♦ Genetic causes



15% to 25%

- Other environmental issues (e.g., maternal conditions and infections)
 10%
- unknown causes



65% to 75%

► Ascertain if a particular drug increases the risk of developmental toxicity in the fetus beyond the background rate

Beyond the background rate

The basic principles of TERATOGENICTY

• The basic principles of <u>TERATOGENICTY</u> can help to assess the risk of exposure and interpretation of limited studies during pregnancy.

Basic principles of teratogenicity should be applied when assessing the potential for teratogenicity

- CRITICAL STAGE OF EXPOSURE
- DOSE-RESPONSE CURVE
- EXTRAPOLATION FROM ANIMAL STUDIES
- GENETIC VARIABILITY
- PLACENTAL TRANSFER OF DRUGS

- After fertilization, THREE main stages:
- □ Pre-embryonic period
- □ Embryonic period
- ☐ Fetal period

CRITICAL STAGE OF EXPOSURE

"ALL OR NONE" EFFECT



PRE-EMBRYONIC PERIOD

Organogenesis

- 14–56 days after fertilization:
- The embryo is <u>most susceptible</u> to the effects of teratogens
- Many women



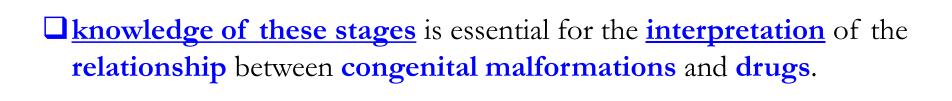
are **not yet aware** of the **pregnancy**

EMBRYONIC PERIOD

FETAL PERIOD

- **57** days to term:
- FUNCTIONAL MATURATION (Mental development and reproduction)
- **MINOR STRUCTURAL CHANGES** are still possible

FETAL PERIOD

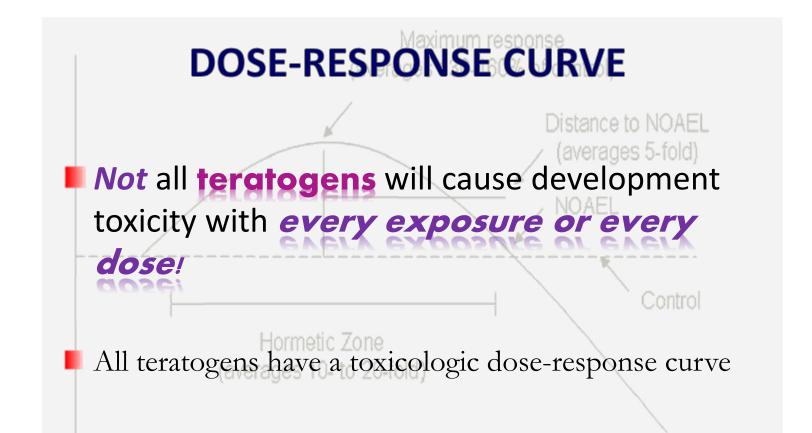


Drug exposure after the time of organ development



structural defect?!

☐ These stages of development differ significantly from other species



Threshold Dose

XAll teratogens



threshold dose below

which adverse effects will not occur.

DOSE-RESPONSE CURVE

Thalidomide

Developmental toxicity under specific conditions:

1-mg dose of thalidomide at anytime during pregnancy .

No observable effects on the fetus

Thalidomide

- Developmental toxicity under specific conditions:
- A single 50-mg dose:
- **26th day** after conception



major structural malformation

Thalidomide

- A single 50-mg dose:
- Minimal risk if taken in the 10th week after conception.

Increasingly higher dosages incidence of malformations.



increase in the **severity** and

<u>valproic acid</u> dosages >1,000 mg/day during the first trimester



NTD and *minor anomalies*, are increased

ALWAYS ADMINISTER MINIMUM EFFECTIVE DOSE

Extrapolation From Animal Studies

Animal studies and interpreted by many factors

Newly marketed drugs estimation of teratogenic risk based on animal studies until human data become available.

- The drug appears to have a low risk for teratogenicity If:
- > The toxic dose in animals is greater than ten times the anticipated human dose

- Risk assessment using animal data is more complicated than just considering the dosage alone.
- Other major factors, including:
 - > The effects of metabolism
 - Active metabolites
 - Species differentiation
 - Route of administration, and type of defects
- Must be considered

GENETIC VARIABILITY

The **teratogenic potential** of **some drugs** is influenced by the **GENOTYPE** of both the **MOTHER** and **FETUS**

GENETIC VARIABILITY

- DIFFERENCES IN:
- Cell sensitivities
- Placental transport
- Drug metabolism
- Enzyme composition
- And receptor binding

PHENYTOIN

Poor metabolizer



Higher risk for fetal hydantoin syndrome

Increased susceptibility to the teratogenic effect caused by *elevated* levels of oxidative metabolites (epoxides)

Fetal hydantoin syndrome include: • cleft lip, cleft palate • congenital heart disease • slowed growth • mental deficiency

FOOD AND DRUG ADMINISTRATION RISK FACTORS



the FDA system of rating pregnancy

This system categorizes all drugs approved after 1983 into one of five-pregnancy-risk categories

A, **B**, **C**, **D**, and **X**

May mislead healthcare providers?

RISK OR RISK BENEFIT?

A drug in categories C or D may pose risks similar to a drug in category x

- The <u>risk factors</u> may be:
- <u>Ambiguous</u>, <u>outdated</u>, and do not provide information regarding the full range of <u>potential developmental toxicity</u> (i.e., <u>structural defects</u>, <u>growth restriction</u>, <u>functional deficits</u>, and <u>fetal death</u>)

- In addition, the categories do not always **distinguish** between:
- **RISKS** based on *human versus animal data* findings
- or
- Differences in frequency, severity, and type of fetal developmental toxicities

The proposed rule <u>would remove the categories</u> from the labeling of all drug products



The NEW FDA pregnancy system

The FDA revising the pregnancy labeling and category system to include narrative text to provide more clinical management advice that includes consideration of both animal and human data

GENERAL INFORMATION DESCRIBING OVERALL RISK AND BENEFIT







REFERENCES

structured narratives

8.1 Pregnancy

Risk Summary

Neonates born to mothers using zolpidem late in the third trimester of pregnancy have been reported to experience symptoms of respiratory depression and sedation [see Clinical Considerations and Data]. Published data on the use of zolpidem during pregnancy have not reported a clear association with zolpidem and major birth defects [see Data]. Oral administration of zolpidem to pregnant rats and rabbits did not indicate a risk for adverse effects on fetal development at clinically relevant doses [see Data].

The estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated populations are unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2%–4% and 15%–20%, respectively.

Clinical Considerations

Fetal/neonatal adverse reactions

Zolpidem crosses the placenta and may produce respiratory depression and sedation in neonates. Monitor neonates exposed to AMBIEN during pregnancy and labor for signs of excess sedation, hypotonia, and respiratory depression and manage accordingly.

Data

Human data

Published data from observational studies, birth registries, and case reports on the use of zolpidem during pregnancy do not report a clear association with zolpidem and major birth defects.

There are limited postmarketing reports of severe to moderate cases of respiratory depression that occurred after birth in neonates whose mothers had taken zolpidem during pregnancy. These cases required artificial ventilation or intratracheal intubation. The majority of neonates recovered within hours to a few weeks after birth once treated.

Zolpidem has been shown to cross the placenta.

Animal data

Oral administration of zolpidem to pregnant rats during the period of organogenesis at 4, 20, and 100 mg base/kg/day, which are approximately 5, 25, and 120 times the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) of 10 mg/day (8 mg zolpidem base) based on mg/m² body surface area, caused delayed fetal development (incomplete fetal skeletal ossification) at maternally toxic (ataxia) doses 25 and 120 times the MRHD based on mg/m² body surface area.

Oral administration of zolpidem to pregnant rabbits during the period of organogenesis at 1, 4, and 16 mg base/kg/day, which are approximately 2.5, 10, and 40 times the MRHD of 10 mg/day (8 mg zolpidem base) based on mg/m² body surface area caused embryo-fetal death and delayed fetal development (incomplete fetal skeletal ossification) at a maternally toxic (decreased body weight gain) dose 40 times the MRHD based on mg/m² body surface area.

Oral administration of zolpidem to pregnant rats from day 15 of gestation through lactation at 4, 20, and 100 mg base/kg/day, which are approximately 5, 25, and 120 times the MRHD of 10 mg/day (8 mg zolpidem base) based on mg/m² body surface area, delayed offspring growth and decreased survival at doses 25 and 120 times, respectively, the MRHD based on mg/m² body surface area.

Azithromycin

8.1 Pregnancy

Risk Summary

Available data from published literature and postmarketing experience over several decades with azithromycin use in pregnant women have not identified any drug-associated risks for major birth defects, miscarriage, or adverse maternal or fetal outcomes (see Data). Developmental toxicity studies with azithromycin in rats, mice, and rabbits showed no drug-induced fetal malformations at doses up to 4, 2, and 2 times, respectively, an adult human daily dose of 500 mg based on body surface area. Decreased viability and delayed development were observed in the offspring of pregnant rats administered azithromycin from day 6 of pregnancy through weaning at a dose equivalent to 4 times an adult human daily dose of 500 mg based on body surface area (see Data).

The estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated populations is unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2 to 4% and 15 to 20%, respectively.

Data

Human Data

Available data from published observational studies, case series, and case reports over several decades do not suggest an increased risk for major birth defects, miscarriage, or adverse maternal or fetal outcomes with azithromycin use in pregnant women. Limitations of these data include the lack of randomization and inability to control for confounders such as underlying maternal disease and maternal use of concomitant medications.

Animal Data

Azithromycin administered during the period of organogenesis did not cause fetal malformations in rats and mice at oral doses up to 200 mg/kg/day (moderately maternally toxic). Based on body surface area, this dose is approximately 4 (rats) and 2 (mice) times an adult human daily dose of 500 mg. In rabbits administered azithromycin at oral doses of 10, 20, and 40 mg/kg/day during organogenesis, reduced maternal body weight and food consumption were observed in all groups; no evidence of fetotoxicity or teratogenicity was observed at these doses, the highest of which is estimated to be 2 times an adult human daily dose of 500 mg based on body surface area.

In a pre- and postnatal development study, azithromycin was administered orally to pregnant rats from day 6 of pregnancy until weaning at doses of 50 or 200 mg/kg/day. Maternal toxicity (reduced food consumption and body weight gain; increased stress at parturition) was observed at the higher dose. Effects in the offspring were noted at 200 mg/kg/day during the postnatal development period (decreased viability, delayed developmental landmarks). These effects were not observed in a pre- and postnatal rat study when up to 200 mg/kg/day of azithromycin was given orally beginning on day 15 of pregnancy until weaning.

The NEW FDA pregnancy system

GEMIFLOXACIN

Anti-infective (Fluoroquinolone)

PREGNANCY RECOMMENDATION: Contraindicated (Use only if no other alternatives)

BREASTFEEDING RECOMMENDATION: No Human Data—Probably Compatible

PREGNANCY SUMMARY

No reports describing the use of gemifloxacin during human pregnancy have been located. The animal toxicity (fetal growth restriction) observed at exposures close to those obtained in humans should be considered before this agent is used in pregnant women. Moreover, some reviewers have concluded that all quinolones should be considered contraindicated in pregnancy (e.g., see Ciprofloxacin and Norfloxacin) because safer alternatives are usually available.

Additionally, the FDA has added warnings to all fluoroquinolones for the risk of disabling and potentially permanent effects involving the tendons, muscles, joints, nerves, and central nervous system. Fluoroquinolones should be reserved for those who do not have alternative treatment options (1).

Fetal risk summary

- The fetal risk summary would begin with a **ONE SENTENCE RISK CONCLUSION** that characterizes **the likelihood that** the drug increases the **risk** of **four types** of **developmental abnormalities**:
- <u>structural anomalies</u>, <u>fetal and infant mortality</u>, <u>impaired</u> <u>physiologic function</u>, <u>alterations to growth</u>

Azithromycin

8.1 **Pregnancy**

Risk Summary

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The estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated populations is unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2 to 4% and 15 to 20%, respectively.

- The risk conclusion would state whether it was based on animal or human data.
- More than one risk conclusion may be needed to characterize the likelihood of risk for different developmental abnormalities doses, durations of exposure, or gestational ages at exposure.

Azithromycin

8.1 **Pregnancy**

Risk Summary

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The estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated populations is unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2 to 4% and 15 to 20%, respectively.

- If there are only animal data the fetal risk summary would contain only the risk conclusion.
- However, when there are <u>human data</u>, the risk conclusion would be followed by <u>approximately a paragraph</u> describing the <u>most important</u> <u>data</u> about the <u>effects</u> of the drug on the <u>fetus</u>

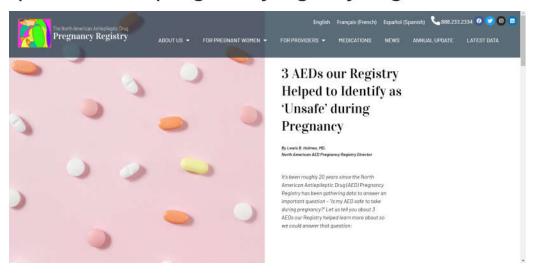
- **To the extent possible, this narrative would include the:**
- **Specific** developmental abnormality (e.g., Neural tube defects)
- **The** *incidence*, *seriousness*, *reversibility*, and *correctability* of the abnormality
- The effect of dose, duration of exposure, and gestational timing of exposure on the risk of the abnormality

8.1 Pregnancy

Pregnancy Exposure Registry

There is a pregnancy exposure registry that monitors pregnancy outcomes in women exposed to antiepileptic drugs (AEDs), including Valproate sodium, during pregnancy. Encourage women who are taking Valproate sodium during pregnancy to enroll in the North American Antiepileptic Drug (NAAED) Pregnancy Registry by calling toll-free 1-888-233-2334 or visiting the website, http://www.aedpregnancyregistry.org/. This must be

done by the patient herself.



Risk Summary

For use in prophylaxis of migraine headaches, valproate is contraindicated in women who are pregnant and in women of childbearing potential who are not using effective contraception [see Contraindications (4)].

For use in epilepsy or bipolar disorder, valproate should not be used to treat women who are pregnant or who plan to become pregnant unless other medications have failed to provide adequate symptom control or are otherwise unacceptable [see Boxed Warning and Warnings and Precautions (5.2, 5.3)]. Women with epilepsy who become

pregnant while taking valproate should not discontinue valproate abruptly, as this can precipitate status epilepticus with resulting maternal and fetal hypoxia and threat to life.

Maternal valproate use during pregnancy for any indication increases the risk of congenital malformations, particularly neural tube defects including spina bifida, but also malformations involving other body systems (e.g., craniofacial defects including oral clefts, cardiovascular malformations, hypospadias, limb malformations). This risk is dose-dependent; however, a threshold dose below which no risk exists cannot be established. In utero exposure to valproate may also result in hearing impairment or hearing loss. Valproate polytherapy with other AEDs has been associated with an increased frequency of congenital malformations compared with AED monotherapy. The risk of major structural abnormalities is greatest during the first trimester; however, other serious developmental effects can occur with valproate use throughout pregnancy. The rate of congenital malformations among babies born to epileptic mothers who used valproate during pregnancy has been shown to be about four times higher than the rate among babies born to epileptic mothers who used other antiseizure monotherapies [see Warnings and Precautions (5.2) and Data (Human)].

Epidemiological studies have indicated that children exposed to valproate *in utero* have lower IQ scores and a higher risk of neurodevelopmental disorders compared to children exposed to either another AED *in utero* or to no AEDs *in utero* [see Warnings and Precautions (5.3) and Data (Human)].

An observational study has suggested that exposure to valproate products during pregnancy increases the risk of autism spectrum disorders [see Data (Human)].

In animal studies, valproate administration during pregnancy resulted in fetal structural malformations similar to those seen in humans and neurobehavioral deficits in the offspring at clinically relevant doses [see Data (Animal)].

There have been reports of hypoglycemia in neonates and fatal cases of hepatic failure in infants following maternal use of valproate during pregnancy.

Pregnant women taking valproate may develop hepatic failure or clotting abnormalities including thrombocytopenia, hypofibrinogenemia, and/or decrease in other coagulation factors, which may result in hemorrhagic complications in the neonate including death [see Warnings and Precautions (5.1, 5.8)].

Available prenatal diagnostic testing to detect neural tube and other defects should be offered to pregnant women using valproate.

Evidence suggests that folic acid supplementation prior to conception and during the first trimester of pregnancy decreases the risk for congenital neural tube defects in the general population. It is not known whether the risk of neural tube defects or decreased IQ in the offspring of women receiving valproate is reduced by folic acid supplementation. Dietary folic acid supplementation both prior to conception and during pregnancy should be routinely recommended for patients using valproate [see Warnings and Precautions (5.2, 5.4)].

All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2 to 4% and 15 to 20%, respectively.

CLINICAL CONSIDERATIONS

- The Clinical considerations component would address **three main topics** important when **counseling with**, and **prescribing** for, women who are:
- Pregnant, lactating, or of childbearing age

Clinical considerations in pregnancy

- Inadvertent exposure
- Prescribing decisions for pregnant women
- Orug effects during labor or delivery

Clinical Considerations

Disease-associated maternal and/or embryo/fetal risk

To prevent major seizures, women with epilepsy should not discontinue valproate abruptly, as this can precipitate status epilepticus with resulting maternal and fetal hypoxia and threat to life. Even minor seizures may pose some hazard to the developing embryo or fetus [see Warnings and Precautions (5.4)]. However, discontinuation of the drug may be considered prior to and during pregnancy in individual cases if the seizure disorder severity and frequency do not pose a serious threat to the patient.

Maternal adverse reactions

Pregnant women taking valproate may develop clotting abnormalities including thrombocytopenia, hypofibrinogenemia, and/or decrease in other coagulation factors, which may result in hemorrhagic complications in the neonate including death [see Warnings and Precautions (5.7)]. If valproate is used in pregnancy, the clotting parameters should be monitored carefully in the mother. If abnormal in the mother, then these parameters should also be monitored in the neonate.

Patients taking valproate may develop hepatic failure [see Boxed Warning and Warnings and Precautions (5.1)]. Fatal cases of hepatic failure in infants exposed to valproate in utero have also been reported following maternal use of valproate during pregnancy.

Hypoglycemia has been reported in neonates whose mothers have taken valproate during pregnancy.

Data

Human

Neural tube defects and other structural abnormalities

There is an extensive body of evidence demonstrating that exposure to valproate *in utero* increases the risk of neural tube defects and other structural abnormalities. Based on published data from the CDC's National Birth Defects Prevention Network, the risk of spina bifida in the general population is about 0.06 to 0.07% (6 to 7 in 10,000 births) compared to the risk following *in utero* valproate exposure estimated to be approximately 1 to 2% (100 to 200 in 10,000 births).

The NAAED Pregnancy Registry has reported a major malformation rate of 9-11% in the offspring of women exposed to an average of 1,000 mg/day of valproate monotherapy during pregnancy. These data show an up to a five-fold increased risk for any major malformation following valproate exposure in utero compared to the risk following exposure in utero to other AEDs taken as monotherapy. The major congenital malformations included cases of neural tube defects, cardiovascular malformations, craniofacial defects (e.g., oral clefts, craniosynostosis), hypospadias, limb malformations (e.g., clubfoot, polydactyly), and other malformations of varying severity involving other body systems [see Warnings and Precautions (5.2)].

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Animal

In developmental toxicity studies conducted in mice, rats, rabbits, and monkeys, increased rates of fetal structural abnormalities, intrauterine growth retardation, and embryo-fetal death occurred following administration of valproate to pregnant animals during organogenesis at clinically relevant doses (calculated on a body surface area [mg/m²] basis). Valproate induced malformations of multiple organ systems, including skeletal, cardiac, and urogenital defects. In mice, in addition to other malformations, fetal neural tube defects have been reported following valproate administration during critical periods of organogenesis, and the teratogenic response correlated with peak maternal drug levels. Behavioral abnormalities (including cognitive, locomotor, and social interaction deficits) and brain histopathological changes have also been reported in mice and rat offspring exposed prenatally to clinically relevant doses of valproate.

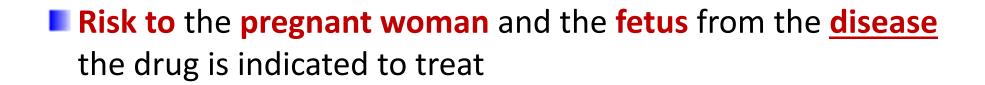
INADVERTENT EXPOSURE

This section would describe known or predicted risks to the fetus from exposure to the drug early in pregnancy before a woman knows she is pregnant, including data on dose, timing, and duration of exposure.

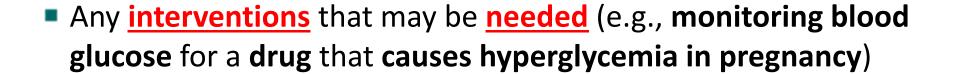
Risk Summary

Leflunomide is contraindicated for use in pregnant women because of the potential for fetal harm. In animal reproduction studies, oral administration of leflunomide during organogenesis at a dose of 1/10 of and equivalent to the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) based on AUC, respectively in rats and rabbits, caused teratogenicity (rats and rabbits) and embryo-lethality (rats) [see Data]. Pregnancy exposure registry data are not available at this time to inform the presence or absence of drug-associated risk with the use of leflunomide during pregnancy. The background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated populations is unknown. The background risk in the U.S. general population of major birth defects is 2 to 4% and of miscarriage is 15 to 20% of clinically recognized pregnancies. If this drug is used during pregnancy, or if the patient becomes pregnant while taking this drug, stop treatment with leflunomide, apprise the patient of the potential hazard to a fetus, and perform the accelerated drug elimination procedure to achieve teriflunomide concentrations of less than 0.02 mg/L (0.02 mcg/mL) [see Warnings and Precautions (5.3)].

PRESCRIBING DECISIONS FOR PREGNANT WOMEN



- Dosing adjustments during pregnancy
- Adverse reactions unique to pregnancy associated with use of the drug.



 Any <u>complications</u> in the **neonate** associated with drug use, including <u>severity</u> and <u>reversibility</u>, and interventions needed

Drug effects during labor or delivery

- Drug with a recognized use during labor or delivery (whether or not the drug is indicated for that use), include information about the:
- Effect of the drug on the mother; the fetus/neonate
- Duration of labor and delivery
- Possibility of complications, including needed interventions; and the later growth, development, and functional maturation of the child.

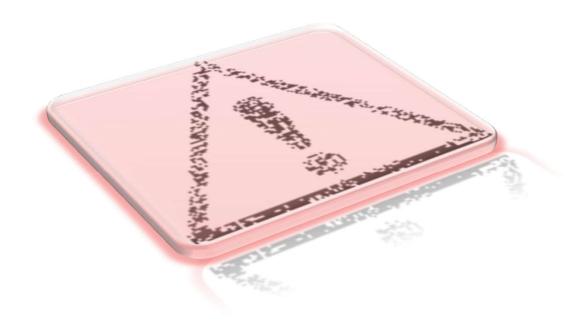
DATA

- The data section would have a more detailed discussion of available data.
- Human data would appear before animal data.

DATA

- The section would include:
- A description of the types of studies
- Animal species used
- Dose exposure information (animal doses described in terms of human dose equivalents)
- Nature of any identified fetal developmental anomalies and other adverse events
- For animal data, an explanation of what is known about the relationship between drug exposure and mechanism of action in animals versus humans.

Because the **potential for fetal risks** cannot be entirely **disregarded for many drugs**, the need to medicate during pregnancy should be **evaluated carefully**



BREAST-FEEDING

Why BREAST-FEEDING?

Breast milk is recognized as the **optimal source of nutrition** for infants, with documented benefits not only to infants but also to **mothers**, **families**, and **societies**.

- Incidence or severity of many infectious in infants e.g.:
- Otitis media
- Respiratory infections
- Urinary tract infections

- In children and adults who were breast-fed:
- Obesity
- Inflammatory bowel disease
- Celiac disease
- Childhood leukemia



Lactation may also positively influence <u>cognitive</u> and <u>intellectual development</u> in children and young adults.

BENEFITS TO THE MOTHER

- Decreased postpartum blood loss
- More rapid uterine involution
- Earlier return to prepregnancy weight
- Decreased risks of breast cancer, ovarian cancer, and osteoporosis.

PARAMETERS AFFECT DRUG EXCRETION INTO BREAST MILK

MATERNAL PARAMETERS DRUG PARAMETERS INFANT PARAMETERS

- Drug dosage and duration of therapy
- Route and frequency of administration
- Metabolism
- Renal clearance
- Blood flow to the breasts
- Milk pH
- Milk composition

MATERNAL PARAMETERS

- Oral bioavailability (to mother and infant)
- Molecular weight
- **д** рКа
- **Lipid** solubility
- Protein binding

DRUG PARAMETERS

- Age of the infant
- Feeding pattern
- Amount of breast milk consumed
- Drug absorption, distribution, metabolism, elimination

INFANT PARAMETERS

Reducing Risk of Infant Exposure to Drugs in Breast Milk

A drug should be used only *IF MEDICALLY NECESSARY* and treatment cannot be delayed until the infant is ready to be weaned



- Consider whether the drug can be safely given directly to the infant.
- Select a drug that passes poorly into breast milk with the lowest predicted M:P ratio, and a RID (relative infant dose) <10%.</p>
- Avoid long-acting formulations (e.g., sustained-release).

Drug Selection

- Consider possible ROUTES of administration that can reduce drug excretion into milk.
- Determine LENGTH of therapy and if possible avoid longterm use.

Drug Selection



- Avoid nursing during times of peak drug concentration.
- If possible, plan breast-feeding before administration of the next dose.

Other Considerations

- Always observe the infant for **UNUSUAL SIGNS** (e.g., sedation, irritability, rash, decreased appetite, failure to thrive).
- DISCONTINUE breast-feeding during the course of therapy if the RISKS to the fetus OUTWEIGH the BENEFITS of nursing.

Other Considerations

Provide ADEQUATE PATIENT EDUCATION to increase understanding of risk factors.

FDA Lactation Subsection

Risk summary

- If appropriate, include *A STATEMENT* that the use of the *DRUG*IS COMPATIBLE with breast-feeding.
- → Effects of the drug on *MILK PRODUCTION*
- → Whether the DRUG is PRESENT IN HUMAN MILK (and if so, HOW MUCH)
- → The *EFFECT* of the drug on the *BREAST-FED CHILD*

Clinical considerations

- Ways to minimize exposure to the breast-fed child, such as TIMING or PUMPING AND DISCARDING MILK.
- POTENTIAL drug EFFECTS in the CHILD and recommendations for MONITORING or RESPONDING to these EFFECTS.
- DOSING ADJUSTMENT during lactation.



OVERVIEW of data on which **RISK SUMMARY** and **CLINICAL CONSIDERATIONS** are **BASED**.

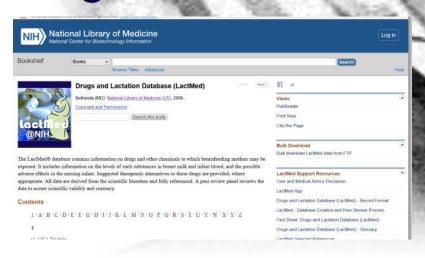
REFERENCE LIBRARY

- Because the pharmacologic therapy of pregnant women is undergoing continuous change, no single source, will have all of the published reports or even cover all of the drugs.
- Thus, we recommend a reference library that contains several other sources

Books

- Briggs GG, Freeman RK, Yaffe SJ. Drugs in Pregnancy and Lactation. A Reference Guide to Fetal and Neonatal Risk.
- Hale T. Medications and Mothers' Milk
- Koren G. Medication Safety in Pregnancy and Breastfeeding. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Schaefer C, Peters P, Miller RK. Drugs during Pregnancy and Lactation
- Schardein JL. Chemically Induced Birth Defects. 3rd ed. New York: Marcel Dekker
- Shepard TH, Lemire RJ. Catalog of Teratogenic Agents

- https://mothertobaby.org/
- https://www.nlm.nih.gov/
- https://www.acog.org/
- Drugs and Lactation Database (LactMed)



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