

4

Epidemiology of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy

BA Payne, C Hanson, S Sharma, LA Magee, P von Dadelszen

SYNOPSIS

This chapter provides a review of the literature on incidence and prevalence of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy including chronic hypertension, gestational hypertension, pre-eclampsia and HELLP syndrome. Estimates are provided for both high-income and low- or middle-income country settings published within the past 10 years. Where possible, we have emphasised population-based data derived from national or regional data sets. Overall, the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy occur in 5–10% of pregnancies worldwide, with limited data suggesting an upward trend in incidence. The most common are gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia, with pre-eclampsia being the most dangerous as it is associated with the highest prevalence of maternal and perinatal complications. There are many individual disease risk factors for the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy related to demographic, familial, personal medical/obstetric history, or to the current pregnancy; these are discussed in detail in Chapters 5 and 6 as these risk factors are used to identify women at increased risk who warrant enhanced antenatal surveillance and preventative therapy¹.

SEARCH STRATEGY

For this review, two literature searches were performed using the search strategies provided in Appendix 4.1. Publications were included in the review if they were published in English in the past 10 years. For incidence and prevalence estimates, publications were reviewed if they included either a population-based or cross-sectional hospital cohort reporting incidence or prevalence of all combined hypertensive disorders of pregnancy or any one of pre-eclampsia, gestational or chronic hypertension or haemolysis elevated liver enzymes and low platelets (HELLP) syndrome. For morbidity and mortality estimates publications that reported prevalence of any major adverse event known to be associated with a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy (as described in Chapter 3) within a

population-based or cross-sectional hospital-based cohort of women with confirmed diagnosis of any hypertensive disorder of pregnancy were reviewed.

THE BURDEN

Combined hypertensive disorders of pregnancy estimates

Determining the true incidence of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy is complicated by variations in the reported classification of the disorders (as

KEY POINT

The most commonly cited and accepted estimate of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy occurrence is 5–10%¹

described in Chapter 3) and study design, with few reliable estimates provided by population-based cohorts and inflated estimates of prevalence reported by hospital-based studies. As such, incidence and prevalence estimates vary significantly based on country of origin and quality of available data. Although the definitions of chronic hypertension and gestational hypertension are reasonably standard (i.e., hypertension before or at/after 20 weeks of pregnancy, respectively), the definition of pre-eclampsia is not, and this may contribute to further variation.

In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), incidence estimates are restricted to hospital-based cross-sectional surveys. Therefore, these are likely to be overestimates owing to the high proportion of births (and disproportionately, normal births) occurring in the home in most LMICs. In the WHO Multicountry Survey on maternal and newborn health, 313,030 women were included who were admitted to 357 health facilities in 29 countries across Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East (2010–2012)². In all 2.7% of the total number of women included in the study were reported to have suffered from chronic hypertension, pre-eclampsia, or eclampsia; gestational hypertension was not included in this estimate. This prevalence estimate ranged between 1.8% in the Middle East and 4.5% in the Americas region. In contrast, smaller single hospital-based surveys have reported higher hypertensive disorder of pregnancy rates, ranging from 4.0% to 12.3%^{4–7}; however, even with large numbers, such as the 164,250 women in a single hospital-based cohort study in southern India (1996–2010), estimates must be viewed as potentially inflated owing to selection bias. The mobile health-supported community surveillance activities of the Community-Level Interventions for Pre-eclampsia (CLIP) trials in Mozambique, Pakistan and India will provide accurate population estimates of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy prevalence in these countries (<http://www.thelancet.com/protocol-reviews/13PRT-9313>)

A hypertensive disorder of pregnancy incidence of 5–10% is supported in high-income countries (HICs) in several large national cohorts that have reported rates of 4.6–9.2% based on publications since 1995^{8–11}.

Chronic hypertension and gestational hypertension appear to be much less common than

pre-eclampsia, although limited population-level estimates exist.

Chronic hypertension (≈1%)

Reliable estimates for LMIC settings for chronic hypertension can be based solely on the WHO multicountry survey described above (of hospital-based cross-sectional data) which found a prevalence of 0.29% in the total cohort ranging between 0.21% in the African region and 0.32% in the Western Pacific region².

More reliable estimates are available for HICs. In a national cohort of all hospital deliveries in Canada in all provinces except Quebec (2003–2010), the incidence of chronic hypertension was 0.4%¹¹. These data are consistent with 0.6% reported in the Alberta Perinatal Health Registry of all births in the province of Alberta, Canada (2000–2009)¹². In the American National Inpatient Sample data set, chronic hypertension complicated 1.5% of births (2007–2008)¹³, and 0.83–0.85% of births in New York State, USA (1995–2004)¹⁴. A similar rate of 1.3% was reported in the UK (1996–2010)¹⁵.

Gestational hypertension (≈3%)

We found very limited data on prevalence of gestational hypertension for LMICs and no data giving a reliable estimate of incidence. In a hospital-based cohort of 193,554 births registered in two provinces of Southern China (1993–1996), gestational hypertension occurred at a rate of 9.5%¹⁶; this was a secondary analysis of data from a study evaluating the impact of folic acid supplementation on the incidence of neural tube defects and there is likely to be selection bias.

Gestational hypertension rates in HICs differ substantially from those described above. In a national cohort of all hospital deliveries in Canada in all provinces except Quebec (2003–2010), the incidence of gestational hypertension was 1.1%¹¹. In New York State, USA (1995–2004), gestational hypertension complicated 1.4–2.5% of births (2007–2008)¹³.

Pre-eclampsia (≈2–4%)

In the largest hospital-based cohort to report prevalence of pre-eclampsia in LMICs, the WHO Multicountry Survey reported an overall prevalence of 2.2% ranging from 1.4% in the Middle East region

to 3.9% in the African region². Other cohorts reviewed since 1995 reported prevalence estimates ranging from 1.2% to 8.4%^{16–19}. In a WHO systematic review of 129 studies covering approximately 39 million women from 40 countries (2002–2010), the crude incidence of pre-eclampsia was 2.3% (4.6% using a model-based estimate to account for lack of data sets from certain regions causing under-representation of countries believed to have higher rates of pre-eclampsia), ranging from 1.2% in the Middle East to 4.2% in the Western Pacific³. However, there was substantial regional variation, from 0.7% reported in a small study from Morocco to 15.6% reported in a Turkish data set. If estimates are restricted to those from national cohorts, data were available from seven countries that collectively reported pre-eclampsia rates of 1.4–4.0%³.

This range has been supported by other reported national population-level cohorts, primarily from HICs. For example, in the Norwegian National Birth Registry (1967–2008), the incidence of pre-eclampsia was 2.8%²⁰ and 2.2% in another national data set from South Korea (2007–2010)²¹. Regional population-level data sets from Canada, the USA and Australia report incidence estimates between 1.3 and 3.4%^{11,12,14,20,22–24}.

Early-onset (vs. late-onset) disease Late-onset pre-eclampsia is more common than early-onset disease, the latter usually being defined as onset or delivery prior to 34 weeks. Estimates vary, but early-onset disease appears to represent no more than one-third of pre-eclampsia. In the National Birth Registry of Denmark covering all singleton births (1993–2007), the incidence of early-onset pre-eclampsia was 1.0% and late onset 1.9%¹⁵. In Washington State, USA among all singleton births (2000–2008), early-onset disease pre-eclampsia incidence was 0.3% and late-onset 2.7%^{22,23}.

HELLP syndrome (<1% of all births, <50% of women with pre-eclampsia) There are few epidemiological data about the prevalence of HELLP (haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes and low platelets) syndrome, a severe manifestation of pre-eclampsia. No population-based estimates of incidence were identified in the literature. A 2009 review of management of HELLP syndrome quotes a prevalence of 0.5–0.9% of all pregnancies, based on small case series and retrospective hospital- and USA-based cohort studies published in the early

1990s²⁵. A more recent, but small, retrospective hospital-based cohort included 5155 women admitted to a tertiary academic centre in Turkey (1997–2004) and found an incidence of HELLP of 0.5%²⁶. Other LMIC- and HIC-based cohort studies suggest a higher prevalence of HELLP syndrome ranging from 2.5% to 50%^{27–30}. However, some of these studies are tertiary facility-based with cohorts of women selected based on complicated pre-eclampsia. In addition, in settings where expectant management of early-onset pre-eclampsia is not the norm, the opportunity for pre-eclampsia to evolve into HELLP syndrome is abbreviated. Therefore, variability in estimates of HELLP syndrome incidence is likely to have been magnified by differences in study inclusion criteria, study settings and patterns of clinical management, and are not reliable.

Temporal trends in the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy

Data related to temporal trends are limited, but suggest an increase in incidence of all hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and specific disorders over time.

In a prospective cohort from a single hospital in India, the incidence of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy has increased from 10.3% of all births (1996–2004) to 11.8% (2005–2010)⁴. This study did not provide an analysis of significance relating to the temporal trend.

Similar increasing trends in chronic hypertension have been observed in HICs. In the US National Inpatient Sample data set, an increase in chronic hypertension was reported from 0.9% (1995–1996) to 1.5% of births (2007–2008) as discussed above¹³. The rising incidence of chronic hypertension in HIC settings is thought to reflect changing demographics, as pregnant women are tending to be both older and more frequently either overweight or obese.

The incidence of pre-eclampsia appears to be rising in HICs, including the USA (1980–2010)²³ and Norway (1967–2008)³¹. For example, in Washington State, USA, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy complicated 2.9% of all singleton live births in 2000 and increased significantly ($p < 0.001$) to 3.1% in 2008²². When considering all births in the USA, the rates increased significantly ($p < 0.001$) from 2.4% (1987–1988) to 2.9% (2003–2004)³².

One exception to this trend was reported in a regional dataset from New South Wales in Australia where the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy *decreased significantly* ($p < 0.001$) in incidence from 4.6% of all births (2000) to 2.4% (2008)²⁴; the authors of this study suggested that earlier intervention and increased use of induction of labour or elective Caesarean delivery at earlier gestational ages for chronic or gestational hypertension were reducing the diagnosis of pre-eclampsia, although this should not have altered the overall rate of hypertension in the population.

Other trends in pre-eclampsia

The risk of having a pregnancy complicated by pre-eclampsia is thought to vary across climates and regions. Higher rates have been associated with rainy seasons in studies from several countries^{8,9,33–36}. In addition, pre-eclampsia appears to complicate more commonly the pregnancies of immigrant women, compared with women born in the respective country. According to several large national datasets from HICs in Europe and Canada, women of African, Caribbean, and South and East Asian descent endure higher rates of pre-eclampsia compared with women of European descent^{37–40}.

RISK FACTORS FOR HYPERTENSIVE DISORDERS OF PREGNANCY OCCURRENCE OR RECURRENCE

Risk factors for pre-eclampsia include a wide array of conditions that reflect the complexity of the disease process⁴¹. These can be categorised as demographic, familial factors, past medical/obstetric history, current pregnancy history and paternal factors. These factors are used to identify women at increased risk of a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy who warrant enhanced surveillance and/or preventative therapy. As such, these risk factors are discussed in detail in Chapters 5 and 6. As risk markers for recurrence of pre-eclampsia are used in the same way, they too are discussed in Chapter 5.

MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY ASSOCIATED WITH THE DISORDERS OF PREGNANCY

Hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related mortality and morbidity are to a large extent, but

not entirely, owing to pre-eclampsia. A more detailed discussion of complications by type of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy can be found in Chapter 3.

“I was told upon arriving at the hospital that they had managed to regain a pulse after 25 minutes but that my wife had most likely suffered severe brain damage from the lack of oxygen . . . She never regained consciousness and on August 6, three days after being removed from support, she passed into the arms of her loving Lord. The silence, since then, has been deafening.”

Widower of a woman with pre-eclampsia, courtesy of the Preeclampsia Foundation, USA

Maternal mortality

The hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, and particularly pre-eclampsia and eclampsia, are significant contributors to the global burden of maternal and perinatal mortality^{42–46}, being responsible for an estimated 10.0% of maternal deaths, annually⁴⁶. Pre-eclampsia remains one of the top four causes of maternal mortality (and morbidity) in high-, middle- and low-income countries. Using data from 29 LMICs participating in the WHO Multicountry Survey on maternal and neonatal health, the odds of maternal death associated with the diagnosis of pre-eclampsia (compared with no pre-eclampsia) was 3.73 (95% CI 2.15–6.47) and with eclampsia (vs. no eclampsia) (OR 42.4, 95% CI 25.1–71.4)². Similar results to the pre-eclampsia-related risk were illustrated by data from the UK Obstetric Surveillance System that reported an increased odds of maternal death of 2.4 (95% CI 1.3–4.5) associated with a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy (compared with no hypertensive disorder of pregnancy)⁵⁰.

A vastly disproportionate burden of maternal deaths related to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy is borne by women in LMICs^{51–53}; estimated to be >99% of all hypertensive disorder

KEY POINT

The majority of deaths associated with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy occur in LMICs in the absence of a trained health professional

of pregnancy-related maternal deaths. This is believed to be owing primarily to delays in triage (identification through basic blood pressure and urine screening of who is, or may become, severely ill and should seek a higher level of care), transport (getting women to appropriate care), and treatment (provision of appropriate treatment such as magnesium sulphate, antihypertensive therapy and timed delivery)^{57,58}. A major contributing factor to the morbidity and mortality associated with pre-eclampsia is the shortage of health workers adequately trained in the detection and triage of suspected cases⁶⁰. The consequences of delayed management are illustrated by Figure 4.1 of an 18-year-old mother brought to hospital after 14 hours of status eclampticus in Dhaka, Bangladesh; she suffered a stillbirth and remained comatose for the 3 days until her death shortly after this image was taken. Her family asked us to use this photograph to emphasise the importance of, and potential tragedy resulting from, pre-eclampsia and eclampsia.



Figure 4.1 This photo was taken in the Eclampsia Ward, Dhaka Medical College Hospital, Dhaka, Bangladesh. The 18-year-old woman lying supine had been admitted 14 hours after the onset of her first seizure in status eclampticus 3 days earlier. She had been delivered of a stillborn infant by Caesarean delivery soon after admission and had remained unresponsive since admission, and remained so until her death. Bed sharing with her is another woman post-eclampsia who had had an unremarkable recovery from her seizures. The 18-year old's hand is being held by her mother with her grandmother in the background. They asked that this image be shared to emphasise the importance of, and tragedy associated with, pre-eclampsia and eclampsia

According to global estimations, there has been a downward trend in hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related maternal mortality, suggesting an improvement in our ability to care for women with pre-eclampsia. In the 2013 report on maternal deaths from the Global Burden of Disease Study, the absolute number of maternal deaths attributed to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy was 29,275; this compared favourably with 47,100 deaths in the 2010 report and 69,800 in the 1990 one⁴⁶. This trend towards a reduction in total number of maternal deaths associated with the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy has also been shown by the WHO⁴³.

Maternal morbidity

For every maternal death, it has been estimated that an additional 20 or 30 women suffer significant morbidity. In the same manner as maternal death, the burden of maternal morbidity is estimated to be highest in LMICs. The term, 'morbidity', covers a wide range of problems of varying severity. WHO has defined 'near-miss morbidity' as the near-death of a woman who has survived a complication (occurring during pregnancy or childbirth, or within 42 days of the termination of pregnancy). 'Severe' pre-eclampsia is a near-miss according to the WHO⁶¹. Although the definition of 'severe' pre-eclampsia varies by organisation as does the definition of 'pre-eclampsia' itself (as discussed in Chapter 3), the unifying principle is that pre-eclampsia is always potentially life-threatening. As there are women (such as those with hypertension, headache and visual symptoms) who are defined as having pre-eclampsia by some organisations, but gestational hypertension by others, it should not be surprising that 'gestational hypertension' is not a benign condition according to published literature⁶²⁻⁶⁶. The progression to pre-eclampsia occurs in 15–56% of women who initially present with gestational hypertension^{62,65,67}, as discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

Several large cohort studies have estimated the contribution of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy to 'near-miss morbidity' as defined by the WHO⁶¹. The proportion attributable to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy appears to be higher in LMICs than in well-resourced settings. In a Brazilian study of 16,243 deliveries in two large obstetric facilities (2011–2012), the hypertensive

disorders of pregnancy were responsible for 1102 (67.5%) near-misses⁶⁸. In a similar study from Abu Dhabi of 122,702 deliveries in all major maternity units across a single province (2000–2006), 553 (59.5%) of all near-miss cases were attributed to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy⁶⁹. These estimates are in contrast to a large hospital-based cohort study in the USA of 115,502 deliveries (2008–2011) that found that 68 (20.5%) of near-miss cases were attributable to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy⁷⁰. It is probable that women in Abu Dhabi presented later in the course of their disease compared with women with greater antenatal surveillance and earlier diagnosis in the USA where expectant management of early-onset pre-eclampsia is not a uniform standard of care.

Maternal morbidities associated with the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy are thought to be a result of excessive inflammation and endothelial damage⁷¹ and include virtually all end-organ complications. Estimates of complications that are most feared (such as hepatic haematoma/rupture or central nervous system complications of eclampsia, stroke, retinal detachment and blindness), most common (such as HELLP syndrome, pulmonary oedema, or placental abruption), or most easily recognised (such as acute renal failure)^{64–73} come mainly from hospital-based studies, with the exception of eclampsia.

As observed with incidence estimates for the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, most studies of morbidity rates are based on either cross-sectional or prospective cohorts collected in hospital after a diagnosis of pre-eclampsia has been made and may not be representative of the hypertensive disorder of pregnancy population as a whole. Rates of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related morbidity reported in LMICs tend to be higher (10–20%)^{68,69,72–80} than those reported in HICs (5–9%)^{22,30,50,70,81}. In addition, higher morbidity rates are reported in association with ‘severe’ pre-eclampsia, however defined^{82–85}.

KEY POINT

Rates of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related morbidity reported in LMICs tend to be higher (10–20%) than those reported in HICs (5–9%). Higher rates are also reported in association with ‘severe’ pre-eclampsia, however defined

The two large, multicountry, but facility-based, PIERS (Pre-eclampsia Integrated Estimate of RiSk) studies highlight the disparity in maternal outcomes between high- and low-resourced settings that probably reflect differences in health care resource access and underlying social determinants of health. The PIERS research programme has published a list of relevant maternal morbidities associated with the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (see Chapter 3). This list was developed by an International Delphi consensus group³⁰ consisting of experts in obstetrics, paediatrics, anaesthesia, neonatology, medicine, global health and epidemiology from 19 high-, middle- and low-resourced countries. Two cohorts of women were collected as part of the PIERS project. The fullPIERS cohort included data from 2023 women admitted with a diagnosis of pre-eclampsia in a participating hospital in Canada, the UK, Australia or New Zealand; maternal morbidity, as defined by the Delphi group was 5.0% within 48 hours of admission and 13.0% at any time after admission. This is in contrast to the miniPIERS cohort that included data from 2081 women admitted with any hypertensive disorder of pregnancy to one of seven participating hospitals in Brazil, Uganda, South Africa, Pakistan or Fiji; maternal morbidity was 12.5% within 48 hours of admission and 19.3% at any time after admission.

Eclampsia

Estimates of eclampsia incidence have been refined by efforts to reduce the global burden of disease using magnesium sulphate, an agent that is effective for eclampsia prophylaxis and treatment. According to the WHO Multicountry Survey, eclampsia occurs in 1.0–2.0% of pregnancies². The incidence is lower in HICs, with published estimates from population-level data below 1% (ranging from 2–8.6/10,000 live births)^{24,38,86–91}.

Stroke

In the USA, hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related stroke, particularly postpartum, appears to be on the rise, with a reported 5-fold increase in incidence from 1994 to 2011⁹². Severe systolic hypertension (i.e., ≥ 160 mmHg) appears to be a particular risk factor for hypertensive disorder of pregnancy-related stroke^{93,94}.

Perinatal mortality and morbidity

Adverse outcomes for both mother and fetus tend to cluster around the diagnosis of pre-eclampsia whether defined traditionally (as gestational hypertension and proteinuria) or broadly (as gestational hypertension with end-organ dysfunction)⁹⁵.

Adverse perinatal outcomes associated with the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy include stillbirth, neonatal death, oligohydramnios, bronchopulmonary dysplasia and fetal growth restriction^{71,96,97}.

Of perinatal deaths (i.e., stillbirth or neonatal death), an estimated 9–20% are reported to be directly related to the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy in several large multi-country cohort studies^{98–100}. In the WHO Multicountry Survey study, women with pre-eclampsia or eclampsia had an odds ratio of perinatal death of 3.0 (95% CI 2.7–3.3) and 4.9 (95% CI 4.1–5.9), respectively, compared with women without a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy². In the Nationwide Inpatient Sample study of all deliveries reported in the USA, 7.5% of all stillbirths were in association with pre-eclampsia¹⁰¹.

Adverse perinatal outcomes, including stillbirth, are modified by gestational age. The risk of stillbirth is higher at earlier gestational ages. In the Norwegian Medical Birth Registry (1999–2008), the RR of fetal death among women with pre-eclampsia was 86 (95% CI 46–142) at 26 weeks' gestation, 7.3 (95% CI 3.3–11.0) at 34 weeks, and 3.0 (95% CI 1.7–4.1) at 38 weeks¹⁰². Pre-eclampsia is recognised as a significant contributor to iatrogenic preterm birth and associated neonatal morbidity^{103–108}. A secondary analysis of data from the WHO Global Survey data set, including 172,461 deliveries from 145 facilities across 22 low-resourced countries, determined that pre-eclampsia was associated with 8 times the odds of provider-initiated preterm birth¹⁰⁹.

Although most studies reporting complications focus on a diagnosis of pre-eclampsia, chronic hypertension (compared with normal blood pressure) has been associated with an increased risk of preterm birth^{110,111} (RR 2.7, 95% CI 1.9–3.8)¹¹² and perinatal death (RR 4.2, 95% CI 2.7–6.5)¹¹², as well as congenital malformations (whether women were treated with antihypertensive therapy (OR 1.3, 95% CI 1.2–1.5) or not 1.2 (95% CI 1.1–1.3))¹¹³.

“I would not wish the days that followed on anyone. Leaving the hospital with a teddy bear

and an urn instead of a sweet little baby is unthinkable. Having your daughter's milk come in without the baby grandson for whom it was intended was heart-wrenching.”

Rita C, courtesy of the Preeclampsia Foundation, USA

PRIORITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

With regards to the epidemiology of pre-eclampsia, the main priorities for future research include development of consistent definitions of hypertensive disorder of pregnancy types, and robust population-level surveillance systems incorporating across multiple country settings. Particularly in LMICs where the burden, and health consequences, of these disorders is thought to be greatest, population-level surveillance is required in order to properly ascertain the effectiveness of interventions and public health programmes aimed at improving maternal health. These improved surveillance systems should include information related to risk factors that would improve our knowledge of how risk factors may vary based on classification of the disorder and other subgroups of pregnant women.

As populations of pregnant women continue to experience demographic shifts worldwide, other priorities will be to understand the contribution of these changes to disease burden and complication rates.

REFERENCES

1. Cunningham FG, Leveno KJ, Bloom SL, Hauth JC, Rouse D, Spong CY. Pregnancy hypertension. In: Cunningham FG, ed. *Williams Obstetrics*, 23rd edn. McGraw-Hill Professional;2009:706
2. Abalos E, Cuesta C, Carroli G, Qureshi Z, Widmer M, Vogel JP, et al. Pre-eclampsia, eclampsia and adverse maternal and perinatal outcomes: a secondary analysis of the World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health. *BJOG* 2014 Mar;121 Suppl 1:14–24
3. Abalos E, Cuesta C, Grosso AL, Chou D, Say L. Global and regional estimates of preeclampsia and eclampsia: a systematic review. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2013 Sep;170(1):1–7
4. Sebastian T, Yadav B, Jeyaseelan L, Vijayaselvi R, Jose R. Small for gestational age births among South Indian women: temporal trend and risk factors from 1996 to 2010. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2015;15:7

THE FIGO TEXTBOOK OF PREGNANCY HYPERTENSION

5. Adane A, Ayele T, Ararsa L, Bitew B, Zeleke B. Adverse birth outcomes among deliveries at Gondar University Hospital, Northwest Ethiopia. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2014;14(1):90
6. Baragou S, Goeh-Akue E, Pio M, Afassinou Y, Atta B. [Hypertension and pregnancy in Lome (sub-Saharan Africa): epidemiology, diagnosis and risk factors]. *Ann Cardiol Angeiol (Paris)* 2014;63(3):145–150
7. Olusanya BO, Solanke OA. Perinatal outcomes associated with maternal hypertensive disorders of pregnancy in a developing country. *Hypertens Pregnancy* 2011;31(1):120–130
8. Verburg PE, Tucker G, Scheil W, Erwich JH, Roberts CT, Dekker GA. [177-POS]: Seasonality of pregnancy induced hypertensive disorders in South Australia – A retrospective population study 2007–2011. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2015;5(1):91
9. Morikawa M, Yamada T, Yamada T, Cho K, Sato S, Minakami H. Seasonal variation in the prevalence of pregnancy-induced hypertension in Japanese women. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 2014;40(4):926–931
10. Hayes DK, Feigl DW, Smith RA, Fuddy LJ. Maternal Asthma, Diabetes, and High Blood Pressure are Associated with Low Birth Weight and Increased Hospital Birth and Delivery Charges; Hawaii's Hospital Discharge Data 2003–2008. *Hawaii J Med Public Health* 2014;73(2):49–57
11. Mehrabadi A, Liu S, Bartholomew S, Hutcheon JA, Magee LA, Kramer MS, et al. Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and the recent increase in obstetric acute renal failure in Canada: population based retrospective cohort study. *BMJ* 2014;349:g4731
12. Nerenberg KA, Johnson JA, Leung B, Savu A, Ryan EA, Chik CL, et al. Risks of gestational diabetes and preeclampsia over the last decade in a cohort of Alberta women. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2013 Nov;35(11):986–994
13. Bateman BT, Bansil P, Hernandez-Diaz S, Mhyre JM, Callaghan WM, Kuklina EV. Prevalence, trends, and outcomes of chronic hypertension: a nationwide sample of delivery admissions. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2012; 206(2):134e1–8
14. Savitz DA, Danilack VA, Engel SM, Elston B, Lipkind HS. Descriptive epidemiology of chronic hypertension, gestational hypertension, and preeclampsia in New York State, 1995–2004. *Matern Child Health J* 2014;18(4):829–838
15. Liu X, Olsen J, Agerbo E, Yuan W, Wu C, Li J. Maternal preeclampsia and childhood asthma in the offspring. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 2015;26(2):181–185
16. Li Z, Ye R, Zhang L, Li H, Liu J, Ren A. Folic acid supplementation during early pregnancy and the risk of gestational hypertension and preeclampsia. *Hypertension* 2013;61(4):873–879
17. Tessema G, Tekeste A, Ayele T. Preeclampsia and associated factors among pregnant women attending antenatal care in Dessie referral hospital, Northeast Ethiopia: a hospital-based study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2015;15:73
18. Singh S, Ahmed E, Egundu S, Ikechukwu N. Hypertensive disorders in pregnancy among pregnant women in a Nigerian Teaching Hospital. *Niger Med J* 2014;55(5):384–388
19. Gaym A, Bailey P, Pearson L, Admasu K, Gebrehiwot Y. Disease burden due to pre-eclampsia/eclampsia and the Ethiopian health system's response. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2011;115(1):112–116
20. Ananth CV, Keyes KM, Wapner RJ. Pre-eclampsia rates in the United States, 1980–2010: age-period-cohort analysis. *BMJ* 2013;347:f6564
21. Cho G, Kim L, Min K, Sung Y, Hong S, Oh M, et al. Prior cesarean section is associated with increased preeclampsia risk in a subsequent pregnancy. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2015;15:24
22. Lisonkova S, Sabr Y, Mayer C, Young C, Skoll A, Joseph KS. Maternal morbidity associated with early-onset and late-onset preeclampsia. *Obstet Gynecol* 2014 Oct;124(4):771–781
23. Lisonkova S, Joseph KS. Incidence of preeclampsia: risk factors and outcomes associated with early- versus late-onset disease. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013 Dec; 209(6):544.e1–544.e12
24. Thornton C, Dahlen H, Korda A, Hennessy A. The incidence of preeclampsia and eclampsia and associated maternal mortality in Australia from population-linked datasets: 2000–2008. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013 Jun; 208(6):476.e1–476.e5
25. Haram K, Svendsen E, Abildgaard U. The HELLP syndrome: clinical issues and management. A Review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2009;9:8
26. Yucesoy G, Ozkan S, Bodur H, Tan T, Caliskan E, Vural B, et al. Maternal and perinatal outcome in pregnancies complicated with hypertensive disorder of pregnancy: a seven year experience of a tertiary care center. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 2005;273(1):43–49
27. Williams KP, Wilson S. The impact of parity on the incidence of HELLP syndrome and small for gestational age infants in hypertensive pregnant women. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2002 Jun;24(6):485–489

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF THE HYPERTENSIVE DISORDERS OF PREGNANCY

28. Abroug F, Boujdaria R, Nouira S, Abroug S, Souissi M, Najjar MF, et al. Hellp syndrome: incidence and maternal-fetal outcome--a prospective study. *Intensive Care Med* 1992;18(5):274-277
29. Rachdi R, Fekih MA, Massoudi L, Mouelhi C, Souissi M, Secourgeon JF, et al. HELLP syndrome. Epidemiological, nosological and prognostic aspects. *Rev Fr Gynecol Obstet* 1993 Apr;88(4):230-235
30. von Dadelszen P, Payne B, Li J, Ansermino JM, Broughton Pipkin F, Cote AM, et al. Prediction of adverse maternal outcomes in pre-eclampsia: development and validation of the fullPIERS model. *Lancet* 2011 Jan 15;377(9761):219-227
31. Klungsoyr K, Morken N, Irgens L, Vollset S, Skjaerven R. Secular trends in the epidemiology of pre-eclampsia throughout 40 years in Norway: prevalence, risk factors and perinatal survival. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 2012;26(3):190-198
32. Wallis AB, Saftlas AF, Hsia J, Atrash HK. Secular trends in the rates of preeclampsia, eclampsia, and gestational hypertension, United States, 1987-2004. *Am J Hypertens* 2008;21(5):521-526
33. Ali A, Adam G, Abdallah T. Seasonal variation and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy in eastern Sudan. *J Obstet Gynaecol* 2015;35(2):153-154
34. Nasiri R, Shadmehri A, Ghiassi P, Yazdi M, Baf M. Association of meteorological factors and seasonality with preeclampsia: a 5-year study in northeast of Iran. *Clin Exp Hypertens* 2014;36(8):586-589
35. Melo B, Amorim M, Katz L, Coutinho I, Figueiroa J. Hypertension, pregnancy and weather: is seasonality involved? *Rev Assoc Med Bras* 2014;60(2):105-110
36. Wellington K, Mulla ZD. Seasonal trend in the occurrence of preeclampsia and eclampsia in Texas. *Am J Hypertens* 2012;25(1):115-119
37. Naimy Z, Grytten J, Monkerud L, Eskild A. The prevalence of pre-eclampsia in migrant relative to native Norwegian women: a population-based study. *BJOG* 2015;122(6):859-865
38. Urquia ML, Glazier RH, Gagnon AJ, Mortensen LH, Nybo Andersen AM, Janevic T, et al. Disparities in pre-eclampsia and eclampsia among immigrant women giving birth in six industrialised countries. *BJOG* 2014 Nov;121(12):1492-1500
39. Bouthoorn SH, Gaillard R, Steegers EA, Hofman A, Jaddoe VW, van Lenthe FJ, et al. Ethnic differences in blood pressure and hypertensive complications during pregnancy: the Generation R study. *Hypertension* 2012;60(1):198-205
40. Urquia ML, Ying I, Glazier RH, Berger H, De Souza LR, Ray JG. Serious preeclampsia among different immigrant groups. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2012 Apr;34(4):348-352
41. Hutcheon J, Lisonkova S, Joseph K. Epidemiology of pre-eclampsia and the other hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol* 2011;25(4):391-403
42. Lozano R, Naghavi M, Foreman K, Lim S, Shibuya K, Aboyans V, et al. Global and regional mortality from 235 causes of death for 20 age groups in 1990 and 2010: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. *Lancet* 2012;380(9859):2095-2128
43. Hogan MC, Foreman KJ, Naghavi M, Ahn SY, Wang M, Makela SM, et al. Maternal mortality for 181 countries, 1980-2008: a systematic analysis of progress towards Millennium Development Goal 5. *Lancet* 2010;375(9726):1609-1623
44. Moodley J. Maternal deaths due to hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol* 2008 Jun;22(3):559-567
45. Khan KS, Wojdyla D, Say L, Gulmezoglu MA, Look PF. WHO analysis of causes of maternal death: a systematic review. *Lancet* 2006;367(9516):1066-1074
46. Kassebaum NJ, Bertozzi-Villa A, Coggeshall MS, Shackelford KA, Steiner C, Heuton KR, et al. Global, regional, and national levels and causes of maternal mortality during 1990-2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet* 2014;384(9947):980-1004
47. Ramanathan J, Sibai BM, Pillai R, Angel JJ. Neuromuscular transmission studies in preeclamptic women receiving magnesium sulfate. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology* 1988 Jan;158(1):40-46
48. Rivera-Alsina ME, Chafey D, Axtmayer RW. Intravenous vs. intramuscular magnesium sulfate for preeclampsia. *Boletin - Asociacion Medica de Puerto Rico* 1983 Jun;75(6):263-264
49. Sibai BM, Ramadan MK. Acute renal failure in pregnancies complicated by hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platelets. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1993;168(6 Pt 1):1682-1690
50. Nair M, Kurinczuk J, Brocklehurst P, Sellers S, Lewis G, Knight M. Factors associated with maternal death from direct pregnancy complications: a UK national case-control study. *BJOG* 2015;122(5):653-662
51. Joint Learning Initiative. Human resources for health: Overcoming the crisis. 2004; Available at:

THE FIGO TEXTBOOK OF PREGNANCY HYPERTENSION

- http://www.who.int/hrh/documents/JLi_hrh_report.pdf?ua=1. Accessed 08/03, 2012
52. Bhutta ZA, Black RE. Global maternal, newborn, and child health—so near and yet so far. *N Engl J Med* 2013;369(23):2226–2235
 53. Simkhada B, van Teijlingen ER, Porter M, Simkhada P. Factors affecting the utilization of antenatal care in developing countries: systematic review of the literature. *J Adv Nurs* 2008;61(3):244–260
 54. Ascarelli MH, Johnson V, McCreary H, Cushman J, May WL, Martin JN. Postpartum preeclampsia management with furosemide: a randomized clinical trial. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005 Jan;105(1):29–33
 55. Thurnau GR, Kemp DB, Jarvis A. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of magnesium in patients with preeclampsia after treatment with intravenous magnesium sulfate: a preliminary report. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology* 1987 Dec;157(6):1435–1438
 56. Cohen L, Kitzes R, Shnaider H. Multifocal atrial tachycardia responsive to parenteral magnesium. *Magnesium Research* 1988 Dec;1(3–4):239–242
 57. Gabrysch S, Campbell OM. Still too far to walk: literature review of the determinants of delivery service use. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2009;9:34
 58. Thaddeus S, Maine D. Too far to walk: maternal mortality in context. *Soc Sci Med* 1994 Apr;38(8):1091–1110
 59. Belfort MA, Saade GR, Moise KJ Jr. The effect of magnesium sulfate on maternal retinal blood flow in preeclampsia: a randomized placebo-controlled study. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology* 1992 Dec;167(6):1548–1553
 60. Fulton BD, Scheffler RM, Sparkes SP, Auh E, Vujicic M, Soucat A. Health workforce skill mix and task shifting in low income countries: a review of recent evidence. *Hum Resour Health* 2011;9:1
 61. Say L, Souza J, Pattinson RC. Maternal near miss—towards a standard tool for monitoring quality of maternal health care. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol* 2009;23(3):287–296
 62. Barton JR, O'Brien JM, Bergauer NK, Jacques DL, Sibai BM. Mild gestational hypertension remote from term: progression and outcome. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2001 Apr;184(5):979–983
 63. Homer CS, Brown MA, Mangos G, Davis GK. Non-proteinuric pre-eclampsia: a novel risk indicator in women with gestational hypertension. *J Hypertens* 2008;26(2):295–302
 64. Saudan P, Brown MA, Buddle ML, Jones M. Does gestational hypertension become pre-eclampsia? *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1998 Nov;105(11):1177–1184
 65. Sibai BM, Stella CL. Diagnosis and management of atypical preeclampsia-eclampsia. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2009 May;200(5):481.e1–481.e7
 66. Haddad B, Barton J, Livingston J, Chahine R, Sibai B. Risk factors for adverse maternal outcomes among women with HELLP (hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platelet count) syndrome. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2000;183(2):444–448
 67. Magee LA, von Dadelszen P, Chan S, Gafni A, Gruslin A, Helewa M, et al. The Control of Hypertension In Pregnancy Study pilot trial. *BJOG* 2007 Jun;114(6):770, e13–20
 68. Galvao L, Alvim-Pereira F, de Mendonca C, Menezes F, do Gois K, Ribeiro R, et al. The prevalence of severe maternal morbidity and near miss and associated factors in Sergipe, Northeast Brazil. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2014;14:25
 69. Ghazal-Aswad S, Badrinath P, Sidky I, Safi T, Gargash H, Abdul-Razak Y, et al. Severe acute maternal morbidity in a high-income developing multiethnic country. *Matern Child Health J* 2013;17(3):399–404
 70. Grobman WA, Bailit JL, Rice M, Wapner RJ, Reddy UM, Varner MW, et al. Frequency of and factors associated with severe maternal morbidity. *Obstet Gynecol* 2014;123(4):804–810
 71. Staff AC, Benton SJ, von Dadelszen P, Roberts JM, Taylor RN, Powers RW, et al. Redefining preeclampsia using placenta-derived biomarkers. *Hypertension* 2013 May;61(5):932–942
 72. Payne BA, Hutcheon JA, Ansermino JM, Hall DR, Bhutta ZA, Bhutta SZ, et al. A risk prediction model for the assessment and triage of women with hypertensive disorders of pregnancy in low-resourced settings: the miniPIERS (Pre-eclampsia Integrated Estimate of RiSk) multi-country prospective cohort study. *PLoS Med* 2014 Jan;11(1):e1001589
 73. Allanson ER, Muller M, Pattinson RC. Causes of perinatal mortality and associated maternal complications in a South African province: challenges in predicting poor outcomes. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2015;15(1):37
 74. Seyom E, Abera M, Tesfaye M, Fentahun N. Maternal and fetal outcome of pregnancy related hypertension in Mettu Karl Referral Hospital, Ethiopia. *J Ovarian Res* 2015;8(1):10
 75. Adu-Bonsaffoh K, Obed SA, Seffah JD. [195-POS]: Maternal outcomes of hypertensive disorders in

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF THE HYPERTENSIVE DISORDERS OF PREGNANCY

- pregnancy at Korle Bu Teaching Hospital, Accra. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2015;5(1):98–99
76. Vidal L, de Gomes G, Boarini M, Horita R, de Mendonca R, Molina T, et al. [147-POS]: Maternal and perinatal outcomes of pregnant women with normal deliveries and preeclampsia. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2015;5(1):76–77
 77. Sikder SS, Labrique AB, Shamim AA, Ali H, Mehra S, Wu L, et al. Risk factors for reported obstetric complications and near misses in rural northwest Bangladesh: analysis from a prospective cohort study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2014;14:347
 78. Ye C, Ruan Y, Zou L, Li G, Li C, Chen Y, et al. The 2011 survey on hypertensive disorders of pregnancy (HDP) in China: prevalence, risk factors, complications, pregnancy and perinatal outcomes. *PLoS One* 2014;9(6):e100180
 79. Rizwan N, Rauf S, Farhan-Uddin S. Maternal and perinatal outcomes among women with eclampsia admitted to a tertiary care hospital in Hyderabad, Pakistan. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2013;123(3):247–248
 80. Sachan R, Patel M, Sachan P, Gaurav A, Singh M, Bansal B. Outcomes in hypertensive disorders of pregnancy in the North Indian population. *Int J Womens Health* 2013;5:101–108
 81. Cruz MO, Gao W, Hibbard JU. Obstetrical and perinatal outcomes among women with gestational hypertension, mild preeclampsia, and mild chronic hypertension. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2011;205(3):260.e1–e9
 82. Tuffnell D, Jankowicz D, Lindow S, Lyons G, Mason G, Russell I, et al. Outcomes of severe pre-eclampsia/eclampsia in Yorkshire 1999/2003. *BJOG* 2005;112(7):875–880
 83. Fitzpatrick KE, Hinshaw K, Kurinczuk JJ, Knight M. Risk factors, management, and outcomes of hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platelets syndrome and elevated liver enzymes, low platelets syndrome. *Obstet Gynecol* 2014;123(3):618–627
 84. Zanette E, Parpinelli M, Surita F, Costa M, Haddad S, Sousa M, et al. Maternal near miss and death among women with severe hypertensive disorders: a Brazilian multicenter surveillance study. *Reprod Health* 2014;11(1):4
 85. Nankali A, Malek-Khosravi S, Zangeneh M, Rezaei M, Hemati Z, Kohzadi M. Maternal complications associated with severe preeclampsia. *J Obstet Gynaecol India* 2013;63(2):112–115
 86. O'Connor HD, Hehir MP, Kent EM, Foley ME, Fitzpatrick C, Geary MP, et al. Eclampsia: trends in incidence and outcomes over 30 years. *Am J Perinatol* 2013 Sep;30(8):661–664
 87. Knight M, UKOSS. Eclampsia in the United Kingdom 2005. *BJOG* 2007 Sep;114(9):1072–1078
 88. Subramaniam V. Seasonal variation in the incidence of preeclampsia and eclampsia in tropical climatic conditions. *BMC Womens Health* 2007 Oct 15;7:18
 89. Kullberg G, Lindeberg S, Hanson U. Eclampsia in Sweden. *Hypertens Pregnancy* 2002;21(1):13–21
 90. Schaap T, Knight M, Zwart J, Kurinczuk J, Brocklehurst P, van Roosmalen J, et al. Eclampsia, a comparison within the International Network of Obstetric Survey Systems. *BJOG* 2014;121(12):1521–1528
 91. Vlachadis N, Iliodromiti Z, Vrachnis N. The incidence of preeclampsia and eclampsia in Australia: 2000 through 2008. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2014;210(2):173–174
 92. Leffert LR, Clancy CR, Bateman BT, Bryant AS, Kuklina EV. Hypertensive disorders and pregnancy-related stroke: frequency, trends, risk factors, and outcomes. *Obstet Gynecol* 2015;125(1):124–131
 93. Martin J, James N., Thigpen BD, Moore RC, Rose CH, Cushman J, May W. Stroke and Severe Preeclampsia and Eclampsia: A Paradigm Shift Focusing on Systolic Blood Pressure. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005;105(2):246–254
 94. Lewis G(). Saving Mothers' Lives: reviewing maternal deaths to make motherhood safer – 2003–2005. The Seventh Report on Confidential Enquiries into Maternal Deaths in the United Kingdom. 2007
 95. Gillon TE, Pels A, von Dadelszen P, MacDonell K, Magee LA. Hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: a systematic review of international clinical practice guidelines. *PLoS One* 2014;9(12):e113715
 96. Gruslin A, Lemyre B. Pre-eclampsia: fetal assessment and neonatal outcomes. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol* 2011 Aug;25(4):491–507
 97. Bi GL, Chen FL, Huang WM. The association between hypertensive disorders in pregnancy and bronchopulmonary dysplasia: a systematic review. *World J Pediatr* 2013 Nov;9(4):300–306
 98. Lawn JE, Blencowe H, Pattinson R, Cousens S, Kumar R, Ibiebele I, et al. Stillbirths: Where? When? Why? How to make the data count? *Lancet* 2011;377(9775):1448–1463

THE FIGO TEXTBOOK OF PREGNANCY HYPERTENSION

99. Ngoc N, Merialdi M, Abdel-Aleem H, Carroli G, Purwar M, Zavaleta N, et al. Causes of stillbirths and early neonatal deaths: data from 7993 pregnancies in six developing countries. *Bull World Health Organ* 2006;84(9):699–705
100. Baqui A, Darmstadt G, Williams E, Kumar V, Kiran T, Panwar D, et al. Rates, timing and causes of neonatal deaths in rural India: implications for neonatal health programmes. *Bull World Health Organ* 2006; 84(9):706–713
101. Mahmood E, Rana S, Shahul SS. [230-POS]: Racial and socio-economic disparities in maternal and fetal death among preeclamptic and eclamptic deliveries: An analysis of the Nationwide Inpatient Sample. *Pregnancy Hypertens* 2015;5(1):116–117
102. Harmon QE, Huang L, Umbach DM, Klungsoyr K, Engel SM, Magnus P, et al. Risk of fetal death with preeclampsia. *Obstet Gynecol* 2015;125(3):628–635
103. Arora CP, Kacerovsky M, Zinner B, Ertl T, Ceausu I, Rusnak I, et al. Disparities and relative risk ratio of preterm birth in six Central and Eastern European centers. *Croat Med J* 2015 Apr;56(2):119–127
104. Kiondo P, Tumwesigye NM, Wandabwa J, Wamuyu-Maina G, Bimenya GS, Okong P. Adverse neonatal outcomes in women with pre-eclampsia in Mulago Hospital, Kampala, Uganda: a cross-sectional study. *Pan Afr Med J* 2014 Jan 18;17 Suppl 1:7
105. Vogel J, Souza J, Mori R, Morisaki N, Lumbiganon P, Laopaiboon M, et al. Maternal complications and perinatal mortality: findings of the World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health. *BJOG* 2014;121(Suppl 1):76–88
106. Fardiazar Z, Ramin M, Madarek EO, Atashkhoei S, Torab R, Goldust M. Complications in premature labor between severe preeclampsia and normal pregnancies. *Pak J Biol Sci* 2013 May 1;16(9):446–450
107. Spiegler J, Stichtenoth G, Weichert J, König I, Schlaud M, Wense A, et al. Pregnancy risk factors for very premature delivery: what role do hypertension, obesity and diabetes play? *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 2013; 288(1):57–64
108. Kase BA, Carreno CA, Blackwell SC, Sibai BM. The impact of medically indicated and spontaneous preterm birth among hypertensive women. *Am J Perinatol* 2013;30(10):843–848
109. Vogel JP, Lee AC, Souza J. Maternal morbidity and preterm birth in 22 low- and middle-income countries: a secondary analysis of the WHO Global Survey dataset. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2014;14:56
110. Su C, Lin H, Cheng H, Yen A, Chen Y, Kao S. Pregnancy outcomes of anti-hypertensives for women with chronic hypertension: a population-based study. *PLoS One* 2013;8(2):e53844
111. Orbach H, Matok I, Gorodischer R, Sheiner E, Daniel S, Wiznitzer A, et al. Hypertension and antihypertensive drugs in pregnancy and perinatal outcomes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013;208(4):301.e1–e6
112. Bramham K, Parnell B, Nelson-Piercy C, Seed PT, Poston L, Chappell LC. Chronic hypertension and pregnancy outcomes: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ* 2014 Apr 15;348:g2301
113. Bateman BT, Huybrechts KF, Fischer MA, Seely EW, Ecker JL, Oberg AS, et al. Chronic hypertension in pregnancy and the risk of congenital malformations: a cohort study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2015 Mar;212(3): 337.e1–337.14
114. Zuspan FP, Talledo E. Factors affecting delivery in eclampsia: the condition of the cervix and uterine activity. *American Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology* 1968 Mar 1;100(5):672–685