



HHS Public Access

Author manuscript

Am J Obstet Gynecol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2022 August 08.

Published in final edited form as:

Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2020 July ; 223(1): 42–65.e2. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2019.12.266.

CERVICAL PESSARY TO PREVENT PRETERM BIRTH IN ASYMPTOMATIC HIGH-RISK WOMEN: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW AND META-ANALYSIS

Agustin CONDE-AGUDELO, MD, MPH, PhD^{1,2}, Roberto ROMERO, MD, DMedSci^{1,3,4,5,6,7}, Kypros H. NICOLAIDES, MD⁸

¹Perinatology Research Branch, Division of Obstetrics and Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Division of Intramural Research, Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, U. S. Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD and Detroit, MI, USA

²Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, MI, USA

³Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

⁴Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA

⁵Center for Molecular Medicine and Genetics, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA

⁶Detroit Medical Center, Detroit, MI, USA

⁷Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Florida International University, Miami, FL, USA

⁸Harris Birthright Research Centre for Fetal Medicine, King's College Hospital, London, UK

Abstract

OBJECTIVE: To evaluate the efficacy and safety of cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes in asymptomatic high-risk women.

DATA SOURCES: MEDLINE, EMBASE, POPLINE, CINAHL, and LILACS (from their inception to October 31, 2019), Cochrane databases, Google Scholar, bibliographies, and conference proceedings.

Corresponding author Dr. Roberto Romero, Perinatology Research Branch, Division of Obstetrics and Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Intramural Research Program, NICHD/NIH/DHHS, Hutzel Women's Hospital, Box # 4, 3990 John R, Detroit, MI 48201, Telephone: +1 313 993 2700, Fax: +1 313 993 2694, prbchiefstaff@med.wayne.edu.

Condensation: Cervical pessary does not prevent preterm birth or improve perinatal outcome in asymptomatic women with singleton or twin gestations at risk for preterm delivery

Disclosure: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

STUDY ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA: Randomized controlled trials that compared cervical pessary with standard care (no pessary) or alternative interventions in asymptomatic women at high risk for preterm birth.

STUDY APPRAISAL AND SYNTHESIS METHODS: The systematic review was conducted according to the Cochrane Handbook guidelines. The primary outcome was spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation. Secondary outcomes included adverse pregnancy, maternal and perinatal outcomes. Pooled relative risks (RRs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated. Quality of evidence was assessed using the GRADE methodology.

RESULTS: Twelve studies (4687 women and 7167 fetuses/infants) met the inclusion criteria: 8 evaluated pessary vs no pessary in women with a short cervix, 2 assessed pessary vs no pessary in unselected multiple gestations, and 2 compared pessary vs vaginal progesterone in women with a short cervix. There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation among singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm (RR 0.80, 95% CI 0.43–1.49; 6 trials, 1982 women; low-quality evidence), unselected twin gestations (RR 1.05, 95% CI 0.79–1.41; 1 trial, 1177 women; moderate-quality evidence), twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm (RR 0.75, 95% CI 0.41–1.36; 3 trials, 1128 women; low-quality evidence), and twin gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm (RR 0.72, 95% CI 0.25–2.06; 2 trials, 348 women; low-quality evidence). Overall, no significant differences were observed between the pessary and no pessary groups in preterm birth <37, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation, and most adverse pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes (low- to moderate-quality evidence for most outcomes). There were no significant differences in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation between pessary and vaginal progesterone in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm (RR 0.99, 95% CI 0.54–1.83; 1 trial, 246 women; low-quality evidence) and twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm (RR 0.73, 95% CI 0.46–1.18; 1 trial, 297 women; very low-quality evidence). Vaginal discharge was significantly more frequent in the pessary group than in the no pessary and vaginal progesterone groups (RRs ~2.20; high-quality evidence).

CONCLUSION: Current evidence does not support the use of cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth or improve perinatal outcomes in singleton or twin gestations with a short cervix and in unselected twin gestations.

Keywords

prematurity; preterm delivery; multiple gestation; twin gestation; short cervix; transvaginal ultrasound; cervical length; neonatal morbidity; neonatal mortality

INTRODUCTION

Complications of preterm birth are the leading cause of death among children younger than 5 years worldwide, accounting for approximately 18% of all deaths, and 35% of deaths among newborns.¹ In 2014, preterm birth affected 10.6% of livebirths globally, equating to about 14.84 million liveborn preterm neonates.² In the United States, the rate of preterm birth has been rising since 2014, and increased significantly from 9.93% in 2017 to 10.02% in 2018.³

Preterm neonates who survive are at greater risk of experiencing short-term complications such as respiratory distress syndrome (RDS), bronchopulmonary dysplasia, necrotizing enterocolitis, sepsis, intraventricular hemorrhage, periventricular leukomalacia, and retinopathy of prematurity, than neonates born at term.^{4–8} Furthermore, children born preterm have lower cognitive, motor, and academic performance scores, and are more likely to be diagnosed with cerebral palsy, visual and hearing impairments, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and behavioral problems than children born at term.^{9–15} Systematic reviews of observational studies and recent large longitudinal follow-up studies strongly suggest that preterm birth is associated with a significantly higher risk of developing chronic diseases in adulthood such as metabolic syndrome,¹⁶ diabetes,¹⁷ lung function impairment,¹⁸ venous thromboembolism,¹⁹ sleep-disordered breathing,²⁰ ischemic heart disease,^{16,21,22} and chronic kidney disease.²³

Importantly, in a recent nationwide cohort study of more than 4 million people, preterm birth was associated with a significantly increased mortality at all attained ages from birth to 45 years.²⁴ This outcome could not be attributed to sociodemographic factors, or shared genetic/environmental factors in families, but rather to the consequences of preterm birth.^{19,20,22–24}

The burden of preterm birth on health services and other sectors of the economy, for families and caregivers, and more broadly, for society, is substantial.^{4,25} Moreover, preterm birth has a major impact on the quality of life of parents and families.^{4,26}

Preterm labor is a syndrome^{27–33} associated with multiple etiologic processes such as infection/inflammation,^{34–44} vascular disorders,^{45,46} decidual senescence,^{47–51} uterine overdistention,^{52–55} decline in progesterone action,^{56–60} cervical disease,^{61–65} breakdown of maternal-fetal tolerance,^{66–68} premature activation of fetal immune system,^{67,69} and maternal stress,^{31,70,71} among others. Genetic and environmental factors contribute to each etiology of the preterm labor syndrome.^{72–79} A logical consequence of the complexity of the preterm labor syndrome is that there is not a single biomarker to identify the patient at risk, or a single intervention to prevent all, or even most cases.^{80,81}

In recent years, several interventions have been proposed for the prevention of preterm birth in asymptomatic high-risk women, including progestogens (17 α -alpha-hydroxyprogesterone caproate,^{82–99} vaginal progesterone,^{84,85,88,90–93,96,99–112} and oral progesterone^{99,113}), omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids supplementation,^{114–117} cervical cerclage,^{90,91,96,99,118–128} and cervical pessary.^{90,91,96,99,129–132} High-quality evidence indicates that vaginal progesterone is effective for preventing preterm birth and improving neonatal outcomes in asymptomatic women with a singleton gestation and a midtrimester sonographic short cervix, regardless of the history of spontaneous preterm birth, without any demonstrable deleterious effects on childhood neurodevelopment or maternal health.^{107,109} Cervical cerclage has been shown to be effective in reducing the risk of preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes in women with a singleton gestation, previous spontaneous preterm birth, and a midtrimester sonographic short cervix.¹¹⁸ The efficacy of the administration of 17 α -alpha-hydroxyprogesterone caproate, oral progesterone,

and omega-3 long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids to prevent preterm birth remains inconclusive.^{113,117,133}

Several systematic reviews regarding the efficacy of cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth in women at high risk have reported conflicting results;¹³⁴⁻¹⁴³ consequently, a thorough examination of the currently available evidence on the efficacy of this intervention is justified. We performed a systematic review and meta-analysis of aggregate data to evaluate the efficacy and safety of cervical pessary for the prevention of preterm birth and perinatal morbidity and mortality in asymptomatic high-risk women.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

This systematic review was conducted following the guidelines outlined in the last edition of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions¹⁴⁴ and reported in accordance with the PRISMA statement.¹⁴⁵ The study protocol was registered with PROSPERO, number CRD42019141531. Two of the authors (A.C.-A. and R.R.) independently retrieved and reviewed studies for eligibility and assessed their risk of bias. Any disagreements encountered in the review process were resolved through discussion between the two reviewers.

Search strategy

Identification of relevant articles was undertaken through searches in MEDLINE, EMBASE, POPLINE, LILACS, CINAHL, the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, clinical trial registries (all from their inception to October 31, 2019), and Google Scholar, using a combination of keywords and text words related to *cervical pessary* and *preterm birth*. We reviewed proceedings of congresses and scientific meetings on obstetrics, maternal-fetal medicine, and ultrasound in obstetrics, reference lists of retrieved articles, previously published systematic reviews, and review articles for any additional relevant studies. We also contacted investigators in the field to locate unpublished studies. There were no language restrictions.

Eligibility criteria

We included randomized controlled trials comparing cervical pessary with standard care (no pessary) or alternative interventions (such as vaginal progesterone or cervical cerclage) in asymptomatic women at high risk for preterm birth (such as those with a midtrimester sonographic short cervix, history of preterm birth, multiple gestation, and uterine anomalies or excisional cervical procedures) with the aim of preventing preterm birth and/or adverse perinatal outcomes. Trials were excluded if they: (1) were quasi-randomized; (2) assessed cervical pessary in women with arrested preterm labor or placenta previa; or (3) did not report clinical outcomes. Studies published only as abstracts were excluded if additional information on methodological issues and results could not be obtained. Trials with planned co-interventions were eligible for inclusion provided that the co-interventions were permitted equally in each trial arm.

Outcome measures

The prespecified primary outcome was spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation. Secondary outcomes included spontaneous preterm birth <37, <32 and <28 weeks of gestation, any preterm birth <37, <34, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation, mean gestational age at delivery, chorioamnionitis, preterm prelabor rupture of membranes (PPROM), vaginal discharge, vaginal infection, vaginal bleeding, pelvic discomfort, use of tocolytic agents, cesarean delivery, maternal death, fetal death, neonatal death, perinatal death, birthweight <1500 and <2500 g, Apgar score <7 at 5 minutes, RDS, necrotizing enterocolitis, intraventricular hemorrhage, neonatal sepsis, retinopathy of prematurity, bronchopulmonary dysplasia, periventricular leukomalacia, any composite adverse neonatal or perinatal outcome, admission to the neonatal intensive care unit (NICU), use of mechanical ventilation, and long-term neurodevelopmental and health outcomes in children.

Data extraction

Using a specially developed data extraction form, one investigator (A.C.-A.) extracted the relevant data from eligible studies, which were then verified independently by another investigator (R.R.). Information was extracted on study characteristics (randomization procedure, concealment allocation method, blinding of clinicians, women and outcome assessors, follow-up period, completeness of outcome data for each outcome, including attrition and exclusions from the analysis, and intention-to-treat analysis), participants (inclusion and exclusion criteria, number of women in randomized groups, baseline characteristics, and country and date of recruitment), details of intervention (type of cervical pessary, gestational age at trial entry, scheduled gestational age for pessary removal, frequency of and reasons for early pessary removal, interventions used in the control group, compliance, and use of co-interventions) and outcomes (definition of outcomes, number of outcome events and/or mean \pm SD for each outcome).

Risk of bias assessment

The risk of bias in each study was assessed through the use of the Version 2 of the Cochrane risk-of-bias tool for randomized trials (RoB 2),^{146,147} which considers the following domains: bias arising from the randomization process, bias due to deviations from intended interventions, bias due to missing outcome data, bias in measurement of the outcome, and bias in selection of the reported result. For each domain, the tool comprises a series of “signaling questions” aiming to elicit information about features of the trial that are relevant to risk of bias. Once the signaling questions were answered, the next step was to reach a risk-of-bias judgement and assign one of three levels to each domain: “low risk of bias”, “some concerns”, or “high risk of bias”. Finally, an overall risk of bias judgement was reached for each study as follows: “low risk of bias” (the study is judged to be at low risk of bias for all domains), “some concerns” (the study is judged to raise some concerns in at least one domain, but not to be at high risk of bias for any domain), and “high risk of bias” (the study is judged to be at high risk of bias in at least one domain or to have some concerns for multiple domains in a way that substantially lowers confidence in the result).

Data synthesis

The data synthesis was performed according to the guidelines of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions.¹⁴⁸ Outcomes were analyzed on an intent-to-treat basis. The denominator for pregnancy and maternal outcomes was the number of women, whereas for perinatal and child outcomes we used the number of fetuses/neonates and children, respectively. Analyses were undertaken separately for singleton gestations with a midtrimester sonographic cervical length ≥ 25 mm, unselected multiple gestations, twin gestations with a midtrimester sonographic cervical length <38 mm, and twin gestations with a midtrimester sonographic cervical length ≥ 25 mm.

A random-effects model was used to calculate the pooled relative risk (RR) for dichotomous outcomes and the mean difference for continuous outcomes with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs). We chose a random-effects model, anticipating heterogeneity between the results of the relevant studies. When the RR was statistically significant, we calculated the number needed to treat (NNT) with 95% CI for an additional beneficial outcome or an additional harmful outcome of cervical pessary.¹⁴⁹

For perinatal outcomes of multiple gestations, we estimated pooled RRs with 95% CIs assuming independence between fetuses/neonates by using data reported in the studies at the fetal/neonatal level. However, because of the potential of non-independence of outcomes in fetuses/neonates from multiple gestations, we also planned estimating pooled adjusted RRs with 95% CIs by using an estimate of the intracluster correlation coefficient (ICC) derived from the trial, or from similar trials, as recommended by the Cochrane Handbook.¹⁵⁰ Given that ICCs for perinatal outcomes were not reported in the included studies, we used those that had recently been estimated from randomized controlled trials in women with a twin gestation, which had similar aims and inclusion/exclusion criteria to those of trials included in our systematic review.¹⁵¹ We considered the adjusted RRs as the main estimates of the pessary's effect on perinatal outcomes in multiple gestations.

Heterogeneity of treatment effect was assessed with the I^2 statistic.¹⁵² In addition, forest plots were visually inspected for evidence of heterogeneity. If there was evidence of statistical heterogeneity ($I^2 \geq 30\%$), we planned to explore the possible sources using sensitivity and subgroup analyses, to search for evidence of bias or methodological differences among trials. We also addressed heterogeneity by calculating 95% prediction intervals for meta-analyses that contained at least three studies, which provide a predicted range for the true effect size in future studies.^{153–155}

In singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm, we performed subgroup analyses for the primary outcome according to concomitant use of vaginal progesterone (yes vs no), cervical length (< 10 mm vs 11–25 mm), and obstetric history (no previous preterm birth vs at least 1 previous preterm birth). In twin gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm, we performed a subgroup analysis according to cervical length (< 10 mm vs 11–25 mm). An interaction P value < 0.05 was considered to indicate that the effect of treatment did not differ significantly between subgroups.^{156–158} We also planned to assess publication and related biases if at least 10 studies were included in a meta-analysis; however, these analyses were not performed given the limited number of trials included in the review. Prespecified

sensitivity analyses to explore the impact of risk of bias on results were not performed because most trials were judged to be at low risk of bias.

Quality of evidence

The quality of evidence for primary and secondary outcomes was assessed using the GRADE approach, which takes into account five domains: risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and publication bias.¹⁵⁹ The GRADE approach categorizes the certainty of the evidence into four levels: (1) high: we are very confident that the true effect lies close to that of the estimate of the effect, and further research is unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of the effect; (2) moderate: we are moderately confident in the effect estimate, and the true effect is likely to be close to the estimate of the effect, but there is a possibility that it is substantially different; (3) low: our confidence in the effect estimate is limited, and the true effect may be substantially different from the estimate of the effect; and (4) very low: we have very little confidence in the effect estimate, and the true effect is likely to be substantially different from the estimate of effect.

Statistical analyses were performed using Review Manager (Version 5.3; The Nordic Cochrane Centre, Copenhagen, Denmark) and StatsDirect (Version 3.2.8; StatsDirect Ltd, Cheshire, United Kingdom). The quality of evidence was assessed using GRADEpro GDT (GRADEpro Guideline Development Tool [Software]; McMaster University, Hamilton, Canada).

RESULTS

Selection, characteristics and risk of bias of studies

Figure 1 summarizes the process of identification and selection of studies. Twelve studies,^{160–171} which included 4687 women and 7167 fetuses/infants, met the inclusion criteria: 8 evaluated pessary vs no pessary in women with a short cervix (6 in singleton gestations^{160–165} and 2 in twin gestations^{169,170}), 2 assessed pessary vs no pessary in unselected multiple gestations (1 in twin gestations¹⁶⁸ and another in both twin and triplet gestations¹⁶⁷), and 2 compared pessary vs vaginal progesterone in women with a short cervix (1 in singleton gestations¹⁶⁶ and another in twin gestations¹⁷¹). The study by Liem et al¹⁶⁷ did not report outcome data separately for twin and triplet gestations. Data on child neurodevelopmental outcomes for that trial were reported in two additional publications.^{172,173} We obtained additional unpublished data for the two largest trials in singleton¹⁶² and twin gestations.¹⁶⁸

The main characteristics of the studies included in the systematic review are shown in Table 1. Ten trials were specifically designed to evaluate the use of cervical pessary in women with a short cervix (defined as cervical length ≥ 25 mm,^{160,162–166,169} <25 mm,¹⁶¹ 30 mm,¹⁷⁰ and <38 mm¹⁷¹). The remaining two studies^{167,168} tested the effect of cervical pessary in women with unselected multiple gestations but also reported results for subgroups of women with a short cervix (defined as cervical length <38 mm¹⁶⁷ and ≥ 25 mm¹⁶⁸).

Cervical length at trial entry was measured in all women enrolled in the trial by Nicolaides et al,¹⁶⁸ and in 76.4% of women in the trial by Liem et al¹⁶⁷ (81.4% in the

pessary group vs 71.5% in the no pessary group, $P=0.0009$). The mean or median gestational age at trial entry was 23.5 weeks in one study,¹⁶² between 21–22 weeks in 8 studies,^{160,161,164–166,168–170} 19.6 weeks in one study,¹⁶³ and about 17.4 weeks in two studies.^{167,171} Among studies in singleton gestations, the mean or median cervical length at randomization was about 20 mm in six studies^{160–163,165,166} and 12 mm in the remaining study.¹⁶⁴ Among studies in multiple gestations, the mean or median cervical length at randomization was about 20 mm in two studies,^{169,170} about 32 mm in two studies,^{168,171} and 44 mm in one study.¹⁶⁷

Ten studies used the Arabin pessary^{160–164,166–169,171} and two the Bioteque cup pessary.^{165,170} Pessary removal was scheduled for 37 weeks of gestation in nine studies,^{160–166,168,169} and 36 weeks of gestation in the remaining three studies.^{167,170,171} The main indications for early pessary removal included preterm labor not responding to tocolytic therapy, active vaginal bleeding, PPRM, severe patient discomfort, and patient request (Supplemental Table 1). The frequency of pessary removal before schedule ranged from 0.5%¹⁶⁰ to 51.7%¹⁶⁵ in singleton gestations, and from 2.9%¹⁶⁹ to 69.6%¹⁷⁰ in multiple gestations (Supplemental Table 2).

Vaginal progesterone was concomitantly used in six of the 10 studies that compared pessary vs no pessary.^{162–165,168,170} The proportion of patients who received vaginal progesterone simultaneously with a pessary was 86% in three studies,^{163–165} 45.4% in one study,¹⁶² 6.5% in another,¹⁷⁰ and 0.2% in the remaining study.¹⁶⁸ The primary outcome was spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation in six trials,^{160,162,164,166,168,169} any preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation in three trials,^{161,170,171} any preterm birth <37 weeks of gestation in two trials,^{163,165} and a composite adverse perinatal outcome in one trial.¹⁶⁷

Among the 10 studies that compared pessary vs no pessary, seven (four in singleton gestations^{161–163,165} and three in multiple gestations^{167,168,170}) reported that there were no significant differences between the study groups in the risk of preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes. Two studies performed in singleton gestations with a short cervix showed that pessary use was associated with a significant decrease in the risk of preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes.^{160,164} The remaining study, performed in twin gestations with a short cervix, reported that pessary significantly reduced the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks but had no effect on neonatal morbidity and mortality.¹⁶⁹ The two trials that compared pessary and vaginal progesterone in singleton¹⁶⁶ and twin¹⁷¹ gestations with a short cervix did not report significant differences in the frequency of the primary outcome between the study groups.

Ten studies^{160–169} were deemed to be at low risk of bias for all domains of the RoB 2 tool (Figure 2). Two studies were judged as having “some concerns” in the domain of bias arising from the randomization process.^{170,171} In the study of Berghella et al,¹⁷⁰ there was an excess in statistically or marginally significant differences in baseline characteristics between intervention groups, whereas in the study by Dang et al¹⁷¹ there was imbalance in some key prognostic factors – this is unlikely to be due to chance. The between-group difference is large enough to result in bias in the intervention effect size estimate. The study by Dang et al¹⁷¹ was also considered to have “some concerns” in the domain of

bias in selection of the reported result because we detected serious discrepancies between the trial report and the protocol posted in clinicaltrials.gov,¹⁷⁴ which strongly suggest that a subgroup analysis according to cervical length was not prespecified but was conducted post-hoc.¹⁷⁵ In addition, it is implausible that no woman enrolled in this trial had a cervical length <18 mm, which suggests that there was a bias in the execution of this study. Overall, this trial was judged to be at high risk of bias.

Pessary vs no pessary in singleton gestations with a cervical length 25 mm

Six studies, with a total of 1982 women, compared pessary vs no pessary in singleton gestations with a cervical length 25 mm.^{160–165} The placement of a pessary was not associated with a significant reduction in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks (11.3% vs 15.0%; RR 0.80, 95% CI 0.43–1.49; $P=0.48$; $I^2=81\%$; low-quality evidence; 95% prediction interval of the RR, 0.13–5.00) (Figure 3). There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <37, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation, and any preterm birth <37, <34, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation (RRs from 0.71–1.21; low- to moderate-quality evidence for most outcomes) (Table 2). The mean gestational age at delivery did not significantly differ between the study groups (mean difference 0.87 weeks, 95% CI –0.52 to 2.26; $P=0.22$; 5 studies,^{1–5} 1864 women; $I^2=93\%$; low-quality evidence).

The use of pessary was associated with an increased risk of both vaginal discharge (RR 2.15, 95% CI 1.67–2.78; NNT for harm 3, 95% CI 2–3; 95% prediction interval of the RR, 1.04–4.45) and pelvic discomfort (RR 3.28, 95% CI 1.96–5.50; NNT for harm 16, 95% CI 11–26; 95% prediction interval of the RR, 1.96–5.49) (high-quality evidence for both outcomes). One study,¹⁶⁰ reported that pessary significantly reduced the frequency of tocolytic agents use (RR 0.63, 95% CI 0.50–0.81; NNT for benefit 5, 95% CI 3–10; moderate-quality evidence). There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in other pregnancy and maternal outcomes, as well as in adverse perinatal outcomes (low-quality evidence for most outcomes).

Subgroup analyses of the effect of pessary on spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks among singleton gestations with a cervical length 25 mm according to prespecified variables are presented in Table 3. Overall, there was no evidence of a different effect related to concomitant use of vaginal progesterone (P for interaction=0.70), history of preterm birth (P for interaction=0.24), and cervical length (P for interaction=0.68). The frequency of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks was comparable in women who received a pessary plus vaginal progesterone and those who received only vaginal progesterone (15.2% vs 16.1%; RR 0.91, 95% CI 0.47–1.76). In addition, pessary was associated with a non-significant reduction in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation in women with at least 1 previous preterm birth (RR 0.53, 95% CI 0.23–1.20) and women with a cervical length 10 mm (RR 0.58, 95% CI 0.10–3.23).

Pessary vs no pessary in unselected multiple gestations

Two studies (1985 women and 3988 fetuses/infants) evaluated pessary vs no pessary in unselected multiple gestations: one in twin gestations (1177 women and 2354 fetuses/

infants)¹⁶⁸ and the other in both twin (790 women and 1580 fetuses/infants) and triplet (18 women and 54 fetuses/infants) gestations.¹⁶⁷ The frequencies of spontaneous preterm birth and any preterm birth <34, <37, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation did not significantly differ between the study groups (most RRs from 0.92–1.07; high-quality evidence for preterm birth <37 weeks, moderate-quality evidence for preterm birth <34 and <32 weeks, and low- to moderate-quality evidence for preterm birth <28 weeks) (Table 4).

The risk of both vaginal discharge (RR 2.96, 95% CI 2.46–3.57; NNT for harm 4, 95% CI 4–5) and cesarean delivery (RR 1.13, 95% CI 1.06–1.21; NNT for harm 13, 95% CI 8–29) was significantly higher in the pessary group than in the no pessary group (high-quality evidence for both outcomes). There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in adverse perinatal outcomes (moderate-quality evidence for most outcomes).

Pessary vs no pessary in twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm

Four studies (1261 women and 2524 fetuses/infants) provided data for this comparison: Liem et al¹⁶⁷ (133 women [131 with a twin gestation and 2 with a triplet gestation] with a cervical length <38 mm and 268 fetuses/infants); Nicolaidis et al¹⁶⁸ (948 women with a cervical length <38 mm and 1896 fetuses/infants); Goya et al¹⁶⁹ (134 women with a cervical length 25 mm and 268 fetuses/infants); and Berghella et al¹⁷⁰ (46 women with a cervical length 30 mm and 92 fetuses/infants).

For the purpose of this meta-analysis, the two triplet gestations (1 each in the pessary and no pessary groups) in the study by Liem et al¹⁶⁷ were considered as twin gestations. There was no significant difference between the pessary and no pessary groups in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks (RR 0.75, 95% CI 0.41–1.36; $I^2=69%$; low-quality evidence; 95% prediction interval of the RR, 0.11–5.37). No significant differences were observed between the two study groups in mean gestational age at delivery and frequencies of preterm birth <37, <34, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation (low- to moderate-quality evidence for most outcomes).

The placement of a pessary was associated with a significant reduction in the use of tocolytic agents (RR 0.69, 95% CI 0.49–0.98; NNT for benefit 8, 95% CI 4–59), and a significant increase in the risk of vaginal discharge (RR 1.93, 95% CI 1.66–2.23; NNT for harm 4, 95% CI 3–5; 95% prediction interval of the RR, 1.67–2.24) (high-quality evidence for both outcomes). There were no significant differences between the study groups in other adverse pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes (low- to moderate-quality evidence for most outcomes).

Pessary vs no pessary in twin gestations with a cervical length 25 mm

Two studies (348 women and 696 fetuses/infants) reported data for this comparison: Nicolaidis et al¹⁶⁸ (214 women and 428 fetuses/infants); and Goya et al¹⁶⁹ (134 women and 268 fetuses/infants). There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth and any preterm birth <34, <37, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation, adverse pregnancy and perinatal outcomes, and most adverse maternal outcomes (low-quality evidence for most outcomes).

Both vaginal discharge (RR 1.86, 95% CI 1.51–2.28; NNT for harm 3, 95% CI 2–5; high-quality evidence) and vaginal infection (RR 1.96, 95% CI 1.01–3.79; NNT for harm 8, 95% CI 4–147; moderate-quality evidence) were significantly more frequent in the pessary group than in the no pessary group. A subgroup analysis performed with data from 1 study¹⁶⁸ showed that the effect of pessary on spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation did not significantly differ between women with a cervical length ≤ 10 mm (RR 0.92, 95% CI 0.53–1.57) and those with a cervical length between 11–25 mm (RR 1.29, 95% CI 0.77–2.16) (P for interaction=0.37).

Pessary vs vaginal progesterone in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm

A randomized, non-inferiority trial at low risk of bias compared the efficacy of pessary and vaginal progesterone (200 mg/day) in 254 women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm at 19–22 weeks of gestation.¹⁶⁶ The frequency of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks was very similar in the pessary and vaginal progesterone groups (14.2% vs 14.3; RR 0.99, 95% CI 0.54–1.83; low-quality evidence).

Pessary was not non-inferior to vaginal progesterone because the range of risk difference (–8.9% to 8.6%) fell outside the predefined margin (4%). There were no significant differences between the study groups in spontaneous preterm birth <37 weeks (RR 1.02, 95% CI 0.63–1.65) and <28 weeks (RR 1.05, 95% CI 0.44–2.49), perinatal death (RR 1.89, 95% CI 0.48–7.38), and composite adverse neonatal outcome (RR 1.13, 95% CI 0.66–1.94) (low-quality evidence for all). The risks of vaginal discharge (RR 1.22, 95% CI 1.07–1.40) and vaginal discomfort (RR 8.02, 95% CI 2.94–21.92) were significantly higher in the pessary group than in the vaginal progesterone group (high-quality evidence for both).

Pessary vs vaginal progesterone in twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm

A trial at high risk of bias evaluated the efficacy and safety of pessary vs vaginal progesterone (400 mg/day) in 300 women with a twin gestation and a cervical length <38 mm at 16–22 weeks of gestation.¹⁷¹ In that trial, no woman had a cervical length <18 mm, and 94% of women conceived after fertilization in vitro, which compromises its external validity. There was no significant difference between the pessary and vaginal progesterone groups in the risk of the primary outcome of preterm birth <34 weeks (16.2% vs 22.1%; RR 0.73, 95% CI 0.46–1.18; very low-quality evidence). The use of pessary significantly reduced the risk of preterm birth <37 weeks (RR 0.81, 95% CI 0.66–0.99), birthweight <2500 g (RR 0.80, 95% CI 0.69–0.92), composite adverse perinatal outcome (RR 0.70, 95% CI 0.43–0.93), RDS (RR 0.63, 95% CI 0.37–0.94), neonatal sepsis (RR 0.52, 95% CI 0.27–0.90), and admission to the NICU (RR 0.59, 95% CI 0.35–0.82) (low-quality evidence for all). The risk of vaginal discharge was significantly higher in the pessary group than in the vaginal progesterone group (RR 2.91, 95% CI 2.15–3.94; low-quality evidence).

In a subgroup analysis among women with a cervical length between 18 and 28 mm (N=82), which appears to be post-hoc, pessary was associated with a significant decrease in the risk of preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation (RR, 0.47, 95% CI 0.24–0.90) and several adverse neonatal outcomes.

Effect of pessary on long-term neurodevelopmental and health outcomes

Thus far, only 1 study has evaluated the effects of pessary on infants' long-term neurodevelopmental and health outcomes.¹⁶⁷ In 2019, a follow-up study of the trial that compared pessary and no pessary in unselected multiple gestations¹⁶⁷ reported the long-term neurodevelopmental and health outcomes of 514 surviving infants at 4 years of age (32.9% of surviving infants at the end of trial).¹⁷³ There were no significant between-group differences in the risk of developmental delay (odds ratio [OR] 1.54, 95% CI 0.83–2.85), behavioral problems (OR 1.37, 95% CI 0.66–2.82), and physical problems (OR 1.28, 95% CI 0.57–2.91). The frequency of an abnormal childhood outcome (a composite of the 3 above outcomes) was 22.8% in the pessary group vs 15.9% in the no pessary group (OR 1.58, 95% CI 0.94–2.65). There were also no significant differences in these outcome measures between the pessary (N=85) and no pessary (N=34) groups in the subgroup of children whose mothers had a cervical length <38 mm.

Previously, another follow-up study¹⁷² from the same trial¹⁶⁷ reported that, among 173 surviving children born to mothers with a cervical length <38 mm, the frequency of neurodevelopmental disability at 3 years of corrected age did not differ significantly between the study groups (OR 1.43, 95% CI 0.38–5.40).

COMMENT

Principal findings of the study

The pooled evidence of this systematic review shows that, to date, (1) cervical pessary is not an effective intervention for reducing preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes in asymptomatic women with a singleton or twin gestation and a midtrimester sonographic cervical length ≥ 25 mm, a twin gestation and a midtrimester sonographic cervical length <38 mm, or unselected twin gestations; (2) among women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm who receive vaginal progesterone, there is no added benefit of placing a cervical pessary; (3) there is insufficient evidence to determine whether cervical pessary is at least as effective as vaginal progesterone in preventing preterm birth and improving perinatal outcomes in women with a singleton or twin gestation and a sonographic short cervix in the midtrimester; (4) cervical pessary appears to be safe for women although it increases the frequency of vaginal discharge; and (5) at least until 4 years of age, there are no significant differences in neurodevelopmental and health outcomes between children born to mothers who received a pessary and those born to mothers who did not receive a pessary.

There was substantial between-trial heterogeneity in about one-half of the meta-analyses performed in the population of women with a singleton or twin gestation and a short cervix. If heterogeneity is identified among a group of trials considered suitable for meta-analysis, one of the available options is to not do the meta-analysis.¹⁴⁸ Nevertheless, we agree with the view that any degree of statistical heterogeneity would be acceptable,¹⁷⁶ and we considered that, even in the presence of substantial heterogeneity, an estimate of the average effect of cervical pessary across studies and the statistical significance of this effect would be worth reporting to clinicians. Then, despite the small number of trials included in the

meta-analyses, we explored the sources of heterogeneity as thoroughly as possible and were unable to identify plausible explanations. We used random effects models to incorporate heterogeneity among studies that cannot readily be explained by other factors. This approach provides the most useful and conservative estimate for informing practice in the presence of unexplained heterogeneity. In addition, we also calculated 95% prediction intervals as an alternative way of expressing the amount of heterogeneity in a meta-analysis.

Explaining conflicting results among trials that compared pessary vs no pessary

Several reasons have been proposed to explain the conflicting results among trials comparing pessary vs no pessary.^{136,138,177–179} First, a high frequency of early pessary removal could explain the negative results of some trials and vice versa. This explanation would not apply to the study by Liem et al,¹⁶⁷ which showed beneficial effects of pessary in the subgroup of women with a cervical length <38 mm despite a high frequency of early pessary removal before 32 weeks of gestation in the overall population (19.7%). It would also not apply to the study by Hui et al¹⁶¹ in which pessary had no beneficial effects despite a low frequency of early pessary removal (3.8%). Second, unsupervised training with inadequate placement of the pessary could explain the negative results of some trials. This explanation would not apply to the trial by Liem et al¹⁶⁷ because no specific training about placement of the pessary was provided, and there was a beneficial effect of this intervention in the subgroup of women with a cervical length <38 mm. On the other hand, the trials by Dugoff et al¹⁶⁵ and Berghella et al¹⁷⁰ reported negative results despite pessary insertion training that consisted of a didactic session and a hands-on session, and all staff were required to demonstrate competence in pessary placement on a live model. Finally, it has been repeatedly claimed that pessaries have the advantage that they are operator-independent, non-invasive, and easy to place and remove when required.^{129–131,138,160,164,167,169}

Third, the concomitant administration of vaginal progesterone to participants could have attenuated benefits from the pessary. The subgroup analysis according to concomitant administration of vaginal progesterone in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm suggested that the response to pessary did not significantly differ between women who received vaginal progesterone and those who did not (P for interaction=0.70). Nevertheless, this point of view could be feasible, since pessary was associated with a 30% non-significant reduction in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation among women who did not concomitantly receive vaginal progesterone, whereas the reduction was only 9% among women who concomitantly received vaginal progesterone (Table 3). Fourth, suboptimal serial cervical length monitoring at follow-up to detect cervical shortening could account for negative results in some trials. This explanation would not apply to the trials by Nicolaides et al,^{162,168} Hui et al,¹⁶¹ and Karbasian et al,¹⁶³ which reported negative results even though cervical length was routinely measured every 4 weeks until 34 weeks of gestation. Finally, it has been suggested that a pessary might be beneficial when placed earlier in pregnancy. This explanation would not apply to the studies by Goya et al,^{160,169} and Saccone et al¹⁶⁴ in which pessary was placed at a mean gestational age of ~22.3 weeks and had beneficial effects.

Cervical pessary plus vaginal progesterone vs vaginal progesterone alone in women with a short cervix

Based on results from some non-randomized studies, it has been suggested that the combined use of cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone could be superior to vaginal progesterone alone for the prevention of preterm birth in asymptomatic women with a singleton or twin gestation and a short cervix.^{180–182} By contrast, in the present meta-analysis, a prespecified subgroup analysis including a total of 825 women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm, showed only a slight difference in the frequency of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation between women who concomitantly used cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone and those who used only vaginal progesterone (15.2% vs 16.1%; $P=0.78$). Remarkably, the frequency of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation in women who received only vaginal progesterone was very similar to that observed in women who received vaginal progesterone (15%) in the individual patient data meta-analysis by Romero et al¹⁰⁷ that compared vaginal progesterone vs placebo in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm. In addition, the trial by Karbasian et al,¹⁶³ which was specifically designed to compare the combined use of cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone vs vaginal progesterone alone in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm, did not find any significant differences in the risk of preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes between the study groups. In summary, thus far, the combined use of cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone is not superior to using vaginal progesterone alone for preventing preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes in patients with a singleton gestation and a short cervix.

Quality of evidence

Overall, the quality of evidence according to the GRADE methodology was judged as moderate to low for most outcomes, which means that our confidence in the effect estimate is moderate at best and the true effect may be different from the estimate of the effect. Thereby, further research may change the effect estimates, which is supported by the wide 95% prediction intervals of the RRs for the primary outcome in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm (0.13 to 5.00) and twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm (0.11 to 5.37). However, it should be noted that the prediction interval can be imprecise if the number of studies in the meta-analysis is small.¹⁵⁵

Strengths and limitations

The reliability and robustness of our systematic review are supported by (1) the rigorous methodology used in its conduction and the strict adherence to the guidelines included in the new edition of the Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions;¹⁴⁴ (2) the risk of bias assessment of trials included in the review, which was based on the updated RoB 2 tool;^{146,147} (3) the exploration of potential sources of heterogeneity; (4) the calculation of 95% prediction intervals that estimate where the true effects are to be expected for similar ongoing or planned trials; (5) the performance of subgroup analyses in an attempt to identify specific groups of women in whom pessary could be beneficial; (6) the assessment of the potential effect of the use of concomitant co-interventions, such as vaginal progesterone, on the efficacy of cervical pessary; (7) the assessment of the efficacy of cervical pessary in 4

groups of asymptomatic women considered at high risk for preterm birth; (8) the inclusion of additional unpublished data from the two largest trials; and (9) the overall low risk of bias of most trials included in the review.

Our review is subject to some potential limitations: (1) as previously discussed, we were unable to provide explanations for the substantial statistical heterogeneity found in several of the meta-analyses performed; (2) only a few trials reported data for the prespecified subgroup analyses according to cervical length and obstetric history. As a result, our analysis has limitations in its power to estimate the effects of cervical pessary within these subgroups; (3) the number of trials that compared cervical pessary vs vaginal progesterone in patients with a short cervix is still small for us to draw definitive conclusions; (4) several trials did not report results for some outcome measures that were assessed in our systematic review. It is possible that, if these results were reported more consistently, the effect sizes might be somewhat different; (5) the performance of multiple analyses could increase the risk of type I error in our systematic review. However, the likelihood of type I errors in our meta-analyses is low because we found only a few statistically significant results, most of which appear to be real differences between the pessary and no pessary groups; and (6) a considerable number of results were based on a single study and some secondary outcomes had a limited statistical power.

Recently, the main results of the STOPPIT-2 trial were published in abstract form.¹⁸³ In this study, women with a twin gestation and a midtrimester cervical length ≥ 35 mm were randomized either to Arabin pessary (N=250) or to standard care (no pessary) (N=253). There were no significant differences between the pessary and no pessary groups in the frequency of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation (18.4% vs 20.6%, $P=0.54$) and a composite of adverse perinatal outcomes (11.5% vs 12.7%, $P=0.48$). The inclusion of the results of this trial in the meta-analyses on the effect of pessary in twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm reaffirms our conclusion that this intervention is not effective for reducing spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks (pooled RR 0.81, 95% CI 0.57–1.15) and adverse perinatal outcomes (pooled adjusted RR 0.92, 95% CI 0.64–1.32) in this high-risk population.

Implications for practice and research

Current evidence does not support the use of cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth or improve perinatal outcomes in singleton or twin gestations with a short cervix and in unselected twin gestations. In addition, among patients with a singleton gestation and a short cervix who receive vaginal progesterone, a cervical pessary should not be placed given that the device does not offer any additional benefits over administration of vaginal progesterone alone in reducing preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes.

Further research is required before conclusive advice can be provided regarding the benefits of placing a cervical pessary in women at high risk for preterm birth. We identified 22 planned, ongoing, or completed trials of pessary placement for the prevention of preterm birth in asymptomatic high-risk women in the main clinical trial registry databases. The results of these trials could significantly change the results of our review because the quality level of the summary estimates was moderate to low as assessed by GRADE.

Moreover, these trials will provide information as to whether cervical pessary is effective for preventing preterm birth in women with a singleton gestation and a short cervix who do not concomitantly use vaginal progesterone, or in the subgroups of women with a singleton gestation, short cervix, and at least 1 previous preterm birth or a cervical length ≥ 10 mm.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

We are very grateful to Ms. Argyro Syngelaki (MS, RM, PhD) from the Harris Birthright Research Centre for Fetal Medicine, King's College Hospital, London, UK for providing the individual data for the patients who participated in the two largest randomized controlled trials that assessed cervical pessary in singleton and twin gestations.^{162,168} Ms. Argyro Syngelaki has no conflict of interest in relation with our systematic review and meta-analysis.

Financial support:

This research was supported, in part, by the Perinatology Research Branch, Division of Obstetrics and Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Division of Intramural Research, *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (NICHD/NIH/DHHS); and, in part, with Federal funds from NICHD/NIH/DHHS under Contract No. HHSN275201300006C.

Dr. Romero has contributed to this work as part of his official duties as an employee of the United States Federal Government.

Role of the funding source:

The funder had no role in the design or conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis or interpretation of the data; preparation, review or approval of the manuscript or the decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

REFERENCES

1. United Nations Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation (UN IGME), 'Levels & Trends in Child Mortality: Report 2019, Estimates developed by the United Nations Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation', United Nations Children's Fund, New York, 2019.
2. Chawanpaiboon S, Vogel JP, Moller AB, et al. Global, regional, and national estimates of levels of preterm birth in 2014: a systematic review and modelling analysis. *Lancet Glob Health* 2019;7:e37–e46. [PubMed: 30389451]
3. Martin JA, Hamilton BE, Osterman MJK. Births in the United States, 2018. *NCHS Data Brief* 2019;(346):1–8.
4. Institute of Medicine Committee on Understanding Premature Birth and Assuring Healthy Outcomes. The National Academies Collection: reports funded by National Institutes of Health. In: Behrman RE, Butler AS, eds. *Preterm birth: causes, consequences, and prevention*. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US), National Academy of Sciences; 2007.
5. Stoll BJ, Hansen NI, Bell EF, et al. Trends in Care Practices, Morbidity, and Mortality of Extremely Preterm Neonates, 1993–2012. *JAMA* 2015;314:1039–51. [PubMed: 26348753]
6. Manuck TA, Rice MM, Bailit JL, et al. Preterm neonatal morbidity and mortality by gestational age: a contemporary cohort. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;215:103.e1–103.e14.
7. Catov JM, Scifres CM, Caritis SN, Bertolet M, Larkin J, Parks WT. Neonatal outcomes following preterm birth classified according to placental features. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:411.e1–411.e14.
8. Lynch AM, Wagner BD, Hodges JK, Thevarajah TS, McCourt EA, Cerda AM, Mandava N, Gibbs RS, Palestine AG. The relationship of the subtypes of preterm birth with retinopathy of prematurity. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:354.e1–354.e8.

9. Moster D, Lie RT, Markestad T. Long-term medical and social consequences of preterm birth. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:262–73. [PubMed: 18635431]
10. Saigal S, Doyle LW. An overview of mortality and sequelae of preterm birth from infancy to adulthood. *Lancet* 2008;371:261–9. [PubMed: 18207020]
11. Serati M, Barkin JL, Orsenigo G, Altamura AC, Buoli M. Research Review: The role of obstetric and neonatal complications in childhood attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder - a systematic review. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 2017;58:1290–1300. [PubMed: 28714195]
12. Paules C, Pueyo V, Martí E, et al. Threatened preterm labor is a risk factor for impaired cognitive development in early childhood. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:157.e1–157.e7.
13. Allotey J, Zamora J, Cheong-See F, et al. Cognitive, motor, behavioural and academic performances of children born preterm: a meta-analysis and systematic review involving 64 061 children. *BJOG* 2018;125:16–25. [PubMed: 29024294]
14. Heuvelman H, Abel K, Wicks S, et al. Gestational age at birth and risk of intellectual disability without a common genetic cause. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2018;33:667–78. [PubMed: 29214412]
15. Smith DD, Sagaram D, Miller R, Gyamfi-Bannerman C. Risk of cerebral palsy by gestational age among pregnancies at-risk for preterm birth. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2018 Nov 28;1–5. doi: 10.1080/14767058.2018.1536745. [Epub ahead of print].
16. Markopoulou P, Papanikolaou E, Analytis A, Zoumakis E, Siahianidou T. Preterm Birth as a risk factor for metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease in adult life: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Pediatr* 2019;210:69–80.e5. [PubMed: 30992219]
17. Li S, Zhang M, Tian H, Liu Z, Yin X, Xi B. Preterm birth and risk of type 1 and type 2 diabetes: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obes Rev* 2014;15:804–11. [PubMed: 25073871]
18. Näsänen-Gilmore P, Sipola-Leppänen M, Tikanmäki M, et al. Lung function in adults born preterm. *PLoS One* 2018;13:e0205979.
19. Zöller B, Li X, Sundquist J, Sundquist K, Crump C. Gestational age and risk of venous thromboembolism from birth through young adulthood. *Pediatrics* 2014;134:e473–80. [PubMed: 25070308]
20. Crump C, Friberg D, Li X, Sundquist J, Sundquist K. Preterm birth and risk of sleep-disordered breathing from childhood into mid-adulthood. *Int J Epidemiol* 2019 Apr 21. pii: dyz075. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyz075. [Epub ahead of print].
21. Robbins CL, Hutchings Y, Dietz PM, Kuklina EV, Callaghan WM. History of preterm birth and subsequent cardiovascular disease: a systematic review. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2014;210:285–97. [PubMed: 24055578]
22. Crump C, Howell EA, Stroustrup A, McLaughlin MA, Sundquist J, Sundquist K. Association of preterm birth with risk of ischemic heart disease in adulthood. *JAMA Pediatr* 2019 Jun 3. doi: 10.1001/jamapediatrics.2019.1327. [Epub ahead of print].
23. Crump C, Sundquist J, Winkleby MA, Sundquist K. Preterm birth and risk of chronic kidney disease from childhood into mid-adulthood: national cohort study. *BMJ* 2019;365:11346. [PubMed: 31043374]
24. Crump C, Sundquist J, Winkleby MA, Sundquist K. Gestational age at birth and mortality from infancy into mid-adulthood: a national cohort study. *Lancet Child Adolesc Health* 2019;3:408–17. [PubMed: 30956154]
25. Petrou S, Yiu HH, Kwon J. Economic consequences of preterm birth: a systematic review of the recent literature (2009–2017). *Arch Dis Child* 2019;104:456–65. [PubMed: 30413489]
26. Amorim M, Silva S, Kelly-Irving M, Alves E. Quality of life among parents of preterm infants: a scoping review. *Qual Life Res* 2018;27:1119–31. [PubMed: 29248997]
27. Romero R, Mazor M, Munoz H, Gomez R, Galasso M, Sherer DM. The preterm labor syndrome. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1994;734:414–29. [PubMed: 7978942]
28. Romero R, Espinoza J, Kusanovic JP, et al. The preterm parturition syndrome. *BJOG* 2006;113(Suppl):17–42.
29. Romero R, Dey SK, Fisher SJ. Preterm labor: one syndrome, many causes. *Science* 2014;345:760–5. [PubMed: 25124429]
30. Esplin MS. Overview of spontaneous preterm birth: a complex and multifactorial phenotype. *Clin Obstet Gynecol* 2014;57:518–30. [PubMed: 25022996]

31. Esplin MS, Manuck TA, Varner MW, et al. Cluster analysis of spontaneous preterm birth phenotypes identifies potential associations among preterm birth mechanisms. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2015;213:429.e1–9.
32. Villar J, Papageorghiou AT, Knight HE, et al. The preterm birth syndrome: a prototype phenotypic classification. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2012;206:119–23. [PubMed: 22177191]
33. Goldenberg RL, Gravett MG, Iams J, et al. The preterm birth syndrome: issues to consider in creating a classification system. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2012;206:113–8. [PubMed: 22177186]
34. Romero R, Espinoza J, Gonçalves LF, Kusanovic JP, Friel L, Hassan S. The role of inflammation and infection in preterm birth. *Semin Reprod Med* 2007;25:21–39. [PubMed: 17205421]
35. Khan RN, Hay DP. A clear and present danger: inflammasomes DAMPING down disorders of pregnancy. *Hum Reprod Update* 2015;21:388–405. [PubMed: 25403436]
36. Oh KJ, Kim SM, Hong JS, et al. Twenty-four percent of patients with clinical chorioamnionitis in preterm gestations have no evidence of either culture-proven intraamniotic infection or intraamniotic inflammation. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:604.e1–604.e11. [PubMed: 28257964]
37. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. A role for the inflammasome in spontaneous preterm labor with acute histologic chorioamnionitis. *Reprod Sci* 2017;24:1382–1401. [PubMed: 28122480]
38. Stout MJ, Zhou Y, Wylie KM, Tarr PI, Macones GA, Tuuli MG. Early pregnancy vaginal microbiome trends and preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:356.e1–356.e18.
39. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Are amniotic fluid neutrophils in women with intraamniotic infection and/or inflammation of fetal or maternal origin? *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:693.e1–693.e16.
40. Xu Y, Romero R, Miller D, et al. Innate lymphoid cells at the human maternal-fetal interface in spontaneous preterm labor. *Am J Reprod Immunol* 2018;79:e12820. [PubMed: 29457302]
41. Gilman-Sachs A, Dambaeva S, Salazar Garcia MD, Hussein Y, Kwak-Kim J, Beaman K. Inflammation induced preterm labor and birth. *J Reprod Immunol* 2018;129:53–8. [PubMed: 30025845]
42. Wylie KM, Wylie TN, Cahill AG, Macones GA, Tuuli MG, Stout MJ. The vaginal eukaryotic DNA virome and preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:189.e1–189.e12.
43. Keelan JA. Intrauterine inflammatory activation, functional progesterone withdrawal, and the timing of term and preterm birth. *J Reprod Immunol* 2018;125:89–99. [PubMed: 29329080]
44. Yoon BH, Romero R, Park JY, et al. Antibiotic administration can eradicate intra-amniotic infection or intra-amniotic inflammation in a subset of patients with preterm labor and intact membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;221:142.e1–142.e22.
45. Conroy AL, McDonald CR, Gamble JL, et al. Altered angiogenesis as a common mechanism underlying preterm birth, small for gestational age, and stillbirth in women living with HIV. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:684.e1–684.e17.
46. Brosens I, Muter J, Gargett CE, Puttemans P, Benagiano G, Brosens JJ. The impact of uterine immaturity on obstetrical syndromes during adolescence. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:546–55. [PubMed: 28578177]
47. Cha JM, Aronoff DM. A role for cellular senescence in birth timing. *Cell Cycle* 2017;16:2023–31. [PubMed: 28873006]
48. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Plazyo O, et al. Preterm labor in the absence of acute histologic chorioamnionitis is characterized by cellular senescence of the chorioamniotic membranes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:592.e1–592.e17.
49. Sultana Z, Maiti K, Dedman L, Smith R. Is there a role for placental senescence in the genesis of obstetric complications and fetal growth restriction? *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:S762–S773. [PubMed: 29275823]
50. Menon R. Initiation of human parturition: signaling from senescent fetal tissues via extracellular vesicle mediated paracrine mechanism. *Obstet Gynecol Sci* 2019;62:199–211. [PubMed: 31338337]
51. Slutsky R, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Exhausted and senescent T cells at the maternal-fetal interface in preterm and term labor. *J Immunol Res* 2019;2019:3128010.

52. Stock S, Norman J. Preterm and term labour in multiple pregnancies. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med* 2010;15:336–41. [PubMed: 20643592]
53. Adams Waldorf KM, Singh N, Mohan AR, et al. Uterine overdistention induces preterm labor mediated by inflammation: observations in pregnant women and nonhuman primates. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2015;213:830.e1–830.e19.
54. Girault A, Le Ray C, Chapron C, Goffinet F, Marcellin L. Leiomyomatous uterus and preterm birth: an exposed/unexposed monocentric cohort study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:410.e1–410.e7.
55. SMFM Research Committee, Grantz KL, Kawakita T, Lu YL, Newman R, Berghella V, Caughey A. SMFM Special Statement: State of the science on multifetal gestations: unique considerations and importance. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;221:B2–B12.
56. Williams KC, Renthall NE, Condon JC, Gerard RD, Mendelson CR. MicroRNA-200a serves a key role in the decline of progesterone receptor function leading to term and preterm labor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2012;109:7529–34. [PubMed: 22529366]
57. Nold C, Maubert M, Anton L, Yellon S, Elovitz MA. Prevention of preterm birth by progestational agents: what are the molecular mechanisms? *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013;208:223.e1–7. [PubMed: 2343326]
58. Yellon SM, Dobyns AE, Beck HL, Kurtzman JT, Garfield RE, Kirby MA. Loss of progesterone receptor-mediated actions induce preterm cellular and structural remodeling of the cervix and premature birth. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e81340.
59. Kirby MA, Heuerman AC, Custer M, et al. Progesterone Receptor-Mediated Actions Regulate Remodeling of the Cervix in Preparation for Preterm Parturition. *Reprod Sci* 2016;23:1473–83. [PubMed: 27233754]
60. Mendelson CR, Montalbano AP, Gao L. Fetal-to-maternal signaling in the timing of birth. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 2017;170:19–27. [PubMed: 27629593]
61. Iams JD, Goldenberg RL, Meis PJ, et al. The length of the cervix and the risk of spontaneous premature delivery. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Maternal Fetal Medicine Unit Network. *N Engl J Med* 1996;334:567–72. [PubMed: 8569824]
62. Myers KM, Feltovich H, Mazza E, et al. The mechanical role of the cervix in pregnancy. *J Biomech* 2015;48:1511–23. [PubMed: 25841293]
63. Vink JY, Qin S, Brock CO, et al. A new paradigm for the role of smooth muscle cells in the human cervix. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;215:478.e1–478.e11.
64. Vink J, Mourad M. The pathophysiology of human premature cervical remodeling resulting in spontaneous preterm birth: Where are we now? *Semin Perinatol* 2017;41:427–37. [PubMed: 28826790]
65. Hernandez-Andrade E, Maymon E, Luewan S, et al. A soft cervix, categorized by shear-wave elastography, in women with short or with normal cervical length at 18–24 weeks is associated with a higher prevalence of spontaneous preterm delivery. *J Perinat Med* 2018;46:489–501. [PubMed: 29813033]
66. Mor G, Kwon JY. Trophoblast-microbiome interaction: a new paradigm on immune regulation. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2015;213(4 Suppl):S131–7. [PubMed: 26428492]
67. Frascoli M, Coniglio L, Witt R, et al. Alloreactive fetal T cells promote uterine contractility in preterm labor via IFN- γ and TNF- α . *Sci Transl Med* 2018;10(438). pii: eaan2263.
68. Kieffer TEC, Laskewitz A, Scherjon SA, Faas MM, Prins JR. Memory T Cells in Pregnancy. *Front Immunol* 2019;10:625. [PubMed: 31001255]
69. Gomez-Lopez N, Romero R, Xu Y, et al. Fetal T cell activation in the amniotic cavity during preterm labor: a potential mechanism for a subset of idiopathic preterm birth. *J Immunol* 2019;203:1793–807. [PubMed: 31492740]
70. Staneva A, Bogossian F, Pritchard M, Wittkowski A. The effects of maternal depression, anxiety, and perceived stress during pregnancy on preterm birth: A systematic review. *Women Birth* 2015;28:179–93. [PubMed: 25765470]
71. Lima SAM, El Dib RP, Rodrigues MRK, et al. Is the risk of low birth weight or preterm labor greater when maternal stress is experienced during pregnancy? A systematic review and meta-analysis of cohort studies. *PLoS One* 2018;13(7):e0200594.

72. Sheikh IA, Ahmad E, Jamal MS, et al. Spontaneous preterm birth and single nucleotide gene polymorphisms: a recent update. *BMC Genomics* 2016;17(Suppl 9):759. [PubMed: 27766960]
73. Zhang G, Feenstra B, Bacelis J, et al. Genetic associations with gestational duration and spontaneous preterm birth. *N Engl J Med* 2017;377:1156–67. [PubMed: 28877031]
74. Strauss JF 3rd, Romero R, Gomez-Lopez N, et al. Spontaneous preterm birth: advances toward the discovery of genetic predisposition. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:294–314.e2. [PubMed: 29248470]
75. Knijnenburg TA, Vockley JG, Chambwe N, et al. Genomic and molecular characterization of preterm birth. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2019;116:5819–27. [PubMed: 30833390]
76. Paquette AG, Shynlova O, Kibschull M, Price ND, Lye SJ; Global Alliance to Prevent Prematurity and Stillbirth Systems Biology of Preterm Birth Team. Comparative analysis of gene expression in maternal peripheral blood and monocytes during spontaneous preterm labor. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:345.e1–345.e30.
77. Ferguson KK, Chin HB. Environmental chemicals and preterm birth: Biological mechanisms and the state of the science. *Curr Epidemiol Rep* 2017;4:56–71. [PubMed: 28944158]
78. Nieuwenhuijsen MJ, Ristovska G, Dadvand P. WHO environmental noise guidelines for the european region: a systematic review on environmental noise and adverse birth outcomes. *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 2017;14(10).
79. Melody SM, Ford J, Wills K, Venn A, Johnston FH. Maternal exposure to short-to medium-term outdoor air pollution and obstetric and neonatal outcomes: A systematic review. *Environ Pollut* 2019;244:915–25. [PubMed: 30469286]
80. Conde-Agudelo A, Papageorghiou AT, Kennedy SH, Villar J. Novel biomarkers for the prediction of the spontaneous preterm birth phenotype: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG* 2011;118:1042–54. [PubMed: 21401853]
81. Matei A, Saccone G, Vogel JP, Armson AB. Primary and secondary prevention of preterm birth: a review of systematic reviews and ongoing randomized controlled trials. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2019;236:224–39. [PubMed: 30772047]
82. Meis PJ, Klebanoff M, Thom E, et al. Prevention of recurrent preterm delivery by 17 alpha-hydroxyprogesterone caproate. *N Engl J Med* 2003;348:2379–85. Erratum in: *N Engl J Med* 2003;349:1299. [PubMed: 12802023]
83. Meis PJ; Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine. 17 hydroxyprogesterone for the prevention of preterm delivery. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005;105:1128–35. [PubMed: 15863556]
84. Dodd JM, Jones L, Flenady V, Cincotta R, Crowther CA. Prenatal administration of progesterone for preventing preterm birth in women considered to be at risk of preterm birth. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013;7:CD004947.
85. Schuit E, Stock S, Rode L, et al. Effectiveness of progestogens to improve perinatal outcome in twin pregnancies: an individual participant data meta-analysis. *BJOG* 2015;122:27–37. [PubMed: 25145491]
86. Romero R, Conde-Agudelo A. Is 17 α -hydroxyprogesterone caproate contraindicated in twin gestations? *BJOG* 2015;122:6–7. [PubMed: 25280114]
87. Combs CA, Schuit E, Caritis SN, et al. 17-Hydroxyprogesterone caproate in triplet pregnancy: an individual patient data meta-analysis. *BJOG* 2016;123:682–90. [PubMed: 26663620]
88. O'Brien JM, Lewis DF. Prevention of preterm birth with vaginal progesterone or 17-alpha-hydroxyprogesterone caproate: a critical examination of efficacy and safety. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:45–56. [PubMed: 26558340]
89. Heyborne KD. 17- α Hydroxyprogesterone caproate for the prevention of recurrent preterm birth: one size may not fit all. *Obstet Gynecol* 2016;128:899–903. [PubMed: 27607880]
90. Jijon-Knupp R, Sanchez-Ramos L, Roeckner J, Kaunitz A. A systematic review and network metaanalysis to determine the most effective treatment modality for the prevention of preterm birth in twins with a sonographic short cervical length. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216(Suppl 1):S214–S215.
91. Roeckner JT, Sanchez-Ramos L. The comparative efficacy of cervical pessary, cerclage, vaginal and parenteral progesterone for the prevention of preterm birth in women with a sonographic short

- cervix and a singleton gestation: a systematic review and network meta-analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216(Suppl 1):S382.
92. Dodd JM, Grivell RM, O'Brien CM, Dowswell T, Deussen AR. Prenatal administration of progestogens for preventing spontaneous preterm birth in women with a multiple pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2017;10:CD012024.
 93. Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine (SMFM) Publications Committee. The choice of progestogen for the prevention of preterm birth in women with singleton pregnancy and prior preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:B11–B13. [PubMed: 28126367]
 94. Nelson DB, McIntire DD, McDonald J, Gard J, Turrichi P, Leveno KJ. 17-alpha Hydroxyprogesterone caproate did not reduce the rate of recurrent preterm birth in a prospective cohort study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:600.e1–600.e9.
 95. Young D. Clinical trials and tribulations: 17OHPC and preventing recurrent preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:543–6. [PubMed: 28554663]
 96. Jarde A, Lutsiv O, Park CK, et al. Preterm birth prevention in twin pregnancies with progesterone, pessary, or cerclage: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG* 2017;124:1163–73. [PubMed: 28176485]
 97. Ning A, Vladutiu CJ, Dotters-Katz SK, Goodnight WH, Manuck TA. Gestational age at initiation of 17-alpha hydroxyprogesterone caproate and recurrent preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;217:371.e1–371.e7.
 98. Hauspurg A, Caritis SN, Venkataraman R. Evaluation of 17-alpha hydroxyprogesterone caproate efficacy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:261.
 99. Jarde A, Lutsiv O, Beyene J, McDonald SD. Vaginal progesterone, oral progesterone, 17-OHPC, cerclage, and pessary for preventing preterm birth in at-risk singleton pregnancies: an updated systematic review and network meta-analysis. *BJOG* 2019;126:556–67. [PubMed: 30480871]
 100. Romero R, Nicolaides K, Conde-Agudelo A, et al. Vaginal progesterone in women with an asymptomatic sonographic short cervix in the midtrimester decreases preterm delivery and neonatal morbidity: a systematic review and metaanalysis of individual patient data. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2012;206:124.e1–19.
 101. Conde-Agudelo A, Romero R, Nicolaides K, et al. Vaginal progesterone vs. cervical cerclage for the prevention of preterm birth in women with a sonographic short cervix, previous preterm birth, and singleton gestation: a systematic review and indirect comparison metaanalysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013;208:42.e1–42.e18.
 102. Romero R, Yeo L, Miranda J, Hassan SS, Conde-Agudelo A, Chaiworapongsa T. A blueprint for the prevention of preterm birth: vaginal progesterone in women with a short cervix. *J Perinat Med* 2013;41:27–44. [PubMed: 23314512]
 103. Romero R, Yeo L, Chaemsaitong P, Chaiworapongsa T, Hassan SS. Progesterone to prevent spontaneous preterm birth. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med* 2014;19:15–26. [PubMed: 24315687]
 104. Conde-Agudelo A, Romero R. Vaginal progesterone to prevent preterm birth in pregnant women with a sonographic short cervix: clinical and public health implications. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:235–242. [PubMed: 26450404]
 105. Romero R, Nicolaides KH, Conde-Agudelo A, et al. Vaginal progesterone decreases preterm birth 34 weeks of gestation in women with a singleton pregnancy and a short cervix: an updated meta-analysis including data from the OPPTIMUM study. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2016;48:308–17. [PubMed: 27444208]
 106. Romero R, Conde-Agudelo A, El-Refaie W, et al. Vaginal progesterone decreases preterm birth and neonatal morbidity and mortality in women with a twin gestation and a short cervix: an updated meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2017;49:303–14. [PubMed: 28067007]
 107. Romero R, Conde-Agudelo A, Da Fonseca E, et al. Vaginal progesterone for preventing preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcomes in singleton gestations with a short cervix: a meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:161–80. [PubMed: 29157866]
 108. Campbell S. Prevention of spontaneous preterm birth: universal cervical length assessment and vaginal progesterone in women with a short cervix: time for action! *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;218:151–8. [PubMed: 29422255]

109. Conde-Agudelo A, Romero R, Da Fonseca E, et al. Vaginal progesterone is as effective as cervical cerclage to prevent preterm birth in women with a singleton gestation, previous spontaneous preterm birth, and a short cervix: updated indirect comparison meta-analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:10–25. [PubMed: 29630885]
110. Sanchez-Ramos L. Vaginal progesterone is an alternative to cervical cerclage in women with a short cervix and a history of preterm birth. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:5–9. [PubMed: 29941278]
111. Sanchez-Ramos L, Roeckner J, Mitta M, Kaunitz A. Vaginal progesterone: agent of choice for preterm delivery prevention in singleton pregnancies with short cervix. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;220(Suppl 1):S62–S63.
112. Roeckner JT, Mitta M, Sanchez-Ramos L, Kaunitz AM. Twin pregnancies with short cervix: Vaginal progesterone is agent of choice for preterm delivery prevention. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;220(Suppl 1):S368–S369.
113. Boelig RC, Della Corte L, Ashoush S, et al. Oral progesterone for the prevention of recurrent preterm birth: systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol MFM* 2019;1:50–62. [PubMed: 31172132]
114. Saccone G, Berghella V. Omega-3 long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids to prevent preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obstet Gynecol* 2015;125:663–72. [PubMed: 25730231]
115. Saccone G, Berghella V. Omega-3 supplementation to prevent recurrent preterm birth: a systematic review and metaanalysis of randomized controlled trials. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2015;213:135–40. [PubMed: 25757636]
116. Middleton P, Gomersall JC, Gould JF, Shepherd E, Olsen SF, Makrides M. Omega-3 fatty acid addition during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2018;11:CD003402.
117. Makrides M, Best K, Yelland L, et al. A randomized trial of prenatal n-3 fatty acid supplementation and preterm delivery. *N Engl J Med* 2019;381:1035–45. [PubMed: 31509674]
118. Berghella V, Rafael TJ, Szychowski JM, Rust OA, Owen J. Cerclage for short cervix on ultrasonography in women with singleton gestations and previous preterm birth: a meta-analysis. *Obstet Gynecol* 2011;117:663–71. [PubMed: 21446209]
119. Rafael TJ, Berghella V, Alfirevic Z. Cervical stitch (cerclage) for preventing preterm birth in multiple pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2014;9:CD009166.
120. Saccone G, Rust O, Althuisius S, Roman A, Berghella V. Cerclage for short cervix in twin pregnancies: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized trials using individual patient-level data. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 2015;94:352–8. [PubMed: 25644964]
121. Ehsanipoor RM, Seligman NS, Saccone G, et al. Physical examination-indicated cerclage: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Obstet Gynecol* 2015;126:125–35. [PubMed: 26241265]
122. Berghella V. The power of meta-analysis to address an important clinical question in obstetrics. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:379.e1–379.e4.
123. Alfirevic Z, Stampalija T, Medley N. Cervical stitch (cerclage) for preventing preterm birth in singleton pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2017;6:CD008991.
124. Oyelese Y, Powel J, Benito CW. Perhaps cerclage is the ideal treatment for the cervix <1 cm. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:213.
125. Romero R, Conde-Agudelo A, Nicolaidis KH. There is insufficient evidence to claim that cerclage is the treatment of choice for patients with a cervical length <10 mm. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:213–5.
126. Enakpene CA, DiGiovanni L, Jones TN, Marshalla M, Mastrogiannis D, Della Torre M. Cervical cerclage for singleton pregnant patients on vaginal progesterone with progressive cervical shortening. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2018;219:397.e1–397.e10. [PubMed: 30017683]
127. Li C, Shen J, Hua K. Cerclage for women with twin pregnancies: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;220:543–557.e1. [PubMed: 30527942]
128. Sanchez-Ramos L. The placement of a cerclage in patients with twin pregnancies and a short cervix is associated with increased risk of preterm birth and adverse perinatal outcome. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019 Oct 3. pii: S0002–9378(19)31203–7. doi: 10.1016/j.ajog.2019.09.038. [Epub ahead of print].

129. Arabin B, Halbesma JR, Vork F, Hübener M, van Eyck J. Is treatment with vaginal pessaries an option in patients with a sonographically detected short cervix? *J Perinat Med* 2003;31:122–33. [PubMed: 12747228]
130. Dharan VB, Ludmir J. Alternative treatment for a short cervix: the cervical pessary. *Semin Perinatol* 2009;33:338–42. [PubMed: 19796732]
131. Arabin B, Alfirevic Z. Cervical pessaries for prevention of spontaneous preterm birth: past, present and future. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2013;42:390–9. [PubMed: 23775862]
132. Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine (SMFM) Publications Committee. The role of cervical pessary placement to prevent preterm birth in clinical practice. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2017;216:B8–B10. [PubMed: 28108157]
133. Blackwell SC, Gyamfi-Bannerman C, Biggio JR Jr, et al. 17-OHPC to prevent recurrent preterm birth in singleton gestations (PROLONG study): a multicenter, international, randomized double-blind trial. *Am J Perinatol* 2019 Oct 25. doi: 10.1055/s-0039-3400227. [Epub ahead of print]
134. Liem SM, van Pampus MG, Mol BW, Bekedam DJ. Cervical pessaries for the prevention of preterm birth: a systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol Int* 2013;2013:576723.
135. Abdel-Aleem H, Shaaban OM, Abdel-Aleem MA. Cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013;5:CD007873.
136. Saccone G, Ciardulli A, Xodo S, et al. Cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth in twin pregnancies with short cervical length: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2017;30:2918–25. [PubMed: 27915496]
137. Jin XH, Li D, Huang LL. Cervical pessary for prevention of preterm birth: a meta-analysis. *Sci Rep* 2017;7:42560. [PubMed: 28209998]
138. Saccone G, Ciardulli A, Xodo S, et al. Cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth in singleton pregnancies with short cervical length: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Ultrasound Med* 2017;36:1535–43. [PubMed: 28398701]
139. Thangatorai R, Lim FC, Nalliah S. Cervical pessary in the prevention of preterm births in multiple pregnancies with a short cervix: PRISMA compliant systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2018;31:1638–45. [PubMed: 28412851]
140. Jin Z, Chen L, Qiao D, et al. Cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth: a meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2019;32:1148–54. [PubMed: 29103351]
141. Zheng L, Dong J, Dai Y, et al. Cervical pessaries for the prevention of preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2019;32:1654–63. [PubMed: 29212400]
142. Pérez-López FR, Chedraui P, Pérez-Roncero GR, Martínez-Domínguez SJ; Health Outcomes and Systematic Analyses (HOUSSAY) Project. Effectiveness of the cervical pessary for the prevention of preterm birth in singleton pregnancies with a short cervix: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Arch Gynecol Obstet* 2019;299:1215–31. [PubMed: 30778728]
143. Quist-Nelson J, de Ruigh AA, Medley N, et al. Cervical pessary for preventing preterm birth in singletons: A dynamic systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;220(Suppl 1):S371.
144. Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* version 6.0 (updated July 2019). Cochrane, 2019.
145. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, et al. The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. *J Clin Epidemiol* 2009;62:e1–34. [PubMed: 19631507]
146. Sterne JAC, Savovi J, Page MJ, et al. RoB 2: a revised tool for assessing risk of bias in randomised trials. *BMJ* 2019;366:14898. [PubMed: 31462531]
147. Higgins JPT, Savovi J, Page MJ, Elbers RG, Sterne JAC. Chapter 8: Assessing risk of bias in a randomized trial. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* version 6.0 (updated July 2019). Cochrane, 2019.
148. Deeks JJ, Higgins JPT, Altman DG (editors). Chapter 10: Analysing data and undertaking meta-analyses. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA

- (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* version 6.0 (updated July 2019). Cochrane, 2019.
149. Schünemann HJ, Vist GE, Higgins JPT, Santesso N, Deeks JJ, Glasziou P, Akl EA, Guyatt GH. Chapter 15: Interpreting results and drawing conclusions. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* version 6.0 (updated July 2019). Cochrane, 2019.
 150. Higgins JPT, Eldridge S, Li T (editors). Chapter 23: Including variants on randomized trials. In: Higgins JPT, Thomas J, Chandler J, Cumpston M, Li T, Page MJ, Welch VA (editors). *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* version 6.0 (updated July 2019). Cochrane, 2019.
 151. Yelland LN, Schuit E, Zamora J, et al. Correlation between neonatal outcomes of twins depends on the outcome: secondary analysis of twelve randomised controlled trials. *BJOG* 2018;125:1406–13. [PubMed: 29790271]
 152. Higgins JP, Thompson SG, Deeks JJ, Altman DG. Measuring inconsistency in meta-analyses. *BMJ* 2003;327:557–60. [PubMed: 12958120]
 153. Higgins JP, Thompson SG, Spiegelhalter DJ. A re-evaluation of random-effects meta-analysis. *J R Stat Soc Ser A Stat Soc* 2009;172:137–59.
 154. Riley RD, Higgins JP, Deeks JJ. Interpretation of random effects meta-analyses. *BMJ* 2011;342:d549. [PubMed: 21310794]
 155. IntHout J, Ioannidis JP, Rovers MM, Goeman JJ. Plea for routinely presenting prediction intervals in meta-analysis. *BMJ Open* 2016;6:e010247.
 156. Klebanoff MA. Subgroup analysis in obstetrics clinical trials. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2007;197:119–22. [PubMed: 17689621]
 157. Sun X, Ioannidis JP, Agoritsas T, Alba AC, Guyatt G. How to use a subgroup analysis: users' guide to the medical literature. *JAMA* 2014;311:405' 11. [PubMed: 24449319]
 158. Klebanoff MA. 17 alpha-Hydroxyprogesterone caproate for preterm prevention: issues in subgroup analysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:306–7. [PubMed: 26928145]
 159. Schünemann H, Brozek J, Guyatt G, Oxman A. *GRADE handbook for grading quality of evidence and strength of recommendation*. The GRADE Working Group; 2013.
 160. Goya M, Pratorcorona L, Merced C, et al. Cervical pessary in pregnant women with a short cervix (PECEP): an open-label randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2012;379:1800–6. [PubMed: 22475493]
 161. Hui SY, Chor CM, Lau TK, Lao TT, Leung TY. Cerclage pessary for preventing preterm birth in women with a singleton pregnancy and a short cervix at 20 to 24 weeks: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Perinatol* 2013;30:283–8. [PubMed: 22875662]
 162. Nicolaides KH, Syngelaki A, Poon LC, et al. A Randomized Trial of a Cervical Pessary to Prevent Preterm Singleton Birth. *N Engl J Med* 2016;374:1044–52. [PubMed: 26981934]
 163. Karbasian N, Sheikh M, Pirjani R, Hazrati S, Tara F, Hantoushzadeh S. Combined treatment with cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone for the prevention of preterm birth: A randomized clinical trial. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res* 2016;42:1673–9. [PubMed: 27718280]
 164. Saccone G, Maruotti GM, Giudicepietro A, Martinelli P; Italian Preterm Birth Prevention (IPP) Working Group. Effect of cervical pessary on spontaneous preterm birth in women with singleton pregnancies and short cervical length: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2017;318:2317–24. Erratum in: *JAMA* 2018;319:1824. [PubMed: 29260226]
 165. Dugoff L, Berghella V, Sehdev H, Mackeen AD, Goetzl L, Ludmir J. Prevention of preterm birth with pessary in singletons (PoPPS): randomized controlled trial. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2018;51:573–9. [PubMed: 28940481]
 166. Cruz-Melguizo S, San-Frutos L, Martínez-Payo C, et al. Cervical Pessary Compared With Vaginal Progesterone for Preventing Early Preterm Birth: A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Obstet Gynecol* 2018;132:907–15. [PubMed: 30204689]
 167. Liem S, Schuit E, Hegeman M, et al. Cervical pessaries for prevention of preterm birth in women with a multiple pregnancy (ProTWIN): a multicentre, open-label randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2013;382:1341–9. [PubMed: 23924878]

168. Nicolaides KH, Syngelaki A, Poon LC, et al. Cervical pessary placement for prevention of preterm birth in unselected twin pregnancies: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:3.e1–9. [PubMed: 26321037]
169. Goya M, de la Calle M, Pratcorona L, et al. Cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth in women with twin gestation and sonographic short cervix: a multicenter randomized controlled trial (PECEP-Twins). *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:145–52. [PubMed: 26627728]
170. Berghella V, Dugoff L, Ludmir J. Prevention of preterm birth with pessary in twins (PoPPT): a randomized controlled trial. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2017;49:567–72. [PubMed: 28170117]
171. Dang VQ, Nguyen LK, Pham TD, et al. Pessary compared with vaginal progesterone for the prevention of preterm birth in women with twin pregnancies and cervical length less than 38 mm: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol* 2019;133:459–67. [PubMed: 30741812]
172. van 't Hooft J, van der Lee JH, Opmeer BC, et al. Pessary for prevention of preterm birth in twin pregnancy with short cervix: 3-year follow-up study. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2018;51:621–8. [PubMed: 29468770]
173. Simons NE, van de Beek C, van der Lee JH, et al. Child outcomes after placement of a cervical pessary in women with a multiple pregnancy: A 4-year follow-up of the ProTWIN trial. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 2019;98:1292–1300. [PubMed: 31032879]
174. History of changes for study: [NCT02623881](https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/history/NCT02623881). Cervical pessary vs. vaginal progesterone for preventing premature birth in IVF twin pregnancies. Available at: <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/history/NCT02623881>. Accessed October 3, 2019.
175. Conde-Agudelo A. Pessary compared with vaginal progesterone for the prevention of preterm birth in women with twin pregnancies and cervical length less than 38 mm: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol* 2019;134:421–2. [PubMed: 31348214]
176. Higgins JP. Commentary: Heterogeneity in meta-analysis should be expected and appropriately quantified. *Int J Epidemiol* 2008;37:1158–60. [PubMed: 18832388]
177. Goya M, Cabero L. Cervical pessary placement for prevention of preterm birth in unselected twin pregnancies: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2016;214:301–2. [PubMed: 26454126]
178. Goya M, Cabero L, Carreras E. Cervical Pessary and Preterm Singleton Birth. *N Engl J Med* 2016;375:e10.
179. Berghella V, Dugoff L, Ludmir J. Reply. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2017;50:409–10. [PubMed: 28938060]
180. Fox NS, Gupta S, Lam-Rachlin J, Rebarber A, Klauser CK, Saltzman DH. Cervical pessary and vaginal progesterone in twin pregnancies with a short cervix. *Obstet Gynecol* 2016;127:625–30. [PubMed: 26959202]
181. Pekar-Zlotin M, Melcer Y, Kovo M, et al. Arabin cervical pessary with vaginal progesterone versus vaginal progesterone for preventing preterm delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2019;220(Suppl 1):S236.
182. Melcer Y, Kovo M, Maymon R, et al. Arabin cervical pessary with vaginal progesterone versus vaginal progesterone for preventing preterm delivery. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2019 Feb 3:1–6. doi: 10.1080/14767058.2019.1573894. [Epub ahead of print].
183. Norman JE, Norrie J, MacLennan G, et al. Randomized controlled trial: Arabin pessary to prevent preterm birth in twin pregnancies with short cervix. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2020;222(Suppl 1):S756.

AJOG at a Glance

Why was the study conducted?

To determine whether the placement of a cervical pessary in asymptomatic women at risk for preterm delivery (with singleton or multiple gestations) prevents preterm birth and improves perinatal outcomes.

Key findings

- The placement of a cervical pessary did not reduce the risk of preterm birth (<37, <34, <32, and <28 weeks of gestation) or adverse perinatal outcomes in women with:
 - Singleton gestations and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm
 - Unselected twin gestations
 - Twin gestations and a cervical length <38 mm
 - Twin gestations and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm
- There were no significant differences in the risk of spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation between pessary and vaginal progesterone in women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm, and women with a twin gestation and a cervical length <38 mm

What does this study add to what is known?

This systematic review and meta-analysis does not support the use of cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth in asymptomatic women with singleton or twin gestations at risk for preterm delivery.

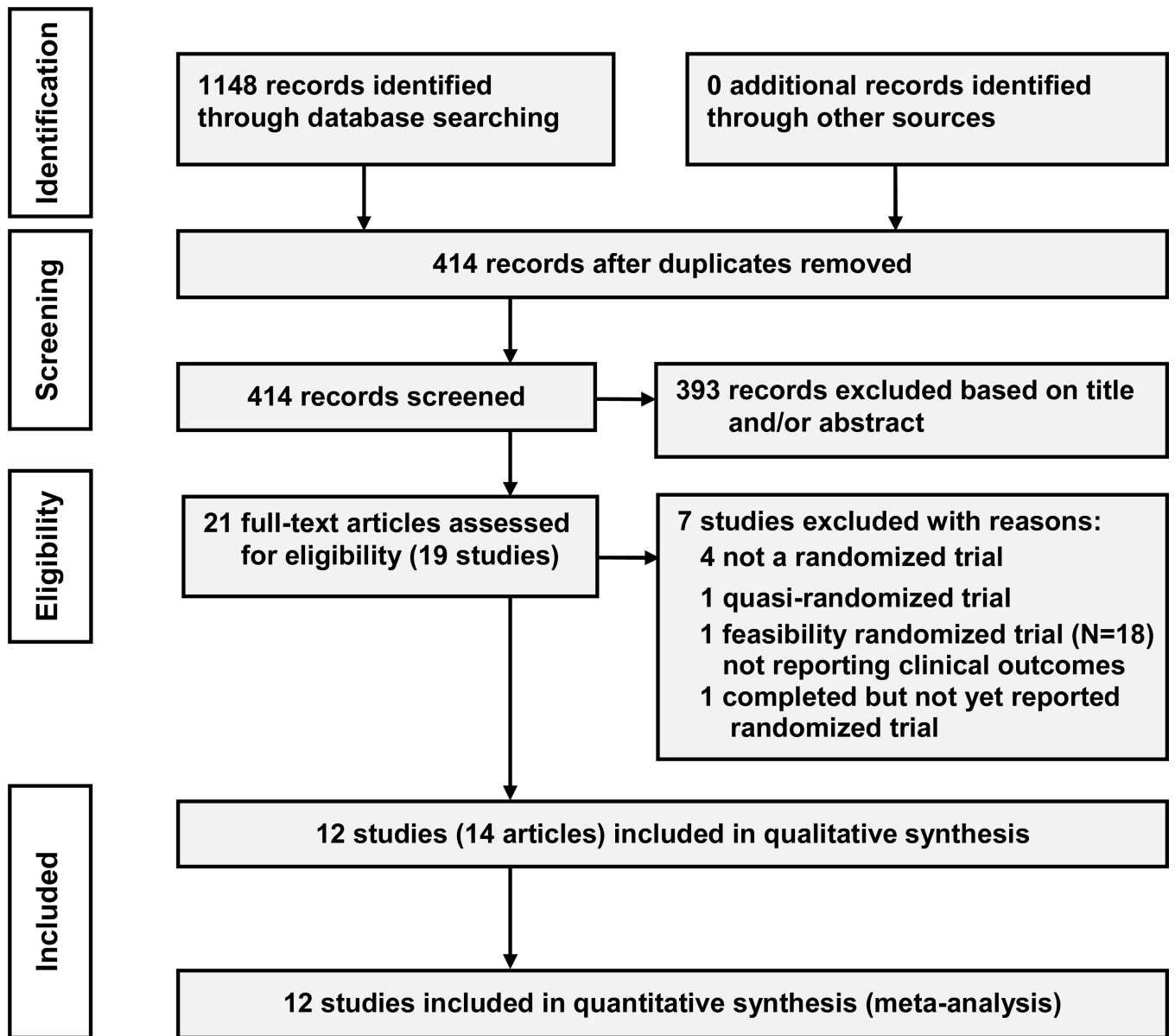


Figure 1:
Summary of evidence search and selection

Study	Bias arising from the randomization process	Bias due to deviations from the intended interventions	Bias due to missing outcome data	Bias in measurement of the outcome	Bias in selection of the reported result	Overall risk of bias
Goya 2012	+	+	+	+	+	+
Hui 2013	+	+	+	+	+	+
Nicolaidis 2016 ^a	+	+	+	+	+	+
Karbasian 2016	+	+	+	+	+	+
Saccone 2017	+	+	+	+	+	+
Dugoff 2018	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cruz-Melguizo 2018	+	+	+	+	+	+
Liem 2013	+	+	+	+	+	+
Nicolaidis 2016 ^b	+	+	+	+	+	+
Goya 2016	+	+	+	+	+	+
Berghella 2017	?	+	+	+	+	?
Dang 2019	?	+	+	+	?	-

+ Low risk of bias
 ? Some concerns
 - High risk of bias

Figure 2:
Risk of bias in each included study

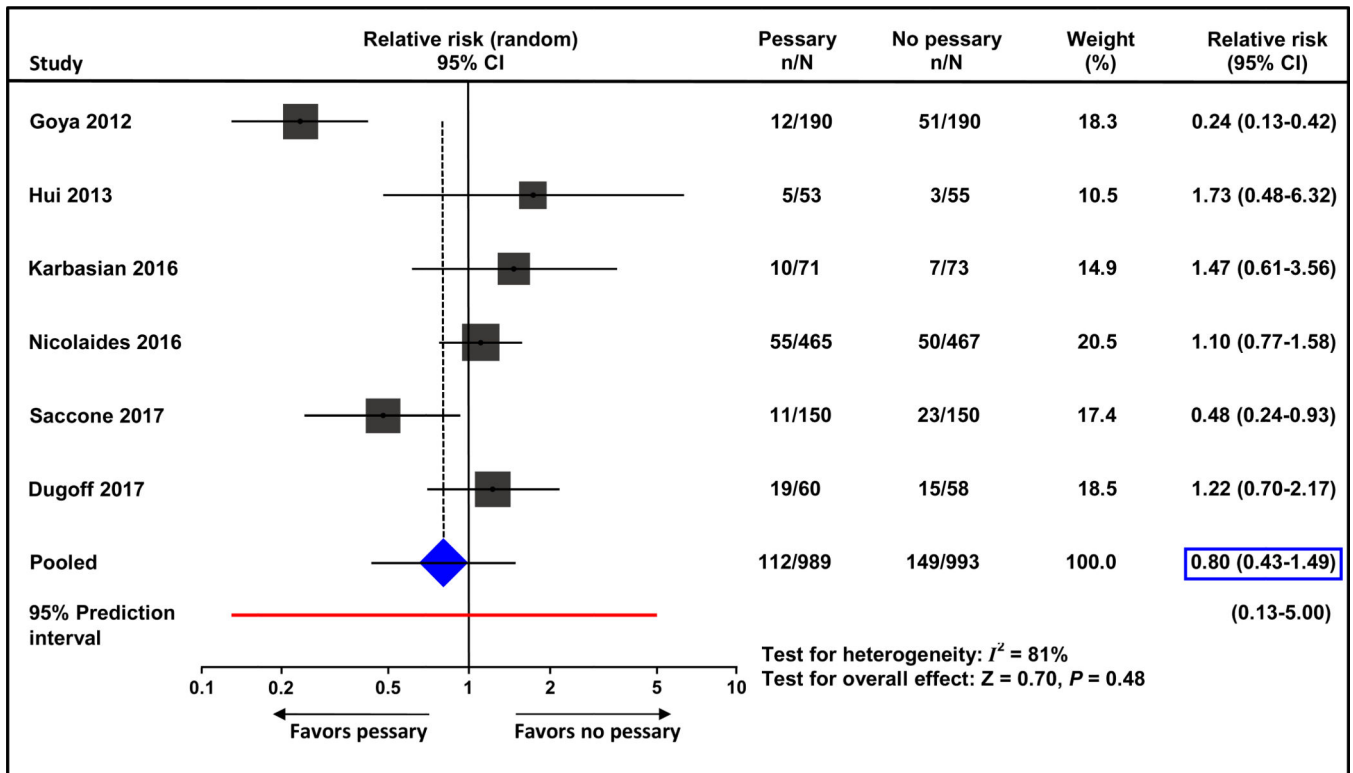


Figure 3:
 Effect of cervical pessary on spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks of gestation in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm
CI, confidence interval

TABLE 1

Characteristics of studies included in the systematic review

First author, reference, year (country)	Participants	Interventions (sample size)	GA at trial entry, wk	Cervical length at trial entry, mm	Concomitant use of vaginal progesterone	Primary outcome	Main findings
Singleton gestations							
Goya, ¹⁶⁰ 2012 (Spain)	Women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 190) • No pessary (n = 190) 	20–23; mean, 22.3	19.0 ± 4.8	Pessary group: 0% No pessary group: 0%	Spontaneous PTB < 34 wk	Cervical pessary significantly reduced PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Hui, ¹⁶¹ 2013 (China)	Women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length <25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 53) • No pessary (n = 55) 	20–24; mean, 21.9	20.1 ± 0.5	Pessary group: 0% No pessary group: 0%	PTB <34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Nicoitides, ¹⁶² 2016 (Multicountry ^a)	Women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 465) • No pessary (n = 467) 	20–24; median, 23.5	20.0 (14.0–22.0) ^b	Pessary group: 44% No pessary group: 47%	Spontaneous PTB < 34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Karbasian, ¹⁶³ 2016 (Iran)	Women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary plus vaginal progesterone 400 mg/d (n = 71) • Vaginal progesterone 400 mg/d (n = 73) 	18–22; mean, 19.6	22.0 ± 1.7	Pessary group: 100% No pessary group: 100%	PTB <37 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Saccone, ¹⁶⁴ 2017 (Italy)	Women with a singleton gestation, no previous spontaneous PTB, and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 150) • No pessary (n = 150) 	18–23; mean, 22.4	12.0 ± 5.8	Pessary group: 89% No pessary group: 83%	Spontaneous PTB < 34 wk	Pessary significantly reduced PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Dugoff, ¹⁶⁵ 2018 (United States)	Women with a singleton gestation, no previous spontaneous PTB, and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bioleque cup pessary (n = 60) • No pessary (n = 58) 	18–23; mean, 21.1	Pessary group: 17.6 (10.9–22.0) ^b No pessary group: 19.0 (11.2–22.9) ^b	Pessary group: 84% No pessary group: 91%	PTB <37 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Cruz-Meiguizo, ¹⁶⁶ 2018 (Spain)	Women with a singleton gestation and a cervical length ≥ 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 125) • Vaginal progesterone 200 mg/d (n = 118) 	19–22; mean, 21.3	20.9 ± 4.2	Pessary group: 5% Progesterone group: 100%	Spontaneous PTB < 34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Multiple gestations							
Liern, ¹⁶⁷ 2013 (Netherlands)	Women with a multiple gestation (97.8% twins and 2.2% triplets)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 401) • No pessary (n = 407) 	12–20, mean 17.0	43.9 ± 8.3	Pessary group: 0% No pessary group: 0%	Composite adverse perinatal outcome ^c	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes

First author, reference, year (country)	Participants	Interventions (sample size)	GA at trial entry, wk	Cervical length at trial entry, mm	Concomitant use of vaginal progesterone	Primary outcome	Main findings
Nicolaides, ¹⁶⁸ 2016 (Multicountry) ^d	Women with a twin gestation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 588) • No pessary (n = 589) 	20–24; median, 22.7	32.0 (27.0–37.0) ^b	Pessary group: 0% No pessary group: 0.3%	Spontaneous PTB <34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Goya, ¹⁶⁹ 2016 (Spain)	Women with a twin gestation and a cervical length 25 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 68) • No pessary (n = 66) 	20–23; mean, 22.3	19.4 ± 3.6	Pessary group: 0% No pessary group: 0%	Spontaneous PTB <34 wk	Cervical pessary significantly reduced PTB. There was no effect on adverse neonatal outcomes
Berghele, ¹⁷⁰ 2017 (United States)	Women with a diamniotic twin gestation and a cervical length 30 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bioteque cup pessary (n = 23) • No pessary (n = 23) 	18–27; median, 21.1	Pessary group: 16.7 (10.7–27.8) ^b No pessary group: 22.9 (15.9–25.6) ^b	Pessary group: 4% No pessary group: 9%	PTB <34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB and adverse perinatal outcomes
Dang, ¹⁷¹ 2019 (Vietnam)	Women with a twin gestation and a cervical length <38 mm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arabin pessary (n = 148) • Vaginal progesterone 400 mg/d (n = 149) 	16–22; mean, 17.8	31.3 ± 4.3	Pessary group: 1% Progesterone group: 100%	PTB <34 wk	There were no significant differences between the study groups in PTB <34 wk. Pessary significantly reduced PTB <37 wk and adverse perinatal outcomes

GA, gestational age; PTB, preterm birth.

^aEngland, Slovenia, Portugal, Chile, Australia, Italy, Albania, Germany, and Belgium

^bMedian (interquartile range)

^cOccurrence of any of the following events: stillbirth, periventricular leukomalacia of grade 2 or worse, severe respiratory distress syndrome of grade 2 or worse, bronchopulmonary dysplasia, intraventricular hemorrhage of grade 2B or worse, necrotizing enterocolitis, proven sepsis, and neonatal death within 6 weeks after the expected term date

^dUnited Kingdom, Spain, Germany, Austria, Slovenia, Portugal, Italy, Belgium, Albania, China, Brazil, and Chile.
 Conde-Agudelo. Cervical pessary to prevent preterm birth in asymptomatic high-risk women. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2020.

TABLE 2.

Effect of cervical pessary on pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes in singleton gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Quality of evidence
Pregnancy/maternal outcomes							
Spontaneous preterm birth <37 weeks	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	196/865 (22.7%)	282/865 (32.6%)	0.71 (0.41–1.24)	0.23	91	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <32 weeks	1 ¹⁶²	41/465 (8.8%)	34/467 (7.3%)	1.21 (0.78–1.87)	0.39	NA	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <28 weeks	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	44/865 (5.1%)	52/865 (6.0%)	0.76 (0.37–1.54)	0.44	65	Low
Preterm birth <37 weeks	5 ^{160–162,164,165}	197/799 (24.7%)	205/803 (25.5%)	0.95 (0.75–1.19)	0.64	31	High
Preterm birth <34 weeks	6 ^{160–165}	123/989 (12.4%)	159/993 (16.0%)	0.82 (0.46–1.45)	0.50	81	Low
Preterm birth <32 weeks	3 ^{162–164}	62/686 (9.0%)	56/690 (8.1%)	1.11 (0.78–1.58)	0.57	2	Moderate
Preterm birth <28 weeks	4 ^{161,162,164,165}	46/728 (6.3%)	41/730 (5.6%)	1.08 (0.71–1.65)	0.72	5	Moderate
Chorioamnionitis	5 ^{160,162–165}	18/936 (1.9%)	17/938 (1.8%)	1.04 (0.54–2.00)	0.90	0	Low
PPROM	6 ^{160–165}	103/989 (10.4%)	103/993 (10.4%)	0.90 (0.57–1.42)	0.65	52	Low
Vaginal discharge	5 ^{160–162,164,165}	594/891 (66.7%)	257/895 (28.7%)	2.15 (1.67–2.78)	<0.00001	81	High
Vaginal infection	2 ^{161,162}	138/458 (30.1%)	116/405 (28.6%)	1.04 (0.85–1.28)	0.68	0	Moderate
Vaginal bleeding	2 ^{160,161}	8/243 (3.3%)	9/245 (3.7%)	0.87 (0.35–2.21)	0.78	0	Low
Pelvic discomfort	3 ^{161,162,164}	59/641 (9.2%)	18/647 (2.8%)	3.28 (1.96–5.50)	<0.00001	0	High
Use of tocolytic agents	1 ¹⁶⁰	64/190 (33.7%)	101/190 (53.2%)	0.63 (0.50–0.81)	0.0002	NA	Moderate
Cesarean delivery	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	198/865 (22.9%)	192/865 (22.2%)	1.01 (0.81–1.25)	0.96	27	High
Maternal death	3 ^{160,162,164}	0/805 (0.0%)	0/807 (0.0%)	Not estimable	NA	NA	Low
Perinatal outcomes							
Fetal death	6 ^{160–165}	12/989 (1.2%)	12/993 (1.2%)	1.01 (0.44–2.31)	0.98	0	Low
Neonatal death	6 ^{160–165}	13/989 (1.3%)	16/993 (1.6%)	0.83 (0.40–1.72)	0.61	0	Low
Perinatal death	6 ^{160–165}	25/989 (2.5%)	28/993 (2.8%)	0.88 (0.51–1.53)	0.66	1	Moderate
Birthweight <1500 g	3 ^{160,162,164}	58/805 (7.2%)	69/807 (8.6%)	0.71 (0.30–1.68)	0.44	81	Low
Birthweight <2500 g	4 ^{160,162–164}	158/876 (18.0%)	200/880 (22.7%)	0.73 (0.39–1.35)	0.31	88	Low
Apgar score <7 at 5 min	1 ¹⁶²	27/465 (5.8%)	29/467 (6.2%)	0.94 (0.56–1.55)	0.80	NA	Moderate
Respiratory distress syndrome	5 ^{160–162,164,165}	62/918 (6.8%)	90/920 (9.8%)	0.72 (0.36–1.43)	0.35	73	Low

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Quality of evidence
Necrotizing enterocolitis	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	11/865 (1.3%)	10/865 (1.2%)	1.15 (0.47–2.79)	0.76	0	Low
Intraventricular hemorrhage	5 ^{160–162,164,165}	17/918 (1.9%)	14/920 (1.5%)	1.16 (0.48–2.80)	0.73	21	Low
Neonatal sepsis	5 ^{160–162,164,165}	49/918 (5.3%)	56/920 (6.1%)	0.80 (0.46–1.40)	0.44	43	Low
Retinopathy of prematurity	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	8/865 (0.9%)	16/865 (1.8%)	0.51 (0.10–2.59)	0.42	56	Very low
Bronchopulmonary dysplasia	2 ^{164,165}	13/210 (6.2%)	17/208 (8.2%)	0.76 (0.38–1.53)	0.44	0	Low
Any composite adverse neonatal outcome	4 ^{160,162,164,165}	69/865 (8.0%)	114/865 (13.2%)	0.59 (0.28–1.27)	0.18	83	Low
Admission to NICU	4 ^{161–164}	81/739 (11.0%)	82/745 (11.0%)	1.01 (0.64–1.58)	0.97	53	Low
Mechanical ventilation	1 ¹⁶²	40/465 (8.6%)	33/467 (7.1%)	1.22 (0.78–1.90)	0.38	NA	Moderate

Data are n/N.

CI, confidence interval; NA, not applicable; NICU, neonatal intensive care unit; PPRM, preterm premature rupture of membranes.

Subgroup analyses of effect of cervical pessary on spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks in singleton gestations with a cervical length 25 mm

TABLE 3.

Subgroup	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	I ² , %	Interaction P value
Concomitant use of vaginal progesterone						
No	4 ^{160-162,164}	31/521 (6.0%)	67/518 (12.9%)	0.70 (0.23-2.14)	78	0.70
Yes	3 ¹⁶²⁻¹⁶⁴	62/408 (15.2%)	67/417 (16.1%)	0.91 (0.47-1.76)	67	
Obstetric history						
No previous preterm birth	3 ^{162,164,165}	78/605 (12.9%)	72/591 (12.2%)	0.97 (0.54-1.76)	71	0.24
1 previous preterm birth	1 ¹⁶²	7/70 (10.0%)	16/84 (19.0%)	0.53 (0.23-1.20)	NA	
Cervical length						
10 mm	2 ^{162,164}	28/111 (25.2%)	25/83 (30.1%)	0.58 (0.10-3.23)	85	0.68
11-25 mm	2 ^{162,164}	38/504 (7.5%)	48/534 (9.0%)	0.84 (0.56-1.27)	0	

Data are n/N.

CI, confidence interval; NA, not applicable.

Effect of cervical pessary on pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes in unselected multiple gestations

TABLE 4.

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Pregnancy/maternal outcomes								
Spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	80/588 (13.6%)	76/589 (12.9%)	1.05 (0.79–1.41)	0.72	NA	NA	Moderate
Spontaneous preterm birth <37 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	205/588 (34.9%)	197/589 (33.4%)	1.04 (0.89–1.22)	0.61	NA	NA	High
Spontaneous preterm birth <32 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	42/588 (7.1%)	45/589 (7.6%)	0.93 (0.62–1.40)	0.74	NA	NA	Moderate
Spontaneous preterm birth <28 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	19/588 (3.2%)	13/589 (2.2%)	1.46 (0.73–2.94)	0.28	NA	NA	Low
Preterm birth <37 weeks	2 ^{167,168}	546/989 (55.2%)	560/996 (56.2%)	0.98 (0.91–1.06)	0.65	0	NA	High
Preterm birth <34 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	98/588 (16.7%)	92/589 (15.6%)	1.07 (0.82–1.38)	0.63	NA	NA	Moderate
Preterm birth <32 weeks	2 ^{167,168}	93/989 (9.4%)	102/996 (10.2%)	0.92 (0.70–1.20)	0.53	0	NA	Moderate
Preterm birth <28 weeks	2 ^{167,168}	35/989 (3.5%)	36/996 (3.6%)	0.98 (0.60–1.59)	0.93	10	NA	Moderate
Chorioamnionitis	2 ^{167,168}	16/989 (1.6%)	15/996 (1.5%)	1.06 (0.52–2.14)	0.88	0	NA	Low
PPROM	2 ^{167,168}	143/989 (14.5%)	125/996 (12.6%)	1.15 (0.92–1.44)	0.21	0	NA	Moderate
Vaginal discharge	2 ^{167,168}	342/966 (35.4%)	115/970 (11.9%)	2.96 (2.46–3.57) ^b	<0.0001	96	NA	High
Vaginal infection	1 ¹⁶⁸	116/555 (20.9%)	86/511 (16.8%)	1.24 (0.97–1.60)	0.09	NA	NA	Moderate
Pelvic discomfort	1 ¹⁶⁸	33/565 (5.8%)	29/563 (5.2%)	1.13 (0.70–1.84)	0.61	NA	NA	Moderate
Use of tocolytic agents	1 ¹⁶⁷	74/401 (18.5%)	92/407 (22.6%)	0.82 (0.62–1.07)	0.15	NA	NA	Moderate
Cesarean delivery	2 ^{167,168}	632/989 (63.9%)	559/996 (56.1%)	1.13 (1.06–1.21)	0.0004	0	NA	High
Maternal death	2 ^{167,168}	1/989 (0.1%)	0/996 (0.0%)	3.04 (0.12–74.52)	0.49	NA	NA	Low
Perinatal outcomes								
Fetal death	2 ^{167,168}	22/1987 (1.1%)	32/2001 (1.6%)	0.69 (0.40–1.19)	0.18	0	0.69 (0.34–1.39)	Moderate
Neonatal death	2 ^{167,168}	40/1987 (2.0%)	42/2001 (2.1%)	0.96 (0.62–1.48)	0.85	0	0.93 (0.54–1.61)	Moderate
Perinatal death	2 ^{167,168}	62/1987 (3.1%)	74/2001 (3.7%)	0.84 (0.61–1.18)	0.32	0	0.87 (0.57–1.33)	Moderate
Birthweight <1500 g	2 ^{167,168}	182/1987 (9.2%)	182/2001 (9.1%)	1.01 (0.83–1.23)	0.94	0	1.00 (0.77–1.29)	Moderate
Birthweight <2500 g	2 ^{167,168}	1106/1987 (55.7%)	1136/2001 (56.8%)	0.98 (0.93–1.04)	0.48	0	0.98 (0.92–1.05)	High
Respiratory distress syndrome	2 ^{167,168}	145/1958 (7.4%)	129/1969 (6.6%)	1.13 (0.90–1.41)	0.31	0	1.14 (0.85–1.53)	Moderate

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Necrotizing enterocolitis	2 ^{167,168}	16/1958 (0.8%)	13/1969 (0.7%)	1.24 (0.60–2.57)	0.56	0	1.28 (0.58–2.81)	Low
Intraventricular hemorrhage	2 ^{167,168}	26/1958 (1.3%)	22/1969 (1.1%)	1.19 (0.67–2.09)	0.55	0	1.19 (0.62–2.31)	Moderate
Neonatal sepsis	2 ^{167,168}	85/1958 (4.3%)	91/1969 (4.6%)	0.94 (0.70–1.25)	0.67	0	0.94 (0.67–1.32)	Moderate
Retinopathy of prematurity	1 ¹⁶⁸	12/1147 (1.0%)	3/1146 (0.3%)	4.00 (1.13–14.12)	0.03	NA	3.50 (0.73–16.77)	Low
Bronchopulmonary dysplasia	1 ¹⁶⁷	2/811 (0.2%)	9/823 (1.1%)	0.23 (0.05–1.04)	0.06	NA	0.17 (0.02–1.40)	Low
Periventricular leukomalacia	1 ¹⁶⁷	0/811 (0.0%)	5/823 (0.6%)	0.09 (0.01–1.67)	0.11	NA	0.11 (0.01–2.09)	Low
Any composite adverse neonatal/perinatal outcome	2 ^{167,168}	196/1958 (10.0%)	192/1969 (9.8%)	1.03 (0.85–1.24)	0.79	0	1.03 (0.81–1.32)	Moderate
Admission to NICU	2 ^{167,168}	457/1987 (23.0%)	466/2001 (23.3%)	0.96 (0.77–1.18)	0.67	60	0.98 (0.82–1.18)	Moderate
Mechanical ventilation	1 ¹⁶⁸	114/1147 (9.9%)	97/1146 (8.5%)	1.17 (0.91–1.52)	0.22	NA	1.16 (0.82–1.64)	Moderate

Data are n/N.

CI, confidence interval; NA, not applicable; NICU, neonatal intensive care unit; PPRM, preterm premature rupture of membranes.

^aTaking into account the non-independence of perinatal outcomes between twins/triplets.

^bRR was estimated using fixed effect model because the estimate obtained using random-effects model was unrealistic.

TABLE 5.

Effect of cervical pessary on pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes in twin gestations with a cervical length <38 mm

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Pregnancy/maternal outcomes								
Spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	87/577 (15.1%)	99/551 (18.0%)	0.75 (0.41–1.36)	0.34	69	NA	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <37 weeks	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	196/577 (34.0%)	201/551 (36.5%)	0.79 (0.48–1.30)	0.35	74	NA	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <32 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	38/486 (7.8%)	42/462 (9.1%)	0.86 (0.57–1.31)	0.48	NA	NA	Moderate
Spontaneous preterm birth <28 weeks	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	25/577 (4.3%)	26/551 (4.7%)	0.90 (0.49–1.68)	0.75	18	NA	Moderate
Preterm birth <37 weeks	3 ^{167,168,170}	338/587 (57.6%)	320/540 (59.3%)	0.95 (0.85–1.06)	0.37	18	NA	High
Preterm birth <34 weeks	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	104/577 (18.0%)	112/551 (20.3%)	0.80 (0.45–1.42)	0.44	72	NA	Low
Preterm birth <32 weeks	2 ^{167,168}	57/564 (10.1%)	63/517 (12.2%)	0.72 (0.38–1.34)	0.30	62	NA	Low
Preterm birth <28 weeks	3 ^{167,168,170}	24/587 (4.1%)	27/540 (5.0%)	0.71 (0.28–1.82)	0.47	59	NA	Low
Chorioamnionitis	2 ^{169,170}	4/91 (4.4%)	3/89 (3.4%)	1.30 (0.29–5.76)	0.73	0	NA	Low
PPROM	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	89/577 (15.4%)	83/551 (15.1%)	0.76 (0.34–1.72)	0.52	49	NA	Low
Vaginal discharge	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	285/557 (51.2%)	140/531 (26.4%)	1.93 (1.66–2.23)	<0.0001	0	NA	High
Vaginal infection	1 ¹⁶⁸	91/458 (19.9%)	70/400 (17.5%)	1.14 (0.86–1.50)	0.38	NA	NA	Moderate
Pelvic discomfort	1 ¹⁶⁸	29/466 (6.2%)	26/442 (5.9%)	1.06 (0.63–1.77)	0.83	NA	NA	Moderate
Use of tocolytic agents	2 ^{167,169}	38/146 (26.0%)	47/121 (38.8%)	0.69 (0.49–0.98)	0.04	0	NA	High
Cesarean delivery	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	388/577 (67.2%)	329/551 (59.7%)	1.08 (0.92–1.28)	0.34	24	NA	Moderate
Perinatal outcomes								
Fetal death	3 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁹	15/1265 (1.2%)	20/1167 (1.7%)	0.71 (0.36–1.38)	0.31	0	0.70 (0.30–1.64)	Low
Neonatal death	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	20/1311 (1.5%)	32/1213 (2.6%)	0.56 (0.13–2.35)	0.43	80	0.55 (0.14–2.12)	Low
Perinatal death	3 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁹	31/1265 (2.5%)	49/1167 (4.2%)	0.42 (0.13–1.31)	0.13	71	0.50 (0.20–1.25)	Low
Birthweight <1500 g	2 ^{168,169}	100/1104 (9.1%)	98/1053 (9.3%)	0.97 (0.72–1.30)	0.84	0	0.97 (0.68–1.38)	Moderate
Birthweight <2500 g	2 ^{168,169}	596/1104 (54.0%)	611/1053 (58.0%)	0.87 (0.68–1.11)	0.26	64	0.89 (0.70–1.12)	Moderate
Respiratory distress syndrome	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	123/1286 (9.6%)	102/1183 (8.6%)	1.13 (0.88–1.45)	0.34	0	1.14 (0.82–1.56)	Moderate
Necrotizing enterocolitis	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	9/1286 (0.7%)	9/1183 (0.8%)	1.00 (0.40–2.48)	0.99	0	1.00 (0.38–2.63)	Low

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Intraventricular hemorrhage	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	19/1286 (1.5%)	21/1183 (1.8%)	0.57 (0.12-2.65)	0.48	54	0.60 (0.15-2.31)	Low
Neonatal sepsis	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	74/1286 (5.8%)	62/1183 (5.2%)	1.05 (0.62-1.77)	0.86	19	1.08 (0.57-2.06)	Moderate
Retinopathy of prematurity	3 ¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰	12/1129 (1.1%)	3/1072 (0.3%)	3.40 (1.04-11.09)	0.04	0	3.25 (0.80-13.22)	Low
Bronchopulmonary dysplasia	2 ^{167,170}	4/203 (2.0%)	7/157 (4.5%)	0.59 (0.16-2.20)	0.43	10	0.77 (0.19-3.02)	Low
Periventricular leukomalacia	1 ¹⁶⁷	0/157 (0.0%)	1/111 (0.9%)	0.24 (0.01-5.75)	0.38	NA	0.24 (0.01-5.71)	Low
Any composite adverse neonatal/perinatal outcome	4 ¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰	145/1286 (11.3%)	139/1183 (11.7%)	0.86 (0.50-1.49)	0.58	77	0.90 (0.54-1.53)	Low
Admission to NICU	1 ¹⁶⁸	301/972 (31.0%)	276/924 (29.9%)	1.05 (0.87-1.28)	0.60	NA	1.04 (0.86-1.24)	High
Mechanical ventilation	1 ¹⁶⁸	102/972 (10.5%)	83/924 (9.0%)	1.17 (0.89-1.54)	0.27	NA	1.18 (0.81-1.70)	Moderate

Data are n/N.

CI, confidence interval; NA, not applicable; NICU, neonatal intensive care unit; PPRoM, preterm premature rupture of membranes.

^aTaking into account the non-independence of perinatal outcomes between twins.

TABLE 6.

Effect of cervical pessary on pregnancy, maternal, and perinatal outcomes in twin gestations with a cervical length ≥ 25 mm

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I^2 , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Pregnancy/maternal outcomes								
Spontaneous preterm birth <34 weeks	2 ^{168,169}	44/174 (25.3%)	54/174 (31.0%)	0.72 (0.25–2.06)	0.54	87	NA	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <37 weeks	2 ^{168,169}	102/174 (58.6%)	98/174 (56.3%)	1.01 (0.85–1.20)	0.88	0	NA	High
Spontaneous preterm birth <32 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	24/106 (22.6%)	22/108 (20.4%)	1.11 (0.67–1.86)	0.69	NA	NA	Low
Spontaneous preterm birth <28 weeks	2 ^{168,169}	18/174 (10.3%)	17/174 (9.8%)	0.93 (0.23–3.71)	0.91	75	NA	Low
Preterm birth <37 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	72/106 (67.9%)	71/108 (65.7%)	1.03 (0.86–1.25)	0.73	NA	NA	Moderate
Preterm birth <34 weeks	2 ^{168,169}	49/174 (28.2%)	56/174 (32.2%)	0.77 (0.26–2.26)	0.63	89	NA	Low
Preterm birth <32 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	27/106 (25.5%)	23/108 (21.3%)	1.20 (0.73–1.95)	0.47	NA	NA	Low
Preterm birth <28 weeks	1 ¹⁶⁸	14/106 (13.2%)	9/108 (8.3%)	1.58 (0.72–3.50)	0.26	NA	NA	Low
Chorioamnionitis	1 ¹⁶⁹	2/68 (2.9%)	2/66 (3.0%)	0.97 (0.14–6.69)	0.98	NA	NA	Low
PPROM	2 ^{168,169}	23/174 (13.2%)	27/174 (15.5%)	0.54 (0.09–3.33)	0.51	67	NA	Low
Vaginal discharge	2 ^{168,169}	102/160 (63.8%)	55/163 (33.7%)	1.86 (1.51–2.28)	<0.0001	0	NA	High
Vaginal infection	1 ¹⁶⁸	22/89 (24.7%)	11/87 (12.6%)	1.96 (1.01–3.79)	0.047	NA	NA	Moderate
Vaginal bleeding	1 ¹⁶⁹	3/68 (4.4%)	3/66 (4.5%)	0.97 (0.20–4.64)	0.97	NA	NA	Low
Pelvic discomfort	1 ¹⁶⁸	6/92 (6.5%)	6/97 (6.2%)	1.05 (0.35–3.15)	0.92	NA	NA	Low
Use of tocolytic agents	1 ¹⁶⁹	22/68 (32.4%)	29/66 (43.9%)	0.74 (0.47–1.14)	0.17	NA	NA	Low
Cesarean delivery	2 ^{168,169}	96/174 (55.2%)	92/174 (52.9%)	1.05 (0.87–1.27)	0.59	0	NA	Moderate
Maternal death	2 ^{168,169}	0/174 (0.0%)	0/174 (0.0%)	Not estimable	NA	NA	NA	Low
Perinatal outcomes								
Fetal death	2 ^{168,169}	10/348 (2.9%)	10/348 (2.9%)	0.88 (0.20–3.88)	0.86	28	1.04 (0.35–3.11)	Low
Neonatal death	2 ^{168,169}	10/348 (2.9%)	4/348 (1.1%)	2.55 (0.81–8.00)	0.11	NA	3.05 (0.63–14.82)	Low
Perinatal death	2 ^{168,169}	20/348 (5.8%)	14/348 (4.0%)	0.96 (0.14–6.34)	0.96	48	1.54 (0.65–3.66)	Low
Birthweight <1500 g	2 ^{168,169}	58/348 (16.7%)	53/348 (15.2%)	1.05 (0.63–1.74)	0.86	45	1.11 (0.71–1.73)	Low
Birthweight <2500 g	2 ^{168,169}	196/348 (56.3%)	212/348 (60.9%)	0.89 (0.64–1.22)	0.46	76	0.89 (0.65–1.24)	Low

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Author Manuscript

Outcome	No of trials	Pessary	No pessary	Relative risk (95% CI)	P value	I ² , %	Adjusted relative risk ^a (95% CI)	Quality of evidence
Respiratory distress syndrome	2 ^{168,169}	39/328 (11.9%)	35/334 (10.5%)	1.16 (0.76–1.78)	0.49	0	1.20 (0.69–2.07)	Moderate
Necrotizing enterocolitis	2 ^{168,169}	5/328 (1.5%)	4/334 (1.2%)	0.98 (0.08–12.26)	0.99	57	0.89 (0.09–8.84)	Very low
Intraventricular hemorrhage	2 ^{168,169}	8/328 (2.4%)	10/334 (3.0%)	0.55 (0.04–6.96)	0.64	66	0.67 (0.06–7.11)	Very low
Neonatal sepsis	2 ^{168,169}	26/328 (7.9%)	25/334 (7.5%)	1.09 (0.65–1.85)	0.74	0	1.11 (0.60–2.05)	Low
Retinopathy of prematurity	2 ^{168,169}	9/328 (2.7%)	2/334 (0.6%)	4.78 (1.05–21.85)	0.04	NA	5.34 (0.63–45.07)	Low
Any composite adverse neonatal outcome	2 ^{168,169}	42/328 (12.8%)	42/334 (12.6%)	0.98 (0.54–1.76)	0.94	39	1.05 (0.62–1.75)	Low
Admission to NICU	1 ¹⁶⁸	86/212 (40.6%)	72/216 (33.3%)	1.22 (0.95–1.56)	0.12	NA	1.23 (0.88–1.72)	Moderate
Mechanical ventilation	1 ¹⁶⁸	40/192 (20.8%)	28/204 (13.7%)	1.52 (0.98–2.36)	0.06	NA	1.46 (0.81–2.64)	Moderate

Data are n/N.

CI, confidence interval; NA, not applicable; NICU, neonatal intensive care unit; PPRM, preterm premature rupture of membranes.

^aTaking into account the non-independence of perinatal outcomes between twins.