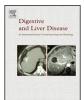
ELSEVIER

Review Article

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Digestive and Liver Disease



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/dld

Update on pregnancy and breastfeeding in the era of biologics

Andres Yarur^a, Sunanda V. Kane^{b,*}

^a Department of Medicine, University of Florida, USA

^b Department of Medicine, Mayo Clinic Rochester, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 24 January 2013 Accepted 1 February 2013 Available online 6 March 2013

Keywords: Crohn's disease Fertility Pregnancy Ulcerative colitis

ABSTRACT

Inflammatory bowel diseases are chronic conditions that frequently affect patients during their childbearing years. Considering the characteristics of disease and the medications used to treat it, several issues arise in the care of these patients when they attempt or achieve conception. We review the most current evidence concerning fertility and pregnancy outcomes in patients with inflammatory bowel diseases. With the exception of those women who undergo pelvic surgery, patients with inflammatory bowel diseases have no decreased fertility. Sulfasalazine decreases fertility in men. When looking at obstetrical outcomes, active disease at conception is associated with an increased risk of preterm delivery and low birth weight. While most medications used to treat inflammatory bowel diseases are low risk, some precautions need to be taken and the risk-to-benefit ratio needs to be considered on an individualized basis. In general, aminosalicylates and thiopurines should be continued, but methotrexate is contraindicated. Anti-tumour necrosis factor agents are considered safe to continue but full monoclonal antibodies do cross the placenta. As a general rule, the it is important to counsel women that conception is optimal when disease is in remission, as adverse obstetrical outcomes are directly associated with disease activity. Clinicians need to educate patients before, during and after conception, emphasizing treatment compliance.

© 2013 Editrice Gastroenterologica Italiana S.r.l. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) are chronic conditions characterized by intestinal inflammation; Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC) are the 2 main recognized entities. The pathogenesis is not completely understood, but the most accepted hypothesis is that genetically susceptible individuals develop an aberrant response to luminal bacteria.

Most patients with IBD develop the disease between the second and forth decade, affecting patients during their child-bearing age [1]. Pregnancy is a major management concern in women with IBD and in the older literature it has been associated with poor obstetric outcomes. Several other issues in this area include fertility, fear of disease activity during pregnancy, teratogenicity, and limited knowledge of the long term effects that medications may have on offspring. These concerns previously made physicians discourage pregnancy in women with IBD, and prematurely discontinue medical treatments due to fear of potential side effects. The evolution of better treatments and population based research have resulted in better disease control and lower surgical rates in the general

Tel.: +1 507 284 0959; fax: +1 507 284 0538.

E-mail address: Kane.sunanda@mayo.edu (S.V. Kane).

population with IBD [2]. As a result, patients are more willing to consider pregnancy and an uncomplicated gestation is a realistic expectation [3]. A recent study showed that among nulliparous woman with IBD, most are concerned about the effect that the disease can have on the gestation and the potential effects of pregnant to their disease, as well as issues with infertility [4].

The multidisciplinary team caring for the patient, including gastroenterologists, surgeons and obstetricians must work together to educate patients, guiding them through a successful pregnancy. In this article, we review the most current evidence concerning fertility and pregnancy in patients with IBD.

2. IBD and fertility

The obstetrical literature defines infertility as the inability to conceive after 1 year of unprotected intercourse in the fertile phase of the menstrual cycle [5]. Fecundability is the chance of being pregnant in a single menstrual cycle and fecundity is the probability of achieving a live birth within a single reproductive cycle [6].

Fertility is a concern to both men and women with IBD [7]. Most studies show that the rates of infertility in patients with CD are similar to those reported in the general population, although the data are conflicting [8,9]. It appears that disease location (particularly colonic) and a history of surgery for active disease are associated with a lower likelihood of conception [9].

^{*} Corresponding author at: Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Medicine, 200 First Street SW, Rochester, MN 55905, USA.

^{1590-8658/\$36.00 © 2013} Editrice Gastroenterologica Italiana S.r.l. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dld.2013.02.001

In women with UC that have not undergone surgical treatment, fertility is not affected. On the contrary, those women who have undergone colectomy with ileal pouch anal anastomosis (IPAA), fecundability is significantly reduced [10,11]. Two meta-analyses have since demonstrated this phenomenon [12,13]. The underlying mechanism for this finding is thought to be due to adhesions created in the pelvis during the creation of the pouch, as women who undergo subtotal colectomy preserve their fertility [14,15].

3. Pregnancy outcomes

When compared to healthy controls, most studies have shown that women with CD or UC are more likely to deliver prematurely and their infants have a higher risk of low birth weight [16]. They are also at a higher risk of having a caesarean section [17]. A recent Japanese study compared pregnancy outcomes before and after onset of the disease. They reported that patients with UC have similar pregnancy outcomes after disease onset when compared to the observed rates prior to disease onset, but those women with CD had higher rates of spontaneous abortion when conception occurred after the development of IBD [18]. However, another populationbased including patients with UC in Denmark and Sweden showed no increased risk [19]. In Israel, researchers looked at long-term outcomes in the offspring of patients with IBD when compared to controls. At the time of analysis, the median age of the offspring was 14 years in the IBD group and 12 years in the control group [20]. The investigators found that children born to mothers with IBD had significantly more congenital anomalies as well as neurodevelopmental problems [20].

While it may appear that patients with IBD may have worse obstetrical outcomes, the evidence points to disease activity as the main driver for these findings. When disease activity is taken into account, pregnancy outcomes other than small for gestational age and C-section do not appear to be higher [21].

4. Disease activity in pregnancy

In UC, the consensus is that pregnancy does not directly affect disease course, even though some studies relate discontinuation of medications and smoking as potential factors affecting disease activity [22]. For those women who have undergone an IPAA, most surgeons recommend that vaginal delivery be avoided. However, the literature suggests that there is no increased risk for pouch complications after delivery [23].

In CD, the influence of pregnancy on the natural course of disease has been a point of debate. One French study found that patients with CD did had a higher activity index the year before and after pregnancy, but these results were not significant when controlled for smoking [24]. A British study found that patients with CD who had been pregnant had a lower rate of surgical resection when compared to those were never pregnant [25]. In another European cohort study, the authors found no difference in the development of strictures or the rate of bowel resection. However when compared to the period of time before pregnancy, women in the study group had lower rate of flares after pregnancy [26]. An interesting study that was to look at maternal-foetal HLA discordance as a biologic mechanism for disease activity during pregnancy found that a combined disparity in loci DRB1 and DQ was associated with lower overall disease activity and an improvement of symptoms over time [27]. The mode of delivery in CD is based on the presence or absence of perianal disease. Current recommendations include C-section for those women with active fistulizing disease [28].

Endoscopic evaluation of disease may be warranted during pregnancy. Indications for a procedure do not differ from the nonpregnant state but if possible should be deferred to the second trimester. The obstetrical team should be involved in the riskbenefit assessment and the baby should be closely monitored. The experience with colonoscopy in pregnant patients is limited, even though seems to be viable and low risk if performed in the appropriate clinical setting [29–31]. The two main procedural concerns involve patient position and medication use. The patient should be in the left lateral position but in order to avoid vascular compression a pelvic tilt can be created by placing a pillow under the patient's right hip [32]. If lower endoscopy requires an oral lavage, one time use of polyethylene glycol solutions are considered low risk. When possible, patients should be done without any medications if a flexible sigmoidoscopy is anticipated. If a colonoscopy is required, then propofol with foetal monitoring is recommended [32].

The need for emergent surgery during pregnancy is done for the same indications as in the non-pregnant patient. Surgical maternal and foetal morbidity is high and thus surgery should be delayed if possible to the end of the second or third trimester, and be as limited as possible. One such intervention is a Turnbull blowhold colostomy where colonic decompression is performed as opposed to intra-abdominal surgery [33].

Many women with IBD are afraid to nurse as they are concerned about the effect of medications on breast milk. One study found that women with IBD were less likely to breastfeed, and that disease activity was related to medication cessation [34]. A second Canadian study found that women were not more likely to have disease activity if they nursed [35].

5. Medications

In general and due to several factors, medication adherence in pregnancy is poor [36], although patient counselling can reverse this effect [37]. Despite the fact that one of the most important risk factors for adverse obstetrical outcomes is disease activity, we frequently see patients and/or clinicians discontinue some or all the drugs when a patient is diagnosed as pregnant, mostly because of the potential teratogenic effect. The discontinuation of medications can have detrimental consequences for both mother and foetus, especially on those patients with severe disease [38].

Evaluating the effects of medication exposure during pregnancy is challenging mainly because large number of patients are needed to record rare events, and randomizing patients to test harm is obviously unethical. To complicate the problem even further, the pharmacokinetics of drugs are frequently altered in pregnancy, which can potentially affect the required dose and measurement of serum levels.

5.1. Aminosalicylates

Neither sulfasalazine nor mesalamine have been found to increase the risk for congenital abnormalities [39–41]. In May of 2010, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) issued a warning for 2 mesalamine preparations (Asacol and Asacol HD), as their enteric coating contains dibutyl phthalate (DBP), which in animals (at very high doses), has been associated with external and skeletal malformations and adverse effects on the male reproductive system [42]. Asacol is now rated a class C drug (Table 1), while other mesalamine preparations are rated as class B. Those patients receiving sulfasalazine require extra folate supplementation as sulfasalazine inhibits dihydrofolate reductase, which decreases body stores. Folic acid supplementation has been shown to reduce the risk of cleft palate and cardiovascular teratogenicity [42]. The amount of aminosalicylate metabolites excreted in breast milk is negligible, and is considered low risk for nursing [43].

Table 1

US Food and Drug Administration categories for drug safety during pregnancy.

FDA category	Definition
A	Controlled studies in pregnant women have not shown increased risk of foetal abnormalities if administered during the first trimester of pregnancy. If this drug is used during pregnancy, the possibility of foetal harm appears
В	remote. Animal reproduction studies have failed to demonstrate a risk to the foetus but there are no adequate and well-controlled studies in pregnant women or animal reproduction studies have shown an adverse effect (other than decrease in fertility), but adequate and
С	well-controlled studies in pregnant women have failed to demonstrate a risk to the foetus during the first trimester of pregnancy. Animal reproduction studies have shown an adverse effect on the foetus, and there are no adequate and well-controlled studies in humans or there are no animal reproduction studies and no adequate and well-controlled
D	studies in humans. Evidence of human foetal risk based on adverse reaction data from investigational or marketing experience or studies in humans, but the potential benefits from the use of the drug in pregnant women may be acceptable despite its potential risks.
x	Studies in animals or humans have demonstrated foetal abnormalities and/or if there is positive evidence of foetal risk based on adverse reaction reports from investigational or marketing experience. The risk of the use of the drug in a pregnant woman clearly outweighs any possible benefit.

FDA. Federal Register/Vol. 73, No. 104/2008.

In men, sulfasalazine induces oligospermia and abnormal sperm morphology and function, which can lead to impaired fertility. These changes resolve after discontinuation of medication. Switching to a mesalamine formulation is recommended to control disease [44–47].

5.2. Antibiotics

Even though antibiotics as a class are not recommended for the primary treatment of CD or UC, some agents are frequently used in IBD (e.g. quinolones and nitroimidazoles) [48]. They have a role treating septic complications, fistulizing disease and preventing post-operative recurrence of CD (nitroimidazoles) [49,50]. Short term metronidazole has been found to be safe in pregnancy, with no increased teratogenic risk and is a pregnancy category B drug [51–53]. Metronidazole can be detected in breast milk but does not appear to have an immediate effect in the neonate [54]. Nevertheless, the effects of long-term exposure are not clear, and breastfeeding while on this medication is not recommended.

Quinolones are also commonly used in patients with CD. Because they bind to bone and cartilage, quinolones pose a theoretical risk for arthropathies, even though this has not been proven in humans. They are rated as a category C medication [55–58]. Rifaximin is an oral antibiotic with minimal absorption that was recently shown to have some efficacy in the induction of remission in CD [59]. The clinical experience with this drug is limited and even though is considered a "non-systemic" antibiotic, there are no studies in animals or humans that assess safety in pregnancy. Rifaximin is a pregnancy class C drug.

5.3. Corticosteroids

Corticosteroids are frequently used in IBD, although their long term use is limited by the side effect profile. While most studies in humans point towards no increased risk of teratogenicity [60–62], some have found a possible association with cleft lip and palate [63–65]. It is also important to mention that the dose

and time of treatment with corticosteroids may play an important role when addressing the risk of side effects. In patients with rheumatoid arthritis, studies have shown that prolonged treatment and/or doses greater than 15 mg of prednisone are associated with intrauterine infection and premature delivery [66]. In a case series that included pregnant patients receiving oral budesonide for CD, none of the 8 patients had complications or adverse foetal outcomes, but larger trials addressing the safety of budesonide are needed [67]. While corticosteroids are rated as pregnancy category C, the benefits and risks of the treatment need to be evaluated in a case-by-case basis. Prednisone, prednisolone and methylprednisolone are the agents of choice as their metabolism by the placenta is higher than other formulations. Studies on patient receiving prednisone or prednisolone have found that the concentration in breast milk is low [68]. Overall, mothers can breastfeed while on these medications.

5.4. Azathioprine/6-mercaptopurine

6-Mercaptopurine (6-MP) and its pro-drug azathioprine (AZA) are frequently used alone or in combination to treat IBD [69]. Its metabolism is complex, and the pro-drug can follow different pathways, which is also variable from patient to patient. In animals that received parenteral AZA, most studies have found an increased risk for several malformations, including cleft palate, skeletal anomalies, decreased thymic size, limbic malformations, ocular and urological anomalies [70,71]. However, the doses used in these studies as well as route of delivery (intraperitoneal, subcutaneous) produce much higher drug concentrations than used in humans.

Most of the data in regards to the thiopurines suggest its safety in pregnancy. The placental concentration of AZA ranges from 64 to 93% of the maternal blood level, even though the concentration in foetal blood only reaches 1-5% of their respective maternal blood levels [70]. A case series looking at the concentration of thiopurine metabolites in the umbilical cord artery found that 6-thioguaninenucleotides (6-TGN) are detectable at 22-91% of the maternal blood levels. 6-Methylmercaptopurine (6-MMP) was undetectable in all three cases. Interestingly, in two of the three cases, the metabolites were also measured in the umbilical cord vein, finding similar levels to the umbilical artery [72]. Most studies in humans have shown no increased rate of spontaneous abortion, congenital malformations, neoplasia or infections [73-79] however others have shown an increased risk of congenital malformations, perinatal mortality and pre-term birth in children born to women exposed to AZA/6-MP during pregnancy [80,81]. Another study found a specific association between AZA use in early pregnancy and cardiac malformations (ventricular/atrial septal defects) [82]. It is likely that those adverse outcomes seen are due to active underlying disease and are not a direct effect of the AZA or its metabolites. Given the weight of evidence for their safety and the known effects of active disease on pregnancy outcomes, the current recommendation is to continue AZA/6-MP while attempting or after conception.

Breastfeeding while on thiopurines is another controversial topic. A study from Denmark with 8 patients found that excretion of 6-MP in breast milk is extremely low (<0.008 mg/kg body-weight/24 h) and is present only within the first 4 h after medication intake [83]. Another study from Austria with 11 patients found that the offspring of patients receiving AZA did not have an increased rate of infections when compared to those who were not [84]. The same study found no difference in general development or hospitalization rate of infants nursed. While thiopurine methyl-transferase enzyme activity is higher in newborns when compared to adults [85], the clinical significance of this phenomenon is unknown. The current recommendation is that nursing is low risk

in women taking thiopurines, and to further minimize infant exposure nurse with milk produced only after 4 h of drug ingestion.

Another issue that has been an issue of debate is the use of thiopurines by men wishing to father children. Whereas an early retrospective study done in the United States showed an association between paternal use of 6-MP within 3 months of conception and both congenital abnormalities and spontaneous abortions [86], larger studies done in Spain and another in Germany refuted these initial findings [87,88]. Azathioprine does not appear to affect male fertility [89].

5.5. Methotrexate

The teratogenic effect of methotrexate is well known (even at low doses). Prenatal exposure in the first trimester increases the risk of hydrocephalus, anencephaly, cranial dysostosis, cerebral anomalies, dysmorphic facies, skeletal malformations and limb defects [90]. In later stages of pregnancy, there is an association with growth retardation and functional abnormalities [90]. Methotrexate is a category X drug and should not be used in pregnant women or on those considering conception. There should be "washout" period between drug exposure and conception, most often the recommendation is 3 months. An Israeli study done in patients who received methotrexate for ectopic pregnancy and conceived within 6 months of methotrexate demonstrated no increase in congenital abnormalities. Methotrexate is excreted in breast milk [91] and should not be used while breastfeeding [92].

As with AZA, there is a concern regarding the use of methotrexateon fertility and risk of teratogenicity in men that want to conceive. To date, there is no evidence of unfavourable pregnancy outcomes in pregnancies fathered by men with recent exposure to methotrexate. Some reports have found that it can cause reversible oligospermia, but most of those studies are confounded by the fact that patients had been exposed to several anti-neoplastic drugs [93]. In view of the limited information and the theoretical risk of sperm mutation, it is suggested that a washout period for men be 3 months before attempting conception.

5.6. Cyclosporine and tacrolimus

Both cyclosporine and tacrolimus are calcineurin inhibitors widely used to avoid organ rejection after transplantation and have some role in some clinical scenarios within IBD (123). Cyclosporine crosses the placenta, with foetal circulation levels ranging from 10 to 50% of maternal level [94]. No studies have shown an increased risk of malformations, even though there are some reports of low birth weight [95]. A meta-analysis done with studies in transplanted patients found no statistical significant increase in teratogenicity [96]. In UC, the experience is limited to case reports and one retrospective study [97–100]. Cyclosporine is present in the foetal circulation during gestation at similar concentrations to those in the mother and breastfeeding needs to be avoided [101].

Tacrolimus has been shown to be useful improving fistula discharge in patients with CD [102]. As with cyclosporine, most of the experience is with post-transplant patients; studies have not shown worse obstetrical outcomes [103]. Prenatal growth for gestational age and postnatal infant growth for postpartum age have been found to be similar to the general population [104], but tacrolimus use during pregnancy has been associated with hyperkalaemia in the neonate [105]. Tacrolimus is detectable in breast milk, but at very low concentrations ($0.06 \mu g/kg/d$) [106]. Even though several reports have found that breastfeeding is safe, the data is scarce [105,107]. It is also important to mention that the pharmacokinetics of tacrolimus during pregnancy is altered, with an increased unbound tacrolimus concentration [108].

6. Biologics

6.1. Infliximab and adalimumab

Infliximab is a chimeric mouse/human monoclonal IgG1 antibody against tumour necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) approved by the FDA for the treatment of CD and UC in 1998 and 2005 respectively. Adalimumab is a fully human IgG1 antibody that also antagonizes TNF- α . Both been found efficacious in the treatment of CD and UC and have been classified by the FDA as a pregnancy class B [109–111].

There is an abundance of TNF and its receptors in endometrial, decidual and placental tissue, having a pivotal role in the reproductive system [112]. Also, in animal models, TNF- α has been found to protect embryos exposed to teratogenic stress [113]. Conversely, there is evidence that overexpression of TNF (e.g. a maternal infection) will induce placental damage, foetal loss, growth retardation [114,115].

IgG is transported across the placenta to confer immunity to the foetus. Documentation of serial levels during pregnancy demonstrates that placental transport of IgG increases with gestational age, starting with a negligible transport in the first trimester to the highest transfer during the third trimester [116]. IgG is transported across the human placenta through an active transport mechanism mediated by foetal Fc receptors located in the syncytiotrophoblast [117]. Both infliximab and adalimumab have been found in the newborns in higher levels than in the peripheral blood of their mothers, and they remain detectable for up to 6 months after birth [118,119]. Another case series found that when stopped before 30 weeks of pregnancy, the levels in the newborn (but not in the mother) were undetectable [120]. It is currently recommended that if not detrimental to maternal health, that biologics be held after week 28 or thereabouts to minimize foetal exposure to therapy.

The concern is that exposure to TNF- α will alter the maturation of the infant's native immune system [121], and that the presence of these antibodies will increase the risk of malformations, infections and/or decrease the response to vaccines. The offspring of animal models who received an anti TNF- α throughout pregnancy have not develop abnormalities in the development or maturation of the immune system in the offspring [122,123]

A European observational study compared pregnancy outcomes in several groups: direct exposure to infliximab or adalimumab (within 3 months prior conception and/or during pregnancy until the second trimester), indirect exposure (the mother received an anti TNF- α before pregnancy), those who were naïve to anti TNF- α and before the diagnosis of IBD. They found no difference in outcomes among patients with a diagnosis of IBD irrespective of anti TNF- α exposure [124]. This again supports the fact that the disease itself (and not the treatment) is the main responsible for worse outcomes.

A report from the Crohn's Therapy, Resource, Evaluation, and Assessment Tool (TREAT) registry showed that when compared to the data from the general U.S. American population, those patients that were exposed to infliximab during pregnancy had similar outcomes [125]. An update from the same registry showed that among maternal and paternal live births, 92.4% had no defects and 90.2% had no adverse events [126].

The Pregnancy in IBD And Neonatal Outcomes (PIANO) registry is a prospective multicenter study aiming to determine whether exposure to AZA/6-MP and/or anti TNF- α during pregnancy worsens obstetrical outcomes [127]. In a preliminary report, the authors described no increased risk for congenital abnormalities by drug exposure, even though the offspring of mothers who were receiving combination therapy with adalimumab or infliximab plus AZA/6-MP had a 35% (95% Cl 10–80%)increase in risk of infection at 9–12 months of age when compared to those who were receiving monotherapy. The secondary outcomes (infant height, weight and developmental milestones) were similar among groups.

While most studies and case reports have shown no association between anti TNF- α and pregnancy complications or foetal malformations, a review of reports for adverse foetal outcomes submitted to the FDA found a high rate of malformations on those pregnant patients exposed to infliximab or etanercept. The authors described that most of these congenital abnormalities were part of the VACTERL syndrome (vertebral abnormalities, anal atresia, cardiac defect, tracheoesophageal, renal, and limp abnormalities) [128]. The interpretation of those results needs to be done carefully as the study had several limitations including reporting bias. In addition, cardiac defects are very common, and a population based study done 2 years after the initial study did not replicate these findings [129].

The administration of live vaccines in the newborn deserves special attention. Levels of infliximab and adalimumab can be detected in the baby up to 6 months after delivery [119], and the use of live vaccines (Bacillus Calmette-Guérin [BCG], rotavirus, mumpsmeasles-rubella and varicella zoster) are contraindicated during this period of time. A case report from England described a healthy baby that was exposed to infliximab in utero (not breastfed) and subsequently received the BCG vaccines at age 3 months. The child developed disseminated BCG, ultimately causing death [130].

The available information on whether infliximab or adalimumab can be detected in breast milk has been limited to case reports or case series. While some studies have not found levels (160,161), others using different methodologies have found detectable amounts, albeit very low (162,163). It is unclear as to the clinical significance of antibodies that might be present in milk, as oral ingestion should result in infant gastric acid degradation. The current recommendation is that nursing is low risk with maternal use of either of these agents.

There is no evidence that infliximab or adalimumab affect male fertility, even though a study done in 10 men found that after infliximab infusion, sperm motility and the number of normal oval forms decreased [131]. Other studies have shown an improvement in sperm motility and vitality, which presumably is due to a decrease in disease activity [132].

6.2. Certolizumab pegol

Certolizumab pegol is a humanized monoclonal antibody Fab fragment linked to polyethylene glycol (PEG) with activity against TNF- α [133]. Unlike infliximab or adalimumab, certolizumab pegol does not have a Fc region, which theoretically would impede the transport across the placenta. A recent study examining anti TNF- α drug levels in infants showed that certolizumab levels in infants of mothers receiving the drug was below the level of assay detection [119]. Out of 10 newborns studied, all had certolizumab concentrations of <2 µg/ml.

The clinical experience of certolizumab during pregnancy has been limited to case reports [134], even though in the PIANO registry, the use of certolizumab pegol throughout the pregnancy was not associated with an increased risk of malformations or infections, even when in combination with an immunomodulator [127]. Because of the above findings, the label has been changed to reflect that it does not appear to cross the placenta, as do the other anti-TNF agents. Certolizumab pegol is likely safe to use while breastfeeding.

6.3. Natalizumab

Natalizumab is a humanized monoclonal IgG 4 antibody to alpha-4 integrin and has been found to induce remission and response in patients with CD and high levels of C-reactive protein [135]. Because of its association with an increased risk for

Table 2

Medications used in inflammatory bowel diseases and their safety during pregnancy.

Drug class	FDA rating	Recommendations for pregnancy
Drugs used in the treatment of	IBD and/or its B	complications No increased risk for worse
Aminosalicylates	В	
		obstetrical outcomes Preparations containing DBP
		are FDA class C (risk of
		urogenital malformations)
Adalimumab and infliximab	В	Minimal transfer to the
	D	embryo/foetus in first
		trimester but high transfer
		during the third trimester.
		Increased risk of neonatal
		infections when combined
		with thiopurines
Azathioprine/6-mercaptopuri	Category D rating historical	
		from use of higher doses for
		leukaemia, data for IBD low
		risk
Certolizumab pegol	В	Minimal transfer to the
		embryo/foetus throughout the
	-	pregnancy
Corticosteroids	С	Possible association with cleft
		lip and palate. Prednisone,
		prednisolone and
		methylprednisolone are the
Cueleanarina	C	agents of choice
Cyclosporine	C	Crosses the placenta but there is no evidence of increased risk
		of teratogenicity
Natalizumab	С	Very limited experience in
Natalizullab	C	pregnancy but probably safe
Metronidazole	В	No increased teratogenic risk
Methotrexate	X	Absolute contraindication.
		Should be discontinued at least
		3 months before conception
Quinolones	С	Theoretical risk for
-		arthropathies but has not been
		proven in humans, likely safe
Tacrolimus	С	No increased teratogenicity,
		but its use during pregnancy
		has been associated with
		hyperkaelemia in the neonate
Drugs commonly used in endos	CODV	
Benzodiazepines	D	Midazolam can be used, but
benzoulazepines	D	should be avoided. Other
		alternatives for sedation
		should be considered
Fentanyl	С	There are reports of toxicity to
		the embryo/foetus. Should be
		avoided
Meperidine	В	No evidence of teratogenicity
Propofol	В	Appears to be safe and is the
		agent of choice. Should be
		administration by a trained
		anaesthesia provider

Abbreviations: DBP: dibutyl phthalate. FDA: food and drug administration. IBD: inflammatory bowel disease. TNF: tumour necrosis factor.

the development of progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy it is reserved for patients with moderate to severe Crohn's disease refractory to other agents. The FDA rated natalizumab pregnancy level C.

In animal models, natalizumab does not increase the risk of spontaneous abortion or teratogenicity [136]. In guinea pigs, its use did not affect the fertility of males but did reduce the pregnancy rate in females treated with a very high dose (30 mg/kg) [137]. Most of the experience in humans has been in patients with multiple sclerosis. A German study found that out of 29 cases, 28 were healthy children and only one presented with a minor malformation (hexadactyly)[138]. There is no experience with lactation, and currently nursing is not recommended.

Table 3

Medications used in inflammatory bowel diseases and their safety during lactation.

Drug class	Recommendations for lactation		
Aminosalicylates	Excretion of aminosalicylate metabolites is minor, and is considered low risk for breastfeeding		
Adalimumab and infliximab	May be detected in breast milk in insignificant amounts, nursing is low risk with maternal use		
Azathioprine/6-mercaptopurine	Insignificant amounts if measured 4 h after ingestion		
Certolizumab pegol	Likely safe to use while nursing		
Corticosteroids	The levels in breast milk are very low		
Cyclosporine	Breastfeeding should be avoided as drug detected in milk and can be transferred to newborn		
Natalizumab	No data, currently not recommended for nursing		
Metronidazole	Can be detected in breast milk and long-term exposure are not clear, nursing not recommended		
Methotrexate	Excreted in breast milk and should not be used while breastfeeding		
Quinolones	Limited data, likely safe but the long-term exposure is unknown		
Tacrolimus	Is detectable in breast milk at very low concentrations, likely safe		

7. Conclusions

Fertility and pregnancy in patients with IBD is a clinically important topic. Every woman with IBD with childbearing potential should be asked about her reproductive plans in order to provide appropriate education. The majority of pregnancies in IBD patients have good outcomes; however success can only be achieved after careful preconception preparation, assessment of risk factors, and close management and monitoring of both the disease and the health of the foetus. Women with quiescent IBD should not be discouraged from becoming pregnant, but need to be counselled and closely monitored throughout the pregnancy. Clinicians need to explain to the patients whether and how active disease could affect foetal growth and gestational outcome. The patients must be also informed about the potential effects of the medications with the majority considered of benefit during pregnancy and nursing to control inflammation (Tables 2 and 3). Considering the lack of controlled data for several important questions, treating physicians and patients need to make decisions considering the risks and benefits. The key message to the population of patients with IBD is that they can have children but pregnancy should be planned when the disease is controlled. Women should know that treatment using "safe" drugs must be continued during gestation in order to prevent disease flares that may be harmful to both them and the baby. Given that there is an increased risk for low birth weight and small for gestational age, consultation with a high-risk obstetrician should be strongly considered.

Conflict of interest statement

The author of the manuscript declares that there is no conflict of interest.

References

- Molodecky NA, Soon IS, Rabi DM, et al. Increasing incidence and prevalence of the inflammatory bowel diseases with time, based on systematic review. Gastroenterology 2012;142, 46–54.e42.
- [2] Lakatos PL, Golovics PA, David G, et al. Has there been a change in the natural history of Crohn's disease? Surgical rates and medical management in a population-based inception cohort from Western Hungary between 1977–2009. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2012;107:579–88.
- [3] Toomey D, Waldron B. Family planning and inflammatory bowel disease: the patient and the practitioner. Family Practice, in press

- [4] Selinger CP, Eaden J, Selby W, et al. Inflammatory bowel disease and pregnancy: lack of knowledge is associated with negative views. Journal of Crohn's and Colitis. in press
- [5] Evers JLH. Female subfertility. Lancet 2002;360:151-9.
- [6] Berek JS, Novak E. Berek & Novak's gynecology. 14th ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2007, p.1186.
- [7] Mountifield R, Bampton P, Prosser R, Muller K, Andrews JM. Fear and fertility in inflammatory bowel disease: a mismatch of perception and reality affects family planning decisions. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2009;15:720–5.
- [8] Mayberry JF, Weterman IT. European survey of fertility and pregnancy in women with Crohn's disease: a case control study by European collaborative group. Gut 1986;27:821–5.
- [9] Hudson M, Flett G, Sinclair TS, Brunt PW, Templeton A, Mowat NA. Fertility and pregnancy in inflammatory bowel disease. International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics 1997;58:229–37.
- [10] Ørding Olsen K, Juul S, Berndtsson I, Oresland T, Laurberg S. Ulcerative colitis: female fecundity before diagnosis, during disease, and after surgery compared with a population sample. Gastroenterology 2002;122:15–9.
- [11] Olsen KO, Joelsson M, Laurberg S, Oresland T. Fertility after ileal pouchanal anastomosis in women with ulcerative colitis. British Journal of Surgery 1999;86:493–5.
- [12] Waljee A, Waljee J, Morris AM, Higgins PDR. Threefold increased risk of infertility: a meta-analysis of infertility after ileal pouch anal anastomosis in ulcerative colitis. Gut 2006;55:1575–80.
- [13] Rajaratnam SG, Eglinton TW, Hider P, Fearnhead NS. Impact of ileal pouchanal anastomosis on female fertility: meta-analysis and systematic review. International Journal of Colorectal Disease 2011;26:1365–74.
- [14] Fayez JA, Clark RR. Operative laparoscopy for the treatment of localized chronic pelvic-abdominal pain caused by postoperative adhesions. Journal of Gynecologic Surgery 1994;10:79–83.
- [15] Oresland T, Palmblad S, Ellström M, Berndtsson I, Crona N, Hultén L. Gynaecological and sexual function related to anatomical changes in the female pelvis after restorative proctocolectomy. International Journal of Colorectal Disease 1994;9:77–81.
- [16] Stephansson O, Larsson H, Pedersen L, et al. Crohn's disease is a risk factor for preterm birth. Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology 2010;8:509–15.
- [17] Cornish J, Tan E, Teare J, et al. A meta-analysis on the influence of inflammatory bowel disease on pregnancy. Gut 2007;56:830–7.
- [18] Naganuma M, Kunisaki R, Yoshimura N, et al. Conception and pregnancy outcome in women with inflammatory bowel disease: a multicentre study from Japan. Journal of Crohn's and Colitis 2011;5:317–23.
- [19] Stephansson O, Larsson H, Pedersen L, et al. Congenital abnormalities and other birth outcomes in children born to women with ulcerative colitis in Denmark and Sweden. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2011;17:795–801.
- [20] Dotan I, Alper A, Rachmilewitz D, et al. Maternal inflammatory bowel disease has short and long-term effects on the health of their offspring: a multicenter study in Israel. Journal of Crohn's and Colitis 2012, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.crohns.2012.08.012.
- [21] Bortoli A, Pedersen N, Duricova D, et al. Pregnancy outcome in inflammatory bowel disease: prospective European case-control ECCO-EpiCom study, 2003–2006. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2011;34:724–34.
- [22] Beaulieu DB, Kane S. Inflammatory bowel disease in pregnancy. Gastroenterology Clinics of North America 2011;40:399–413.
- [23] Hahnloser D, Pemberton JH, Wolff BG, et al. Pregnancy and delivery before and after ileal pouch-anal anastomosis for inflammatory bowel disease: immediate and long-term consequences and outcomes. Diseases of the Colon and Rectum 2004;47:1127–35.
- [24] Agret F, Cosnes J, Hassani Z, et al. Impact of pregnancy on the clinical activity of Crohn's disease. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2005;21:509–13.
- [25] Nwokolo CU, Tan WC, Andrews HA, Allan RN. Surgical resections in parous patients with distal ileal and colonic Crohn's disease. Gut 1994;35:220–3.
- [26] Riis L, Vind I, Politi P, et al. Does pregnancy change the disease course? A study in a European cohort of patients with inflammatory bowel disease. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2006;101:1539–45.
- [27] Kane S, Kisiel J, Shih L, Hanauer S. HLA disparity determines disease activity through pregnancy in women with inflammatory bowel disease. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2004;99:1523–6.
- [28] Caprilli R. European evidence based consensus on the diagnosis and management of Crohn's disease: special situations. Gut 2006;55:i36–58.
- [29] Cappell MS, Colon VJ, Sidhom OA. A study at 10 medical centers of the safety and efficacy of 48 flexible sigmoidoscopies and 8 colonoscopies during pregnancy with follow-up of fetal outcome and with comparison to control groups. Digestive Diseases and Sciences 1996;41:2353–61.
- [30] Cappell MS. Risks versus benefits of gastrointestinal endoscopy during pregnancy. Nature Reviews Gastroenterology & Hepatology 2011;8:610–34.
- [31] Cappell MS, Fox SR, Gorrepati N. Safety and efficacy of colonoscopy during pregnancy: an analysis of pregnancy outcome in 20 patients. Journal of Reproductive Medicine 2010;55:115–23.
- [32] Shergill AK, Ben-Menachem T, Chandrasekhara V, et al. Guidelines for endoscopy in pregnant and lactating women. Gastrointestinal Endoscopy 2012;76:18–24.
- [33] Ooi BS, Remzi FH, Fazio VW. Turnbull-Blowhole colostomy for toxic ulcerative colitis in pregnancy: report of two cases. Diseases of the Colon and Rectum 2003;46:111–5.

- [34] Kane S, Lemieux N. The role of breastfeeding in postpartum disease activity in women with inflammatory bowel disease. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2005;100:102–5.
- [35] Moffatt DC, Ilnyckyj A, Bernstein CN. A population-based study of breastfeeding in inflammatory bowel disease: initiation, duration, and effect on disease in the postpartum period. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2009;104:2517–23.
- [36] Matsui D. Adherence with drug therapy in pregnancy. Obstetrics and Gynecology International 2012;2012:1–5.
- [37] Julsgaard M, Nørgaard M, Hvas CL, Buck D, Christensen LA. Self-reported adherence to medical treatment prior to and during pregnancy among women with ulcerative colitis. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2010;17:1573–80.
- [38] Argüelles-Arias F, Castro-Laria L, Barreiro-de Acosta M, et al. Is safety infliximb during pregnancy in patients with inflammatory bowel disease? Revista Espanola de Enfermedades Digestivas 2012;104:59–64.
- [39] Nørgård B, Czeizel AE, Rockenbauer M, Olsen J, Sørensen HT. Populationbased case control study of the safety of sulfasalazine use during pregnancy. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2001;15:483–6.
- [40] Mogadam M, Dobbins WO, Korelitz BI, Ahmed SW. Pregnancy in inflammatory bowel disease: effect of sulfasalazine and corticosteroids on fetal outcome. Gastroenterology 1981;80:72–6.
- [41] Diav-Citrin O, Park YH, Veerasuntharam G, et al. The safety of mesalamine in human pregnancy: a prospective controlled cohort study. Gastroenterology 1998;114:23–8.
- [42] Hernández-Diaz S, Mitchell AA, Kelley KE, Calafat AM, Hauser R. Medications as a potential source of exposure to phthalates in the US population. Environmental Health Perspectives 2009;117:185–9.
- [43] Klotz U, Harings-Kaim A. Negligible excretion of 5-aminosalicylic acid in breast milk. Lancet 1993;342:618–9.
- [44] O'Moráin C, Smethurst P, Doré CJ, Levi AJ. Reversible male infertility due to sulphasalazine: studies in man and rat. Gut 1984;25:1078–84.
- [45] Delaere KP, Strijbos WE, Meuleman EJ. Sulphasalazine-induced reversible male infertility. Acta Urologica Belgica 1989;57:29–33.
- [46] Toovey S, Hudson E, Hendry WF, Levi AJ. Sulphasalazine and male infertility: reversibility and possible mechanism. Gut 1981;22:445–51.
- [47] Zelissen PM, van Hattum J, Poen H, Scholten P, Gerritse R, Velde te ER. Influence of salazosulphapyridine and 5-aminosalicylic acid on seminal qualities and male sex hormones. Scandinavian Journal of Gastroenterology 1988;23:1100–4.
- [48] Sartor RB. Therapeutic manipulation of the enteric microflora in inflammatory bowel diseases: antibiotics, probiotics, and prebiotics. Gastroenterology 2004;126:1620–33.
- [49] Khan KJ, Ullman TA, Ford AC, et al. Antibiotic therapy in inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2011;106:661–73.
- [50] Rutgeerts P, Hiele M, Geboes K, et al. Controlled trial of metronidazole treatment for prevention of Crohn's recurrence after ileal resection. Gastroenterology 1995;108:1617–21.
- [51] Burtin P, Taddio A, Ariburnu O, Einarson TR, Koren G. Safety of metronidazole in pregnancy: a meta-analysis. American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology 1995;172:525–9.
- [52] Diav-Citrin O, Shechtman S, Gotteiner T, Arnon J, Ornoy A. Pregnancy outcome after gestational exposure to metronidazole: a prospective controlled cohort study. Teratology 2001;63:186–92.
- [53] Koss CA, Baras DC, Lane SD, et al. Investigation of metronidazole use during pregnancy and adverse birth outcomes. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 2012;56:4800–5.
- [54] Passmore CM, McElnay JC, Rainey EA, D'Arcy PF. Metronidazole excretion in human milk and its effect on the suckling neonate. British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology 1988;26:45–51.
- [55] Bar-Oz B, Moretti ME, Boskovic R, O'Brien L, Koren G. The safety of quinolones—a meta-analysis of pregnancy outcomes. European Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology and Reproductive Biology 2009;143:75–8.
- [56] Berkovitch M, Pastuszak A, Gazarian M, Lewis M, Koren G. Safety of the new quinolones in pregnancy. Obstetrics and Gynecology 1994;84:535–8.
- [57] Larsen H, Nielsen GL, Schønheyder HC, Olesen C, Sørensen HT. Birth outcome following maternal use of fluoroquinolones. International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents 2001;18:259–62.
- [58] Loebstein R, Addis A, Ho E, et al. Pregnancy outcome following gestational exposure to fluoroquinolones: a multicenter prospective controlled study. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy 1998;42:1336–9.
- [59] Prantera C, Lochs H, Grimaldi M, Danese S, Scribano ML, Gionchetti P. Rifaximin-extended intestinal release induces remission in patients with moderately active Crohn's disease. Gastroenterology 2012;142, 473–81.e4.
- [60] Bay Bjørn A-M, Ehrenstein V, Holmager Hundborg H, Aagaard Nohr E, Toft Sørensen H, Nørgaard M. Use of corticosteroids in early pregnancy is not associated with risk of oral clefts and other congenital malformations in offspring. American Journal of Therapeutics 2012, http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MJT.0b013e3182491e02.
- [61] Hviid A, Mølgaard-Nielsen D. Corticosteroid use during pregnancy and risk of orofacial clefts. Canadian Medical Association Journal 2011;183:796–804.
- [62] Gur C, Diav-Citrin O, Shechtman S, Arnon J, Ornoy A. Pregnancy outcome after first trimester exposure to corticosteroids: a prospective controlled study. Reproductive Toxicology 2004;18:93–101.
- [63] Carmichael SL, Shaw GM. Maternal corticosteroid use and risk of selected congenital anomalies. American Journal of Medical Genetics 1999;86:242–4.

- [64] Fraser FC, Sajoo A. Teratogenic potential of corticosteroids in humans. Teratology 1995;51:45–6.
- [65] Rodríguez Pinilla E, Martínez-Frías ML. Corticosteroids during pregnancy and oral clefts: a case-control study. Teratology 1998;58:2–5.
- [66] Østensen M, Förger F. Management of RA medications in pregnant patients. Nature Reviews Rheumatology 2009;5:382–90.
- [67] Beaulieu DB, Ananthakrishnan AN, Issa M, et al. Budesonide induction and maintenance therapy for Crohn's disease during pregnancy. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2009;15:25–8.
- [68] Beitins IZ, Bayard F, Ances IG, Kowarski A, Migeon CJ. The transplacental passage of prednisone and prednisolone in pregnancy near term. Journal of Pediatrics 1972;81:936–45.
- [69] Khan KJ, Dubinsky MC, Ford AC, Ullman TA, Talley NJ, Moayyedi P. Efficacy of immunosuppressive therapy for inflammatory bowel disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2011;106:630–42.
- [70] Matalon ST, Ornoy A, Lishner M. Review of the potential effects of three commonly used antineoplastic and immunosuppressive drugs (cyclophosphamide, azathioprine, doxorubicin on the embryo and placenta). Reproductive Toxicology 2004;18:219–30.
- [71] Polifka JE, Friedman JM. Teratogen update: azathioprine and 6mercaptopurine. Teratology 2002;65:240–61.
- [72] de Boer NKH, Jarbandhan SVA, de Graaf P, Mulder CJJ, van Elburg RM, van Bodegraven AA. Azathioprine use during pregnancy: unexpected intrauterine exposure to metabolites. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2006;101:1390–2.
- [73] Francella A, Dyan A, Bodian C, Rubin P, Chapman M, Present DH. The safety of 6-mercaptopurine for childbearing patients with inflammatory bowel disease: a retrospective cohort study. Gastroenterology 2003;124:9–17.
- [74] Moskovitz DN, Bodian C, Chapman ML, et al. The effect on the fetus of medications used to treat pregnant inflammatory bowel-disease patients. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2004;99:656–61.
- [75] Langagergaard V, Pedersen L, Gislum M, Nørgård B, Sørensen HT. Birth outcome in women treated with azathioprine or mercaptopurine during pregnancy: a Danish nationwide cohort study. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2006;25:73–81.
- [76] Alstead EM, Ritchie JK, Lennard-Jones JE, Farthing MJ, Clark ML. Safety of azathioprine in pregnancy in inflammatory bowel disease. Gastroenterology 1990;99:443–6.
- [77] Coelho J, Beaugerie L, Colombel JF, et al. Pregnancy outcome in patients with inflammatory bowel disease treated with thiopurines: cohort from the CESAME Study. Gut 2011;60:198–203.
- [78] Akbari M, Shah S, Velayos FS, Mahadevan U, Cheifetz AS. Systematic review and meta-analysis on the effects of thiopurines on birth outcomes from female and male patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2013;19:15–22.
- [79] Shim L, Eslick GD, Simring AA, Murray H, Weltman MD. The effects of azathioprine on birth outcomes in women with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD). Journal of Crohn's and Colitis 2011;5:234–8.
- [80] Nørgård B, Pedersen L, Fonager K, Rasmussen SN, Sørensen HT. Azathioprine, mercaptopurine and birth outcome: a population-based cohort study. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2003;17:827–34.
- [81] Zlatanic J, Korelitz BI, Rajapakse R, et al. Complications of pregnancy and child development after cessation of treatment with 6-mercaptopurine for inflammatory bowel disease. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology 2003;36:303–9.
- [82] Cleary BJ, Källén B. Early pregnancy azathioprine use and pregnancy outcomes. Birth Defects Research Part A: Clinical and Molecular Teratology 2009;85:647–54.
- [83] Christensen LA, Dahlerup JF, Nielsen MJ, Fallingborg JF, Schmiegelow K. Azathioprine treatment during lactation. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2008;28:1209–13.
- [84] Angelberger S, Reinisch W, Messerschmidt A, et al. Long-term follow-up of babies exposed to azathioprine in utero and via breastfeeding. Journal of Crohn's and Colitis 2011;5:95–100.
- [85] McLeod HL, Krynetski EY, Wilimas JA, Evans WE. Higher activity of polymorphic thiopurine S-methyltransferase in erythrocytes from neonates compared to adults. Pharmacogenetics 1995;5:281–6.
- [86] Rajapakse RO, Korelitz BI, Zlatanic J, Baiocco PJ, Gleim GW. Outcome of pregnancies when fathers are treated with 6-mercaptopurine for inflammatory bowel disease. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2000;95: 684–8.
- [87] Teruel C, Román AL-S, Bermejo F, et al. Outcomes of pregnancies fathered by inflammatory bowel disease patients exposed to thiopurines. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2010;105:2003–8.
- [88] Hoeltzenbein M, Weber-Schoendorfer C, Borisch C, Allignol A, Meister R, Schaefer C. Pregnancy outcome after paternal exposure to azathioprine/6mercaptopurine. Reproductive Toxicology 2012;34:364–9.
- [89] Dejaco C, Mittermaier C, Reinisch W, et al. Azathioprine treatment and male fertility in inflammatory bowel disease. Gastroenterology 2001;121:1048–53.
- [90] Lloyd ME, Carr M, McElhatton P, Hall GM, Hughes RA. The effects of methotrexate on pregnancy, fertility and lactation. Quarterly Journal of Medicine 1999;92:551–63.
- [91] Johns DG, Rutherford LD, Leighton PC, Vogel CL. Secretion of methotrexate into human milk. American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology 1972;112:978–80.

- [92] American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Drugs. Transfer of drugs and other chemicals into human milk. Pediatrics 2001;108:776–89.
- [93] French AE, Koren G. Motherisk team: effect of methotrexate on male fertility. Canadian Family Physician 2003;49:577–8.
- [94] Petri M. Immunosuppressive drug use in pregnancy. Autoimmunity 2003;36:51–6.
- [95] Haugen G, Fauchald P, Sødal G, Halvorsen S, Oldereid N, Moe N. Pregnancy outcome in renal allograft recipients: influence of ciclosporin A. European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Reproductive Biology 1991;39:25–9.
- [96] Bar Oz B, Hackman R, Einarson T, Koren G. Pregnancy outcome after cyclosporine therapy during pregnancy: a meta-analysis. Transplantation 2001;71:1051–5.
- [97] Branche J, Cortot A, Bourreille A, et al. Cyclosporine treatment of steroidrefractory ulcerative colitis during pregnancy. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2009;15:1044–8.
- [98] Reindl W, Schmid RM, Huber W. Cyclosporin A treatment of steroid-refractory ulcerative colitis during pregnancy: report of two cases. Gut 2007;56:1019.
- [99] Angelberger S, Reinisch W, Dejaco C. Prevention of abortion by ciclosporin treatment of fulminant ulcerative colitis during pregnancy. Gut 2006;55:1364–5.
- [100] Reddy D, Murphy SJ, Kane SV, Present DH, Kornbluth AA. Relapses of inflammatory bowel disease during pregnancy: in-hospital management and birth outcomes. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2008;103:1203–9.
- [101] Flechner SM, Katz AR, Rogers AJ, Van Buren C, Kahan BD. The presence of cyclosporine in body tissues and fluids during pregnancy. American Journal of Kidney Diseases 1985;5:60–3.
- [102] Sandborn WJ, Present DH, Isaacs KL, et al. Tacrolimus for the treatment of fistulas in patients with Crohn's disease: a randomized, placebo-controlled trial. Gastroenterology 2003;125:380–8.
- [103] Kainz A, Harabacz I, Cowlrick IS, Gadgil SD, Hagiwara D. Review of the course and outcome of 100 pregnancies in 84 women treated with tacrolimus. Transplantation 2000;70:1718–21.
- [104] Jain A, Venkataramanan R, Fung JJ, et al. Pregnancy after liver transplantation under tacrolimus. Transplantation 1997;64:559–65.
- [105] Grimer M. Pregnancy, lactation and calcineurin inhibitors. Nephrology 2007;12:S98–105.
- [106] French AE, Soldin SJ, Soldin OP, Koren G. Milk transfer and neonatal safety of tacrolimus. The Annals of Pharmacotherapy 2003;37:815–8.
- [107] Gouraud A, Bernard N, Millaret A, et al. Follow-up of tacrolimus breastfed babies. Transplantation 2012;94:e38–40.
- [108] Zheng S, Easterling TR, Umans JG, et al. Pharmacokinetics of tacrolimus during pregnancy. Therapeutic Drug Monitoring 2012;34:660–70.
- [109] Ford AC, Sandborn WJ, Khan KJ, Hanauer SB, Talley NJ, Moayyedi P. Efficacy of biological therapies in inflammatory bowel disease: systematic review and meta-analysis. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2011;106:644–59, quiz 660.
- [110] Hanauer SB, Feagan BG, Lichtenstein GR, et al. Maintenance infliximab for Crohn's disease: the ACCENT I randomised trial. Lancet 2002;359:1541–9.
- [111] Colombel J-F, Sandborn WJ, Rutgeerts P, et al. Adalimumab for maintenance of clinical response and remission in patients with Crohn's disease: The CHARM Trial. Gastroenterology 2007;132:52–65.
- [112] Haider S, Knöfler M. Human tumour necrosis factor: physiological and pathological roles in placenta and endometrium. Placenta 2009;30:111–23.
- [113] Torchinsky A, Shepshelovich J, Orenstein H, et al. TNF-alpha protects embryos exposed to developmental toxicants. American Journal of Reproductive Immunology 2003;49:159–68.
- [114] Silver RM, Lohner WS, Daynes RA, Mitchell MD, Branch DW. Lipopolysaccharide-induced fetal death: the role of tumor-necrosis factor alpha. Biology of Reproduction 1994;50:1108–12.
- [115] Salminen A, Paananen R, Vuolteenaho R, et al. Maternal endotoxin-induced preterm birth in mice: fetal responses in toll-like receptors, collectins, and cytokines. Pediatric Research 2008;63:280–6.
- [116] Kane SV, Acquah LA. Placental transport of immunoglobulins: a clinical review for gastroenterologists who prescribe therapeutic monoclonal antibodies to women during conception and pregnancy. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2009;104:228–33.
- [117] Roopenian DC, Akilesh S. FcRn: the neonatal Fc receptor comes of age. Nature Reviews Immunology 2007;7:715–25.

- [118] Zelinkova Z, de Haar C, de Ridder L, et al. High intra-uterine exposure to infliximab following maternal anti-TNF treatment during pregnancy. Alimentary Pharmacology and Therapeutics 2011;33:1053–8.
- [119] Mahadevan U, Wolf DC, Dubinsky M, et al. Placental transfer of anti-tumor necrosis factor agents in pregnant patients with inflammatory bowel disease. Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology, in press
- [120] Kane S, Ford J, Cohen R, Wagner C. Absence of infliximab in infants and breast milk from nursing mothers receiving therapy for Crohn's disease before and after delivery. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology 2009;43:613–6.
- [121] Arsenescu R, Arsenescu V, de Villiers WJS. TNF-α and the development of the neonatal immune system: implications for inhibitor use in pregnancy. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2011;106:559–62.
- [122] Martin PL, Oneda S, Treacy G. Effects of an anti-TNF-α monoclonal antibody, administered throughout pregnancy and lactation, on the development of the macaque immune system. American Journal of Reproductive Immunology 2007;58:138–49.
- [123] Martin P, Cornacoff J, Treacy G, et al. Effects of administration of a monoclonal antibody against mouse tumor necrosis factor alpha during pregnancy and lactation on the pre- and postnatal development of the mouse immune system. International Journal of Toxicology 2008;27:341–7.
- [124] Schnitzler F, Fidder H, Ferrante M, et al. Outcome of pregnancy in women with inflammatory bowel disease treated with antitumor necrosis factor therapy. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2011;17:1846–54.
- [125] Katz JA, Antoni C, Keenan GF, Smith DE, Jacobs SJ, Lichtenstein GR. Outcome of pregnancy in women receiving infliximab for the treatment of Crohn's disease and rheumatoid arthritis. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2004;99:2385–92.
- [126] Lichtenstein GR, Feagan BG, Cohen RD, et al. Serious infection and mortality in patients with Crohn's disease: more than 5 years of follow-up in the TREATTM registry. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2012;107:1409–22.
- [127] PIANO: a 1000 patient prospective registry of pregnancy outcomes in women with IBD exposed to immunomodulators and biologic therapy 2012;1.
- [128] Carter JD, Ladhani A, Ricca LR, Valeriano J, Vasey FB. A safety assessment of tumor necrosis factor antagonists during pregnancy: a review of the food and drug administration database. Journal of Rheumatology 2009;36:635–41.
- [129] Crijns HJMJ, Jentink J, Garne E, et al. The distribution of congenital anomalies within the VACTERL association among tumor necrosis factor antagonist-exposed pregnancies is similar to the general population. Journal of Rheumatology 2011;38:1871–4.
- [130] Cheent K, Nolan J, Shariq S, Kiho L, Pal A, Arnold J. Case report: fatal case of disseminated BCG infection in an infant born to a mother taking infliximab for Crohn's disease. Journal of Crohn's and Colitis 2010;4:603–5.
- [131] Mahadevan U, Terdiman JP, Aron J, Jacobsohn S, Turek P. Infliximab and semen quality in men with inflammatory bowel disease. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2005;11:395–9.
- [132] Puchner R, Danninger K, Puchner A, Pieringer H. Impact of TNF-blocking agents on male sperm characteristics and pregnancy outcomes in fathers exposed to TNF-blocking agents at time of conception. Clinical and Experimental Rheumatology 2012;30:765–7.
- [133] Nesbitt A, Fossati G, Bergin M, et al. Mechanism of action of certolizumab pegol (CDP870): in vitro comparison with other anti-tumor necrosis factor α agents. Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2007;13:1323–32.
- [134] Oussalah A, Bigard MA, Peyrin-Biroulet L. Certolizumab use in pregnancy. Gut 2009;58:608.
- [135] Targan SR, Feagan BG, Fedorak RN, et al. Natalizumab for the treatment of active Crohn's disease: results of the ENCORE Trial. Gastroenterology 2007;132:1672–83.
- [136] Wehner NG, Shopp G, Oneda S, Clarke J. Embryo/fetal development in cynomolgus monkeys exposed to natalizumab, an α 4 integrin inhibitor. Birth Defects Research Part B: Developmental and Reproductive Toxicology 2009;86:117–30.
- [137] Wehner NG, Skov M, Shopp G, Rocca MS, Clarke J. Effects of natalizumab, an α 4 integrin inhibitor, on fertility in male and female guinea pigs. Birth Defects Research Part B: Developmental and Reproductive Toxicology 2009;86:108-16.
- [138] Hellwig K, Haghikia A, Gold R. Pregnancy and natalizumab: results of an observational study in 35 accidental pregnancies during natalizumab treatment. Multiple Sclerosis Journal 2011;17:958–63.