

The prevalence of obstructive sleep apnea and its association with pregnancy-related health outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis

Lina Liu¹ · Guang Su¹ · Shuling Wang² · Bingqian Zhu³

Received: 12 June 2018 / Revised: 6 August 2018 / Accepted: 27 August 2018 / Published online: 25 September 2018
© Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2018

Abstract

Purpose Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is common during pregnancy. Nevertheless, prevalence estimates of OSA have varied widely due to variabilities in the assessment methods. This meta-analysis aimed to examine the prevalence of objectively assessed OSA and its association with pregnancy-related health outcomes in pregnant women.

Methods This review was developed following the PRISMA guideline. A systematic search was conducted in major electronic databases to identify studies conducted from inception to January 2018. The pooled estimates with 95% confidence interval were calculated using the inverse variance method. Forest plots were used to present the results of individual studies and the pooled effect sizes.

Results Thirty-three studies were included. The mean gestational age was between 21.2 (8.5) and 37.3 (2.1) weeks. The pooled worldwide prevalence of OSA was 15% (95% CI 12–18%). The prevalence estimates ranged from 5% in the European Region to 20% in the Region of Americas. The prevalence estimates for different trimesters ranged from 15 to 19%. OSA was related to an increased risk for gestational hypertension, gestational diabetes, pre-eclampsia, C-section, postoperative wound complication, and pulmonary edema. The pooled adjusted odds ratio (aOR) values were 1.97, 1.55, 2.35, 1.42, 1.87, and 6.35, respectively. OSA was also related to an increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 1.62) and neonatal intensive care unit admission (aOR = 1.28).

Conclusions OSA is a common health issue in pregnant women. OSA is associated with various pregnancy-related health outcomes. Routine screening, early diagnosis, and effective treatment of OSA are recommended in pregnant women, particularly during mid and late pregnancy.

Keywords Meta-analysis · Observational · Pregnancy · Prevalence · Sleep apnea

Introduction

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is characterized by repetitive upper airway obstruction and significant reductions in airflow during sleep, which results in intermittent hypoxia and sleep

fragmentation [1]. OSA is a common problem in the general population; it has been reported that 12% of the US adults had OSA [2]. The prevalence of OSA in women of reproductive age was 5% [3], which likely increases during pregnancy because of normal physiological changes, such as respiratory changes and weight gain [4]. However, due to variations in sample characteristics and assessment of OSA, prevalence estimates of OSA in the current literature have varied widely from 2.1% [5] to 37.5% [6]. Polysomnography (PSG) has been the gold standard for the diagnosis of OSA [7]. The prevalence of OSA has also been reported based on subjective questionnaires in numerous studies [8–10]. These questionnaires include the Epworth Sleepiness Scale [11], STOP-Bang [12], and Berlin Questionnaire [13]. Although questionnaires are cheap and can be easily administered, they may bring recall bias and impair the accuracy of prevalence estimates of OSA. During pregnancy, women typically

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11325-018-1714-7>) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

✉ Bingqian Zhu
zhubq@shsmu.edu.cn

¹ Department of Gynecology, Beijing Chuiyangliu Hospital, Beijing, China

² Reproductive Center, Chinese PLA General Hospital, Beijing, China

³ School of Nursing, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 227 S Chongqing Rd, Shanghai 200025, China

experience fatigue and daytime sleepiness [14, 15]. Those symptoms are similar to normal pregnancy-related symptoms and thus being ignored or under-reported by pregnant women. Currently, there is a gap in our knowledge about the prevalence of OSA based on objective assessments, such as PSG.

Accumulating evidence suggests that OSA was associated with adverse pregnancy-related outcomes, such as gestational hypertension [16], gestational diabetes [17], pre-eclampsia [18], preterm birth [18], and low birth weight [19]. Nonetheless, results have been inconsistent. Two previous reviews have examined the effect of maternal OSA on perinatal and neonatal outcomes. Since the publication of these reviews, more studies have been conducted. Additionally, the previous reviews included both self-reported OSA based on symptoms and confirmed OSA based on PSG. There is a need to synthesize current evidence on the relationship between objectively measured OSA and pregnancy-related outcomes.

Early diagnosis and in-time treatment of OSA may help to decrease the risk for adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes. Nevertheless, OSA is frequently under-recognized by healthcare providers. There is a clear need to determine the prevalence of OSA and related health outcomes during pregnancy and thereby increase health care professionals' awareness of the importance of OSA and facilitate the development of healthcare planning. Thus, the aim of this study was two-fold: (1) evaluate the overall prevalence of OSA during pregnancy based on objective assessments and (2) the relationship between OSA and pregnancy-related outcomes.

Methods

The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) protocol [20] was developed to investigate the prevalence of OSA in pregnant women. The PRISMA guideline was used in developing this review [21].

Search strategy

We conducted a systematic search of electronic databases, including PubMed, CINAHL, Embase, and PsycINFO, to identify studies conducted from inception to January 2018. We also searched bibliographies of included studies to identify additional eligible studies. The search was conducted using combinations of the following terms: (1) sleep disordered breathing OR SDB OR sleep apn* OR OSA and (2) pregnan* OR gestation*. The inclusion criteria were (1) studies reported the prevalence of OSA among pregnant women and (2) objective assessment OSA was used. The exclusion criteria were (1) studies conducted specifically in subjects diagnosed with other types of sleep disorders, such as restless leg syndrome or insomnia, (2) variables of interest were not measured, and (3) other types of articles: review, case study, editorial, or abstract.

We also excluded studies conducted exclusively in subjects diagnosed with comorbidities such as diabetes and hypertension. Compared to the general population, the prevalence of OSA in people with diabetes or hypertension is higher [22, 23]. The inclusion of studies exclusively conducted in subjects with diabetes or hypertension may inflate the estimation of OSA prevalence.

We used the PRISMA flow chart to select eligible studies [21]. One reviewer (LL) completed the initial screening based on title and abstract. Two reviewers (LL and SW) independently reviewed the full text of potential studies. Whether a study was eligible for final inclusion was determined by the two reviewers based on inclusion/exclusion criteria. Discrepancies were resolved by a third reviewer (GS). If more than one article using the same sample was eligible, only the more recent one was included in the analysis.

Data extraction

Data were independently extracted by two reviewers (LL and SW). A standardized table was developed by the research team to tabulate main study information. Extracted information included study-related characteristics (e.g., design, sample size, response rate, and prevalence of OSA) and participant-related characteristics (e.g., age, gestational age, and comorbidities). Discrepancies were resolved by a third reviewer (BZ).

OSA diagnosis

The primary outcome is the prevalence of OSA. Diagnosis and definition of OSA were based on the American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) [24]. There are several commonly used indices for OSA. The most common one is the apnea-hypopnea index (AHI), which is the number of episodes of apnea and hypopnea per hour of sleep. Another one is oxygen desaturation index (ODI), which is the number of oxygen desaturations of over 3% below baseline per hour of sleep. The respiratory disturbance index (RDI) has also been used. RDI is the number of episodes of apnea, hypopnea, and respiratory event-related arousals per hour of sleep. Based on AHI, the severity of OSA can be categorized into: no OSA ($AHI < 5$), mild OSA ($AHI \geq 5$ but < 15), moderate OSA ($AHI \geq 15$ but < 30), and severe OSA ($AHI \geq 30$).

Data analysis

Stata 13.0 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX) was used for statistical analysis. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$. For studies that consisted of both pregnant cases and non-pregnant controls, only the prevalence of OSA in the cases was used. We obtained the pooled estimates of the prevalence of OSA during pregnancy. Odds ratio (OR) with 95% CI was

used to assess the relationship between OSA and pregnancy-related outcomes. The pooled OR was calculated using the inverse variance method. Forest plots were used to present the results of individual studies and the pooled effect size. Funnel plot for the primary outcome (prevalence of OSA) was used to examine publication bias, and asymmetry of the plot suggests publication bias. Begg's test was also conducted to test the publication bias [25]. Heterogeneity among studies was examined by the I^2 value ($I^2 > 50\%$ considered significant) [26]. A fixed effect model was used if no heterogeneity was detected and a random effect model was used otherwise [27]. Subgroup analyses were conducted based on the regions of the study (i.e., Region of Americas, European Region, and Western Pacific Region) and trimester. The AASM has proposed several guidelines on how to define hypopnea, such as the 1999 recommended definition (1999_{rec}), 2007 recommended definition (2007_{rec}), 2007 alternative definition (2007_{alt}), and 2012 recommended definition (2012_{rec}) [28]. The definition of hypopnea can largely influence the prevalence estimates. Therefore, subgroup analysis was also conducted based on the definition of hypopnea. In the case of heterogeneity, we performed sensitivity analyses to test the robustness of the pooled estimates, using leave-one-out approach. We also used qualitative analysis to summarize the findings on the relationship between OSA and pregnancy-related outcomes when the meta-analysis was not applicable.

Results

Searching results

The initial literature search yielded 848 relevant records after excluding duplications across databases. A total of 75 articles underwent the full-text review and were excluded based on reasons listed in Fig. 1. A total of 33 studies met the inclusion and exclusion criteria and thus were included in this review. No eligible studies were identified through other sources. The searching process is shown in Fig. 1.

Study characteristics

Study characteristics are shown in Table 1. The studies were conducted between 2000 and 2017. Over half of the studies were conducted in the USA. Other countries included Canada, Australia, and UK. A majority of the studies used a prospective design ($n = 25$), eight studies used a retrospective design, and 12 studies also used a case-control design. Most of the studies used PSG to diagnose OSA. Other methods used included pulse-oximeter [44, 53, 55], RUSleeping meter [5], and WatchPat device [29]. AHI ≥ 5 was most commonly used as the indicator for OSA. AHI ≥ 10 , AHI ≥ 15 , RDI ≥ 5 , ODI ≥ 5 , and ODI ≥ 3 were also used. The participant mean

age was between 25.5 (4.6) and 37.0 years. Participants were typically in their second or third trimester. The mean gestational age was between 21.2 (8.5) and 37.3 (2.1) weeks.

Prevalence of OSA during pregnancy

Among the 33 studies, two studies [35, 39] did not report the prevalence of OSA, six studies reported the incidence rate [17, 18, 30, 34, 41, 52], and one study [37] reported a prevalence of 0%. Therefore, findings from the remaining 24 studies were meta-analyzed. The 24 studies included a total of 4556 participants. The individual sample size ranged from 15 to 4166. Heterogeneity was detected ($I^2 = 86.2\%$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, the random effects analysis was used. The pooled overall prevalence of OSA during pregnancy was 15% (95% CI 12–18%), as is shown in Fig. 2.

Subgroup analysis was conducted based on the regions of the studies. There was a lack of data from Southeast Asian Region, African Region, and Eastern Mediterranean Region. Based on the forest plot (Fig. 2a), the prevalence of OSA in European Region, Region of Americas, and Western Pacific Region were 5% (95% CI 1–9%), 20% (95% CI 15–25%), and 17% (95% CI 8–26%), respectively. The prevalence of OSA in the European Region was significantly lower than in the Region of Americas and Western Pacific Region.

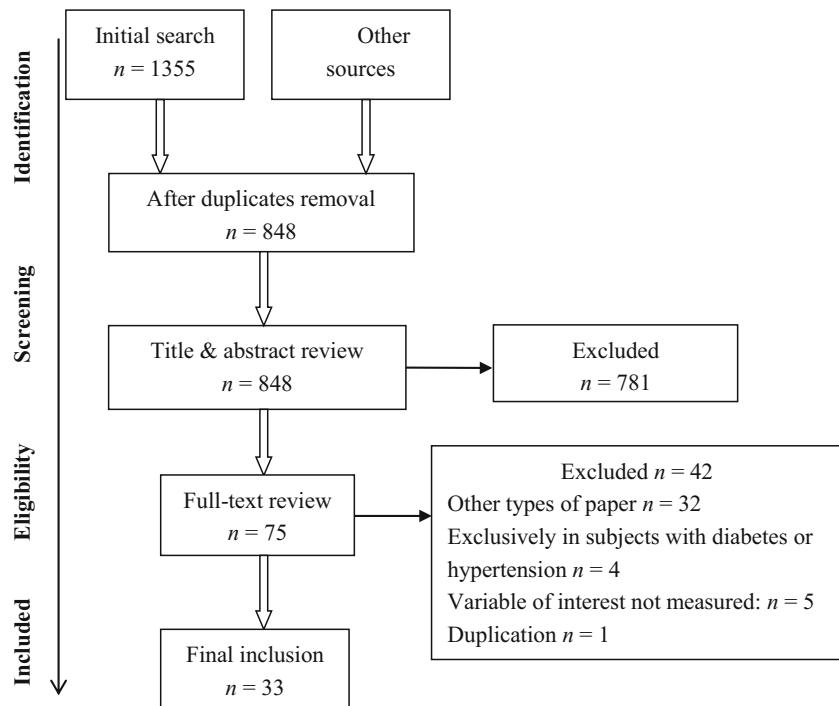
Additional subgroup analysis was conducted based on trimester. There was a lack of data from the first trimester and only one study assessed the prevalence of OSA during the second trimester (11%, 95% CI 3–19%). Based on the forest plot (Fig. 2b), the prevalence of OSA during the third trimester was 15% (95% CI 10–20%). Three studies assessed the overall prevalence of OSA across all trimesters. The pooled prevalence was 19% (95% CI 10–28%). Six studies consisted of participants during their second and third trimester. The pooled prevalence was 17% (95% CI 9–24%).

Another subgroup analysis was conducted based on the definition of hypopnea. Based on the forest plot (Fig. 2c), the prevalence estimates produced by the 1999_{rec} definition and 2007_{rec} definition were 22% and 24%, respectively, higher than the one (15%) produced by the 2007_{alt} definition.

Sensitivity analysis and publication bias

Sensitivity analysis was conducted by excluding those two studies [5, 29] that employed the less commonly used method for OSA diagnosis. Based on the forest plot, the pooled prevalence of OSA was 15% (95% CI 12–19%), suggesting the result was robust (Supplementary Fig. 1). A funnel plot was performed for the primary outcome. Although not statistically significant ($z = 1.95$, $p = 0.052$), visual inspection of the funnel plot suggested a slight publication bias (Supplementary Fig. 2).

Fig. 1 PRISMA flowchart for study selection



Association between OSA and pregnancy-related outcomes

Among the 33 studies, 15 evaluated the association between OAS and maternal-related outcomes and 13 evaluated the association between OSA and infant-related outcomes. The main findings from each study are listed in Table 2. The pooled estimates for each outcome are presented in Table 3. The forest plots are shown in Supplementary Fig. 3.

Maternal-related outcomes

Based on Table 3, OSA was related to an increased risk for gestational hypertension, gestational diabetes, and preeclampsia ($p < 0.001$). The pooled adjusted odds ratio (aOR) values were 1.97 (95% CI 1.51–2.56), 1.55 (95% CI 1.51–2.56), and 2.35 (95% CI 2.15–2.58), respectively. OSA was also related to an increased risk for C-section (aOR = 1.42, 95% CI 1.12–1.79), postoperative wound complication (aOR = 1.87, 95% CI 1.56–2.24), and pulmonary edema (aOR = 6.35, 95% CI 4.25–9.50). In contrast, OSA was not significantly related to prolonged hospital stay (aOR = 1.94, $p = 0.10$).

Findings that cannot be meta-analyzed were summarized here. Specifically, OSA was reported to be associated with an increased risk for intensive care unit admission (aOR = 2.74, 95% CI 2.36–3.18) [17], a composite measure of adverse outcomes (e.g., preterm birth and prolonged hospital stay) [34, 39], and decreased resting heart rate variability [53]. Reutrakul et al. [50] also reported a strong association between OSA and gestational diabetes, but OSA was the outcome.

Infant-related outcomes

Based on Table 3, OSA was related to an increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 1.62, 95% CI 1.29–2.02) and neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) admission (aOR = 1.28, 95% CI 1.13–1.46). In comparison, the association between OSA with small for gestational age infant, stillbirth, and poor fetal growth was not statistically significant.

Findings that cannot be meta-analyzed were summarized here. OSA was associated with an increased risk for low birth weight (aOR = 1.76, 95% CI 1.28–2.40) [18] and the low Apgar score [18, 19, 30]. The association between OSA with neurological function and perinatal complication of the infant [29] and fetal heart rate abnormality [47] was also examined, but no significance was detected.

Discussion

The aim of this systematic review and meta-analysis was to examine the prevalence of OSA during pregnancy and to explore the association between OSA and pregnancy-related health outcomes. This study, to our best knowledge, is among the first that exclusively included studies relied on the objective assessment of OSA, which enhanced the reliability of the findings. In this study, we provided a pooled estimate of the OSA prevalence during pregnancy around the globe. We found that the overall prevalence of OSA during mid and late pregnancy was 15% (95% CI 12–18%). We also provided an up-to-date assessment of health outcomes related to OSA

Table 1 Study characteristics and participant description (*n* = 33)

Author, year	Country	Design	Sample size	Age (years)	Gestational age (weeks) and trimester	OSA assessment; hypopnea definition; diagnosis criteria	Comorbid with diabetes or hypertension
Bassan, 2016 [29]	Israel	Prospective	44	32.5 (4.2)	33–36; 3rd trimester	WatchPat device; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	None
Bin, 2016 [30]	Australia	Retrospective	636,227	NA	NA	ICD-10	Diabetes: 6.6% Hypertension: 4.4%
Bisson, 2014 [31]	Canada	Prospective, case-control	26 healthy controls and 26 with GMD	32.7 (3.8)	32.3 (1.0); 2nd and 3rd trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 0% Hypertension: 4%
Bourjeily, 2015 [32]	USA	Prospective, case-control	25 non-pregnant women and 25 pregnant women	31.1 (5.8)	26.6 (7.9); any trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 36% Hypertension: 24%
Bourjeily, 2017 [17]	USA	Retrospective	1,577,632	29.6 (6.0)	NA	ICD-9	Diabetes: 1.2% Hypertension: 2.9%
Champagne, 2009 [33]	Canada	Prospective, case-control	33 healthy pregnant women and 17 pregnant women with GHT	32.7 (5.5)	32.4 (4.6); 2nd and 3rd trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 15	Diabetes: 6.0% Hypertension: 0%
Chen, 2012 [18]	Taiwan	Retrospective, case-control	3955 healthy pregnant women and 791 pregnant women with OSA	30.3 (4.4)	NA	ICD-9	None
Facco, 2012 [34]	USA	Retrospective	143	32.1 (5.6)	NA	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 4% Hypertension: 17%
Facco, 2017 [16]	USA	Prospective	Mid: 2474	NA	2nd and 3rd trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 2007 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 7.0% Hypertension: 32.5%
Felder, 2017 [35]	USA	Retrospective, case-control	2172 pregnant women with sleep disorder and 2172 healthy pregnant women	NA	NA	ICD-9	NA
Fung, 2013 [36]	Australia	Prospective	41	36.0 (4.4)	37; 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; NA; RDI \geq 5	Diabetes: 29% Hypertension: 14%
Guilleminault, 2000 [37]	USA	Prospective	26	25.5 (4.6)	25–27; 2nd trimester	Attended PSG; NA; AHI \geq 5	NA
Lockhart, 2015 [38]	USA	Prospective	248	28 (6.2)	32 (3.1); 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 15% Hypertension: 27%
Longworth, 2017 [5]	UK	Prospective	47	29.6 (6.1)	28; 3rd trimester	RUSleeping Meter; NA; AHI \geq 15	NA
Louis, 2010 [39]	USA	Retrospective, case-control	57 pregnant women with OSA and 114 healthy pregnant women	30 (6)	NA	Attended PSG; AASM 2012 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	
Louis, 2012 [40]	USA	Prospective	175	30.0 (6.4)	21.2 (8.5); any trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 2007 _{alt} ; AHI \geq 5	Diabetes: 31% Hypertension: 33%
Louis, 2014 [41]	USA	Retrospective	55,781,965	NA	NA	ICD-9	
Maasilta, 2001 [42]	Finland	Prospective, case-control	11 obese and 11 non-obese pregnant women	31.8 (1.1)	3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{alt} ; AHI \geq 10	Diabetes: 40.9% Hypertension: NA
McIntyre, 2016 [43]	New Zealand	Prospective	30	30.8 (5.2)	37; 3rd trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 2012 _{rec} ; AHI \geq 5	None
Miyagawa, 2011 [44]	Japan	Prospective	179	32.4 (4.7)	35.9 (1.5); 3rd trimester	Pulse-oximeter; NA; 3%ODI \geq 5	NA
O'Brien, 2012 [45]	USA	Prospective	31	30.2 (7.1)	33.4 (3.0); 3rd trimester	Unattended PSG; AASM 2007 _{alt} ; AHI \geq 5	NA
O'Brien, 2014 [46]	USA			28.1 (9.2)		Attended PSG;	None

Table 1 (continued)

Author, year	Country	Design	Sample size	Age (years)	Gestational age (weeks) and trimester	OSA assessment; hypopnea definition; diagnosis criteria	Comorbid with diabetes or hypertension
Olivarez, 2010 [47]	USA	Prospective, case-control	16 healthy pregnant women and 51 pregnant women with hypertensive disorder		33.8 (3.8); any trimester	AASM 2007 _{alt} ; AHI ≥ 5	
Pamidi, 2016 [48]	USA	Prospective	100	26.6 (7.1)	32.3 (3.5); 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; NA; AHI ≥ 5	Diabetes: 28% Hypertension: 16%
Pien, 2013 [49]	USA	Prospective	234	31.0 (4.3)	36.6 (1.4); 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI ≥ 15	None
Reutrakul, 2013 [50]	USA	Prospective, case-control	105	26.7 (7.2)	33.6 (2.5); 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 1999 _{rec} ; AHI ≥ 5	Diabetes: 13.3%
Sahin, 2008 [19]	Turkey	Prospective	15 healthy pregnant women and 15 pregnant women with GDM	28.5 (5.9)	2nd and 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{rec} ; AHI ≥ 5	None
Sarberg, 2016 [51]	Sweden	Prospective, case-control	100 pregnant women and 80 non-pregnant women	35	37.3 (2.1); 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{alt} ; AHI ≥ 5	Diabetes: none Hypertension: NA
Sharkey, 2014 [6]	USA	Prospective	16	29.8 (5.4)	28.6 (6.3); 2nd and 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{rec} ; AHI ≥ 5	NA
Spence, 2017 [52]	USA	Retrospective, case-control	266 pregnant women with OSA and 304,735 healthy pregnant women	30.7 (6.4)	NA	ICD-9	NA
Watanabe, 2015 [53]	Japan	Prospective	64	28.8 (4.8)	25.8 (1.6); 2nd trimester	Pulse-oximeter; NA; 3%ODI ≥ 3 or minimum O ₂ saturation $< 90\%$	None
Wilson, 2013 [54]	Australia	Prospective	43	33.5 (5.1)	37; 3rd trimester	Attended PSG; AASM 2007 _{alt} ; RDI ≥ 5	Diabetes: 19% Hypertension: 19%
Yin, 2008 [55]	UK	Prospective, case-control	50 non-pregnant women and 150 pregnant women	29 (7)	35 (2.7); 3rd trimester	Pulse-oximeter; NA; 4%ODI ≥ 5	None

AASM the American Academy of Sleep Medicine, AHI apnea-hypopnea index, ICD the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, NA not available or not applicable, ODI oxygen desaturation index, OSA obstructive sleep apnea, PSG polysomnography, RDI respiratory disturbance index, 1999_{rec} 1999 recommended definition, 2007_{rec} 2007 recommended definition, 2007_{alt} 2007 alternative definition, 2012_{rec} 2012 recommended definition

during pregnancy. OSA was related to an increased risk for various adverse health outcomes. Maternal-related outcomes included gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, C-section, postoperative wound complication, and pulmonary edema. Infant-related outcomes included pre-term birth and NICU admission.

The overall prevalence of OSA during pregnancy was high, suggesting that pregnancy-related factors may increase the risk for OSA during this special time. During pregnancy, many changes can predispose pregnant women to the

development of OSA. Such changes include progressive weight gain, upward placement of the diaphragm, and levels of estrogen and progesterone during pregnancy [56]. Lee et al. [57] found that controlling for gestational age and weight, progesterone levels were lower in pregnant women with OSA than pregnant women without OSA. This finding suggests that progesterone, as a known respiratory drive stimulant, may protect pregnant women against OSA [57]. However, the increasing level of estrogen during pregnancy may result in narrowing of the upper airway with increased

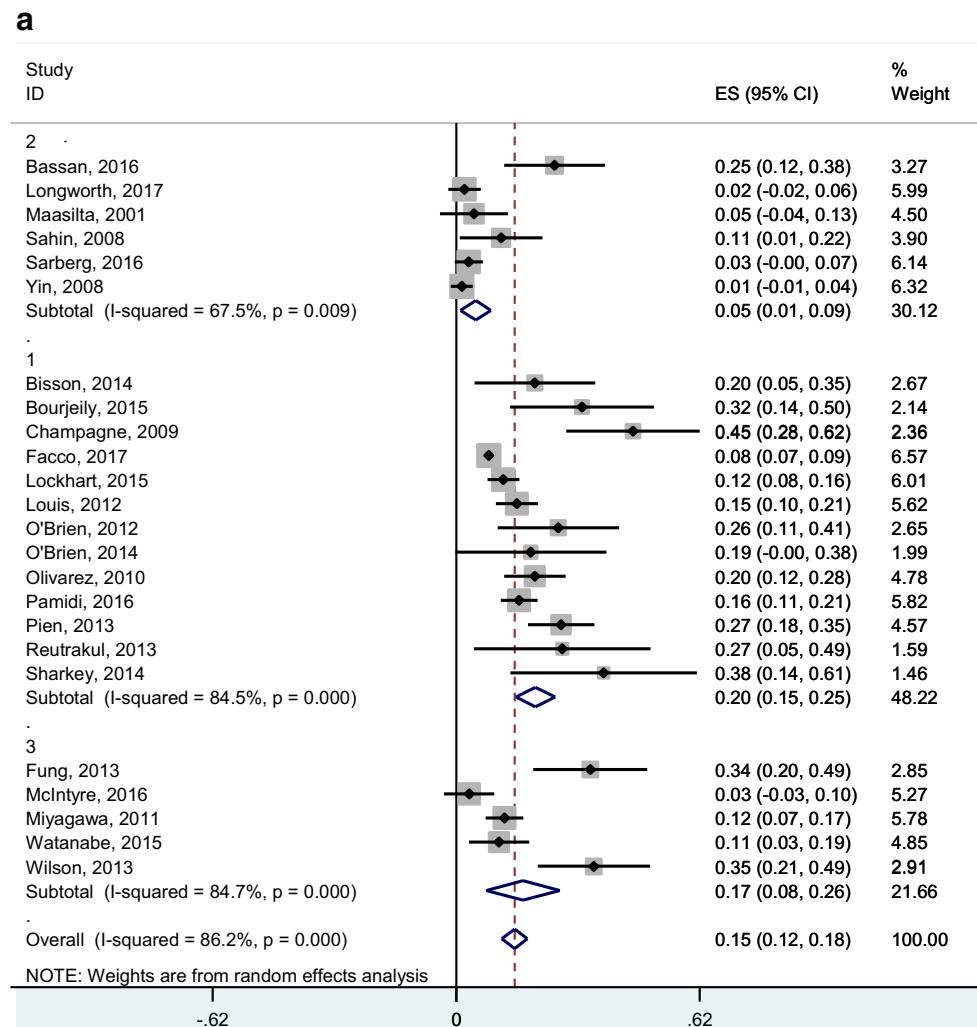


Fig. 2 **a** Forest plot for the prevalence of sleep apnea during pregnancy based on regions. Results are shown as effect size (ES) and 95% CI. Dotted line represents the pooled prevalence ratio. 1: Region of Americas, ES = 0.20, $z = 7.39$, $p < 0.001$. 2: European Region, ES = 0.05, $z = 2.50$, $p = 0.012$. 3: Western Pacific Region, ES = 0.17, $z = 3.58$, $p < 0.001$. Overall, ES = 0.15, $z = 8.96$, $p < 0.001$. **b** Forest plot for the prevalence of sleep apnea during pregnancy based on trimesters. Results are shown as effect size (ES) and 95% CI. Dotted line represents the pooled prevalence ratio. 3: Third trimester, ES = 0.15, $z = 5.75$, $p < 0.001$. 2.5: Second and third trimester, ES = 0.17, $z = 4.30$, $p < 0.001$. 2: Second trimester, ES = 0.11, $z = 2.80$, $p = 0.005$. 0: Across

all trimesters, ES = 0.19, $z = 4.20$, $p < 0.001$. Overall, ES = 0.15, $z = 8.96$, $p < 0.001$. **c** Forest plot for the prevalence of sleep apnea during pregnancy based on definitions of hypopnea. Results are shown as effect size (ES) and 95% CI. Dotted line represents the pooled prevalence ratio. 4: Following the 2012 recommended definition, ES = 0.03, $z = 1.01$, $p = 0.312$. 3: Following the 2007 alternative definition, ES = 0.15, $z = 3.66$, $p < 0.001$. 2: Following the 2007 recommended definition, ES = 0.24, $z = 2.74$, $p = 0.006$. 1: Following the 1999 recommended definition, ES = 0.22, $z = 5.98$, $p < 0.001$. 0: Information not available or not applicable, ES = 0.12, $z = 3.29$, $p = 0.001$. Overall, ES = 0.15, $z = 8.96$, $p < 0.001$

resistance to airflow [56]. Those two hormones, working together, play a role in the development of OSA. Additionally, it was also reported that increasing neck circumference and waistline during pregnancy were risk factors for symptoms of OSA [58]. Similarly, Pien and colleagues [49] found that baseline BMI and age were significant risk factors for OSA during the third trimester, which were similar to those found in the general population [59]. Overall, both common and pregnancy-specific factors may put pregnant women at a higher risk for the development of OSA. An important finding of this review is the regional differences in OSA prevalence

during pregnancy. The prevalence of OSA in the European Region (5%) was significantly lower than in the Region of Americas (20%) and Western Pacific Region (17%). However, there was a lack of data from the Southeast Asian Region, African Region, and Eastern Mediterranean Region. This finding can be a result of language criteria we used, but it also demonstrates the need to conduct similar studies in those regions.

Prevalence of OSA during pregnancy may vary in women with different characteristics, including gestational age (or trimester) and coexistence with hypertension or diabetes. It has

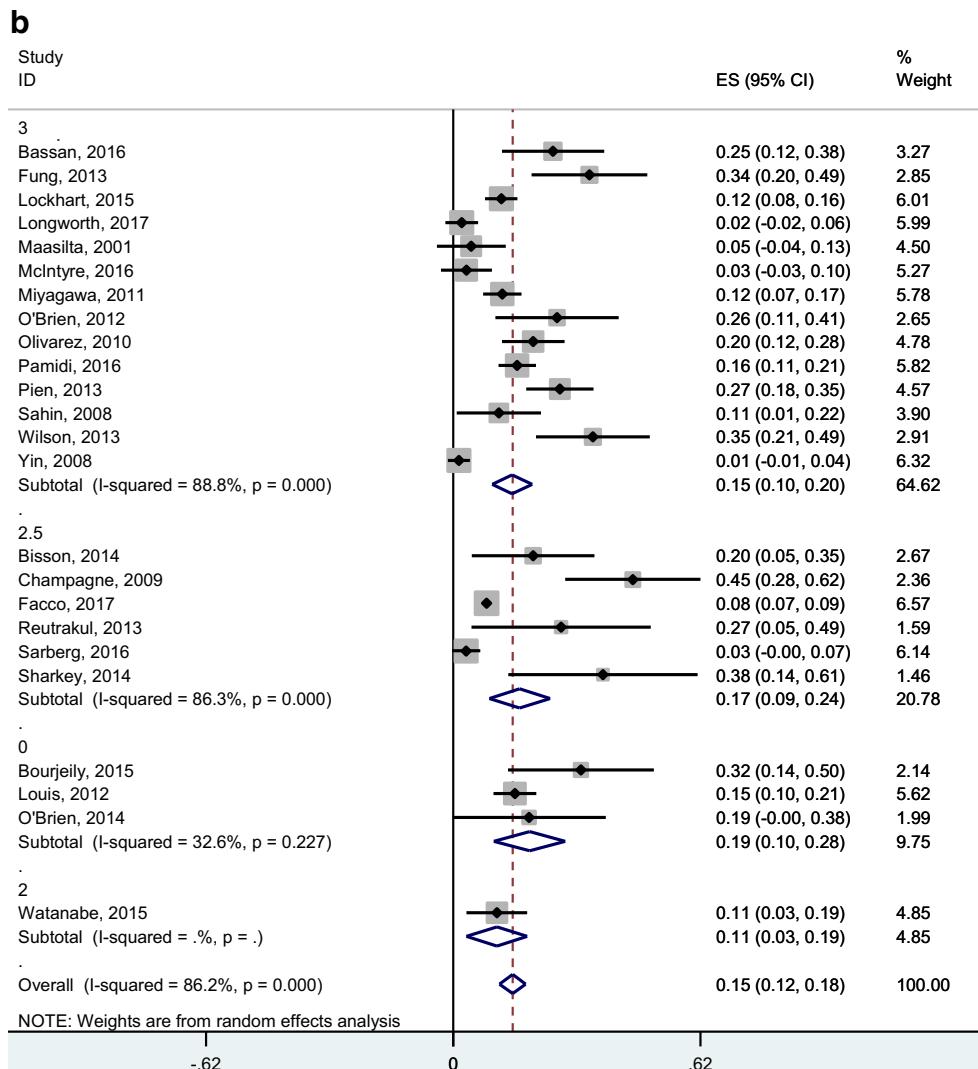
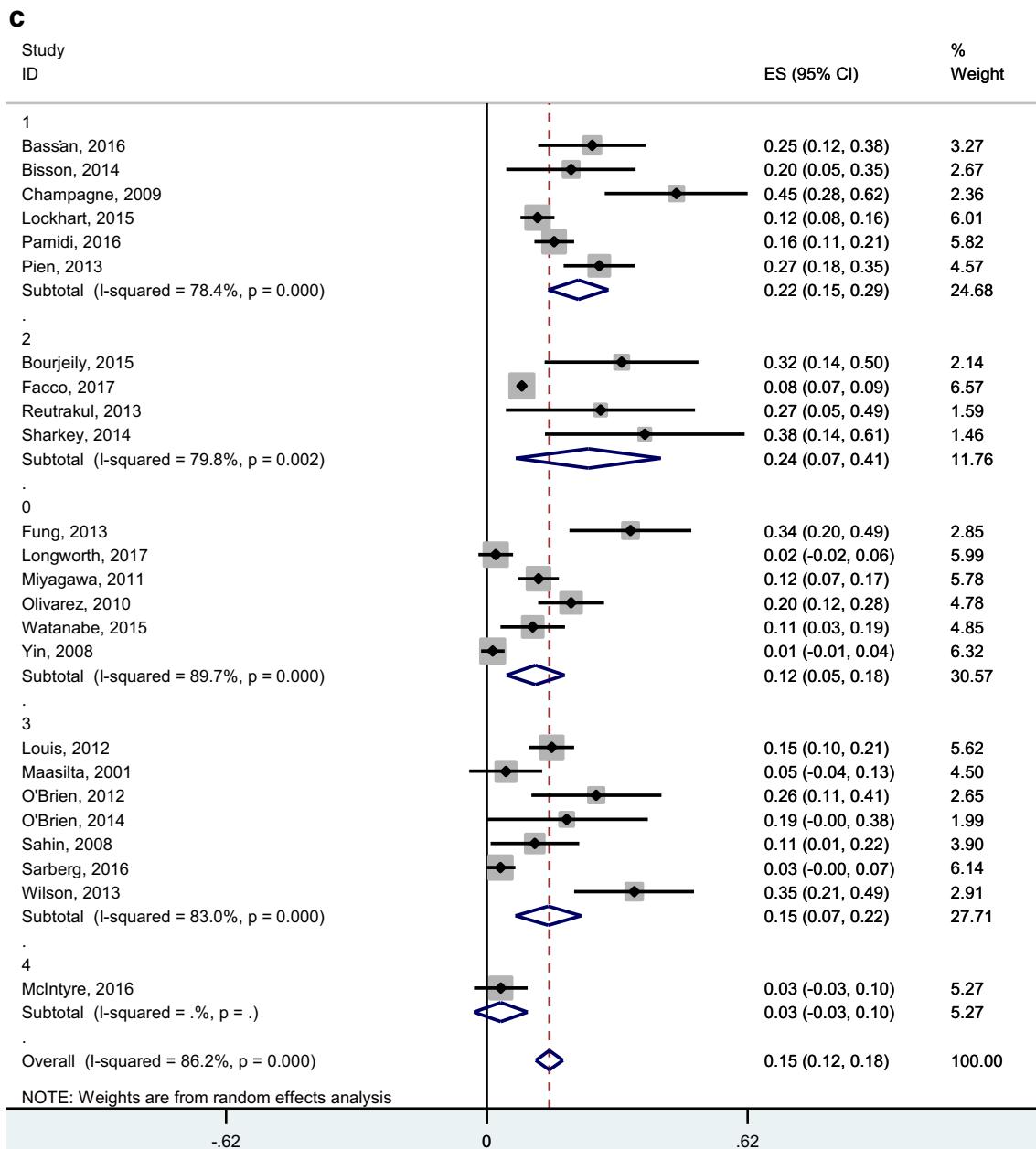


Fig. 2 continued.

been reported that the prevalence of OSA increases with the increase of gestational age [49]. In this review, there was a lack of data from the first trimester or the second trimester alone. The pooled prevalence rates of OSA during the third trimester alone and across all trimesters were 15% and 19%, respectively. The pooled prevalence of OSA during the second and third trimester was 17%. The prevalence of OSA found in this review may be more representative of women during mid and late pregnancy. The prevalence rates of OSA in the general population with diabetes or hypertension are high [22, 23]. The prevalence of OSA in pregnant women with these conditions is likely to be higher. A review suggests that OSA and gestational diabetes and hypertension share a number of common mechanistic pathways [60]. Empirical evidence also indicates that pregnant women with hypertension [46] and diabetes [61] are at a high risk for OSA. In this review, we did not include studies conducted exclusively in women with high-risk pregnancy, such as those with

hypertension or diabetes. Nevertheless, it was very challenging to recruit only healthy pregnant women with no other conditions. The prevalence of diabetes and hypertension in this review were 0 to 40.9% and 4 to 57.7%, respectively. Variations in the proportion of pregnant women with those conditions may influence the prevalence estimate of OSA.

We found that OSA was related to an increased risk for maternal-related health outcomes including gestational hypertension, gestational diabetes, and pre-eclampsia. These findings are in line with the reviews by Ding et al. [62] and Pamidi et al. [63]. In addition, we found that OSA was associated with an increased risk for complications, such as C-section, postoperative wound complication, and pulmonary edema after adjusting for covariates. It has been suggested that poor tissue perfusion may explain the increased risk for postoperative wound complications [17]. However, mechanisms underlying those relationships have not been fully understood, which warrants more

**Fig. 2** continued.

studies. Similar to Ding et al. findings [62], OSA during pregnancy was related to an increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 1.62), NICU admission (aOR = 1.28), and the low Apgar score. In contrast to Ding et al.'s study, we did not observe a significant association between OSA with poor fetal growth. Variabilities in OSA diagnosis may largely explain the discrepancy. OSA assessment in the previous review was typically based on self-reported symptoms as compared to the objective assessment in this review. Previous studies [64, 65] conducted in rats demonstrated that gestational exposure to intermittent hypoxia was related to asymmetrical growth restriction and overall

reduced birth weights. However, in this review, we did not find a significant relationship between OSA and small for gestational age infant or stillbirth. These findings were primarily based on retrospective studies. More prospective studies are needed to confirm the findings.

In this review, we determined the prevalence of OSA in different regions and trimesters. One strength of this study lies in the diagnosis of OSA using objective methods. However, findings from this review need to be interpreted in light of the limitations. First, although we did an exhaustive search, not all literature was captured in this review, such as papers published in non-English. Second,

Table 2 Summary of main study findings ($n=33$)

Author, year	OSA, prevalence (%)	Maternal-related outcomes	Infant-related outcomes
Bassan, 2016	25		No association with neonatal neurological function and perinatal complication
Bin, 2016	0.08	Increased risk for gestational hypertension (aRR = 1.43, 1.18–1.73) No association with GDM (aRR = 1.09, 0.82–1.46) and C-section (aRR = 1.06, 0.96–1.17)	Increased risk for 5-min Apgar score < 7 (aRR = 1.60, 1.07–1.23), NICU admission (aRR = 1.26, 1.11–1.44), and preterm birth (aRR = 1.50, 1.21–1.84) No association with small for gestational age infant (aRR = 0.81, 0.61–1.08)
Bisson, 2014	20	No association with GDM (aOR = 1.90, 0.52–6.88)	
Bourjeily, 2015	32		
Bourjeily, 2017	0.12	Increased risk for pre-eclampsia (aOR = 2.22, 1.94–2.54), gestational hypertension (aOR = 1.67, 1.42–1.92), eclampsia (aOR = 2.95, 1.08–8.02), GDM (aOR = 1.52, 1.34–1.72), IUC admission (aOR = 2.74, 2.36–3.18), longer stay (aOR = 1.18, 1.05–1.32), pulmonary edema (aOR = 5.06, 2.29–11.1), and wound complication (aOR = 1.77, 1.24–2.54)	No association with growth restriction (aOR = 1.05, 0.84–1.31) and stillbirth (aOR = 1.17, 0.79–1.73)
Champagne, 2009	45	Increased risk for gestational hypertension (aOR = 7.5, 3.5–16.2)	
Chen, 2012	0.4	Increased risk for C-section (aOR = 1.74, 1.48–2.04), pre-eclampsia (aOR = 1.60, 2.16–11.26), gestational hypertension (aOR = 3.18, 2.14–4.73), and GDM (aOR = 1.63, 1.07–2.48)	Increased risk for low birth weight (aOR = 1.76, 1.28–2.40), preterm birth (aOR = 2.31, 1.77–3.01), small size for gestational age (aOR = 1.34, 1.09–1.66), and 5-min Apgar score < 7 (OR = 10.1, 3.45–29.67)
Facco, 2012	42	Associated with an increased risk for a composite measure of adverse outcomes (e.g., pregnancy-related hypertension, GDM, or preterm birth): NOT control for confounders	
Facco, 2017	8.3	Increased risk for pre-eclampsia (aOR = 1.95, 1.18–3.23), gestational hypertension (aOR = 1.73, 1.19–2.52), and GDM (aOR = 2.79, 1.63–4.77)	
Felder, 2017	NA		Increased risk for preterm birth (OR = 1.5, 1.2–1.8)
Fung, 2013	34.1		No association with impaired fetal growth (aOR = 5.3, 0.93–30.34)
Guillemainault, 2000	0		
Lockhart, 2015	12		
Longworth, 2017	2.1		
Louis, 2010	NA	Increased risk for maternal morbidity (e.g., prolonged stay and ICU admission) (aOR = 4.6, 1.5–13.7)	Increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 2.6, 1.0–6.6)
Louis, 2012	15.4	Increased risk for C-section (aOR = 3.04, 1.14–8.1) and pre-eclampsia (aOR = 3.54, 1.1–11.3)	Increased risk for NICU admission (aOR = 3.39, 1.23–9.32)
Louis, 2014	0.03	Increased risk for GDM (aOR = 1.89, 1.67–2.14), gestational hypertension (aOR = 1.28, 1.08–1.52), pre-eclampsia (aOR = 2.50, 2.19–2.85), eclampsia (aOR = 5.42, 3.29–8.92), C-section (aOR = 1.12, 1.01–1.23), longer stay (aOR = 3.06, 2.76–3.40), wound complication (aOR = 1.89, 1.53–2.34), pulmonary edema (aOR = 7.50, 4.63–12.15)	No association with preterm birth (aOR = 0.63, 0.18–2.24) Increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 1.20, 1.06–1.37) No association with poor fetal growth (aOR = 1.21, 0.96–1.53) and stillbirth (aOR = 1.01, 0.66–1.53)
Maasilta, 2001	4.5		
McIntyre, 2016	3.3		
Miyagawa, 2011	12.3	Increased risk for C-section (aOR = 3.03, 1.10–8.33)	No association with small for gestational age infant (aOR = 3.15, 0.31–32.13)
O'Brien, 2012	26		
O'Brien, 2014	19		

Table 2 (continued)

Author, year	OSA, prevalence (%)	Maternal-related outcomes	Infant-related outcomes
Olivarez, 2010	20		No association with fetal heart rate abnormality
Pamidi, 2016	16		Increased risk for small for gestational age (aOR = 2.57, 1.02–6.48)
Pien, 2013	26.7		
Reutrakul, 2013	27	Strong association between GDM and OSA, but GDM was the predictor of OSA	
Sahin, 2008	11.4		Related to lower Apgar score and more NICU admissions (based on <i>t</i> tests)
Sarberg, 2016	3.2		
Sharkey, 2014	37.5		
Spence, 2017	0.09	Increased risk for C-section (aOR = 1.60, 1.06–2.40), gestational hypertension (aOR = 2.46, 1.30–4.68), and pre-eclampsia (aOR = 2.42, 1.43–4.09) No association with GDM (aOR = 1.00, 0.63–1.60) and longer stay (aOR = 2.06, 0.88–4.81), wound complication (aOR = 2.47, 0.60–10.14), pulmonary edema (aOR = 1.82, 0.41–18.14)	Increased risk for preterm birth (aOR = 1.90, 1.09–3.30) No association with poor fetal healthy (aOR = 1.40, 0.57–3.43) and stillbirth (aOR = 2.09, 0.55–7.95)
Watanabe, 2015	10.9	Associated with resting heart rate variability	
Wilson, 2013	35		
Yin, 2008	1.4	No association with fetal growth restriction or hypertensive disease (based on <i>t</i> tests)	

aOR adjusted odds ratio, *GDM* gestational diabetes mellitus, *NICU* neonatal intensive care unit, *OSA* obstructive sleep apnea

women in the first trimester were under-represented, possibly due to difficulty in recruiting pregnant women during early pregnancy. Therefore, findings from this study may not be generalized to women during early pregnancy. Third, some of the studies did not differentiate women

who experienced OSA for the first time during pregnancy and those with pre-existing OSA. It is possible that pregnant women diagnosed with OSA during pregnancy already had pre-existing unrecognized OSA that may have overestimated the prevalence estimates. It is also worth

Table 3 Relationships between sleep apnea and pregnancy-related outcomes

	Outcomes	No. of studies	Adjusted OR (95% CI)	<i>p</i>	Heterogeneity	
					<i>I</i> ² (%)	<i>p</i>
Maternal-related						
Gestational hypertension	7	1.97 (1.51, 2.56)	< 0.001	83.9	< 0.001	
Gestational diabetes	7	1.55 (1.26, 1.90)	< 0.001	73.1	0.001	
Pre-eclampsia	5	2.35 (2.15, 2.58)	< 0.001	0.0	0.636	
C-section	6	1.42 (1.12, 1.79)	< 0.001	86.5	< 0.001	
Prolonged hospital stay	3	1.94 (0.88, 4.28)	0.100	98.6	< 0.001	
Wound complication	3	1.87 (1.56, 2.24)	< 0.001	0.0	0.883	
Pulmonary edema	3	6.35 (4.25, 9.50)	< 0.001	18.2	0.294	
Infant-related						
Preterm birth	8	1.62 (1.29, 2.02)	< 0.001	72.9	0.001	
Small for gestational age	4	1.26 (0.80, 2.01)	0.321	73.8	0.010	
Stillbirth	3	1.12 (0.85, 1.49)	0.413	0.0	0.572	
Poor fetal growth	4	1.15 (0.98, 1.34)	0.091	24.3	0.266	
NICU admission	2	1.28 (1.13, 1.46)	< 0.001	72.3	0.057	

CI confidence interval, *NICU* neonatal intensive care unit, *OR* odds ratio

mentioning that a slight publication bias for the estimate of OSA prevalence was detected. Publication bias suggests a lack of publication of small trials with negative findings [66] or an inflation of estimates by small studies [67]. However, evidence also suggests that publication bias may not affect the conclusions in most cases [68].

Findings from this review have important implications for both research and clinical practice. Given the limited data from early pregnancy, more studies are warranted. These studies ideally should be longitudinal studies that include pregnant women during different trimesters. Determining the OSA prevalence during different trimesters may shed lights on the time window that could be targeted for interventions. Experimental studies are needed to examine the effect of treating OSA on pregnancy-related health outcomes. In clinical practice, routine screening of OSA is recommended so that early diagnosis and treatment of OSA can be initiated, which may further decrease the risk of adverse maternal and neonatal outcomes. For instance, healthcare providers are recommended to offer pregnant women a quick screening for the risk of OSA, particularly starting from the mid-pregnancy. Referral to an overnight PSG diagnosis should be made for those with a high risk. Continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) treatment has been the most commonly used method to treat OSA. Thus, early use of CPAP is encouraged for those with established OSA. Additionally, we also demonstrated that estimates of OSA prevalence varied based on the definition of hypopnea. Therefore, clinicians and researchers need to take that into consideration when interpreting the results obtained using different scoring standards.

Conclusion

In conclusion, OSA is a common health problem during pregnancy. The overall prevalence of objectively assessed OSA was 15%, and there were likely regional differences in the prevalence. OSA was related to various pregnancy-related health outcomes, such as gestational diabetes, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia, C-section, and preterm birth. Findings from this review highlight the need to include OSA-related assessment and intervention in the overall health care during pregnancy.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Informed consent For this type of study, formal consent is not required.

References

1. Flemons WW, Buysse D, Redline S, Oack A, Strohl K, Wheatley J et al (1999) Sleep-related breathing disorders in adults: recommendations for syndrome definition and measurement techniques in clinical research. *Sleep* 22:667–689
2. American Academy of Sleep Medicine (2016) Hidden health crisis costing America billions: underdiagnosing and undertreating obstructive sleep apnea draining healthcare system. <https://aasm.org/resources/pdf/sleep-apnea-economic-crisis.pdf>. Accessed 12 June 2018
3. Young T, Palta M, Dempsey J, Skatrud J, Weber S, Badr S (1993) The occurrence of sleep-disordered breathing among middle-aged adults. *N Engl J Med* 328:1230–1235
4. Izci B, Vennelle M, Liston WA, Dundas KC, Calder AA, Douglas NJ (2006) Sleep-disordered breathing and upper airway size in pregnancy and post-partum. *Eur Respir J* 27:321–327
5. Longworth H, McCallin K, Narayanan RP, Turner MA, Quenby S, Rycroft D, Charnley M, Abayomi J, Topping J, Weeks AD, Wilding JPH (2017) Screening methods for obstructive sleep apnoea in severely obese pregnant women. *Clin Obes* 7:239–244
6. Sharkey KM, Waters K, Millman RP, Moore R, Martin SM, Bourjeily G (2014) Validation of the Apnea Risk Evaluation System (ARES) device against laboratory polysomnography in pregnant women at risk for obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. *J Clin Sleep Med* 10:497–502
7. Ancoli-Israel S, Cole R, Alessi C, Chambers M, Moorcroft W, Pollak CP (2003) The role of actigraphy in the study of sleep and circadian rhythms. *Sleep* 26:342–392
8. Antony KM, Agrawal A, Arndt ME, Murphy AM, Alapat PM, Guntupalli KK, Aagaard KM (2014) Association of adverse perinatal outcomes with screening measures of obstructive sleep apnea. *J Perinatol* 34:441–448
9. Olivarez SA, Ferres M, Antony K, Mattewal A, Maheshwari B, Sangi-Haghpeykar H, Aagaard-Tillery K (2011) Obstructive sleep apnea screening in pregnancy, perinatal outcomes, and impact of maternal obesity. *Am J Perinatol* 28:651–658
10. Na-Rungsri K, Lertmaharit S, Lohsoonthorn V, Totienchai S, Jaimchariyatam N (2016) Obstructive sleep apnea and the risk of preterm delivery. *Sleep Breath* 20:1111–1117
11. Johns MW (1991) A new method for measuring daytime sleepiness: the Epworth Sleepiness Scale. *Sleep* 14:540–545
12. Chung F, Subramanyam R, Liao P, Sasaki E, Shapiro C, Sun Y (2012) High STOP-Bang score indicates a high probability of obstructive sleep apnoea. *Brit J Anaesth* 108:768–775
13. Netzer NC, Stoohs RA, Netzer CM, Clark K, Strohl KP (1999) Using the Berlin Questionnaire to identify patients at risk for the sleep apnea syndrome. *Ann Intern Med* 131:485–491
14. Izci B, Martin SE, Dundas KC, Liston WA, Calder AA, Douglas NJ (2005) Sleep complaints: snoring and daytime sleepiness in pregnant and pre-eclamptic women. *Sleep Med* 6:163–169
15. Chien LY, Ko YL (2004) Fatigue during pregnancy predicts caesarean deliveries. *J Adv Nurs* 45:487–494
16. Facco FL, Parker CB, Reddy UM, Silver RM, Koch MA, Louis JM, Basner RC, Chung JH, Nhan-Chang CL, Pien GW, Redline S, Grobman WA, Wing DA, Simhan HN, Haas DM, Mercer BM, Parry S, Mobley D, Hunter S, Saade GR, Schubert FP, Zee PC (2017) Association between sleep-disordered breathing and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and gestational diabetes mellitus. *Obstet Gynecol* 129:31–41
17. Bourjeily G, Danilack VA, Bublitz MH, Lipkind H, Muri J, Caldwell D, Tong I, Rosene-Montella K (2017) Obstructive sleep apnea in pregnancy is associated with adverse maternal outcomes: a national cohort. *Sleep Med* 38:50–57

18. Chen YH, Kang JH, Lin CC, Wang IT, Keller JJ, Lin HC (2012) Obstructive sleep apnea and the risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 206:136. e1–136. e5

19. Sahin FK, Koken G, Cosar E, Saylan F, Fidan F, Yilmazer M, Unlu M (2008) Obstructive sleep apnea in pregnancy and fetal outcome. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 100:141–146

20. Moher D, Shamseer L, Clarke M, Ghersi D, Liberati A, Petticrew M et al (2015) Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. *Syst Rev* 4:1

21. Moher D, Liberati A, Tetzlaff J, Altman DG (2009) Prisma group. Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: The PRISMA statement. *PLoS Med* 6:e1000097

22. Einhorn D, Stewart D, Erman M, Gordon N, Philis-Tsimikas A, Casal E (2007) Prevalence of sleep apnea in a population of adults with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Endocr Pract* 13:355–362

23. Muxfeldt ES, Margallo VS, Guimaraes GM, Salles GF (2014) Prevalence and associated factors of obstructive sleep apnea in patients with resistant hypertension. *Am J Hypertens* 27:1069–1078

24. Iber CA, Chesson AL Jr (2007) The AASM manual for the scoring of sleep and associated events: rules, terminology and technical specifications. Westchester, American Academy of Sleep Medicine

25. Sterne JAC, Egger M (2001) Funnel plots for detecting bias in meta-analysis: guidelines on choice of axis. *J Clin Epidemiol* 54: 1046–1055

26. Higgins J, Thompson SG (2002) Quantifying heterogeneity in a meta-analysis. *Stat Med* 21:1539–1558

27. DerSimonian R, Laird N (1986) Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Control Clin Trials* 7:177–188

28. Duce B, Milosavljevic J, Hukins C (2015) The 2012 AASM respiratory event criteria increase the incidence of hypopneas in an adult sleep center population. *J Clin Sleep Med* 11:1425–1431

29. Bassan H, Uliel-Sibony S, Katsav S, Farber M, Tauman R (2016) Maternal sleep disordered breathing and neonatal outcome. *Isr Med Assoc J* 18:45–48

30. Bin Y, Cistulli PA, Ford JB (2016) Population-based study of sleep apnea in pregnancy and maternal and infant outcomes. *J Clin Sleep Med* 12:871–877

31. Bisson M, Series F, Giguere Y, Pamidi S, Kimoff J, Weisnagel SJ et al (2014) Gestational diabetes mellitus and sleep-disordered breathing. *Obstet Gynecol* 123:634–641

32. Bourjeily G, Sharkey KM, Mazer J, Moore R, Martin S, Millman R (2015) Central sleep apnea in pregnant women with sleep disordered breathing. *Sleep Breath* 19:835–840

33. Champagne K, Schwartzman K, Opatrný L, Barriga P, Morin L, Mallozzi A, Benjamin A, Kimoff RJ (2009) Obstructive sleep apnoea and its association with gestational hypertension. *Eur Respir J* 33:559–565

34. Facco F, Cici L, Andrea C, Ashley K, William G, Phyllis Z (2012) Sleep-disordered breathing: a risk factor for adverse pregnancy outcomes? *Am J Perinatol* 29:277–282

35. Felder JN, Baer RJ, Rand L, Jelliffe-Pawlowski LL, Prather AA (2017) Sleep disorder diagnosis during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth. *Obstet Gynecol* 130:573–581

36. Fung AM, Wilson DL, Lappas M, Howard M, Barnes M, O'Donoghue F, Tong S, Esdale H, Fleming G, Walker SP (2013) Effects of maternal obstructive sleep apnoea on fetal growth: a prospective cohort study. *PLoS One* 8:e68057

37. Guilleminault C, Querra-Salva M, Chowdhuri S, Poyares D (2000) Normal pregnancy, daytime sleeping, snoring and blood pressure. *Sleep Med* 1:289–297

38. Lockhart EM, Ben Abdallah A, Tuuli MG, Leighton BL (2015) Obstructive sleep apnea in pregnancy: assessment of current screening tools. *Obstet Gynecol* 126:93–102

39. Louis JM, Ackley D, Sokol RJ, Mercer BM (2010) Maternal and neonatal morbidities associated with obstructive sleep apnea complicating pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 202:261.e1–261.e5

40. Louis J, Ackley D, Miladinovic B, Shepherd A, Mencin P, Kumar D, Mercer B, Redline S (2012) Perinatal outcomes associated with obstructive sleep apnea in obese pregnant women. *Obstet Gynecol* 120:1085–1092

41. Louis JM, Mogos MF, Salemi JL, Redline S, Salihu HM (2014) Obstructive sleep apnea and severe maternal-infant morbidity/mortality in the United States, 1998–2009. *Sleep* 37:843–849

42. Maasilta P, Bachour A, Teramo K, Polo O, Laitinen LA (2001) Sleep-related disordered breathing during pregnancy in obese women. *Chest* 120:1448–1454

43. McIntyre JP, Ingham CM, Hutchinson BL, Thompson JM, McCowan LM, Stone PR et al (2016) A description of sleep behaviour in healthy late pregnancy, and the accuracy of self-reports. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 16:115

44. Miyagawa S, Emori Y, Kawano A, Sakurai S, Tanigawa T (2011) Relationship between sleep-disordered breathing and perinatal outcome in pregnant women. *J Jpn Acad Midwif* 25:5–12

45. O'Brien LM, Bullough AS, Shelgikar AV, Chames MC, Armitage R, Chervin RD (2012) Validation of Watch-PAT-200 against polysomnography during pregnancy. *J Clin Sleep Med* 8:287–294

46. O'Brien L, Bullough AS, Chames MC, Shelgikar AV, Armitage R, Guilleminault C, Sullivan CE, Johnson TRB, Chervin RD (2014) Hypertension, snoring, and obstructive sleep apnoea during pregnancy: a cohort study. *BJOG* 121:1685–1693

47. Olivarez SA, Maheshwari B, McCarthy M, Zacharias N, van den Veyver I, Casturi L et al (2010) Prospective trial on obstructive sleep apnea in pregnancy and fetal heart rate monitoring. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 202:552.e1–552.e7

48. Pamidi S, Marc I, Simoneau G, Lavigne L, Olha A, Benedetti A, Séries F, Fraser W, Audibert F, Bujold E, Gagnon R, Schwartzman K, Kimoff RJ (2016) Maternal sleep-disordered breathing and the risk of delivering small for gestational age infants: a prospective cohort study. *Thorax* 71:719–725

49. Pien GW, Pack AI, Jackson N, Maislin G, Macones GA, Schwab RJ (2013) Risk factors for sleep-disordered breathing in pregnancy. *Thorax* 69:371–377

50. Reutrakul S, Zaidi N, Wroblewski K, Kay HH, Ismail M, Ehrmann DA, van Cauter E (2013) Interactions between pregnancy, obstructive sleep apnea, and gestational diabetes mellitus. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 98:4195–4202

51. Sarberg M, Bladh M, Josefsson A, Svanborg E (2016) Sleepiness and sleep-disordered breathing during pregnancy. *Sleep Breath* 20: 1231–1237

52. Spence DL, Allen RC, Lutgendorf MA, Gary VR, Richard JD, Gonzalez SC (2017) Association of obstructive sleep apnea with adverse pregnancy-related outcomes in military hospitals. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 210:166–172

53. Watanabe M, Shinohara H, Kodama H (2015) Impact of overnight oximetry findings on cardiac autonomic modulation in women during second trimester of uncomplicated pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 41:689–696

54. Wilson DL, Walker SP, Fung AM, O'Donoghue F, Barnes M, Howard M (2013) Can we predict sleep-disordered breathing in pregnancy? The clinical utility of symptoms. *J Sleep Res* 22:670–678

55. Yin TT, Williams N, Burton C, Ong SS, Loughna P, Britton JR, Thornton JG (2008) Hypertension, fetal growth restriction and obstructive sleep apnoea in pregnancy. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 141:35–38

56. Venkata C, Venkateshiah SB (2009) Sleep-disordered breathing during pregnancy. *J Am Board Fam Med* 22:158–168

57. Lee J, Eklund EE, Lambert-Messerlian G, Palomaki GE, Butterfield K, Curran P, Bourjeily G (2017) Serum progesterone

levels in pregnant women with obstructive sleep apnea: a case-control study. *J Women's Health* 26:259–265

58. Cai XH, Xie YP, Li XC, Qu WL, Li T, Wang HX, Lv JQ, Wang LX (2013) The prevalence and associated risk factors of sleep disorder-related symptoms in pregnant women in China. *Sleep Breath* 17: 951–956

59. Young T, Peppard PE, Gottlieb DJ (2002) Epidemiology of obstructive sleep apnea: a population health perspective. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 165:1217–1239

60. Izci-Balserak B, Pien GW (2010) Sleep-disordered breathing and pregnancy: potential mechanisms and evidence for maternal and fetal morbidity. *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 16:574–582

61. Bublitz MH, Monteiro JF, Caraganis A, Martin S, Parker J, Larson L et al (2018) Obstructive sleep apnea in gestational diabetes: a pilot study of the role of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis. *J Clin Sleep Med* 14(1):87–93

62. Ding XX, Wu YL, Xu SJ, Zhang SF, Jia XM, Zhu RP, Hao JH, Tao FB (2014) A systematic review and quantitative assessment of sleep-disordered breathing during pregnancy and perinatal outcomes. *Sleep Breath* 18:703–713

63. Pamidi S, Pinto LM, Marc I, Benedetti A, Schwartzman K, Kimoff RJ (2014) Maternal sleep-disordered breathing and adverse pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 210:52.e1–52.e14

64. Gozal D, Reeves SR, Row BW, Neville JJ, Guo SZ, Lipton AJ (2003) Respiratory effects of gestational intermittent hypoxia in the developing rat. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 167:1540–1547

65. Iqbal W, Ciriello J (2013) Effect of maternal chronic intermittent hypoxia during gestation on offspring growth in the rat. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 209:564.e1–564.e9

66. Dickersin K (1990) The existence of publication bias and risk factors for its occurrence. *JAMA* 263:1385–1389

67. Sterne JAC, Gavaghan D, Egger M (2000) Publication and related bias in meta-analysis: power of statistical tests and prevalence in the literature. *J Clin Epidemiol* 53:1119–1129

68. Sutton AJ, Duval SJ, Tweedie RL, Abrams KR, Jones DR (2000) Empirical assessment of effect of publication bias on meta-analyses. *BMJ* 320:1574–1577