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Impact of serotonin reuptake inhibitor use on breast milk supply in mothers of preterm infants: a retrospective cohort study

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1 **Title: Impact of Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor Use on Breast Milk Supply in Mothers of**
2 **Preterm Infants: A Retrospective Cohort Study**

3

4 **Running title:** Antidepressant Use and Breast Milk Supply

5

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23 **Abstract**

24 **Aims:** To examine the association between late pregnancy exposure to serotonin reuptake
25 inhibitor (SRI) antidepressants and difficulties in achieving an adequate breast milk supply in
26 women who gave birth to preterm infants, while accounting for the potential impacts of
27 underlying maternal psychiatric illness.

28 **Methods:** Retrospective cohort study of 3,024 women delivering liveborn preterm infants
29 (<37 weeks' gestation) between January 2004 and December 2008. The primary outcome
30 was postnatal domperidone use, considered a valid proxy for presence and pharmacological
31 management of low milk supply. Relative risks adjusted for maternal sociodemographics and
32 comorbidities (aRRs) were calculated for low milk supply, comparing women with late
33 pregnancy exposure to SRI antidepressants (n = 86), women with a psychiatric illness but no
34 antidepressant use (n = 126), and women with neither antenatal exposures (n = 2 812).

35 **Results:** Compared to non-exposed women, non-medicated psychiatric illness (aRR 1.64;
36 95%CI 1.16-2.30) but not late pregnancy SRI use (aRR 1.00; 95%CI 0.59-1.70) was
37 associated with an increased risk of domperidone use, indicative of low milk supply.

38 **Conclusions:** These findings do not support the previously observed negative impacts of
39 antidepressant use on breastfeeding, instead suggesting that women with an underlying
40 psychiatric illness appear at greatest risk of experiencing low milk supply and could benefit
41 from additional breastfeeding education and support.

42 **Keywords:** serotonin agents, antidepressive agents, breastfeeding, lactation, premature birth

43

44 **Structured Summary**

45 **Statement 1: What is already known about this subject**

- 46 • Serotonin plays an important role in human breast milk volume homeostasis within
47 the mammary gland during lactation
- 48 • Previous research demonstrates women taking antidepressants have lower rates of
49 breastfeeding intention and initiation and are more likely to experience delayed
50 secretory activation
- 51 • Whether use of SRIs during lactation is associated with a reduction in breast milk
52 volume or leads to impaired long-term breastfeeding outcomes is unclear

53

54 **Statement 2: What this study adds**

- 55 • In a cohort of mothers of preterm infants, use of SRIs in late pregnancy was not
56 associated with an increased risk of experiencing low milk supply
- 57 • Women with an underlying psychiatric illness appear at greatest risk of experiencing
58 low milk supply and could therefore benefit from additional breastfeeding education
59 and support.

60

61

62

63 **Main Body of Text**

64 **Introduction:**

65 Serotonin has been identified as playing an important role in human breast milk volume
66 homeostasis within the mammary gland during lactation, with increased levels leading to
67 mammary gland involution and reduced milk production.¹ This raises concerns that
68 medications that alter serotonin signaling, such as the serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SRI)
69 antidepressants, may interfere with the normal physiological processes involved in lactation
70 and therefore place women at increased risk of poor breastfeeding outcomes. Previous
71 research has identified that women taking antidepressants have lower rates of breastfeeding
72 intention and initiation,^{2,3} but most recent evidence suggests this is largely due to residual
73 confounding from underlying maternal psychiatric illness.⁴ Marshall et al, however,
74 demonstrated an association between maternal Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor (SSRI)
75 use and delayed secretory activation (defined as onset of copious milk production; also
76 known as stage II lactogenesis) which was independent of underlying maternal depressive
77 illness.⁵ While it is well established that delayed secretory activation is associated with a
78 reduced duration of breastfeeding,⁶ whether this observed delay associated with SSRI use is
79 also associated with a reduction in breast milk volume or leads to impaired long-term
80 breastfeeding outcomes is unclear. Therefore, the aim of this study was to examine the
81 association between late pregnancy exposure to SRIs and difficulties in achieving an
82 adequate breast milk supply in women who gave birth to preterm infants, while accounting
83 for the potential impacts of underlying maternal psychiatric illness.

84

85 **Methods:**

86 *Ethical Approval*

87 This project was approved by the Women's and Children's Health Network Human
88 Research Ethics Committee (REC2219-10-14).

89

90 *Study Design and Setting*

91 We conducted a retrospective cohort study of all women delivering liveborn preterm
92 infants (<37 weeks' gestation) at the Women's and Children's Hospital (WCH) in South
93 Australia between January 2004 and December 2008 (n=3 054). We excluded women exposed
94 to antidepressants other than serotonin reuptake inhibitors (n=13) or antipsychotics (n=17),
95 leaving a final cohort of 3 024 women.

96 The WCH is accredited as part of the Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI) and has
97 a dedicated lactation support service. This study utilised linkable electronic health
98 administrative data within the WCH, including the WCH Perinatal Statistics Collection and the
99 WCH Hospital Pharmacy Dispensing Records. The Perinatal Statistics Collection (PSC)
100 includes electronic data on the pregnancy and outcome of every live birth and late fetal death
101 occurring at the hospital.⁷ The information in the PSC has been previously validated and is
102 reliable when compared with hospital case records.⁸ These data have been previously utilised
103 to investigate outcomes associated with the use of antidepressants during pregnancy and the
104 use of domperidone for the management of low milk supply, the full details of which have been
105 previously published elsewhere.^{9, 10}

106

107 *Measures*

108 *Antidepressant use and psychiatric illness*

109 Late pregnancy exposure to serotonin reuptake inhibitors was identified from the WCH
110 Pharmacy Dispensing Records. Women were classified as exposed if they were dispensed a
111 serotonin reuptake inhibitor antidepressant during late pregnancy (second and third trimesters).

112 Hospital pharmacy dispensing records have previously been validated as an indicator of
113 exposure to antidepressants in late pregnancy, including exposure around the time of delivery.⁷
114 In an effort to obtain a suitable comparison group consisting of women with similar underlying
115 disease to those exposed to antidepressants during pregnancy, we identified a cohort of women
116 with an identified psychiatric illness during pregnancy but who were not dispensed an
117 antidepressant (disease comparison termed ‘nonmedicated psychiatric illness’). The presence
118 of a psychiatric illness during pregnancy was identified from the electronic PSC, with
119 midwives recording the diagnosis if the woman is receiving medication for her psychiatric
120 illness or if it was recorded in the notes that the woman received psychological/psychiatric
121 support during her pregnancy. This has been utilised as a disease comparator group in previous
122 studies.¹¹ The remaining group of women consisted of those who did not have a psychiatric
123 illness and were not dispensed an antidepressant (termed ‘non-exposed’).

124

125 *Breastfeeding Outcomes and Domperidone use*

126 The primary outcome was postnatal domperidone use. Domperidone is a galactagogue
127 which stimulates and promotes milk production and is commonly used as a pharmacological
128 treatment for mothers who are experiencing lactation difficulties.^{12, 13} Therefore, domperidone
129 use was considered a proxy for the presence and pharmacological management of low milk
130 supply. Data relating to women dispensed domperidone were obtained from the WCH
131 Pharmacy Dispensing Records in accordance with previously published methods.¹⁴
132 Domperidone is only able to be prescribed by medical doctors for mothers of preterm infants
133 in the neonatal unit utilising a pre-printed prescribing checklist, with no restrictions according
134 to level of experience (e.g. interns, registrars and consultants all eligible to prescribe).
135 Prescribers in the Neonatal Unit are only allowed to prescribe mother’s domperidone for the
136 explicit indication of lactation insufficiency, with mothers referred to other physicians for the

137 management of conditions not affecting their infant. Further, we have previously undertaken a
138 detailed medication chart review for a random selection of 215 of 1,605 mother-infant dyads
139 where domperidone was prescribed, with 100% of records indicating that domperidone was
140 prescribed for lactation insufficiency.⁹ Guidelines regarding the use of domperidone or
141 management of low milk supply during this time period have remained consistent,
142 recommending domperidone as the first-line pharmacological treatment. Domperidone is the
143 most widely prescribed first-line agent for management of maternal low milk supply across
144 Australian neonatal units.¹³ Data on any breastfeeding at neonate discharge from hospital are
145 routinely collected and were utilised to determine additional breastfeeding outcomes.
146 Furthermore, in the 2008 calendar year only, additional data were also available pertaining to
147 initiation of breastfeeding and exclusivity of breastfeeding during infant admission to the
148 Neonatal Unit.

149

150 *Covariates*

151 Data on additional maternal and neonatal characteristics were obtained from the PSC.
152 Maternal age and body mass index (BMI) was determined at the time of first antenatal
153 booking visit. Women were classified as non-smokers or smokers during pregnancy based on
154 maternal self-report at the first antenatal visit. The estimated length of gestational age at
155 delivery is based on the last menstrual period and ultrasound examination. According to
156 parity, women were classified as either primiparous or multiparous. Method of delivery was
157 classified as either vaginal delivery (including instrumental deliveries) or lower segment
158 caesarean section (LSCS; including elective and emergency). Maternal ethnicity was
159 classified as Caucasian or other. Socioeconomic status for each woman was determined using
160 her residential postcode at the time of delivery. Women were then ranked according to their
161 level of advantage or relative disadvantage, based on data from the Socio-Economic Indexes

162 for Areas (SEIFA), calculated from the Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) five-yearly
163 Census of Population and Housing. SEIFA scores were converted to quintiles, representing
164 widely used measures of relative socio-economic status.

165

166 *Data Analyses*

167 The association between maternal SRI exposure status and domperidone use was
168 evaluated using a generalised linear model (Poisson distribution) with robust variance
169 estimates (and resulting relative risks (RR) and 95% confidence intervals). Analyses were
170 adjusted for possible confounders including maternal age, parity, smoking status,
171 socioeconomic status, and gestational age at birth. We also conducted a sensitivity analysis
172 restricting the analysis to the 2008 calendar year when data on breastfeeding initiation and EBF
173 at discharge were available. Statistical significance was defined as a two-sided p-value of
174 <0.05. All statistical analyses were undertaken using STATA IC 14 (Stata, College Station,
175 Texas).

176

177 **Results**

178 Among the cohort of 3024 eligible women, 86 (2.8%) were exposed to a SRI in late
179 pregnancy, 126 (4.2%) were exposed to non-medicated psychiatric illness and the remaining
180 2812 (93.0%) were non-exposed.

181 **Table 1** describes the demographic and clinical characteristics of women according to
182 exposure status. While women exposed to SRIs in late pregnancy differed from non-exposed
183 women across a number of characteristics, they were largely representative of women with
184 non-medicated psychiatric illness.

185 The prevalence of domperidone use was highest among women with non-medicated
186 psychiatric illness (23.8%), followed by those with SRI use (16.3%) and those who were non-
187 exposed (14.6%). The unadjusted and adjusted differences in domperidone use between
188 groups are presented in **Table 2**. Compared to non-exposed women, non-medicated
189 psychiatric illness (aRR 1.64; 95%CI 1.16-2.30) but not late pregnancy SRI use (aRR 1.00;
190 95%CI 0.59-1.70) was associated with an increased use of domperidone use, indicative of
191 low milk supply.

192 The cumulative percentage of women dispensed domperidone postpartum according
193 to late pregnancy exposure status is presented in **Figure 1**. Across all groups more than 50%
194 of women who received domperidone were dispensed it within the first 3 weeks postpartum.
195 The rate of domperidone use appeared similar among the SRI use and non-medicated
196 psychiatric illness groups within the first 3 weeks postpartum, before tapering off in the SRI
197 use group while continuing to increase in the non-medicated psychiatric illness group. **Figure**
198 **2** demonstrates that the prevalence of domperidone use was highest among mother's with a
199 non-medicated psychiatric illness across all gestations.

200 In a sensitivity analysis involving only those women who delivered in the 2008
201 calendar year where data were available on breastfeeding initiation and we were able to
202 restrict the cohort to women who initiated breastfeeding, no difference in domperidone use
203 was observed between women with SRI use in late pregnancy and non-medicated psychiatric
204 illness (RR 1.05; 95%CI 0.28-3.94). When further restricted to primiparous women, no
205 difference in domperidone use was observed between women with SRI use in late pregnancy
206 and non-medicated psychiatric illness (RR 1.06; 95%CI 0.49-2.28).

207 **Discussion**

208 ***Main Findings***

209 We found that use of SRIs in late pregnancy is not associated with an increased risk of
210 domperidone use in mothers of preterm infants. These findings suggest that use of serotonin
211 disrupting antidepressants during lactation do not appear to place women at increased risk of
212 experiencing low milk supply.

213

214 ***Strengths and Limitations***

215 To our knowledge, this is the largest study undertaken to investigate the potential
216 impacts of maternal SRI use and non-medicated psychiatric illness on breast milk supply
217 difficulties. The major strength of this study lies in the identification of a group of women
218 with non-medicated psychiatric illness to provide greater adjustment for potential
219 confounding associated with underlying maternal illness. Further, utilisation of data on
220 domperidone use as a proxy for the presence of low milk supply represents a novel approach
221 towards addressing a topic of particular significant importance, with a previous clinical audit
222 finding 100% agreement between domperidone use and management of lactation
223 insufficiency. In accordance with hospital policy, domperidone is supplied to mothers in the
224 Neonatal Unit utilising a carefully developed prescribing checklist which requires prescriber
225 acknowledgement of persistent low milk supply despite previous utilisation of non-
226 pharmacological interventions. Therefore, domperidone supply is likely to represent those
227 women experiencing the greatest breastfeeding difficulties. Further strengths of this study
228 include undertaking additional sensitivity analyses to determine the potential impact of
229 breastfeeding initiation on observed breastfeeding outcomes.

230 There are a number of limitations associated with this study. Use of hospital
231 pharmacy dispensing data may not have identified all women who were taking an
232 antidepressant in late pregnancy, meaning some women in the control groups may have been
233 exposed to SRIs unknowingly. Such misclassification, however, is likely to be non-

234 differential with respect to the outcome under investigation and therefore is unlikely to have
235 impacted greatly on the effect estimate.¹⁵ We are not able to confirm that women exposed to
236 a SRI in late pregnancy continued to take it while breastfeeding and we do not have data on
237 whether women in the non-medicated psychiatric illness or non-exposed group were
238 prescribed an antidepressant in the postpartum period. However, based on previous drug
239 utilisation studies,¹⁶ the number of women in the non-medicated psychiatric illness group
240 who may have been previously on an antidepressant and then restarted it during lactation is
241 likely to be low, as is the relative number of women in the non-exposed group who may have
242 been newly prescribed an antidepressant in the postpartum period. In addition, there was no
243 measure of the type and severity of maternal psychiatric illness, which would have added to
244 understanding the independent effects of psychiatric illness on the risk of low milk supply,
245 and we did not assess the impact of dose or indication of SRI use. A noted limitation is that
246 women identified as having a non-medicated psychiatric illness (which excluded users of
247 non-SSRI antidepressant or antipsychotics) reflect a heterogeneous group with a range of
248 likely psychiatric diagnoses and severities reflecting imbalances of other neurotransmitters,
249 besides serotonin. Lastly, given we restricted the study to mothers of preterm infants. It is
250 unclear whether the findings will also be generalizable to mothers of term infants.

251

252 ***Interpretation***

253 The role of serotonin and serotonin transport in the regulation of lactation has been
254 reviewed in detail elsewhere.¹⁷ In brief, numerous animal studies have established
255 serotonergic transmission as a key regulator of lactation homeostasis, with increased levels of
256 serotonergic activity (including through use of SRIs) accelerating the rate of mammary gland
257 involution, leading to a reduction in milk production.¹⁷ Whether similar effects occur in
258 humans is unclear, with it previously noted that the mammary glands of mice, cattle and

259 humans express unique patterns of 5-HT receptors that vary among the species.¹⁸ The
260 potential impacts of SRI exposure have only been investigated in one human study, where
261 maternal SSRI use was associated with a 2-fold delay in secretory activation.⁵ In comparison
262 to our study, there are a few note-worthy differences that could explain inconsistent study
263 findings. The findings from Marshall *et al.* were based on a total of only 8 mothers of term
264 infants exposed to SSRIs, compared to our sample of 86 women taking SRIs. Furthermore,
265 all women had experienced secretory activation by day 7, with no examination of breast milk
266 volume or longer term breastfeeding outcomes.⁵ We focused on mothers of preterm infants as
267 this was envisaged to enable us to obtain more complete data on domperidone use occurring
268 within the hospital and the longer neonatal hospital admission enabled examination of longer
269 term breastfeeding outcomes. Further, mothers of preterm infants are the most vulnerable for
270 experiencing difficulties with milk supply and their infants benefit the most from the
271 available of mother's own milk for feeding. Given the additional breastfeeding supports often
272 available to mothers of preterm infants, it is possible that these may overcome any challenges
273 related to delayed secretory activation and therefore avoid potential negative impacts posed
274 by serotonin disruption during lactation.

275 Notably, these findings do not provide evidence against a role of serotonin in
276 lactation, rather, they provide evidence that interference of serotonin signalling through
277 antidepressant use is unlikely to directly impact on breast milk production. It is well
278 recognised that successful lactation is moderated by a range of behavioural, social, clinical,
279 and biological factors, with one of the most significant clinical factors being giving birth to a
280 preterm infant.¹⁹ Of note, previous studies have demonstrated that acute and chronic physical
281 and mental stress can impair the milk ejection reflex by attenuating oxytocin release.¹⁹ This
282 could lead to incomplete emptying of the breast and a resultant reduction in overall milk
283 production. This may explain why underlying maternal psychiatric illness appeared to have

284 the greatest impact on inadequate breast milk supply and point towards the needs for
285 increased awareness of maternal illnesses that can impact on milk supply to identify women
286 that may require additional support and education to attain optimal breastfeeding outcomes.
287 These findings suggest the need to provide additional attention and support to women taking
288 antidepressants during lactation. Although the risks to the breastfed infant associated with
289 antidepressant use in lactation are considered low, the choice to breastfeed when taking an
290 antidepressant may pose a dilemma for some women.²⁰ Concerns regarding infant “exposure”
291 through human milk may lead to unnecessary anxiety among mothers and in turn negatively
292 impact on the physiological processes involved in lactation or their determination to persist
293 with any breastfeeding difficulties should they arise.

294 In conclusion, we found no evidence that use of SRIs in late pregnancy was
295 associated with an increased risk of low milk supply in mothers of preterm infants. Women
296 with an underlying psychiatric illness appear at greatest risk of experiencing low milk supply
297 and could therefore benefit from additional breastfeeding education and support.

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304 and declare: no support from any organisation for the submitted work; no financial
305 relationships with any organisations that might have an interest in the submitted work in the
306 previous 3 years; no other relationships or activities that could appear to have influenced the
307 submitted work.

308 **Contributors Statement:** LEG conceptualised and designed the study, carried out the initial
309 analyses, and drafted the initial manuscript. CL, LC, CTR, and LHA helped design the study,
310 assisted in interpretation of results, and reviewed and revised the initial manuscript. All
311 authors approved the final manuscript as submitted.

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317 writing of the manuscript.

318

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373

374

375 **Tables:**

Table 1. Demographic and Clinical Characteristics for Mothers of Preterm Infants Exposed to Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors, Non-Medicated Psychiatric Illness, or Neither During Late Pregnancy

Characteristic	SRI Use (n=86)	Non-Medicated Psychiatric Illness (n=126)	Non-Exposed (n=2 812)
Age, mean ± SD	30.2 (5.3)	29.0 (6.2)	29.5 (6.2)
Maternal BMI (kg/m²), mean ± SD	26.9 (6.1)	26.6 (6.8)	26.3 (6.6)
Parity			
Multiparous, n(%)[†]	50 (58.1)	71 (56.4)	1 441 (51.4)
Smoking status, n(%)[†]			
Non-smoker	52 (61.9)	68 (56.7)	1 889 (74.2)
Quit during pregnancy	2 (2.4)	7 (5.8)	95 (3.7)
Smoker	30 (35.7)	45 (37.5)	562 (22.1)
Ethnicity, n (%)[†]			
Caucasian	82 (95.4)	116 (92.1)	2 289 (81.4)
Other	4 (4.7)	10 (7.9)	523 (18.6)
Socioeconomic status, SEIFA, n(%)[†]			
5 (Highest)	11 (12.8)	21 (16.7)	441 (15.8)
4	10 (11.6)	25 (19.8)	483 (17.3)
3	15 (17.4)	19 (15.1)	478 (17.1)

2	16 (18.6)	21 (16.7)	665 (23.8)
1 (Lowest)	34 (39.5)	40 (31.8)	732 (26.2)
Psychotropic medication use, n(%)[†]	6 (7.0)	10 (7.9)	50 (1.8)
Substance abuse, n(%)[†]	6 (7.0)	19 (15.1)	144 (5.1)
Delivery type			
Caesarean section	50 (58.1)	67 (53.2)	1 424 (50.6)
Gestational age (Weeks), median (Range)	35 (25-36)	34 (22-36)	34 (23-36)
Dispensed domperidone, n(%)[†]	14 (16.3)	30 (23.8)	410 (14.6)
Initiated breastfeeding[‡], n(%)[†]	19 (95.0)	12 (85.7)	499 (88.3)
Any breastfeeding at neonatal discharge from hospital, n(%)[†]	74 (86.1)	105 (84.0)	2 379 (84.8)
2008 cohort only (n=305)			
Exclusively breastfeed infant during entire neonatal unit admission[‡], n(%)[†]	4 (20.0)	1 (7.1)	115 (20.4)

[†] Percentages are calculated from non-missing data

376

377

378

Table 2. Multivariate Analysis of Postnatal Domperidone Use According to Maternal Psychiatric Illness and Prenatal SRI Exposure During Late Pregnancy

SRI Use Vs. Non-Exposed	SRI Use Vs. Non-Medicated Psychiatric Illness	Non-Medicated Psychiatric Illness Vs. Non-Exposed
Unadjusted RR (95% CI)		
1.12 (0.66, 1.87)	0.68 (0.37, 1.25)	1.63 (1.17, 2.28)
Adjusted RR (95% CI)^a		
1.00 (0.59, 1.70)	0.62 (0.33, 1.16)	1.64 (1.16, 2.30)

Abbreviations: SRI, serotonin reuptake inhibitor; aRR, adjusted relative risk; CI, confidence interval

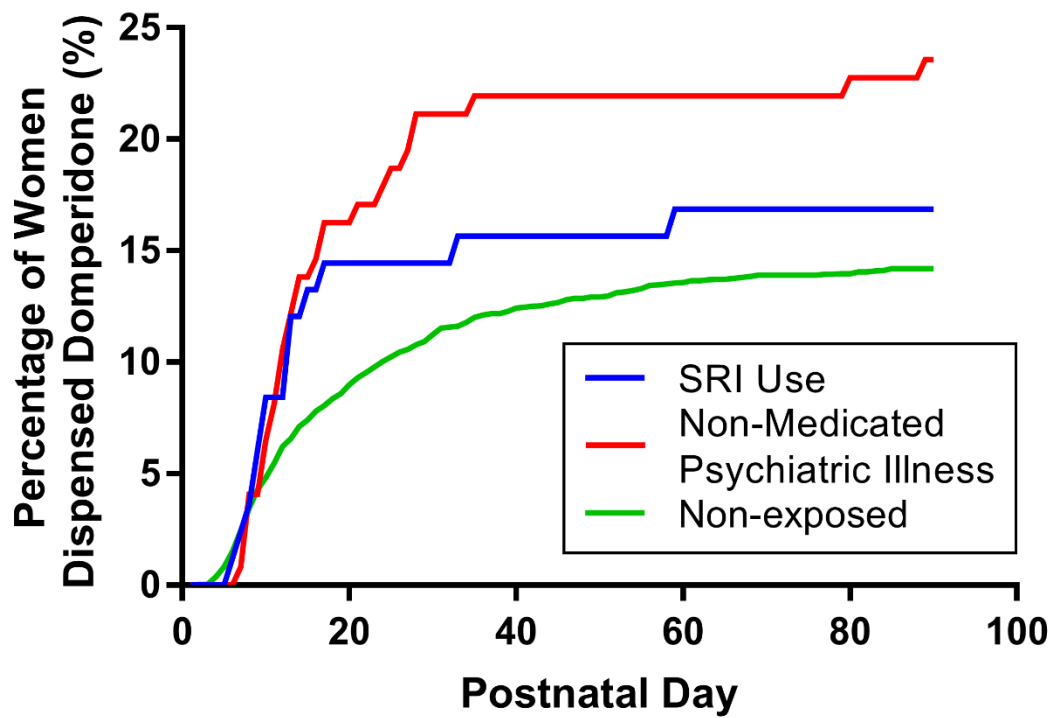
^a RR adjusted for maternal age, parity, smoking status, socioeconomic status, and gestational age at birth

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381 **Figure Captions:**

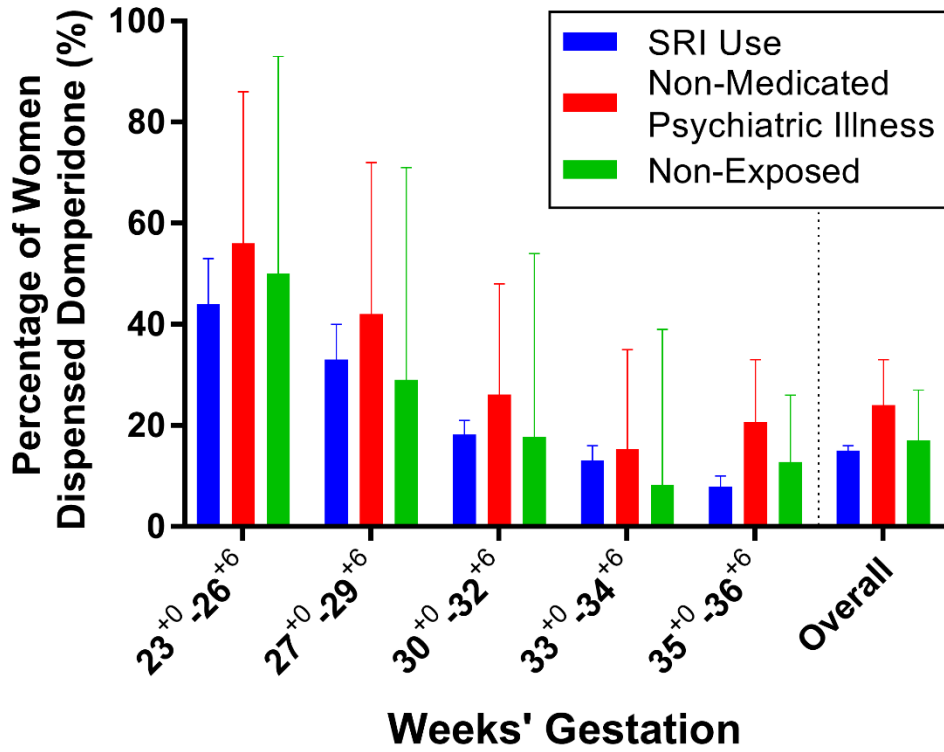
382 Figure 1: Cumulative Percentage of Women Dispensed Domperidone Postpartum According
383 to Late Pregnancy Exposure Status



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386 Figure 2: Percentage of Women Prescribed Domperidone According to Exposure Status and
387 Gestational Age at Birth



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390 **Word Count:** 2342

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