

1 ***Perinatal complications in female survivors of cancer: a systematic review and***
2 ***meta-analysis***

3 Anne-Lotte L.F. van der Kooij^{a,b}, Tom W. Kelsey^c, Marry M. van den Heuvel-Eibrink^b, Joop S.E. Laven^a, W.
4 Hamish B. Wallace^d, Richard A. Anderson^{e*}

5 ^aDepartment of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Erasmus MC – Sophia Children’s Hospital, Rotterdam, The
6 Netherlands; ^bPrinses Máxima Centrum for Pediatric Oncology, Utrecht, The Netherlands; ^cSchool of Computer
7 Science, University of St. Andrews, North Haugh, St. Andrews, UK; ^dDepartment of Oncology and Haematology,
8 Royal Hospital for Sick Children, Sciennes Road, Edinburgh Scotland; ^eMRC Centre for Reproductive Health,
9 University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK;

10

11 *Corresponding author:

12 Prof. Richard A. Anderson

13 MRC Centre for Reproductive Health, University of Edinburgh

14 Edinburgh, UK

15 Email: Richard.anderson@ed.ac.uk

16 **Abstract**

17 **Background:** Observational studies have suggested that perinatal outcomes are worse in offspring of
18 cancer survivors. We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to examine the risks of perinatal
19 complications in female cancer survivors diagnosed before the age of 40 years.

20 **Methods:** All published articles on pregnancy, perinatal or congenital risks in female cancer survivors
21 were screened for eligibility. PRISMA guidelines were followed.

22 **Results:** Twenty-two studies met the inclusion criteria. Meta-analysis indicates that offspring of cancer
23 survivors are at increased risk of prematurity (RR: 1.56; 95% CI 1.37 – 1.77) and low birth weight (RR
24 1.47; 95% CI 1.24 – 1.73) but not of being small for gestational age (RR 0.99; (95% CI 0.81 – 1.22). Cancer
25 survivors have higher rates of elective (RR: 1.40; 95% CI 1.31 – 1.49) and emergency caesarean section
26 (RR: 1.22; 95% CI 1.15 – 1.30) as well as assisted vaginal delivery (RR: 1.10; 95% CI 1.02 – 1.18) and are at
27 increased risk of postpartum haemorrhage (RR: 1.18; 95% CI 1.02 – 1.36). The risk of congenital
28 abnormalities also appears increased (RR 1.10; 95% CI 1.02 – 1.20) but this is likely to be an artefact of
29 analysis. Although meta-analysis of the effects of radiotherapy was not possible for all outcomes, there
30 was an increased risk of prematurity (RR 2.27; 95% CI 1.34 – 3.82) and consistent findings of low birth
31 weight (RR 1.38-2.31). Risk of small for gestational age was increased only after high uterine
32 radiotherapy dosage.

33 **Conclusion:** The increased perinatal risks warrant a proactive approach from health care providers in
34 both counselling and management of perinatal care for cancer survivors.

35 **Key words:** cancer survivors; perinatal risk; premature delivery; postpartum haemorrhage; low birth
36 weight; congenital abnormalities

37 **Introduction**

38 Around 5% of all cancers are diagnosed before the age of 40 [1], and survival rates after cancer in
39 children and young adults are relatively high with approximately 80% being alive five years after the
40 diagnosis [2]. Building a family may be part of their future, and as societal changes have led women to
41 delay childbirth, an increasing number of survivors have not started a family at the time of diagnosis.
42 Future fertility prospects may be affected by the administered cancer treatment, and pregnancy
43 chances are about a third lower in cancer survivors as compared to the general population [3].
44 Nevertheless, many female survivors have the wish and the potential to become pregnant [4-7].

45 Several studies have evaluated complications during pregnancy and labor in female cancer
46 survivors in comparison to siblings or the general population. Increased risks for preterm birth were
47 reported in the US Childhood Cancer Survivors Study (CCSS) and the British Childhood Cancer Survivors
48 Study (BCCSS) [8, 9], as well as in other large populations with survivors diagnosed in their reproductive
49 life [10, 11]. However, contrasting findings were observed for the risk of offspring being small for
50 gestational age [8, 11, 12]. Despite being an important landmark in pregnancy planning for psychological
51 reasons, less is known about the method of delivery in cancer survivors. Nonetheless, the largest studies
52 showed decreased rates of spontaneous vaginal delivery and increased rates of caesarean section [9, 12-
53 14]. Some early studies suggested an increased relative risk of congenital abnormalities in the offspring
54 of cancer survivors [15, 16]. These findings have not been confirmed in more recent analyses [9, 12, 17,
55 18]. Due to the low prevalence of both cancer in children and young adults and of some pregnancy and
56 labor complications, evaluation of these data benefits from large number of subjects being involved,
57 giving increased statistical power. To synthesize the available data across studies, we performed a
58 systematic review and meta-analysis.

59

60

61 **Methods**

62 This review and meta-analysis was registered in PROSPERO (CRD42017078007) and the Preferred
63 Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) were followed [19].

64 The databases Embase, MEDLINE (via OvidSP), Web of Science, Cochrane and Google Scholar
65 were used for the systematic search. Details of the full search strategy for each database are included in
66 Appendix A (online only). Briefly, we searched for articles reporting on any perinatal outcomes
67 (maternal and fetal/neonatal) in survivors of any cancer until the age of 40. The search was limited to
68 the following criteria: reported between 1990 – September 2018; published in English. All titles and
69 abstracts were reviewed to select potentially eligible studies by two independent reviewers (ALFvdK and
70 TWK). Full text papers were retrieved to assess fulfillment of the selection criteria. Studies reporting on
71 pregnancies and/or births of less than 50 cancer survivors and cohort studies that did not include a
72 control group were excluded, as well as opinion papers or reviews. Cross-reference check of the
73 retrieved studies was performed to identify additional studies that were overlooked during the initial
74 search.

75 The critical appraisal skills programme (CASP,<https://casp-uk.net/>) provides tools for a
76 structured approach to finding evidence and appraising the evidence based on methodology and
77 validity. The standardized checklist for cohort studies consists of eleven questions within three parts:
78 “Are the results of the study valid” (Section A, focusing on bias and confounding), “What are the results”
79 (Section B, on strength and precision), and “Will the results help locally” (Section C, on generalizability). .
80 This assessment was performed by three independent authors (ALFvdK, TWK, RAA) and disagreements
81 were discussed and resolved among them.

82 Outcome measures that were included were: low birth weight (<2500g), preterm birth (<37
83 weeks gestation), small for gestational age (<10th percentile), spontaneous vaginal delivery, assisted
84 vaginal delivery, elective caesarean section, emergency caesarean section, antepartum haemorrhage (as

85 defined by the authors of included studies, including placenta praevia, placental abruption and other
86 bleeding), postpartum haemorrhage, and congenital abnormalities.

87 For all outcomes, incidence or prevalence numbers were extracted for both the cancer survivor
88 group and the control group. In addition, incidence or prevalence numbers from survivors treated with
89 abdominal radiotherapy were extracted, or 'any radiotherapy' if no more details were available.
90 Heterogeneity between the eligible studies was assessed using the I^2 statistic, with $I^2 > 80\%$ indicating
91 high variation between included studies, I^2 between 50% and 80% indicating moderate variation, and I^2
92 $<50\%$ indicating sufficient similarity between the studies to ensure that pooling was valid. When
93 heterogeneity was considerable (i.e., $I^2 \geq 50\%$ and $p < 0.05$), pooled estimates based on the random
94 effects model were presented. Otherwise, pooled fixed effects were presented. Meta-analysis was only
95 performed if more than two studies were available for the meta-analysis. Funnel plots were created to
96 evaluate the possibility of publication bias. This type of graph are useful tools in meta-analyses and plots
97 each study's study precision on the y-axis and study result on the x-axis. In this way, studies with high
98 precision are plotted near the average and studies with lower precision are spread evenly on its side in a
99 funnel-shaped manner. Asymmetry of the resulting scatterplot can be a result of publication bias or
100 other study heterogeneity and warrants further investigation of its cause. Summary measures of
101 Relative Risk (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) were obtained using standard meta-analysis in
102 the R package meta [20, 21].

103 **Results**

104 After exclusion of duplicates, the search yielded 2,922 citations. After screening of titles, 239 remained
105 of which 192 could be excluded based on abstract or full-text, while 3 other publications were identified
106 from cross-reference checking. The remaining 50 studies were included for CASP scoring, in which ≥ 9
107 out of 11 points were required for inclusion in the meta-analysis. Studies reporting on cohorts from the
108 same region were examined for overlapping data, and in these cases the oldest reports were excluded.
109 A total of 22 studies were included for the meta-analysis [6, 8-14, 18, 22-34]. The list of included and
110 excluded studies and their assigned CASP scores can be found in Appendix B (online only).

111 All 22 included studies were retrospective cohort studies. Most studies (n=15), especially the
112 most recently reported, had obtained data by population registry linkage. One study was based on
113 medical records [24], and six studies were based on questionnaire data [6, 22, 27, 31-33].

114 While all studies included survivors of cancer, age at diagnosis varied. Eight studies had included
115 only survivors of childhood cancer [8, 9, 28, 29, 31-34], the largest cohorts being the CCSS and the
116 BCCSS, confined to survivors diagnosed before the age of 21 and 15 years respectively [6, 9]. Eight
117 studies included adults until the age of approximately 40 years of age [10, 22-27, 30, 35] and the
118 remaining five studies included survivors diagnosed with cancer between 0-40 years of age [12-14, 18,
119 36]. Five studies reported on the risks after a specific cancer diagnosis: cervical cancer [22, 27], Hodgkin
120 lymphoma [30] or breast cancer [10, 23].

121

122 **Outcomes**

123 **Prematurity**

124 Fourteen studies reported the incidence of prematurity (gestational age less than 37 weeks) [8-13, 22-
125 27, 30, 31] For this outcome, in total 17,495 cancer survivors were compared to 6,070,504 controls. The
126 relative risk in the random effects model of a preterm delivery for cancer survivors was 1.56 (95% CI

127 1.37 – 1.77), with moderate to high heterogeneity ($I^2 = 82\%$, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 2A). The funnel plot did not
128 suggest publication bias (supplementary Figure, online only). Prematurity in high risk groups, e.g. after
129 radiotherapy or (if available) after abdominal radiotherapy, was reported in eight of these studies. The
130 random effects meta-analysis of the four studies which also provided incidence data showed a relative
131 risk of 2.27 (95% CI 1.34 – 3.82) (Figure 6A) [9, 30, 31, 36]. Four studies only reported ratios but not
132 exact number, of which two showed similar effect sizes [8, 35], one did not find an increased risk [13]
133 and one found an increased risk in those treated with radiotherapy only, but not in survivors treated
134 with radiotherapy in combination with chemotherapy [25] (Appendix C, online only).

135

136 **Low birth weight**

137 Twelve studies of those reporting on prematurity also reported the incidence of low birth weight
138 (<2.500g), comparing in total 19,073 cancer survivors to 6,099,456 controls [8-13, 22, 24-27, 31]. Meta-
139 analysis showed a significantly higher risk of having a baby with a low birth weight in cancer survivors
140 when compared to controls (RR 1.47 (95% CI 1.24 – 1.73). Due to the high heterogeneity ($I^2 = 82\%$, p
141 < 0.01), the random effects model was employed (Figure 2B). The funnel plot did not reveal publication
142 bias (supplementary Figure, online only). Low birth weight after high-risk treatment was reported in 6
143 studies [8, 9, 13, 25, 31, 35], but only 2 studies reported incidence numbers which prohibited meta-
144 analysis (Appendix C, online only). RR ranged from 1.38 (95% CI 1.03 – 1.85) after any radiotherapy
145 versus controls [8] to 2.31 (95% CI 1.50 – 3.55) after abdominal radiotherapy in comparison to survivors
146 not treated with radiotherapy [9] (Appendix C, online only).

147

148 **Small for gestational age**

149 Six studies (comparing in total 12,236 cancer survivors to 5,887,753 controls) reported on the outcome
150 of small for gestational age, defined as a weight less than the 10th percentile for that gestational age in

151 the reference population [8, 10-12, 31, 36]. The risk of having a small for gestational age baby was not
152 statistically significant different for cancer survivors compared to controls (RR 0.99 (95% CI 0.81 – 1.22)
153 in the random effects model. There was high heterogeneity amongst the studies ($I^2 = 89\%$, $p < 0.01$)
154 (Figure 2C). The funnel plot did not reveal any significant publication bias (supplementary Figure, online
155 only). Two studies reported on the risk on small for gestational age after radiotherapy: one did not
156 detect any increased risk after radiotherapy alone or in combination with chemotherapy [35] and the
157 other found an increased odds ratio (4.0, 95% CI 1.6 – 9.8) after a radiation dose of >500cGy to the
158 uterus, but no significant effect at lower doses [31] (Appendix C, online only).

159

160 **Spontaneous vaginal delivery**

161 There were five studies that reported on the incidence of spontaneous vaginal deliveries, in total
162 reporting on 3,497 cancer survivors and 24,370 controls [12, 13, 23, 24, 28]. In the random effect model,
163 cancer survivors were equally likely to have a spontaneous vaginal delivery: relative risk was 0.95 (95%
164 CI 0.84 – 1.07) (Figure 3A). Heterogeneity was high ($I^2 = 82\%$, $p < 0.01$) and the funnel plot showed a
165 deviation, a study of breast cancer survivors, which showed that breast cancer survivors were more
166 likely to have a spontaneous vaginal delivery (supplementary Figure, online only) [23].

167

168 **Assisted vaginal delivery**

169 Six studies reported the incidence of assisted vaginal deliveries, in 10,710 survivors and 1,771,131
170 controls [12-14, 23, 27, 28]. The relative risk of an assisted vaginal delivery was 1.10 (95% CI 1.02 – 1.18)
171 (Figure 3B). Heterogeneity was low to moderate ($I^2 = 49\%$, $p = 0.08$) and the funnel plot showed a
172 deviation with overrepresentation of studies on the left side of the plot, presenting small studies not
173 showing a significant increase in the risk (supplementary Figure, online only). The risk of assisted vaginal

174 delivery after abdominal radiation was only assessed in one sub study with 6 survivors [28], and one
175 study reported no increased risk after treatment with (any) radiotherapy [13] (Appendix C, online only).

176

177 **Emergency caesarean section**

178 Five studies with in total 5,471 survivors and 45,593 controls reported the incidence of emergency
179 caesarean sections in their cohorts [9, 12, 13, 27, 28]. The relative risk was 1.22 (95% CI 1.15 – 1.30)
180 (Figure 3C). There was no heterogeneity ($I^2 = 0\%$, $p = 0.46$) and the funnel plot did not suggest
181 publication bias (supplementary Figure, online only). The two studies that reported on the risk on an
182 emergency caesarean section after radiotherapy [13] or abdominal radiotherapy [9] showed no
183 increased risk (Appendix C, online only).

184

185 **Elective caesarean section**

186 An elective caesarean section occurred more often in cancer survivors than in controls. Five studies
187 reported on 6,786 survivors and 42,089 controls [8, 9, 12, 13, 27]. The relative risk of elective caesarean
188 section was 1.38 (95% CI 1.13 – 1.70). Heterogeneity was high ($I^2 = 86\%$, $p < 0.01$), therefore the random
189 effects model was employed (Figure 3D). The funnel plot suggested no significant publication bias
190 (supplementary Figure, online only). The risk in survivors treated with radiotherapy to the abdomen was
191 only reported in the BCCSS cohort, showing an increased risk of 1.46 (1.07 – 1.99). The risk from any
192 radiotherapy was reported to be not elevated in two other studies [8, 13] (Appendix C, online only).

193

194 **Antepartum haemorrhage**

195 Three studies reported the incidence of antepartum haemorrhage [12, 14, 25]. The definition of
196 antepartum haemorrhage varied between the studies. Hagger et al defined it as occurrence of placental
197 abruption, placenta previa, or other excessive bleeding during labor and delivery [25]. In contrast, Rad et

198 al[14] and Van der Kooi et al[12] based their outcome on ICD 10, where ‘anteartum haemorrhage’ does
199 not include placenta praevia or abruptio placentae, as those outcomes were separately reported.

200 For this outcome, in total 10,505 cancer survivors were compared to 1,759,869 controls. The
201 relative risk of anteartum haemorrhage for cancer survivors was not significant with an RR of 1.06 (95%
202 CI 0.88 – 1.29), while there was no heterogeneity of this RR ($I^2 = 0\%$, $p = 0.86$) (Figure 4A). The funnel
203 plot did not suggest publication bias (supplementary Figure, online only). None of the studies reported
204 on the risk in a high-risk survivor population, e.g., after abdominal radiotherapy.

205

206 **Postpartum haemorrhage**

207 Postpartum haemorrhage was reported in six studies [9, 12-14, 25, 28]. Three studies [9, 12, 14] based
208 postpartum haemorrhage on O72 of ICD 10 which defines postpartum haemorrhage as blood loss >500
209 mL after vaginal delivery or >1000 mL after caesarean delivery. In contrast, Melin et al [13] and Lie Fong
210 et al [28] defined postpartum haemorrhage as >1000 mL while Hagger et al [25] defined it as >500 mL.

211 The incidence of postpartum haemorrhage was compared between in total 14,314 cancer
212 survivors and 1,795,524 controls. Cancer survivors were at increased risk of postpartum haemorrhage
213 (RR: 1.18; 95% CI 1.02 – 1.36) (Figure 4B). Heterogeneity across studies was substantial ($I^2 = 77\%$, p
214 <0.01), therefore the random effects model is presented; the funnel plot did not suggest publication bias
215 (supplementary Figure, online only). Adjustment for parity and maternal age had reduced the effect
216 sizes in some of the original papers [9, 13]. Postpartum haemorrhage after (abdominal) radiotherapy
217 was reported in three studies, in one it is described not to have an increased risk but without numerical
218 data [13], therefore a meta-analysis was not feasible. One small study found an increased risk in the
219 subgroup of 6 abdominally radiated survivors [28], and one analysis from the BCCSS found no increased
220 risk after adjustment for confounding (RR 1.33 (95% CI 0.84 – 1.07) compared to survivors not treated
221 with any radiotherapy [9] (Appendix C, online only).

222

223 **Congenital abnormalities**

224 Twelve studies reported the prevalence of congenital abnormalities in a total cohort of 23,099 cancer
225 survivors and 254,264 controls [8, 12, 18, 24-26, 28-30, 32-34]. The definition of congenital
226 abnormalities ranged from 'coded as ICD diagnoses (ICD8 740-760)' to 'presence of any malformation'.
227 All reported anomalies are pooled in this meta-analysis. The resulting pooled relative risk of congenital
228 abnormalities appears to be higher in the cancer survivor group, with an RR of 1.10 (95% CI 1.02 – 2.20)
229 (Figure 5). 95% CI There was moderate observed heterogeneity ($I^2 = 45\%$, $p = 0.05$) and the funnel plot
230 did not suggest publication bias (supplementary Figure, online only). Five studies also reported
231 incidence numbers of congenital abnormalities after high-risk radiation [18, 28-30, 32, 33]. The fixed
232 effects model showed a non-significant RR of 1.15 (95% CI 0.76 – 1.75) in keeping with the statistically
233 non-significant reported risks or odds ratios in all the source articles (Appendix C, online only).

234 **Discussion**

235 **Principal findings**

236 This systematic review and meta-analysis summarizes the evidence for risks in perinatal outcomes in
237 female cancer survivors. Outcome measures investigated were low birth weight, preterm birth, small for
238 gestational age, mode of delivery, antepartum haemorrhage, postpartum haemorrhage, and congenital
239 abnormalities. Offspring of cancer survivors are at increased risk of prematurity and a low birth weight,
240 but do not face an increased risk of being small for gestational age. Cancer survivors are at increased risk
241 of elective and emergency caesarean section as well as assisted vaginal delivery, and postpartum but
242 not antepartum haemorrhage.

243 Cancer treatment protocols can include chemotherapy and radiotherapy. Irradiation of the abdomen
244 can damage the uterine vasculature and the muscular development of the uterus [39]. Endometrial
245 function, possibly partly due to impaired blood supply, has also been postulated to be defective.
246 Impairment of decidualization could interfere with normal placentation and trophoblast invasion. In
247 addition, impairment of uterine vasculature leading to impaired fetal-placental blood flow may cause
248 fetal growth restriction, and reduced uterine elasticity and volume could lead to preterm delivery or
249 postpartum haemorrhage [39, 40]. Smaller uterine volumes can also be the result of hormonal
250 deficiency as a consequence of ovarian failure [40].

251 Although the risks of a premature birth and low birth weight were increased, the pooled estimates
252 showed no evidence for increased risks of offspring being small for gestational age. Despite this
253 reassurance, future research on very premature deliveries, such as before 32 weeks of gestation instead
254 of the 37 weeks of gestation that is now most often evaluated, may be of value. Very premature birth
255 may be of a greater consequence for future health and well-being [41], even if the offspring is not small
256 for gestational age. One study reported the risk of small for gestational age to be increased only after a
257 high radiation dose [31]. The effect of radiation dose to the uterus has not been sufficiently examined to

258 review, but it is likely that a distinction between higher and lower dosages of radiotherapy will reveal an
259 increased risk currently obscured by pooling all dosages.

260 There was a markedly increased risk (40%) in elective caesarean section, although one study showed
261 that this risk may have reduced in more recent years [12]. There was also an increased risk of an
262 emergency caesarean section (by 22%), and the need for assistance during a vaginal delivery (by 10%).
263 These increased risks may be the reflection of an increased awareness and pro-active management of
264 women treated for cancer, specifically following treatment with abdominal radiotherapy. This analysis
265 showed an increased risk of postpartum haemorrhage, indicating that a proactive approach to
266 prevention may be warranted.

267 The meta-analysis indicates an increased risk of congenital abnormality. Congenital abnormalities could
268 be a result of germ cell mutagenicity cause by chemotherapy or irradiation of the ovarian follicle pool.
269 Most evidence on radiation and chemical induced mutations is based on germ cells of mice [42]. In
270 humans however, long-term follow-up studies of the offspring of Japanese atomic bomb survivors did
271 not indicate an increased risk of congenital abnormalities as a result of parental radiation exposure [43,
272 44]. The apparent increased risk of congenital abnormalities is likely to be an example of Simpson's
273 paradox, a statistical phenomenon in which certain effects observed in different groups or cohorts
274 disappear or reverse when the groups are combined. In such cases there is often an unidentified
275 confounding variable introduced either by the recruitment of subjects, by the analysis for studies
276 forming the pool, or by the analysis of pooled results [37, 38]. In the case of congenital abnormalities,
277 the definition varies greatly – with large fluctuations in prevalence rates ranging from 1.4% [8] to 9.5%
278 [12]. In the separate studies, only one of the twelve studies reporting on congenital abnormalities
279 reported a higher prevalence in cancer survivors [18]. In that study, the unadjusted prevalence ratio was
280 1.21 (95% CI 1.03 – 1.40) but after adjustment for maternal age at birth of child, parity, sex of child and
281 birth decade of child, the adjusted prevalence ratio was 1.07 (95% CI 0.91 – 1.25). This study accounted

282 for 31.6% of weight in the meta-analysis. The apparent increased effect is therefore likely to be biased
283 (or paradoxical), introduced by a heterogeneous definition of congenital abnormalities resulting in large
284 variation in prevalence rates, and the absence of adjustment for possible confounders such as maternal
285 age, or genetic predisposition/hereditary disease.

286

287 **Strengths and limitations**

288 This systematic review offers an inclusive overview of relevant publications and meta-analyses of eleven
289 outcomes, which facilitate the interpretation of the summarized literature. A choice on relatively
290 frequently evaluated outcomes was made, perinatal risks such as cardiomyopathy following treatment
291 with anthracyclines [45], pregnancy induced hypertension [9, 46], diabetes mellitus or gravidarum [8, 9,
292 25] and others were therefore beyond the scope of this report. The main limitation is the heterogeneity
293 within the meta-analyses, possibly as a result of differences in types of diagnoses throughout the
294 studies. Due to the varied designs of the observational studies and lack of individual patient data,
295 systematic adjustment for confounders was not possible, so an over or underestimation of the relative
296 risks could have occurred. For congenital abnormalities, this is especially striking with a possible
297 example of the Simpson's paradox as a result. In addition, there was no uniformity in sub-analysis of
298 potential high-risk groups, such as women who had received radiotherapy to a field that included the
299 uterus. Some studies reported risks after any radiotherapy, some after only radiotherapy, some after
300 certain fields of radiotherapy. Nonetheless, these subgroups can be used as an approximation of high-
301 risk treatment groups and conclusions can be drawn where the observed risks are consistent.

302 The increasing numbers of cancer survivors as a result of better treatment protocols, and the increasing
303 possibilities for fertility preservation, will in the future allow more survivors to consider a pregnancy. In
304 the near future, more survivors who otherwise would not have had the possibility of reproduction, who
305 are likely to have been exposed to higher doses of chemotherapy and radiotherapy than those whose

306 fertility was not impaired, may become pregnant as a result of improving fertility preservation
307 techniques such as vitrification of oocytes and ovarian tissue cryopreservation [47-49]. Possible effects
308 of these fertility treatments have not been taken into account in these analyses, but the increase in
309 number of pregnancies in this at-risk population underline the importance of surveillance and
310 supervision of these pregnancies and deliveries.

311 **Conclusions**

312 This meta-analysis confirms that survivors of cancer are at increased risk of postpartum haemorrhage,
313 especially after abdominal radiotherapy, and of increased rates of elective and emergency caesarean
314 section. In addition, offspring of cancer survivors are at increased risk of prematurity and a low birth
315 weight, but not for being small for gestational age. Our results show a likely Simpson's paradox
316 regarding the risk of congenital abnormalities, with the true effect being no increased risk. The
317 magnitude of the perinatal risks warrants a proactive approach from health care providers.

318

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328

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330 The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

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445

446 **Figure legends:**

447

448 **Figure 1** PRISMA flowchart showing selection of studies.

449 **Figure 2** Pooled relative risk (RR) of premature delivery (<37 weeks of gestation; A), low birth weight
450 (<2,500 gram; B) and small for gestational age (<10th percentile; C) of cancer survivors as compared to
451 controls.

452 **Figure 3** Pooled relative risk (RR) of mode of delivery of cancer survivors as compared to controls.

453 **Figure 4** Pooled relative risk (RR) of antepartum (A) and postpartum haemorrhage (B) of cancer survivors
454 as compared to controls.

455 **Figure 5** Pooled relative risk (RR) of congenital abnormalities of cancer survivors as compared to
456 controls.

457 **Figure 6** Pooled relative risk (RR) of premature delivery and congenital abnormalities after treatment
458 with radiotherapy (A and B, respectively) of cancer survivors as compared to controls.

459 **Appendix D** Funnel plots of assessed outcomes. Outer dashed lines indicate the triangular region within
460 which 95% of studies are expected to lie in the absence of biases and heterogeneity. Vertical dotted
461 lines depict the estimate of the random effects model and vertical dashed lines depict the estimate of
462 the fixed effects model. RT = radiotherapy