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Spontaneous Preterm Birth Prevention: A Scoping Review Highlighting an Inverse Pattern of Research with a Lack of Research Evidence from High Burden Settings

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| Journal: | <i>BMJ Open</i> |
| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-052576 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 19-Apr-2021 |
| Complete List of Authors: | <p>Campbell, Fiona; SCHARR Salam, Shumona; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Sutton , Anthea; The University of Sheffield, SCHARR Jayasooriya, Shamanthi; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Mitchell, Caroline; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Soma-Pillay, Priya; University of Pretoria, Steve Biko Academic Hospital Chauke, Lawrence; University of Witwatersrand Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Gillespie, Bronwen; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Narice, Brenda; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Balen, Julie; The University of Sheffield, Amabebe, Emmanuel; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Parris, Kerry ; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Anumba, Dilichukwu; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism</p> |
| Keywords: | Maternal medicine < OBSTETRICS, International health services < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT |
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Spontaneous Preterm Birth Prevention: A Scoping Review Highlighting an Inverse Pattern of Research with a Lack of Research Evidence from High Burden Settings

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Work Count: 3,473

Keywords: Preterm Birth, Scoping Review, Health services research, Meta-analyses

Contributors: NIHR provided funding for researcher support, PRIME established study objectives, FC, PSP, LC prepared the protocol, AS designed search strategies, SS, SJ, CM EA, JB, BG, KP, BN collected and analysed or interpreted data. FC prepared manuscript. SS, AS, SJ, CM, EA, JB, BG, KP, PSP, LC, BN, DA edited or read and approved the final manuscript.

Abstract

Background: Globally, 11% of babies are born preterm annually and this is one of the leading causes of neonatal death and under-5 mortality and morbidity with lifelong sequelae in those that survive. Preterm birth (PTB) disproportionately impacts low- and middle income countries (LMICs) where the burden is highest. This mapping review sought to map the evidence for interventions that reduce the risk of PTB, focusing on the evidence from LMICs and to describe how context is considered in evidence synthesis

Method: We conducted a Scoping review, to describe this wide topic area. We searched five electronic databases, and contacted experts to identify relevant systematic reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of PTB. Data was extracted and is described narratively.

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3 **Results:** We included 139 published systematic reviews for analysis. Interventions
4 were categorised as primary or secondary. The interventions where the results
5 showed a greater effect size and consistency across review findings included
6 treatment of syphilis and vaginal candidiasis, vitamin D supplementation and cervical
7 cerclage. Included in the 139 reviews were 1372 unique primary source studies. 113
8 systematic reviews included data indicating the country in which the primary studies
9 were undertaken. 390 primary studies (28%) were undertaken in LMIC contexts. Of
10 those undertaken in LMIC contexts, 58 (4.2%) were undertaken in a low income (LI)
11 setting. Only 15 (10.8%) of the reviews sought to explore the impact of context on
12 findings, and 26 reviews did not report the settings in which data was derived.

13 **Conclusion:** This mapping review highlights the lack of research evidence derived
14 from contexts where the burden of PTB globally is greatest. The lack of rigour in
15 addressing contextual applicability within systematic review methods is also
16 highlighted. This presents a risk of inappropriate and unsafe recommendations for
17 practice within these contexts. It also highlights a need for primary research,
18 developing and testing interventions in low resource settings.

23 **Strengths and Limitations of this Study**

24 This is the first review of reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of preterm birth
25 that has sought to describe the context in which primary studies were undertaken
26 and consider how this relates to the distribution of burden of PTB across the globe.
27 139 reviews were included, with a total of 1372 primary studies. Only 4.2% of the
28 primary studies were conducted in low resource settings.

29 We describe a pattern of inverse research, where there is little correlation between
30 burden of disease and the global distribution of clinical trial research. This inverse
31 pattern has not been previously described or quantified in interventions to reduce
32 the risk of preterm birth, the leading cause of under-5 morbidity and mortality.

33 Few reviews found that the intervention had a positive effect in reducing the risk of
34 preterm birth and none of these findings included data that was derived from trials
35 conducted in low resource settings.

36 Most reviews describe the context of the primary studies, but few (n=15) sought to
37 explore contextual variation in effect. In 19% of reviews context is not described.
38 This has implications for the application of findings in contexts where underlying
39 mechanisms may influence the cause of PTB.

40 We were not able to identify the setting of all primary studies where this was not
41 reported and there is a risk that some studies, which have multiple publications may
42 have been double counted.

BACKGROUND

Preterm birth (PTB) is a global and public health priority. Preterm birth (PTB) is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as delivery before 37 completed weeks of gestation, with extremely PTB defined as occurring at less than 28 weeks, very preterm delivery occurring between 28 and 32 weeks, and moderate to late PTB occurring from 32 through 36 weeks.¹ It is one of the leading causes of neonatal death and under five mortality and morbidity with lifelong sequelae.² Children born prematurely have increased risks of cognitive problems, such as academic underachievement, behavioural problems and cerebral palsy than those born at full term.³ They are more likely to experience hospital admission due to infection, particularly during infancy⁴ For parents, the financial, social and emotional effects are devastating.³

The global burden of PTB is falling more heavily on countries with fewer resources to manage the medical, social, and economic complexities of caring for premature infants. Globally, there are approximately 15 million live preterm births each year, which is estimated to be about 11% of all deliveries each year, ranging from about 8.7% in northern Europe to 13.4% in North Africa.^{5,6} The majority of PTBs occur in Low- or Middle Income countries (LMICs).⁶ The highest PTB rates in 2014 occurred in southeast Asia, south Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Nine of the 11 countries with the highest rates were in Africa. Furthermore, 60% of all PTBs were estimated to have occurred in sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia accounting for just over nine million of the almost 15 million PTBs that occurred worldwide in 2010 resulting in a PTB rate of 12.8% in those settings.

Patterns of PTB differ between high-income countries and LMICs. However, the differences in these patterns, causes and distribution of PTB is unclear and have not been fully explored. PTB is multifactorial in its aetiology and has distinct biological pathways. The aetiologies differ according to gestational age, ethnicity and characteristics unique to each population. In order to redress the burden of PTB in LMICs, additional insight into the causative and associated factors in these settings is required.

While a number of reviews and overview of reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of PTB⁷⁻¹⁰ have been undertaken, none of these reviews have explored how many of the primary studies were undertaken in LMIC contexts. It is clear that some interventions that are effective in high income contexts but may be harmful in LMIC settings, such as the use of antenatal corticosteroids¹¹ and cerclage.¹² It is also possible that treatments effective in HI country contexts may be even more beneficial or appropriate in LMIC contexts, such as nutritional supplements, interventions to increase birth spacing, interventions to improve the accuracy of measuring gestational age.

We have undertaken a broad scoping review of systematic reviews on interventions to reduce the risk of PTB identifying primary studies undertaken in LMICs. This will allow us to identify potential areas for further synthesis of the evidence and also to identify gaps in the research in order to direct future primary research.

Review objectives

1. To identify systematic reviews that have sought to explore the effectiveness, safety and acceptability of interventions to prevent PTB.
2. To map research evidence to global settings to identify the geographical and economic contexts in which evidence is derived.
3. To identify where gaps in the research base exist (for real world, effectiveness, pragmatic studies) in LMIC contexts to inform future research and to generate research priorities.
4. To describe the methods used in meta-analysis to take into account geographical and regional differences in PTB.

METHODS

We used a scoping review methodology¹³ to describe the existing evidence (systematic reviews) available across primary and secondary interventions to prevent preterm birth (PTB) published between 2009 and 2019. Systematic scoping draws upon methods described by Arksey & O'Malley (2005)¹⁴ for scoping reviews: “[...a form of knowledge synthesis that addresses an exploratory research question aimed at scoping key concepts, types of evidence, and gaps in research related to a defined area or field by systematically searching, selecting, and synthesizing existing knowledge”.¹⁴ The approach enabled us to highlight the evidence gap and to assist with simultaneously undertaking a research prioritisation exercise and guideline development and to inform a programme of research to develop effective postnatal interventions to mitigate PTB in LMIC settings. It also enabled us to generate an interactive mega-map, an interactive table supported on our project website and designed as a visual tool to identify research gaps and facilitate ready access to relevant evidence. <https://www.primeglobalhealth.co.uk/evidence-map-2-7-2020.html>.

Patient and Public Involvement

This review was undertaken as part of a larger program of research in preterm birth (NIHR Global Health under grant (17/63/26)). The program is informed by key stakeholders and a PPI advisory group comprising of representatives from Sheffield, Bangladesh, and South Africa. The design and questions for the review were informed by consultation with these groups.

Identifying relevant studies

Relevant systematic reviews were identified by systematic searches in the following electronic databases: MEDLINE, The Cochrane Library, PsycINFO, EMBASE and CINAHL. Each database was searched using the database thesaurus and the key word/free text method. The search strategy, incorporated the following limitations: articles written in English, and Human studies only from April 2009 to July 2020.

We began with a framework of interventions identified by two existing reviews^{7,8} as these were broad in their focus and encompassed a range of interventions. Any new intervention types identified during the screening process were then added to the map.

The process of study selection was based on inclusion and exclusion criteria as described in Table 1. After removal of duplicates and irrelevant studies, based on the titles and abstracts, all potentially relevant reviews were read in full.

Table 1 Inclusion/ exclusion criteria based on PICOS

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| <p>Population</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnant women at less than 37 completed weeks gestation without signs of threatened preterm labour or premature rupture of membranes (PPROM). • Excluded reviews where the study population was defined by co-morbidities <p>Intervention</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All interventions deliverable during pregnancy to prevent spontaneous preterm birth. (these included clinical, behavioural and nutritional interventions and health systems and policy interventions). • All interventions assessed the risk of preterm birth. • Excluded interventions given to pregnant women to improve neonatal outcomes. <p>Comparators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We included any comparator, including placebo or alternative treatments <p>Outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We included reviews which focused to PTB as an outcome. • Where it is reported, we state how many of the primary studies measured PTB as an outcome and the resulting data used in the synthesis. <p>Study design</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Systematic reviews published between 1/1/2009-31/12/2019, of studies that have evaluated interventions to prevent PTB, or that measured PTB as a relevant outcome. <p>Outcomes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Preterm birth (<28, <34, <37 weeks gestation) . 2. We recorded neonatal outcomes and adverse outcomes if reported within the review. |
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Data extraction and coding

Data were extracted using an agreed and piloted template and coded in Excel by two reviewers. The following data categories were extracted: number of included studies, review PICO, setting of primary studies, how this was reported and inclusion in the analysis review methods for the analysis of context of study, PTB outcomes, assessment of adverse effects and recommendations for practice and research. Preterm birth rates in LI, LM, UM and HI settings were drawn data published in a rigorous review of national civil registration and vital statistics to determine global, regional and national estimates of levels of preterm birth.⁶

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Where reported information allowed, we used the World Bank categories to identify the categories of LMICs identified in the reviews.¹⁵¹ .

The population, interventions, comparators, outcomes and reviewer conclusions for future research were tabulated and described narratively. The country or countries where the included primary studies were noted, and the methods used in the review for analyses of data from different settings was also recorded and described. We did not contact review authors for missing data.

FINDINGS

Our search identified 9,517 citations which were screened by two reviewers. A third reviewer was also involved where there was a lack of consensus or uncertainty regarding inclusion. Following screening, 424 full text papers were retrieved for data extraction. At data extraction a further 285 were excluded. The process of identifying the included reviews is summarised in figure 1.

We included 139 reviews which addressed a range of primary and secondary interventions and measured the effectiveness of the intervention in reducing the risk of PTB. These are summarised in Table 2. There was a considerable variation in the number of included studies in the reviews for each intervention, reflecting differing research questions objectives (therefore different PICOs) and search strategies.

¹ Low-income economies are defined as those with a GNI per capita, calculated using the World Bank Atlas method, of \$995 or less; lower middle-income economies are those with a GNI per capita between \$996 and \$3,895; upper middle-income economies are those with a GNI per capita between \$3,896 and \$12,055; high-income economies are those with a GNI per capita of \$12,056 or more.

Table 1 Summary of included systematic reviews and settings of primary studies included in the review

| Interventions | Number of reviews | Number of primary studies | country NR | country of primary study | | | | | studies where setting NK |
|--|-------------------|---------------------------|------------|--------------------------|----|-----|-----|-------|--------------------------|
| | | | | LI | LM | UM | HI | mixed | |
| Primary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Health Systems | | | | | | | | | |
| Models of antenatal care delivery (group/specialised) ¹⁶⁻²⁶ | 11 | 68 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 64 | 0 | 0 |
| Midwifery led care ²⁷ | 1 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Improving ANC coverage ²⁸ | 1 | 34 | 0 | 10 | 15 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Health behaviours | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoking cessation ^{29 30} | 2 | 111 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 110 | 0 | 0 |
| Weight management ³¹⁻³⁶ | 6 | 70 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 8 | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Nutritional interventions | | | | | | | | | |
| Macronutrient supplements ^{37 38} | 2 | 34 | 0 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 8 | 4 | 0 |
| Micronutrient supplements ²⁴⁻⁵⁵ | 33 | 481 | 2 | 29 | 82 | 122 | 214 | 6 | 9 |
| Vitamin D ³⁹⁻⁴⁴ | 6 | 75 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin A ^{45 46} | 2 | 24 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin E, C, E and C ⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ | 3 | 67 | | | | | | | |
| Iron, folic acid, iron and folic acid ⁵⁰⁻⁵⁷ | 8 | 182 | | | | | | | |
| Fish oil ⁵⁸⁻⁶² | 5 | 38 | | | | | | | |

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|---|----|-----|----|---|---|----|----|---|----|
| Zinc ^{63 64} | 2 | 25 | | | | | | | |
| Calcium ^{65 66} | 2 | 27 | | | | | | | |
| Iodine ⁶⁷ | 2 | 14 | | | | | | | |
| Multiple micronutrients ⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰ | 3 | 29 | | | | | | | |
| Screening and treatment of periodontal disease⁷¹⁻⁸² | 12 | 46 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Screening and prevention/treatment of infection | 14 | 91 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 79 | 0 | 2 |
| Asymptomatic bacteriuria ⁸³⁻⁸⁶ | 4 | | | | | | | | |
| Screening and antibiotics for syphilis ⁸⁷ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Influenza vaccine ^{88 89} | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Lower genital tract infection ⁹⁰ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| UTI ^{91 92} | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Vaginal candidiasis ⁹³ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Nonspecific infection ^{94 95} | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria ⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸ | 3 | 17 | 0 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Secondary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Cerclage ⁹⁹⁻¹¹⁶ | 18 | 123 | 10 | 0 | 7 | 11 | 42 | | 51 |
| Bed rest ¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹ | 3 | 40 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Cervical pessary ¹²⁰⁻¹²⁵ | 6 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 1 | 0 |
| Progesterone ¹²⁶⁻¹⁴¹ | 16 | 59 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 8 | 28 | 4 | 11 |
| Tocolytics ¹⁴²⁻¹⁵⁴ | 11 | 167 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 13 | 68 | 0 | 84 |

ANC: antenatal care, NK: not known, NR: not reported, LI: low income, LM: low middle, UM: upper middle, HI: high income, UTI: urinary tract infection.

Context of primary studies

A total of 1372 primary studies was included across all of the 139 reviews, with 390 (28.4%) undertaken in LMICs. Not all of these studies will have been measuring PTB as an outcome but were included within the review which may have been measuring a range of maternal outcomes including PTB. The largest number of primary studies were those evaluating micronutrient supplements (n=481) and tocolytics (n=167). A total of 113 of the reviews described the country in which the primary study was undertaken and so this data was known for 1288 of the included primary studies. Fifteen (15) primary studies were multicentre and included data gathered from LMIC and HI settings, though only three of these studies included low income countries. Three hundred and ninety (28.4%) of the studies were undertaken in LMIC settings. The majority of these (n=122) were in studies that examined the effects of micronutrient supplements. Excluding nutritional interventions studies, the proportion of LMIC primary studies of interventions to reduce PTB accounts for only 17.6% of the included studies.

The number of primary studies undertaken in low income countries represented only 4.2% of the total number of studies, and if the nutritional intervention studies are excluded, they account for only 3.2% of the interventions. Of those primary studies that were undertaken in LMIC settings the numbers within each category differed significantly. The proportion of the studies that are undertaken in LI, LM and UM were 14.9% (n=58), 34.8% (n=136) and 50.2% (n=196) respectively. There are only single trials that have evaluated the impact of progesterone, tocolytics and interventions to increase calorie intake in LI settings. There are no trials that have evaluated smoking cessation, preventing excessive weight gain, prevention and treatment of periodontal disease, flu vaccine and cervical pessaries. The number of trials in each of the country categories within each intervention type are shown in table 2.

When this data is compared alongside data that shows the prevalence of PTB globally it is clear that there is an inverse pattern in the distribution of the data (figure 2).

Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

The effectiveness of interventions

The effectiveness of interventions in reducing the risk of PTB was variable with no intervention showing consistent effectiveness across the included reviews. Although interpretation of this data is limited by the lack of quality appraisal of the included reviews, and therefore should be interpreted with caution. Overall, the scoping review demonstrates considerable inconsistency of results of interventions. Of the 139 reviews, 28 reported a reduction in PTB in intervention versus a control, 80% of the reviews found that the intervention had no impact in reducing the risk of PTB. The summary result (relative risk and odds ratio are shown in Figure 3). The results show the reduction in PTB less than 37weeks gestation. In three reviews the intervention was not statistically significant at 37 weeks but was reported as statistically significant at 34 weeks¹⁰⁷, 35 weeks¹³² and 36 weeks¹²⁶. Two reviews reported a positive effect of the intervention in reducing risk of preterm birth but reported the outcome on a continuous measure. These included the effectiveness of macronutrient supplements³² (SMD -0.19 (95% CI -0.34 to -0.04)) and cerclage (mean difference 95% CI 33.98 days (17.88 to 50.08))¹⁰⁴. The interventions, reporting binary outcomes which appear to have the greatest

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3 effect (RR = 0.2-0.4) in reducing PTB are: antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria⁸⁴ (RR = 0.34 (95%
4 CI 0.11 to 0.62), the screening and treatment of syphilis⁸⁷ (RR = 0.36 (95% CI 0.27-0.47), treatment of
5 vaginal candidiasis⁹³ (RR = 0.36, (95% CI 0.17 to 0.75). Interventions with moderate effects (RR = 0.4-
6 0.6) included treating lower genital tract infection⁹⁰ and vitamin D supplements.⁴⁴ Four of the
7 reviews (figure 2) with a positive effect of the intervention considered that the strength of evidence
8 supporting the finding could be considered high and the finding reliable. None of these reviews
9 included studies conducted in low resource settings, and only one included one study in a lower
10 middle income country.
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14 Figure 3 Summary results of systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB
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25 *ANC: antenatal care, RR: relative risk, OR: odds ratio, LGT: lower genital tract, L,M,IC: low, low middle,*
26 *upper middle income countries.*
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Dealing with context and generalisability within evidence synthesis

The authors of the included reviews used different approaches to dealing with the contextual variation when pooling data from primary studies, which was either to ignore, document, explore or control differences. Twenty-seven reviews (19.8%) did not describe the setting of the primary study, ignoring variation in outcomes that may arise as a result of these differences. This occurred most frequently in those reviews of cervical cerclage (see Table 2). The majority of the included reviews 91 (67%) documented the country in which the primary study was carried out either within the text, tables of study characteristics or in accompanying appendices, but this was not considered further in terms of its implications for the findings, or application for future practice or research.

Eight reviews^{28 37 38 42 44 63 97 155} sought to explore the impact of geographical and economic context by undertaking a subgroup analysis comparing trials conducted in low income settings with those in high income settings or regression analysis with geographical regions as covariates (Africa, Americas, South east Asia, Europe, Eastern Mediterranean, Western Pacific). In addition one study¹⁵⁵ listed the country instead of author name on the forest plot allowing ready visualisation of differences across settings. Nine reviews^{29 40 45 48 49 53 65 66 69} undertook subgroup analysis based on features of the population that might vary across settings and influence the effectiveness of the intervention, such as baseline nutritional status of the mother. One review⁷⁰ exploring multiple micronutrient supplementation controlled for settings by limiting the review to include only those studies undertaken in LMIC contexts. Four reviews^{70 100 126 132} undertook an IPD (individual patient data) analyses allowing subgroup analyses about differences in effect more easily than with aggregate data. This approach allowed comparison between effects for women recruited and receiving the intervention in different settings, effect sizes in each country could also be shown in the analyses.

DISCUSSION

This scoping review has revealed an inverse pattern of research, with only 28.% of published research included in systematic reviews of interventions reporting PTB outcomes, carried out in LMIC settings, and only 4.2% conducted in the poorest countries in the world where the burden of preterm birth is greatest. The distribution of types of intervention tested and evaluated in these settings is not evenly distributed across interventions, but is largely focused on very context specific interventions (prevention of malarial infection) and nutritional supplementation. Similar patterns of a mismatch between research effort and health needs in non- high income regions have been identified across a broad range of diseases.^{156 157} It has also been previously reported that primary research often fails to capture those with the greatest health care needs such as vulnerable populations.^{158 159}

This review has also revealed a limited approach in evidence synthesis to explore the applicability of findings across geographical settings and to draw attention to these gaps with a resultant risk that interventions shown to be effective in HI settings may not translate to LI settings and may indeed have adverse effects when applied to LI settings. Likewise, the focus of research in HI settings means that interventions that may have greater benefit in LI settings, where the problem is greatest remain untested or replicated with larger numbers of participants. Adolescent pregnancy, short inter pregnancy interval have been highlighted as important risk factors for PTB¹⁶⁰ yet there is a lack of data on interventions to address these and their effectiveness in reducing the risk of PTB.

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3 The lack of robust evidence to inform both the primary and secondary prevention of PTB in low
4 resource settings, where the prevalence of PTB is highest presents challenges for developing
5 appropriate and contextually relevant clinical guidance.
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8 Two recent overviews of reviews^{9 10} also found that few interventions are effective in PTB prevention.
9 The following interventions were identified in these reviews as showing positive or possible benefit:
10 lifestyle and behavioural changes (including diet and exercise); nutritional supplements (including
11 calcium zinc and vitamin D supplementation); nutritional education; screening for lower genital tract
12 infections. Positive effects of secondary interventions were found for low dose aspirin among women
13 at risk of preeclampsia; clindamycin for treatment of bacterial vaginosis; treatment of vaginal
14 candidiasis; progesterone in women with prior spontaneous PTB and in those with short midtrimester
15 cervical length; L-arginine in women at risk for preeclampsia; levothyroxine among women with
16 thyroid disease; calcium supplementation in women at risk of hypertensive disorders; smoking
17 cessation; cervical length screening in women with history of PTB with placement of cerclage in those
18 with short cervix; cervical pessary in singleton gestations with short cervix; and treatment of
19 periodontal disease. Our review findings were in concordance, although, in addition, we identified
20 screening and antibiotic treatment for syphilis, and positive effects of fish oil supplements. In most
21 instances the trials were small and authors recommended larger well-designed RCTs. The lack of
22 consistency across review findings for interventions also merits more exploration. Compromised
23 methodological rigour can inflate trial findings by 30% to 50%. Some of the differences in our review
24 findings reflect some differences in the included reviews.
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30 The interventions identified in this review, and those of Matei et al (2019)⁹ and Medley et al (2019)¹⁰
31 informing guideline development, clinical practice and policy decision making have been little tested
32 in LMIC settings. In those interventions where there is more consistency in review findings such as
33 cervical cerclage, there are no studies that have been conducted in low income settings and over half
34 of the reviews did not report or consider settings in their analyses.
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37 This scoping review has shown that many authors of systematic reviews fail to use design and
38 statistical approaches that adequately address contextual variations between the included source
39 studies and imperfectly represent 'real world' conditions within the target context (Higgins et al 2019).
40 While those reviews that sought to take into account LMIC contexts were unable to conduct the
41 analyses due to a lack of data, they nonetheless were able to highlight the gaps in research, for
42 example the lack of studies in vitamin D undertaken in Africa.⁴²
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46 The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) reporting
47 standards reference 'context' in terms of the circumstances requiring the review itself, rather than
48 referencing the contexts of studies included in the review (Moher et al 2009) The PRISMA extension
49 for Complex Interventions includes the elements of 'time' and 'setting' (Guise et al 2017). However,
50 grouping LMIC data, or even LI data may still be too broad. Even within the categories of Low income
51 there is considerable diversity that may impact on how an intervention works and within countries
52 there may also be considerable diversity. For example, the time taken to reach comprehensive
53 emergency obstetric care facilities in low resource settings is often underestimated and for most
54 women is likely to be 120 minutes of travel time.¹⁶¹ Context cannot be standardised, it will vary from
55 review to review, as different interventions and different populations are considered. 'Context' and
56 the factors that might influence the efficacy, uptake, acceptability, appropriateness, accessibility and
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3 availability of an intervention requires a good understanding of the aetiology and mechanisms by
4 which risk factors interact with environmental, microbial, socio-political and health system variations
5 across settings
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8 It must be acknowledged that there are significant barriers to undertaking research in many settings
9 across the globe. These include very practical challenges such as a lack of access to high quality data
10 and the challenges of estimating gestational age.¹⁶² Recent reductions in funding of global health
11 research by the UK government,¹⁶³ will undermine what has been a growth in research in LMIC settings
12 and will impede efforts to address the imbalances highlighted in this scoping review
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15 A number of limitations exist in this scoping review. We have not sought to identify the setting of
16 primary studies where this is not reported in the systematic review. We have also not limited our
17 analysis to studies within the review that only contributed findings to the risk of PTB. Most reviews
18 are exploring several maternal and infant outcomes. Included primary studies in this scoping review
19 may therefore have not have included PTB outcome data. Nevertheless, it gives an indication of the
20 distribution of research being undertaken in the poorest regions of the world that address preterm
21 birth.
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24 25 **CONCLUSION**

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27 Only 4.2% of primary research to examine the effectiveness of interventions to reduce the risk of
28 preterm birth is carried out in those settings where the burden of preterm birth is greatest. No
29 interventions which reduce the risk of PTB, judged to be supported by strong evidence, include studies
30 undertaken in low resource settings. In the synthesis of studies, current methods often fail to address
31 the contextual variation and consider the applicability of findings in low resource, high burden
32 settings. This has implications for supporting policy making, and development of contextually relevant
33 clinical guidelines. While methods can be undertaken to improve approaches to evidence synthesis,
34 they cannot compensate for the lack of primary research in low resource settings. This is critical if
35 global health inequalities are to be addressed and millennium development goals¹⁶⁴ to reduce under-
36 five mortality are to be achieved.
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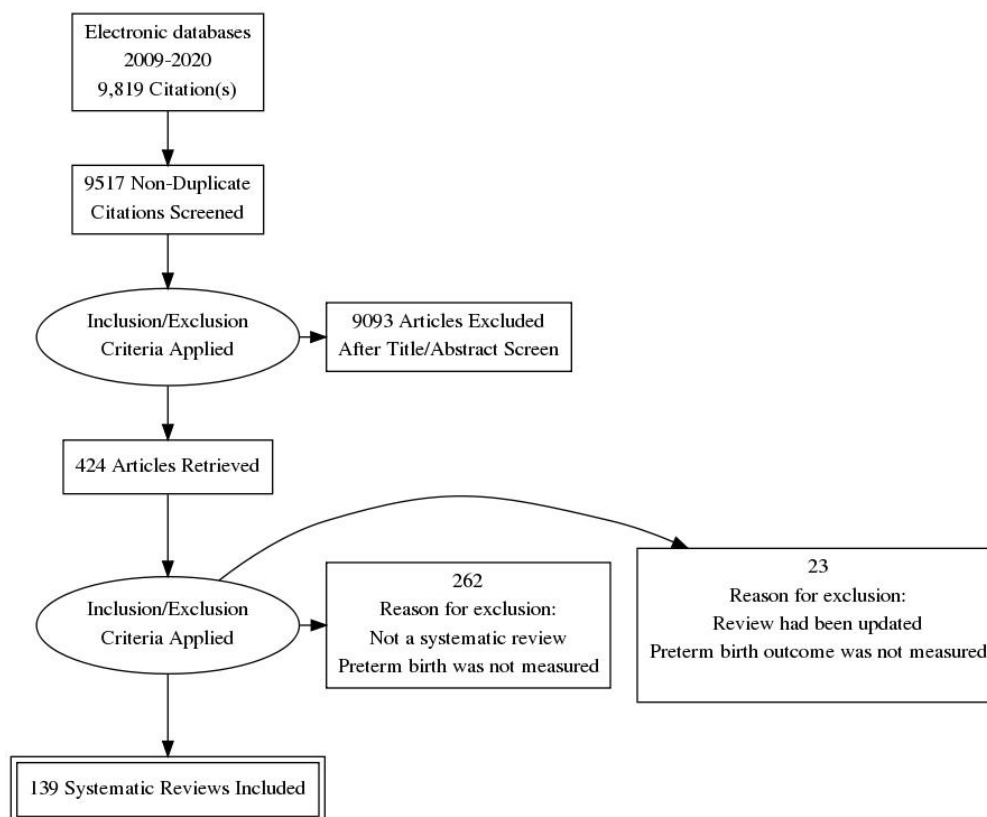


Figure 1: Flow of studies

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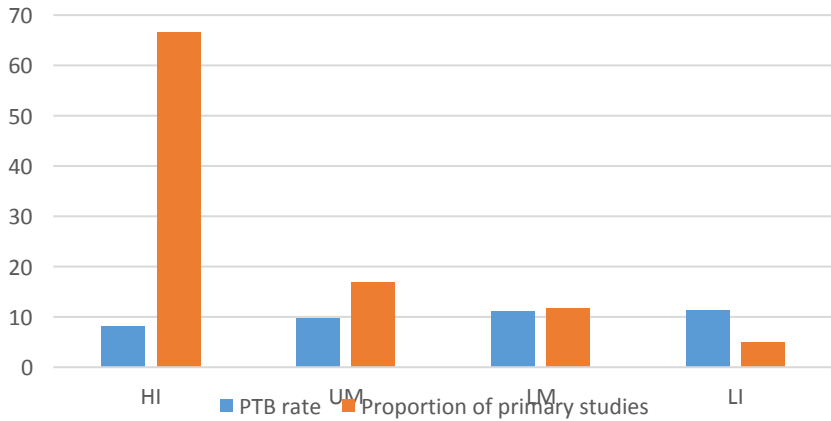
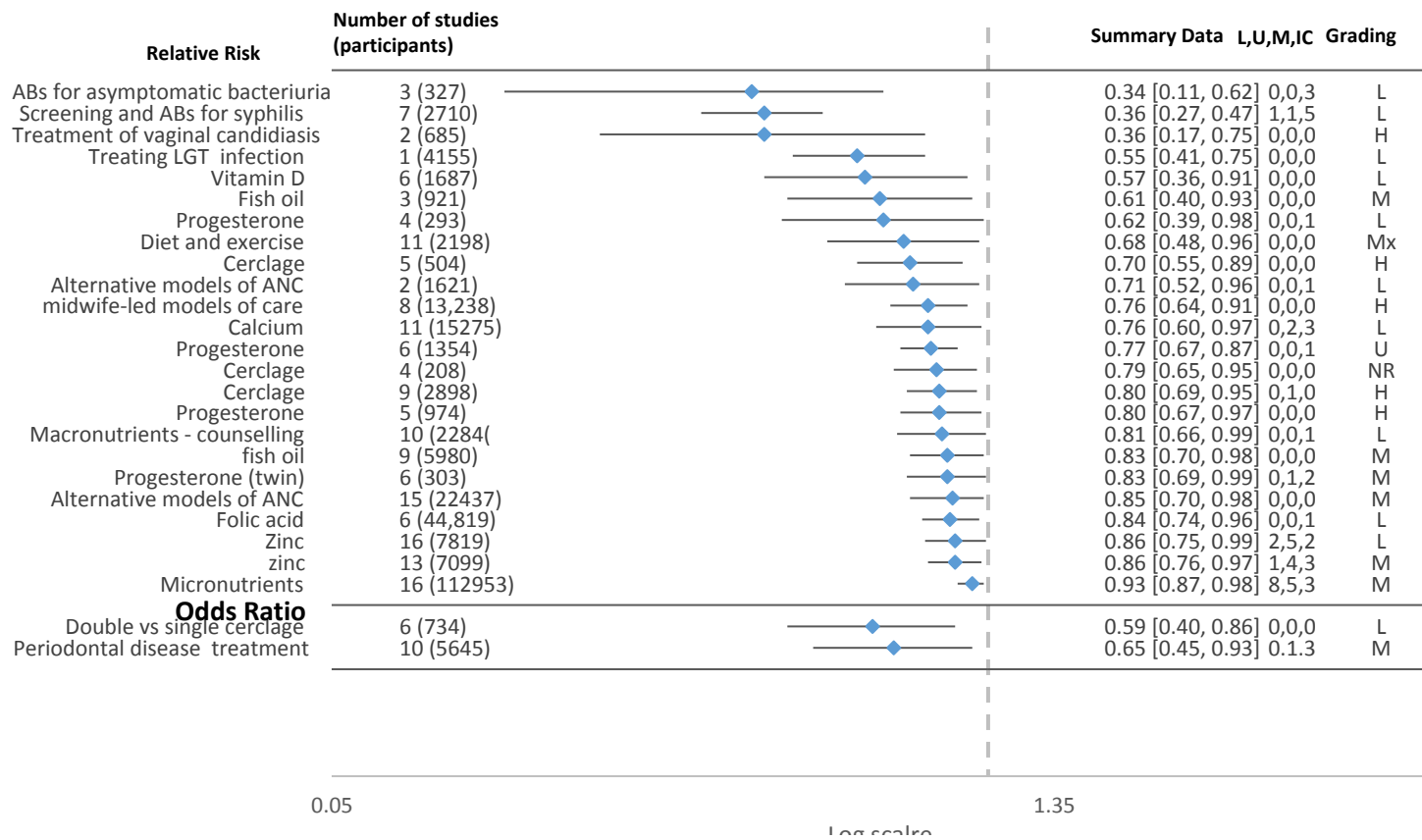


Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

Figure 3: Systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB



Appendix 1 Search strategy from MEDLINE (via Ovid SP)

The McMaster Reviews Search Filter was utilised (Line 6), available from:

https://hiru.mcmaster.ca/hiru/HIRU_Hedges_MEDLINE_Strategies.aspx#Reviews [Accessed 26

March 2021]. The Allen et al review referred to in Line 8 is: Allen J, Gamble J, Stapleton H, Kildea S.

Does the way maternity care is provided affect maternal and neonatal outcomes for young women?

A review of the research literature. *Women and Birth*. 2012;25(2):54-63.

| | | |
|----|---|--|
| 1 | (pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*).tw. (14683) | Pre-term birth terms |
| 2 | exp OBSTETRIC LABOR, PREMATURE/ (23309) | |
| 3 | exp PREMATURE BIRTH/ (11040) | |
| 4 | ((preterm or pre-term or premature) adj3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*)).tw. (41213) | |
| 5 | or/1-4 (48162) | |
| 6 | meta analysis.mp,pt. or review.pt. or search:.tw. (2681845) | Systematic Review (SR) Filter |
| 7 | 5 and 6 (8021) | Pre-term birth terms and SR Filter |
| 8 | (2009 04* or 2009 05* or 2009 06* or 2009 07* or 2009 08* or 2009 09* or 2009 10* or 2009 11* or 2009 12* or 2010* or 2011* or 2012* or 2013* or 2014* or 2015* or 2016* or 2017* or 2018*).dt. (9961452) | Added to MEDLINE post 1 April 2009 (when Allen et al searches were conducted) |
| 9 | 7 and 8 (4156) | Systematic Reviews post 1 April 2009 |
| 10 | limit 9 to english language (3872) | |
| 11 | limit 10 to humans (3245) | Systematic Reviews post 1 April 2009 (English Language and Human only) |

Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) Checklist

| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|--|--------------------|
| TITLE | | | |
| Title | 1 | Identify the report as a scoping review. | |
| ABSTRACT | | | |
| Structured summary | 2 | Provide a structured summary that includes (as applicable): background, objectives, eligibility criteria, sources of evidence, charting methods, results, and conclusions that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| INTRODUCTION | | | |
| Rationale | 3 | Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known. Explain why the review questions/objectives lend themselves to a scoping review approach. | |
| Objectives | 4 | Provide an explicit statement of the questions and objectives being addressed with reference to their key elements (e.g., population or participants, concepts, and context) or other relevant key elements used to conceptualize the review questions and/or objectives. | |
| METHODS | | | |
| Protocol and registration | 5 | Indicate whether a review protocol exists; state if and where it can be accessed (e.g., a Web address); and if available, provide registration information, including the registration number. | |
| Eligibility criteria | 6 | Specify characteristics of the sources of evidence used as eligibility criteria (e.g., years considered, language, and publication status), and provide a rationale. | |
| Information sources* | 7 | Describe all information sources in the search (e.g., databases with dates of coverage and contact with authors to identify additional sources), as well as the date the most recent search was executed. | |
| Search | 8 | Present the full electronic search strategy for at least 1 database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated. | |
| Selection of sources of evidence† | 9 | State the process for selecting sources of evidence (i.e., screening and eligibility) included in the scoping review. | |
| Data charting process‡ | 10 | Describe the methods of charting data from the included sources of evidence (e.g., calibrated forms or forms that have been tested by the team before their use, and whether data charting was done independently or in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators. | |
| Data items | 11 | List and define all variables for which data were sought and any assumptions and simplifications made. | |
| Critical appraisal of individual sources of evidence§ | 12 | If done, provide a rationale for conducting a critical appraisal of included sources of evidence; describe the methods used and how this information was used in any data synthesis (if appropriate). | |
| Synthesis of results | 13 | Describe the methods of handling and summarizing the data that were charted. | |



| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|---|--------------------|
| RESULTS | | | |
| Selection of sources of evidence | 14 | Give numbers of sources of evidence screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally using a flow diagram. | |
| Characteristics of sources of evidence | 15 | For each source of evidence, present characteristics for which data were charted and provide the citations. | |
| Critical appraisal within sources of evidence | 16 | If done, present data on critical appraisal of included sources of evidence (see item 12). | |
| Results of individual sources of evidence | 17 | For each included source of evidence, present the relevant data that were charted that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| Synthesis of results | 18 | Summarize and/or present the charting results as they relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| DISCUSSION | | | |
| Summary of evidence | 19 | Summarize the main results (including an overview of concepts, themes, and types of evidence available), link to the review questions and objectives, and consider the relevance to key groups. | |
| Limitations | 20 | Discuss the limitations of the scoping review process. | |
| Conclusions | 21 | Provide a general interpretation of the results with respect to the review questions and objectives, as well as potential implications and/or next steps. | |
| FUNDING | | | |
| Funding | 22 | Describe sources of funding for the included sources of evidence, as well as sources of funding for the scoping review. Describe the role of the funders of the scoping review. | |

JBI = Joanna Briggs Institute; PRISMA-ScR = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews.

* Where *sources of evidence* (see second footnote) are compiled from, such as bibliographic databases, social media platforms, and Web sites.

† A more inclusive/heterogeneous term used to account for the different types of evidence or data sources (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy documents) that may be eligible in a scoping review as opposed to only studies. This is not to be confused with *information sources* (see first footnote).

‡ The frameworks by Arksey and O'Malley (6) and Levac and colleagues (7) and the JBI guidance (4, 5) refer to the process of data extraction in a scoping review as data charting.

§ The process of systematically examining research evidence to assess its validity, results, and relevance before using it to inform a decision. This term is used for items 12 and 19 instead of "risk of bias" (which is more applicable to systematic reviews of interventions) to include and acknowledge the various sources of evidence that may be used in a scoping review (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy document).

From: Tricco AC, Lillie E, Zarin W, O'Brien KK, Colquhoun H, Levac D, et al. PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR): Checklist and Explanation. *Ann Intern Med.* 2018;169:467–473. doi: 10.7326/M18-0850.



BMJ Open

Interventions for the prevention of spontaneous preterm birth: a scoping review of systematic reviews

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|---------------------------------|--|
| Journal: | <i>BMJ Open</i> |
| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-052576.R1 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 03-Feb-2022 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Campbell, Fiona; University of Sheffield , SCHARR Salam, Shumona; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Sutton , Anthea; The University of Sheffield, SCHARR Jayasooriya, Shamanthi; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Mitchell, Caroline; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Amabebe, Emmanuel; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Balen, Julie; The University of Sheffield, Gillespie, Bronwen; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Parris, Kerry ; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Soma-Pillay, Priya; University of Pretoria, Steve Biko Academic Hospital Chauke, Lawrence; University of Witwatersrand Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Narice, Brenda; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Anumba, Dilichukwu; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism |
| Primary Subject Heading: | Evidence based practice |
| Secondary Subject Heading: | Public health |
| Keywords: | Maternal medicine < OBSTETRICS, International health services < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT |
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Interventions for the prevention of spontaneous preterm birth: a scoping review of systematic reviews

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Data extracted from included studies is available on request by email from the
corresponding author: f.campbell@sheffield.ac.uk

Work Count: 3,473

Keywords: Preterm Birth, Scoping Review, Health services research, Meta-analyses

Contributors: PRIME (Preterm birth Prevention and Management) research program established the study objectives, FC, PSP, LC prepared the protocol, AS designed search strategies, SS, SJ, CM EA, JB, BG, KP, BN collected and analysed or interpreted data. FC prepared manuscript. SS, AS, SJ, CM, EA, JB, BG, KP, PSP, LC, BN, DA edited or read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding: NIHR provided funding for researcher support.

Competing Interests: We declare that there are no competing interests.

Data availability statement: Data extracted from included studies is available on request by email from the corresponding author

Ethical approval: Ethical approval was not required for this study as it drew on existing published research and did not involve human or animal participants.

Abstract

Objectives: Globally, 11% of babies are born preterm each year. Preterm birth (PTB) a leading cause of neonatal death and under-5 mortality and morbidity, with lifelong sequelae in those who survive. PTB disproportionately impacts low- and middle income countries (LMICs) where the burden is highest. This scoping review maps the evidence for interventions that reduce the risk of PTB, focusing on the evidence from LMICs and describing how context is considered in evidence synthesis.

Design: We conducted a scoping review, to describe this wide topic area. We searched five electronic databases and contacted experts to identify relevant systematic reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of PTB. We included published systematic reviews that examined the effectiveness of interventions and their effect on reducing the risk of PTB. Data was extracted and is described narratively.

Results: 139 published systematic reviews were included in the review. Interventions were categorised as primary or secondary. The interventions where the results showed a greater effect size and consistency across review findings included treatment of syphilis and vaginal candidiasis, vitamin D supplementation and cervical cerclage. Included in the 139 reviews were 1372 unique primary source studies. 28% primary studies were undertaken in LMIC contexts and only 4.5% undertaken in a low income country (LIC) Only 10.8% of the reviews sought to explore the impact of context on findings, and 19.4% reviews did not report the settings or the primary studies

Conclusion: This scoping review highlights the lack of research evidence derived from contexts where the burden of PTB globally is greatest. The lack of rigour in addressing contextual applicability within systematic review methods is also highlighted. This presents a risk of inappropriate and unsafe recommendations for practice within these contexts. It also highlights a need for primary research, developing and testing interventions LIC settings.

Strengths and Limitations of this Study

- The first review of reviews looking at interventions to reduce the risk of PTB and describe the context in which primary studies were undertaken.
- This is the first review to analyse how context is taken into account in the meta-analyses reported in the reviews.
- This scoping review focused on existing reviews. Primary studies not reported in systematic reviews will therefore have not been included in our analysis.
- We were not able to identify the setting of all primary studies where this was not reported and there is a risk that some studies, which have multiple publications may have been double counted.

BACKGROUND

Preterm birth (PTB) is a global and public health priority. It is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as delivery before 37 completed weeks of gestation, with extremely preterm delivery defined as occurring at less than 28 weeks, very preterm delivery occurring between 28 and 32 weeks, and moderate to late preterm delivery occurring from 32 through 36 weeks.¹ It is one of the leading causes of neonatal death and under five mortality and morbidity, with lifelong sequelae.² Children born prematurely have increased risks of cognitive problems, such as academic underachievement, behavioural problems and cerebral palsy than those born at full term.³ They are more likely to experience hospital admission due to infection, particularly during infancy.⁴ For parents, the financial, social and emotional effects are devastating.³

The global burden of PTB is falling more heavily on countries with fewer resources to manage the medical, social, and economic complexities of caring for premature infants. Globally, there are approximately 15 million live preterm births each year, which is estimated to be about 11% of all deliveries each year, ranging from about 8.7% in northern Europe to 13.4% in North Africa.⁵ The majority of PTBs occur in Low- or Middle Income countries (LMICs).⁶ The highest PTB rates in 2014 occurred in southeast Asia, south Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Nine of the 11 countries with the highest rates were in Africa. Furthermore, 60% of all PTBs were estimated to have occurred in sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia accounting for just over nine million of the almost 15 million PTBs that occurred worldwide in 2010 resulting in a PTB rate of 12.8% in those settings.

Patterns of PTB differ between high-income countries and LMICs. However, the differences in these patterns, causes and distribution of PTB is unclear and have not been fully explored. PTB is multifactorial in its aetiology and has distinct biological pathways. The aetiologies differ according to gestational age, ethnicity and characteristics unique to each population. In order to redress the burden of PTB in LMICs, additional insight into the causative and associated factors in these settings is required.

While a number of reviews and overviews of reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of PTB have been undertaken⁷⁻¹⁰, none have explored how many of the primary studies included in these reviews were undertaken in LMIC contexts. It is clear that some interventions that are effective in HIC (high income country) contexts but may be harmful in LMIC settings, such as the use of antenatal corticosteroids¹¹ and cerclage.¹² It is also possible that treatments effective in HIC contexts may be even more beneficial or appropriate in LMIC contexts, such as nutritional supplements, interventions to increase birth spacing, or interventions to improve the accuracy of measuring gestational age.

We have undertaken a broad scoping review of systematic reviews on interventions to reduce the risk of PTB identifying primary studies undertaken in LMICs. This will allow us to identify potential areas for further synthesis of the evidence and also to identify gaps in the research in order to direct future primary research.

Review objectives

1. To identify systematic reviews that have sought to explore the effectiveness, safety and acceptability of interventions to prevent PTB.
2. To map research evidence to global settings to identify the geographical and economic contexts in which evidence is derived.
3. To identify where gaps in the research base exist (for real world, effectiveness, pragmatic studies) in LMIC contexts to inform future research and to generate research priorities.
4. To describe the methods used in meta-analysis to take into account geographical and regional differences in PTB.

METHODS

We used a scoping review methodology¹³ to describe the existing evidence (systematic reviews) available across primary and secondary interventions to prevent PTB, published between 2009 and 2019. Systematic scoping draws upon methods described by Arksey & O'Malley (2005)¹⁴ for scoping reviews: "[...a form of knowledge synthesis that addresses an exploratory research question aimed at scoping key concepts, types of evidence, and gaps in research related to a defined area or field by systematically searching, selecting, and synthesizing existing knowledge".¹⁴ The approach enabled us to highlight the evidence gap and to assist with simultaneously undertaking a research prioritisation exercise and guideline development, as well as to inform a broader programme of research that aimed to develop effective postnatal interventions to mitigate PTB in LMIC settings. It also enabled us to generate a mega-map, an interactive table supported on our project website and designed as a visual tool to identify research gaps and facilitate ready access to relevant evidence. <https://www.primeglobalhealth.co.uk/evidence-map-2-7-2020.html>.

Identifying relevant studies

Relevant systematic reviews were identified by systematic searches in the following electronic databases: Ovid MEDLINE, Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR), PsycINFO via Ovid, EMBASE via Ovid and CINAHL via EBSCO. Each database was searched using the database thesaurus and the key word/free text method with terms relating to preterm birth combined with a systematic reviews filter. The search strategy, incorporated the following limitations: articles written in English, and Human studies only from April 2009 to July 2020. Relevant systematic reviews were identified by systematic searches in the following electronic databases: MEDLINE, The Cochrane Library, PsycINFO, EMBASE and CINAHL. Each database was searched using the database thesaurus and the key word/free text method. The search strategy, incorporated the following limitations: articles written in English, and Human studies only from April 2009 to July 2020. The date limit was selected due to the existence of a previous review for which the studies were conducted in April 2009.¹⁵ Full search strategies can be found in Appendix 1.

We began with a framework of interventions identified by two existing reviews^{7,8} as these were broad in their focus and encompassed a range of interventions. Any new intervention types identified during the screening process were then added to the map.

The process of study selection was based on inclusion and exclusion criteria as described in Table 1. After removal of duplicates and irrelevant studies, based on the titles and abstracts, all potentially relevant reviews were read in full. Citations were screened by two reviewers (FC and one of the following team members SS, SJ, EA, JB, BG, BN, KP) independently and differences were resolved by discussion.

Table 1 Inclusion/ exclusion criteria based on PICOS

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| <p>Population</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnant women at less than 37 completed weeks gestation without signs of threatened preterm labour or premature rupture of membranes (PPROM). • Excluded reviews where the study population was defined by co-morbidities. <p>Intervention</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All interventions deliverable during pregnancy to prevent spontaneous preterm birth, (these included clinical, behavioural and nutritional interventions and health systems and policy interventions). • All interventions assessed the risk of preterm birth. • Excluded interventions given to pregnant women to improve neonatal outcomes. <p>Comparators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We included any comparator, including placebo or alternative treatments. <p>Outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We included reviews which focused to PTB as an outcome. • Where it is reported, we state how many of the primary studies measured PTB as an outcome and the resulting data used in the synthesis. <p>Study design</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Systematic reviews published between April 2009-July 2020, of studies that have evaluated interventions to prevent PTB, or that measured PTB as a relevant outcome. <p>Outcomes</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Preterm birth (<28, <34, <37 weeks gestation) . 2. We recorded neonatal outcomes and adverse outcomes if reported within the review. |
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Data extraction and coding

Data were extracted using an agreed and piloted template and coded in Excel by two reviewers working independently (FC and one of the following team members SS, SJ, EA, JB, BG, BN, KP) differences were resolved by discussion. The following data categories were extracted: number of included studies, review PICO, setting of primary studies, and any analysis that took into account study setting or population characteristics, PTB outcomes, assessment of adverse effects and recommendations for practice and research. Preterm birth rates in LICs, LMCs, UMCs and HICs settings were drawn from data published in a rigorous

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3 review of national civil registration and vital statistics to determine global, regional and
4 national estimates of levels of preterm birth.⁶
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7 Where reported information allowed, we used the World Bank categories to identify the
8 categories of all country settings identified in the reviews.¹⁶¹ .
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11 The population, interventions, comparators, outcomes and reviewer conclusions for future
12 research were tabulated and described narratively. The country or countries of the included
13 primary studies were noted, and the methods used in the review for analyses of data from
14 different settings was also recorded and described. We did not contact review authors for
15 missing data.
16

17 18 **Patient and Public Involvement**

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20 This review was undertaken as part of a larger program of research in preterm birth (NIHR
21 Global Health under grant (17/63/26)). The program is informed by key stakeholders and a
22 PPI advisory group comprising of representatives from Sheffield, Bangladesh, and South
23 Africa. The design and questions for the review were informed by consultation with these
24 groups.
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26

27 28 **Results**

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30 Our search identified 3,133 citations which were screened by two reviewers. A third reviewer
31 was also involved where there was a lack of consensus or uncertainty regarding inclusion.
32 Following screening, 424 full text papers were retrieved for data extraction. At data extraction
33 a further 285 were excluded. The process of identifying the included reviews is summarised
34 in Figure 1.
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37 We included 139 reviews which addressed a range of primary and secondary interventions
38 and measured the effectiveness of the intervention in reducing the risk of PTB. These are
39 summarised in Table 2 There was a considerable variation in the number of included studies
40 in the reviews for each intervention, reflecting differing research questions objectives
41 (therefore different PICOs) and search strategies.
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56 ¹ Low-income economies are defined as those with a GNI per capita, calculated using the
57 World Bank Atlas method, of \$995 or less; lower middle-income economies are those with a
58 GNI per capita between \$996 and \$3,895; upper middle-income economies are those with a
59 GNI per capita between \$3,896 and \$12,055; high-income economies are those with a GNI
60 per capita of \$12,056 or more.

Table 2 Summary of included systematic reviews and settings of primary studies included in the review

| Interventions | Number of reviews | Number of primary studies | country NR | country of primary study | | | | | studies where setting NK |
|--|-------------------|---------------------------|------------|--------------------------|----|-----|-----|-------|--------------------------|
| | | | | LI | LM | UM | HI | mixed | |
| Primary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Health Systems | | | | | | | | | |
| Models of antenatal care delivery (group/specialised) ¹⁷⁻²⁷ | 11 | 68 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 64 | 0 | 0 |
| Midwifery led care ²⁸ | 1 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Improving ANC coverage ²⁹ | 1 | 34 | 0 | 10 | 15 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Health behaviours | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoking cessation ^{30 31} | 2 | 111 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 110 | 0 | 0 |
| Weight management ³²⁻³⁷ | 6 | 70 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 8 | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Nutritional interventions | | | | | | | | | |
| Macronutrient supplements ^{38 39} | 2 | 34 | 0 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 8 | 4 | 0 |
| Micronutrient supplements ²⁴⁻⁵⁵ | 33 | 481 | 2 | 29 | 82 | 122 | 214 | 6 | 9 |
| Vitamin D ⁴⁰⁻⁴⁵ | 6 | 75 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin A ^{46 47} | 2 | 24 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin E, C, E and C ⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ | 3 | 67 | | | | | | | |
| Iron, folic acid, iron and folic acid ⁵¹⁻⁵⁸ | 8 | 182 | | | | | | | |
| Fish oil ⁵⁹⁻⁶³ | 5 | 38 | | | | | | | |

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|---|----|-----|----|---|---|----|----|---|----|
| Zinc ⁶⁴⁻⁶⁵ | 2 | 25 | | | | | | | |
| Calcium ⁶⁶⁻⁶⁷ | 2 | 27 | | | | | | | |
| Iodine ⁶⁸ | 2 | 14 | | | | | | | |
| Multiple micronutrients ⁶⁹⁻⁷¹ | 3 | 29 | | | | | | | |
| Screening and treatment of periodontal disease⁷²⁻⁸³ | 12 | 46 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Screening and prevention/treatment of infection | 14 | 91 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 79 | 0 | 2 |
| Asymptomatic bacteriuria ⁸⁴⁻⁸⁷ | 4 | | | | | | | | |
| Screening and antibiotics for syphilis ⁸⁸ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Influenza vaccine ⁸⁹⁻⁹⁰ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Lower genital tract infection ⁹¹ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| UTI ⁹²⁻⁹³ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Vaginal candidiasis ⁹⁴ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Nonspecific infection ⁹⁵⁻⁹⁶ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria ⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹ | 3 | 17 | 0 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Secondary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Cerclage ¹⁰⁰⁻¹¹⁷ | 18 | 123 | 10 | 0 | 7 | 11 | 42 | | 51 |
| Bed rest ¹¹⁸⁻¹²⁰ | 3 | 40 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Cervical pessary ¹²¹⁻¹²⁶ | 6 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 1 | 0 |
| Progesterone ¹²⁷⁻¹⁴² | 16 | 59 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 8 | 28 | 4 | 11 |
| Tocolytics ¹⁴³⁻¹⁵⁵ | 11 | 167 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 13 | 68 | 0 | 84 |

ANC: antenatal care, NK: not known, NR: not reported, LI: low income, LM: low middle, UM: upper middle, HI: high income, UTI: urinary tract infection.

Context of primary studies

A total of 1372 primary studies were included across all of the 139 reviews. Not all of these studies will have been measuring PTB as an outcome but were included within the review which may have been measuring a range of maternal outcomes including PTB. The largest number of primary studies were those evaluating micronutrient supplements (n=481) and tocolytics (n=167). A total of 113 of the reviews described the country in which the primary studies were undertaken and so this data was known for 1288 (93.9%) of the 1372 included primary studies. Of these, 390 (30.3%) were undertaken in LMICs, fifteen primary studies were multicentre and included data gathered from LMIC and HIC settings, though only three of these studies included LICs. Of the studies undertaken in LMICs, a majority (n=255;) examined the effects of nutritional supplements. Excluding nutritional intervention studies, the proportion of LMIC-based primary studies of interventions to reduce PTB accounts for only (n=135) 10.5% of the included studies where settings are known..

Of the total number of primary studies undertaken in LMIC contexts, those studies undertaken in LIC settings represented a very small proportion of included studies. Participants from LICs were represented in only 4.5% (n=58) of the total number of studies, and if the nutritional intervention studies are excluded, they account for only 2.5% (n=32) of the studies evaluating interventions. Of those primary studies that were undertaken in LMIC settings the numbers within each country category differed significantly. The proportion of the studies that are undertaken in LIC, LMC and UMC were 14.9% (n=58), 34.8% (n=136) and 50.2% (n=196) respectively. There are only single trials that have evaluated the impact of progesterone, tocolytics and interventions to increase calorie intake in LIC settings. There are no trials that have evaluated smoking cessation, preventing excessive weight gain, prevention and treatment of periodontal disease, flu vaccine and cervical pessaries. The number of trials in each of the country categories within each intervention type are shown in Table 2.

When this data is compared alongside data that shows the prevalence of PTB globally it is clear that there is an inverse pattern in the distribution of the data (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

The effectiveness of interventions

The effectiveness of interventions in reducing the risk of PTB was variable with no intervention showing consistent effectiveness across the included reviews. Although interpretation of this data is limited by the lack of quality appraisal of the included reviews, and therefore should be viewed with caution. Overall, the scoping review demonstrates considerable inconsistency of results of interventions. Of the 139 reviews, 28 reported a reduction in PTB in intervention versus a control, 80% (n=111) of the reviews found that the intervention had no impact in reducing the risk of PTB. The summary result (relative risk and odds ratio are shown in Figure 3). The results show the reduction in PTB less than 37 weeks gestation. In three reviews the intervention was not statistically significant at 37 weeks but was reported as statistically significant at 34 weeks¹⁰⁸, 35 weeks¹³³ and 36 weeks¹²⁷. Two reviews reported a positive effect of the intervention in reducing risk of preterm birth but reported the outcome on a continuous measure. These included the effectiveness of macronutrient supplements³³ (SMD -0.19 (95% CI -0.34 to -0.04)) and cerclage (mean difference 95% CI 33.98 days

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3 (17.88 to 50.08))¹⁰⁵. The interventions reporting binary outcomes which appear to have the greatest
4 effect (RR = 0.2-0.4) in reducing PTB are: antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria⁸⁵ (RR = 0.34 (95% CI
5 0.11 to 0.62), the screening and treatment of syphilis⁸⁸ (RR = 0.36 (95% CI 0.27-0.47), and treatment
6 of vaginal candidiasis⁹⁴ (RR = 0.36, (95% CI 0.17 to 0.75). Interventions with moderate effects (RR =
7 0.4-0.6) included treating lower genital tract infection⁹¹ and vitamin D supplements.⁴⁵ Four of the
8 reviews (Figure 2) with a positive effect of the intervention considered that the strength of evidence
9 supporting the finding could be considered high and the finding reliable. None of these reviews
10 included studies conducted in LIC settings, and only one included one study in a LMIC.
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14 Figure 3 Summary results of systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB
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25 *ANC: antenatal care, RR: relative risk, OR: odds ratio, LGT: lower genital tract, L,M,IC: low, low middle,*
26 *upper middle income countries.*
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Dealing with context and generalisability within evidence synthesis

The authors of the included reviews used different approaches to dealing with the contextual variation when pooling data from primary studies, which was either to ignore, document, explore or control for differences. Twenty-seven reviews (23.8%) did not describe the setting of the primary study, ignoring variation in outcomes that may arise as a result of these differences. This occurred most frequently in reviews of cervical cerclage (see Table 2). The majority of the included reviews 86 (76.1%) documented the country in which the primary study was carried out either within the text, tables of study characteristics or in accompanying appendices, but this was not considered further in terms of its implications for the findings, or application for future practice or research.

Eight reviews^{29 38 39 43 45 64 98 156} sought to explore the impact of geographical and economic context by undertaking a subgroup analysis comparing trials conducted in low income settings with those in high income settings or regression analysis with geographical regions as covariates (Africa, Americas, Southeast Asia, Europe, Eastern Mediterranean, Western Pacific). In addition, one study¹⁵⁶ listed the country instead of the author name on the forest plot allowing ready visualisation of differences across settings. Nine reviews^{30 41 46 49 50 54 66 67 70} undertook subgroup analysis based on features of the population that might vary across settings and influence the effectiveness of the intervention, such as baseline nutritional status of the mother. One review⁷¹ exploring multiple micronutrient supplementation controlled for settings by limiting the review to include only those studies undertaken in LMIC contexts. Four reviews^{71 101 127 133} undertook an IPD (individual patient data) analysis, allowing subgroup analyses about differences in effect more easily than with aggregate data. This approach allowed comparison between effects for women recruited and receiving the intervention in different settings, effect sizes in each country could also be shown in the analyses.

DISCUSSION

This scoping review has revealed an inverse pattern of research, with only 30.3% of published research included in systematic reviews of interventions reporting PTB outcomes carried out in LMIC settings, and only 4.5% was conducted in the poorest countries in the world where the burden of PTB is greatest. The distribution of types of intervention tested and evaluated in these settings is not even across interventions, but is largely focused on very context specific interventions (prevention of malarial infection) and nutritional supplementation. Similar patterns of a mismatch between research effort and health needs in non- high income regions have been identified across a broad range of diseases.^{157 158} It has also been previously reported that primary research often fails to capture those with the greatest health care needs such as vulnerable populations.^{159 160}

This review has also revealed a limited approach in evidence synthesis to explore the applicability of findings across geographical settings and to draw attention to these gaps with a resultant risk that interventions shown to be effective in HI settings may not translate to LIC settings and may indeed have adverse effects when applied to LIC settings. Likewise, the focus of research in HIC settings means that interventions that may have greater benefit in LIC settings – where the problem is greatest – remain untested or replicated with larger numbers of participants. Adolescent pregnancy and short inter pregnancy intervals, both of which are more common in LMICs, have been highlighted as important risk factors for PTB¹⁶¹ yet there is a lack of data on interventions to address these and their effectiveness in reducing the risk of PTB.

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3 The lack of robust evidence to inform both the primary and secondary prevention of PTB in LIC
4 settings, where the prevalence of PTB is highest presents challenges for developing appropriate and
5 contextually relevant clinical guidance. . The factors that mean findings cannot be generalised from
6 high resource settings to low and middle resource settings are multiple and will differ across
7 interventions. Ethnicity, poverty, gender dynamics, pollution, temperature, climate, diet, access to
8 health care, educational status, employment conditions are all examples of factors that might play a
9 role in these differences. Improved understanding of the etiopathogenesis of PTB is also necessary for
10 defining an accurate model of risk prediction and would help in understanding what factors in local
11 settings increase risk and facilitate the development of an accurate model of risk prediction.¹⁶²
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15 Two recent overviews of reviews^{9 10} also found that few interventions are effective in PTB prevention.
16 The following interventions were identified in these reviews as showing positive or possible benefit:
17 lifestyle and behavioural changes (including diet and exercise); nutritional supplements (including
18 calcium, zinc and vitamin D supplementation); nutritional education; and screening for lower genital
19 tract infections. Positive effects of secondary interventions were found for low dose aspirin among
20 women at risk of preeclampsia; clindamycin for treatment of bacterial vaginosis; treatment of vaginal
21 candidiasis; progesterone in women with prior spontaneous PTB and in those with short mid-trimester
22 cervical length; L-arginine in women at risk for preeclampsia; levothyroxine among women with
23 thyroid disease; calcium supplementation in women at risk of hypertensive disorders; smoking
24 cessation; cervical length screening in women with history of PTB with placement of cerclage in those
25 with short cervix; cervical pessary in singleton gestations with short cervix; and treatment of
26 periodontal disease. Our review findings were in concordance, although, in addition, we identified
27 screening and antibiotic treatment for syphilis, and positive effects of fish oil supplements. In most
28 instances the trials were small and authors recommended larger well-designed RCTs. The lack of
29 consistency across review findings for interventions also merits more exploration. Compromised
30 methodological rigour can inflate trial findings by 30% to 50%.^{163 164} Some of the differences in our
31 review findings reflect some differences in the included reviews.
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38 The interventions identified in this review, and those of Matei et al (2019)⁹ and Medley et al (2019)¹⁰
39 informing guideline development, clinical practice and policy decision making have been little tested
40 in LMIC settings. In those interventions where there is more consistency in review findings such as
41 cervical cerclage, there are no studies that have been conducted in low income settings and over half
42 of the reviews did not report or consider settings in their analyses.
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45 This scoping review has shown that many authors of systematic reviews fail to use design and
46 statistical approaches that adequately address contextual variations between the included source
47 studies and imperfectly represent 'real world' conditions within the target context (Higgins et al 2019).
48 While those reviews that sought to take into account LMIC contexts were unable to conduct the
49 analyses due to a lack of data, they nonetheless were able to highlight the gaps in research, for
50 example the lack of studies in vitamin D undertaken in Africa.⁴³
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54 The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) reporting
55 standards reference 'context' in terms of the circumstances requiring the review itself, rather than
56 referencing the contexts of studies included in the review.¹⁶⁵ The PRISMA extension for Complex
57 Interventions includes the elements of 'time' and 'setting'.¹⁶⁶ However, grouping LMIC data, or even
58 LI data may still be too broad. Even within the categories of LIC there is considerable diversity that
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3 may impact on how an intervention works and within countries there may also be considerable
4 diversity between the wealthiest and poorest groups. For example, the time taken to reach
5 comprehensive emergency obstetric care facilities in low resource settings is often underestimated
6 and for most women is likely to be 120 minutes of travel time.¹⁶⁷ Context cannot be standardised, it
7 will vary from review to review, as different interventions and different populations are considered.
8 'Context' and the factors that might influence the efficacy, uptake, acceptability, appropriateness,
9 accessibility and availability of an intervention requires a good understanding of the aetiology and
10 mechanisms by which risk factors interact with environmental, microbial, socio-political and health
11 system variations across settings.¹⁶⁸

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16 It must be acknowledged that there are significant barriers to undertaking research in many settings
17 across the globe. These include very practical challenges such as a lack of access to high quality data
18 and the challenges of estimating gestational age.¹⁶⁹ Recent changes to global health funding arena
19 include a very large proportion being spent on the pandemic as well as government
20 reductions, e.g. in the UK ¹⁷⁰. These reductions in funding will undermine what has been a growth
21 in research in LMIC settings and will impede efforts to address the imbalances highlighted in this
22 scoping review.
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26 A number of limitations exist in this scoping review. We have not sought to identify the setting of
27 primary studies where this is not reported in the systematic review. We have also not limited our
28 analysis to studies within the reviews that only contributed findings to the risk of PTB. Most reviews
29 explored several maternal and infant outcomes. Therefore, in this scoping review, included primary
30 studies may not have contained PTB outcome data. We limited our scoping review to exploring
31 evidence within systematic reviews as these are key sources of evidence to inform guideline
32 development and policy decision making. It is possible that further primary studies have been
33 published but are not included in this analysis. Nevertheless, it gives an indication of the distribution
34 of research being undertaken in the poorest regions of the world that address PTB.
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38 **CONCLUSION**

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40 Only 4.5% of primary research to examine the effectiveness of interventions to reduce the risk of
41 PTB is carried out in settings where the burden is greatest. No interventions which reduce the risk of
42 PTB, judged to be supported by strong evidence, include studies undertaken in low resource
43 settings. In the synthesis of studies, current methods often fail to address the contextual variation
44 and consider the applicability of findings in low resource, high burden settings. This has implications
45 for supporting policy making, and development of contextually relevant clinical guidelines. While
46 methods can be undertaken to improve approaches to evidence synthesis, they cannot compensate
47 for the lack of primary research in low resource settings. This is critical if global health inequalities
48 are to be addressed and millennium development goals¹⁷¹ to reduce under-five mortality are to be
49 achieved. Funding and supporting research in LMICs would have a three-fold benefit; firstly, if the
50 prevalence of the disease is higher it is easier to reach statistical significance for efficacy or inefficacy
51 of each tested intervention. Secondly, it would address the knowledge gap highlighted in this review
52 and finally – and most importantly – the implementation of effective interventions would have the
53 potential for greater public health impact where the risks are greater, more prevalent and outcomes
54 more severe.
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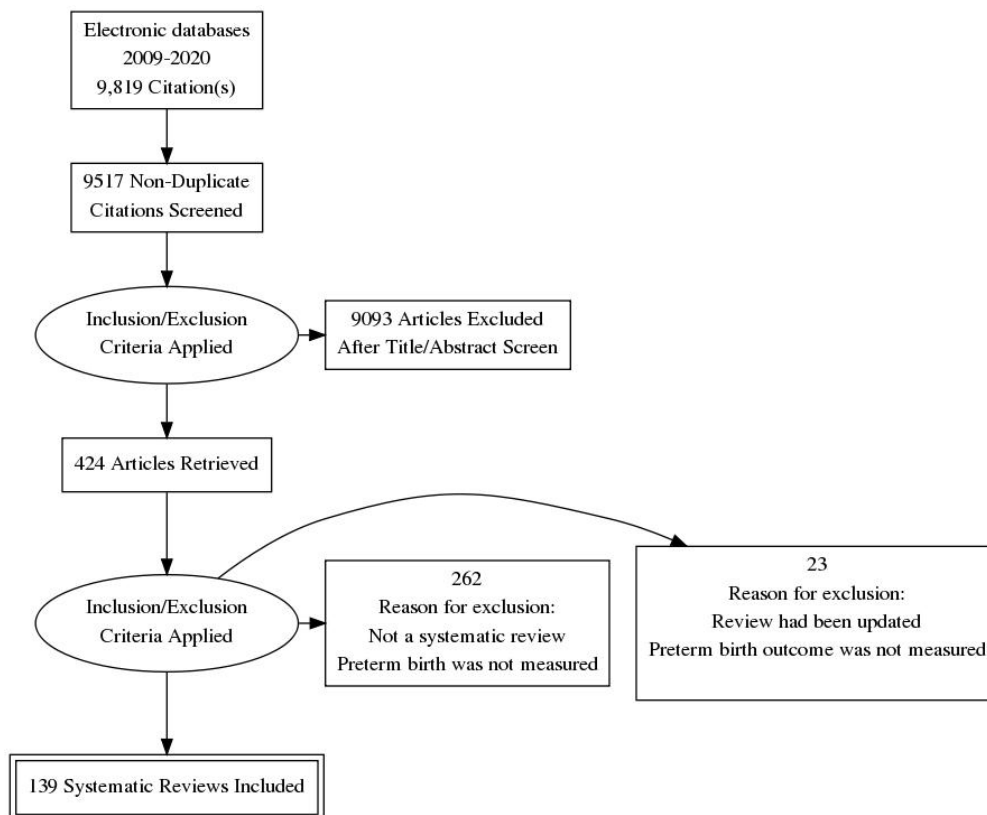
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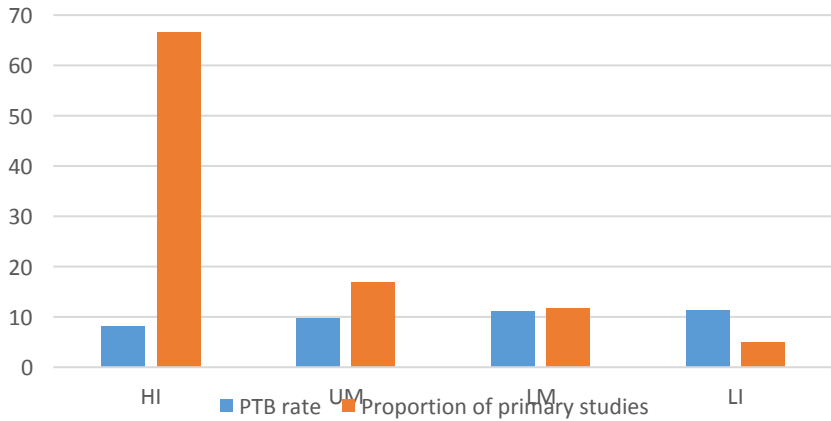
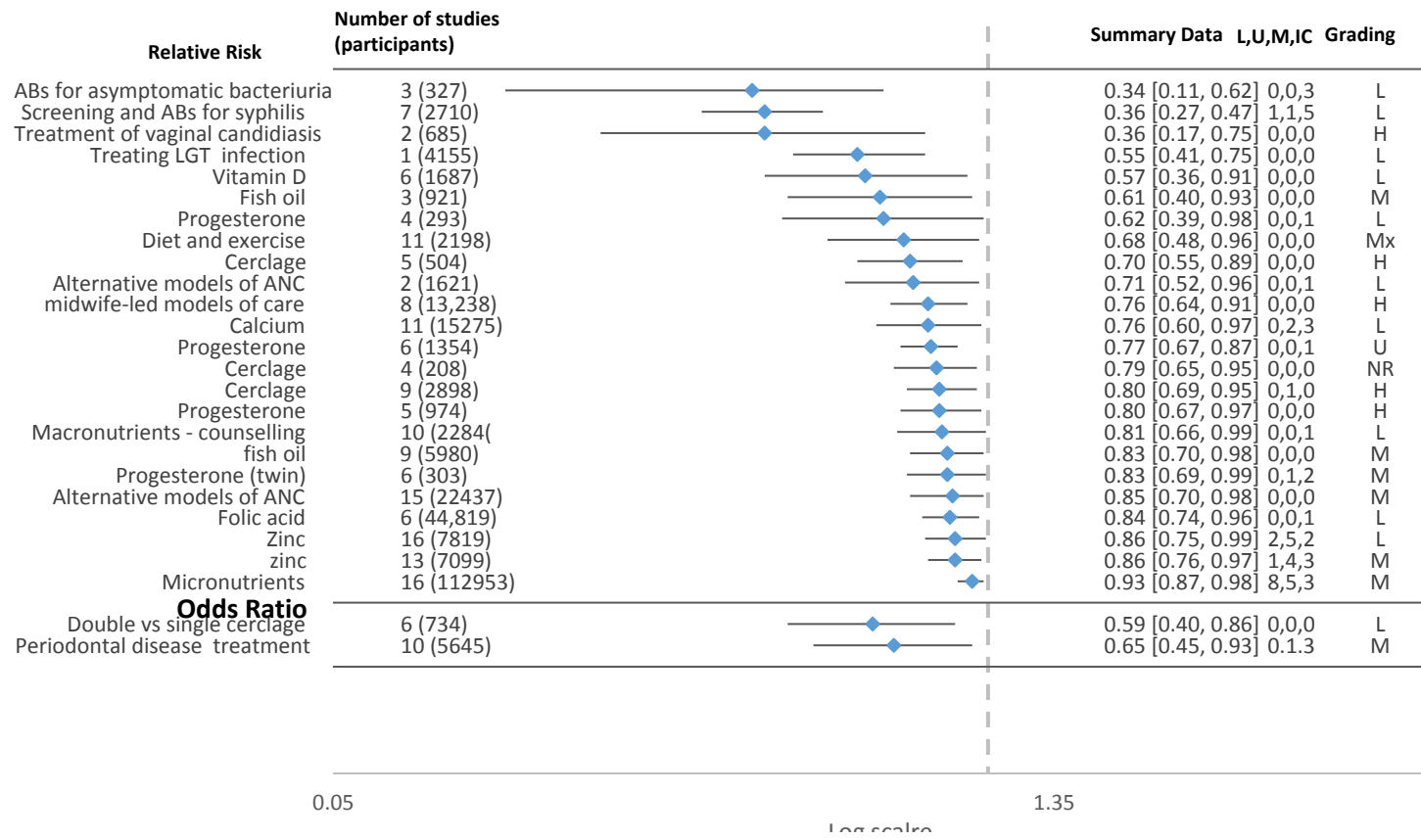


Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

Figure 3: Systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB



Appendix 1 Search Strategies

Search strategy from MEDLINE (via Ovid SP)

The McMaster Reviews Search Filter was utilised (Line 6), available from:

https://hiru.mcmaster.ca/hiru/HIRU_Hedges_MEDLINE_Strategies.aspx#Reviews [Accessed 26 March 2021]. The Allen et al review referred to in Line 8 is: Felicity Allen, Ron Gray, Laura Oakley, Jennifer J Kurinczuk, Peter Brocklehurst, Jennifer Hollowell. Inequalities in Infant Mortality Project Evidence Map Report 2. Technical guide to the infant mortality evidence map: systematic reviews of interventions targeting infant mortality. Oxford: National Perinatal Epidemiology Unit, 2009. Available at: [Infant-Mortality-Technical-Guide.pdf \(ox.ac.uk\)](http://www.npeu.ox.ac.uk/infant-mortality-technical-guide.pdf) [Accessed 17 January 2022]

| | | |
|----|---|--|
| 1 | (pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*).tw. | Pre-term birth terms |
| 2 | exp OBSTETRIC LABOR, PREMATURE/ | |
| 3 | exp PREMATURE BIRTH/ | |
| 4 | ((preterm or pre-term or premature) adj3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*)).tw. | |
| 5 | or/1-4 | |
| 6 | meta analysis.mp,pt. or review.pt. or search:.tw. | Systematic Review (SR) Filter |
| 7 | 5 and 6 | Pre-term birth terms and SR Filter |
| 8 | (2009 04* or 2009 05* or 2009 06* or 2009 07* or 2009 08* or 2009 09* or 2009 10* or 2009 11* or 2009 12* or 2010* or 2011* or 2012* or 2013* or 2014* or 2015* or 2016* or 2017* or 2018* or 2019* or 2020*).dt. | Added to MEDLINE post 1 April 2009 (when Allen et al searches were conducted) |
| 9 | 7 and 8 | Systematic Reviews post 1 April 2009 |
| 10 | limit 9 to english language | |

| | |
|-----------------------|---|
| 11 limit 10 to humans | Systematic Reviews post 1 April 2009 (English Language and Human only) |
|-----------------------|---|

The MEDLINE search strategy was then translated to the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, PsycINFO (via Ovid), Embase (via Ovid), and CINAHL via EBSCO. Full search strategies for each database are presented below.

Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews

#1 (pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*):ti,ab,kw

#2 MeSH descriptor: [Obstetric Labor, Premature] explode all trees

#3 MeSH descriptor: [Premature Birth] explode all trees

#4 ((preterm or pre-term or premature) near/3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*))

#5 #1 or #2 or #3 or #4

with Publication Year from 2009 to 2020

PsycINFO (via Ovid)

1. (pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*).tw.

2. exp Premature Birth/

3. ((preterm or pre-term or premature) adj3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*)).tw.

4. 1 or 2 or 3

5. (meta-analysis or search:).tw.

6. 4 and 5

7. (2009 04* or 2009 05* or 2009 06* or 2009 07* or 2009 08* or 2009 09* or 2009 10* or 2009 11* or 2009 12* or 2010* or 2011* or 2012* or 2013* or 2014* or 2015* or 2016* or 2017* or 2018* or 2019* or 2020*).dp.

8. 6 and 7

9. limit 8 to (human and english language)

Embase (via Ovid)

1. (pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*).tw.

2. exp premature labor/

3. exp prematurity/

4. ((preterm or pre-term or premature) adj3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*)).tw.

5. 1 or 2 or 3 or 4

6. (meta-analysis or systematic review).tw.

7. 5 and 6

8. (2009 04* or 2009 05* or 2009 06* or 2009 07* or 2009 08* or 2009 09* or 2009 10* or 2009 11* or 2009 12* or 2010* or 2011* or 2012* or 2013* or 2014* or 2015* or 2016* or 2017* or 2018* or 2019* or 2020*).dc.

9. 7 and 8

1
2
3 10. limit 9 to (human and english language)

4 11. limit 10 to embase
5
6

7 **CINAHL via EBSCO**

8 S1 pre-term birth* or pre term birth* or preterm birth*

9 S2 (MH "Labor, Premature")

10 S3 (MH "Childbirth, Premature")

11 S4 ((preterm or pre-term or premature) N3 (birth* or labo?r or deliver*))

12 S5 S1 OR S2 OR S3 OR S4

13 S6 meta-analysis or systematic review

14 S7 S5 AND S6 Limiters - Published Date: 20090101-20201231
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Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) Checklist

| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|--|--------------------|
| TITLE | | | |
| Title | 1 | Identify the report as a scoping review. | |
| ABSTRACT | | | |
| Structured summary | 2 | Provide a structured summary that includes (as applicable): background, objectives, eligibility criteria, sources of evidence, charting methods, results, and conclusions that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| INTRODUCTION | | | |
| Rationale | 3 | Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known. Explain why the review questions/objectives lend themselves to a scoping review approach. | |
| Objectives | 4 | Provide an explicit statement of the questions and objectives being addressed with reference to their key elements (e.g., population or participants, concepts, and context) or other relevant key elements used to conceptualize the review questions and/or objectives. | |
| METHODS | | | |
| Protocol and registration | 5 | Indicate whether a review protocol exists; state if and where it can be accessed (e.g., a Web address); and if available, provide registration information, including the registration number. | |
| Eligibility criteria | 6 | Specify characteristics of the sources of evidence used as eligibility criteria (e.g., years considered, language, and publication status), and provide a rationale. | |
| Information sources* | 7 | Describe all information sources in the search (e.g., databases with dates of coverage and contact with authors to identify additional sources), as well as the date the most recent search was executed. | |
| Search | 8 | Present the full electronic search strategy for at least 1 database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated. | |
| Selection of sources of evidence† | 9 | State the process for selecting sources of evidence (i.e., screening and eligibility) included in the scoping review. | |
| Data charting process‡ | 10 | Describe the methods of charting data from the included sources of evidence (e.g., calibrated forms or forms that have been tested by the team before their use, and whether data charting was done independently or in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators. | |
| Data items | 11 | List and define all variables for which data were sought and any assumptions and simplifications made. | |
| Critical appraisal of individual sources of evidence§ | 12 | If done, provide a rationale for conducting a critical appraisal of included sources of evidence; describe the methods used and how this information was used in any data synthesis (if appropriate). | |
| Synthesis of results | 13 | Describe the methods of handling and summarizing the data that were charted. | |



| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|---|--------------------|
| RESULTS | | | |
| Selection of sources of evidence | 14 | Give numbers of sources of evidence screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally using a flow diagram. | |
| Characteristics of sources of evidence | 15 | For each source of evidence, present characteristics for which data were charted and provide the citations. | |
| Critical appraisal within sources of evidence | 16 | If done, present data on critical appraisal of included sources of evidence (see item 12). | |
| Results of individual sources of evidence | 17 | For each included source of evidence, present the relevant data that were charted that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| Synthesis of results | 18 | Summarize and/or present the charting results as they relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| DISCUSSION | | | |
| Summary of evidence | 19 | Summarize the main results (including an overview of concepts, themes, and types of evidence available), link to the review questions and objectives, and consider the relevance to key groups. | |
| Limitations | 20 | Discuss the limitations of the scoping review process. | |
| Conclusions | 21 | Provide a general interpretation of the results with respect to the review questions and objectives, as well as potential implications and/or next steps. | |
| FUNDING | | | |
| Funding | 22 | Describe sources of funding for the included sources of evidence, as well as sources of funding for the scoping review. Describe the role of the funders of the scoping review. | |

JBI = Joanna Briggs Institute; PRISMA-ScR = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews.

* Where *sources of evidence* (see second footnote) are compiled from, such as bibliographic databases, social media platforms, and Web sites.

† A more inclusive/heterogeneous term used to account for the different types of evidence or data sources (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy documents) that may be eligible in a scoping review as opposed to only studies. This is not to be confused with *information sources* (see first footnote).

‡ The frameworks by Arksey and O'Malley (6) and Levac and colleagues (7) and the JBI guidance (4, 5) refer to the process of data extraction in a scoping review as data charting.

§ The process of systematically examining research evidence to assess its validity, results, and relevance before using it to inform a decision. This term is used for items 12 and 19 instead of "risk of bias" (which is more applicable to systematic reviews of interventions) to include and acknowledge the various sources of evidence that may be used in a scoping review (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy document).

From: Tricco AC, Lillie E, Zarin W, O'Brien KK, Colquhoun H, Levac D, et al. PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR): Checklist and Explanation. *Ann Intern Med.* 2018;169:467–473. doi: [10.7326/M18-0850](https://doi.org/10.7326/M18-0850).



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| Manuscript ID | bmjopen-2021-052576.R2 |
| Article Type: | Original research |
| Date Submitted by the Author: | 31-Mar-2022 |
| Complete List of Authors: | Campbell, Fiona; The University of Sheffield, SchARR Salam, Shumona; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Sutton , Anthea; The University of Sheffield, SchARR Jayasooriya, Shamanthi; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Mitchell, Caroline; The University of Sheffield, Academic Unit of Primary Medical Care Amabebe, Emmanuel; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Balen, Julie; The University of Sheffield, Gillespie, Bronwen; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Parris, Kerry ; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Soma-Pillay, Priya; University of Pretoria, Steve Biko Academic Hospital Chauke, Lawrence; University of Witwatersrand Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Narice, Brenda; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism Anumba, Dilichukwu; The University of Sheffield, Department of Oncology and Metabolism |
| Primary Subject Heading: | Evidence based practice |
| Secondary Subject Heading: | Public health, Reproductive medicine, Global health |
| Keywords: | Maternal medicine < OBSTETRICS, International health services < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT, Public health < INFECTIOUS DISEASES, Health policy < HEALTH SERVICES ADMINISTRATION & MANAGEMENT |
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Interventions for the prevention of spontaneous preterm birth: a scoping review of systematic reviews

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Data extracted from included studies is available on request by email from the
corresponding author: f.campbell@sheffield.ac.uk

Work Count: 3,473

Keywords: Preterm Birth, Scoping Review, Health services research, Meta-analyses

Contributors: PRIME (Preterm birth Prevention and Management) research program established the study objectives, FC, PSP, LC prepared the protocol, AS designed search strategies, SS, SJ, CM EA, JB, BG, KP, BN collected and analysed or interpreted data. FC prepared manuscript. SS, AS, SJ, CM, EA, JB, BG, KP, PSP, LC, BN, DA edited or read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding: NIHR provided funding for researcher support.

Competing Interests: We declare that there are no competing interests.

Data availability statement: Data extracted from included studies is available on request by email from the corresponding author

Ethical approval: Ethical approval was not required for this study as it drew on existing published research and did not involve human or animal participants.

Abstract

Background: Globally, 11% of babies are born preterm each year. Preterm birth (PTB) a leading cause of neonatal death and under-5 mortality and morbidity, with lifelong sequelae in those who survive. PTB disproportionately impacts low- and middle income countries (LMICs) where the burden is highest.

Objectives: This scoping review sought to the evidence for interventions that reduce the risk of PTB, focusing on the evidence from LMICs and describing how context is considered in evidence synthesis.

Design: We conducted a scoping review, to describe this wide topic area. We searched five electronic databases (2009-2020) and contacted experts to identify relevant systematic reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of PTB. We included published systematic reviews that examined the effectiveness of interventions and their effect on reducing the risk of PTB. Data was extracted and is described narratively.

Results: 139 published systematic reviews were included in the review. Interventions were categorised as primary or secondary. The interventions where the results showed a greater effect size and consistency across review findings included treatment of syphilis and vaginal candidiasis, vitamin D supplementation and cervical cerclage. Included in the 139 reviews were 1372 unique primary source studies. 28% primary studies were undertaken in LMIC contexts and only 4.5% undertaken in a low income country (LIC) Only 10.8% of the reviews sought to explore the impact of context on findings, and 19.4% reviews did not report the settings or the primary studies

Conclusion: This scoping review highlights the lack of research evidence derived from contexts where the burden of PTB globally is greatest. The lack of rigour in addressing contextual applicability within systematic review methods is also highlighted. This presents a risk of inappropriate and unsafe recommendations for practice within these contexts. It also highlights a need for primary research, developing and testing interventions LIC settings.

Strengths and Limitations of this Study

- Scoping review methodology enabled us to look at a broad topic area and analyse how context is taken into account in the included systematic reviews. Primary studies not reported in systematic reviews will therefore have not been included in our analysis.
- We were not able to identify the setting of all primary studies where this was not reported and there is a risk that some studies, which have multiple publications may have been double counted.
- We only included systematic reviews published in English.

BACKGROUND

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3 Preterm birth (PTB) is a global and public health priority. It is defined by the World Health
4 Organization (WHO) as delivery before 37 completed weeks of gestation, with extremely
5 preterm delivery defined as occurring at less than 28 weeks, very preterm delivery occurring
6 between 28 and 32 weeks, and moderate to late preterm delivery occurring from 32 through
7 36 weeks.¹ It is one of the leading causes of neonatal death and under five mortality and
8 morbidity, with lifelong sequelae.² Children born prematurely have increased risks of cognitive
9 problems, such as academic underachievement, behavioural problems and cerebral palsy
10 than those born at full term.³ They are more likely to experience hospital admission due to
11 infection, particularly during infancy.⁴ For parents, the financial, social and emotional effects
12 are devastating.³
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17 The global burden of PTB is falling more heavily on countries with fewer resources to manage
18 the medical, social, and economic complexities of caring for premature infants. Globally, there
19 are approximately 15 million live preterm births each year, which is estimated to be about
20 11% of all deliveries each year, ranging from about 8.7% in northern Europe to 13.4% in North
21 Africa.⁵ The majority of PTBs occur in Low- or Middle Income countries (LMICs).⁶ The highest
22 PTB rates in 2014 occurred in southeast Asia, south Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. Nine of the
23 11 countries with the highest rates were in Africa. Furthermore, 60% of all PTBs were
24 estimated to have occurred in sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia accounting for just over nine
25 million of the almost 15 million PTBs that occurred worldwide in 2010 resulting in a PTB rate
26 of 12.8% in those settings.
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31 Patterns of PTB differ between high-income countries and LMICs. However, the differences in
32 these patterns, causes and distribution of PTB is unclear and have not been fully explored.
33 PTB is multifactorial in its aetiology and has distinct biological pathways. The aetiologies differ
34 according to gestational age, ethnicity and characteristics unique to each population. In order
35 to redress the burden of PTB in LMICs, additional insight into the causative and associated
36 factors in these settings is required.
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41 While a number of reviews and overviews of reviews of interventions to reduce the risk of
42 PTB have been undertaken⁷⁻¹⁰, none have explored how many of the primary studies included
43 in these reviews were undertaken in LMIC contexts. It is clear that some interventions that
44 are effective in HIC (high income country) contexts but may be harmful in LMIC settings, such
45 as the use of antenatal corticosteroids¹¹ and cerclage.¹² It is also possible that treatments
46 effective in HIC contexts may be even more beneficial or appropriate in LMIC contexts, such
47 as nutritional supplements, interventions to increase birth spacing, or interventions to
48 improve the accuracy of measuring gestational age.
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52 We have undertaken a broad scoping review of systematic reviews on interventions to reduce
53 the risk of PTB identifying primary studies undertaken in LMICs. This will allow us to identify
54 potential areas for further synthesis of the evidence and also to identify gaps in the research
55 in order to direct future primary research.
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Review objectives

1. To identify systematic reviews that have sought to explore the effectiveness, safety and acceptability of interventions to prevent PTB.
2. To map research evidence to global settings to identify the geographical and economic contexts in which evidence is derived.
3. To identify where gaps in the research base exist (for real world, effectiveness, pragmatic studies) in LMIC contexts to inform future research and to generate research priorities.
4. To describe the methods used in meta-analysis to take into account geographical and regional differences in PTB.

METHODS

We used a scoping review methodology¹³ to describe the existing evidence (systematic reviews) available across primary and secondary interventions to prevent PTB, published between 2009 and 2020. Systematic scoping draws upon methods described by Arksey & O'Malley (2005)¹⁴ for scoping reviews: "[...]a form of knowledge synthesis that addresses an exploratory research question aimed at scoping key concepts, types of evidence, and gaps in research related to a defined area or field by systematically searching, selecting, and synthesizing existing knowledge".¹⁴ The approach enabled us to highlight the evidence gap and to assist with simultaneously undertaking a research prioritisation exercise and guideline development, as well as to inform a broader programme of research that aimed to develop effective postnatal interventions to mitigate PTB in LMIC settings. It also enabled us to generate a mega-map, an interactive table supported on our project website and designed as a visual tool to identify research gaps and facilitate ready access to relevant evidence. <https://www.primeglobalhealth.co.uk/evidence-map-2-7-2020.html>.

Identifying relevant studies

Relevant systematic reviews were identified by systematic searches in the following electronic databases: Ovid MEDLINE, Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR), PsycINFO via Ovid, EMBASE via Ovid and CINAHL via EBSCO. Each database was searched using the database thesaurus and the key word/free text method with terms relating to preterm birth combined with a systematic reviews filter. The search strategy, incorporated the following limitations: articles written in English, and Human studies only from April 2009 to July 2020. Relevant systematic reviews were identified by systematic searches in the following electronic databases: MEDLINE, The Cochrane Library, PsycINFO, EMBASE and CINAHL. Each database was searched using the database thesaurus and the key word/free text method. The search strategy, incorporated the following limitations: articles written in English, and Human studies only from April 2009 to July 2020. The date limit was selected due to the existence of a previous review for which the studies were conducted in April 2009.¹⁵ Full search strategies have been described and published.¹⁶

We began with a framework of interventions identified by two existing reviews^{7,8} as these were broad in their focus and encompassed a range of interventions. Any new intervention types identified during the screening process were then added to the map.

The process of study selection was based on inclusion and exclusion criteria as described in Table 1. After removal of duplicates and irrelevant studies, based on the titles and abstracts, all potentially relevant reviews were read in full. Citations were screened by two reviewers (FC and one of the following team members SS, SJ, EA, JB, BG, BN, KP) independently and differences were resolved by discussion.

Table 1 Inclusion/ exclusion criteria based on PICOS

Population

- Pregnant women at less than 37 completed weeks gestation without signs of threatened preterm labour or premature rupture of membranes (PPROM).
- Excluded reviews where the study population was defined by co-morbidities.

Intervention

- All interventions deliverable during pregnancy to prevent spontaneous preterm birth, (these included clinical, behavioural and nutritional interventions and health systems and policy interventions).
- All interventions assessed the risk of preterm birth.
- Excluded interventions given to pregnant women to improve neonatal outcomes.

Comparators

- We included any comparator, including placebo or alternative treatments.

Outcomes

- We included reviews which focused to PTB as an outcome.
- Where it is reported, we state how many of the primary studies measured PTB as an outcome and the resulting data used in the synthesis.

Study design

1. Systematic reviews published between April 2009-July 2020, of studies that have evaluated interventions to prevent PTB, or that measured PTB as a relevant outcome.

Outcomes

1. Preterm birth (<28, <34, <37 weeks gestation) .
2. We recorded neonatal outcomes and adverse outcomes if reported within the review.

Data extraction and coding

Data were extracted using an agreed and piloted template and coded in Excel by two reviewers working independently (FC and one of the following team members SS, SJ, EA, JB, BG, BN, KP) differences were resolved by discussion. The following data categories were extracted: number of included studies, review PICO, setting of primary studies, and any analysis that took into account study setting or population characteristics, PTB outcomes, assessment of adverse effects and recommendations for practice and research. Preterm birth rates in LICs, LMCs, UMCs and HICs settings were drawn from data published in a rigorous review of national civil registration and vital statistics to determine global, regional and national estimates of levels of preterm birth.⁶

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3 Where reported information allowed, we used the World Bank categories to identify the
4 categories of all country settings identified in the reviews.¹⁷ .
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7 The population, interventions, comparators, outcomes and reviewer conclusions for future
8 research were tabulated and described narratively. The country or countries of the included
9 primary studies were noted, and the methods used in the review for analyses of data from
10 different settings was also recorded and described. We did not contact review authors for
11 missing data.
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14 **Patient and Public Involvement**

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16 This review was undertaken as part of a larger program of research in preterm birth (NIHR
17 Global Health under grant (17/63/26)). The program is informed by key stakeholders and a
18 PPI advisory group comprising of representatives from Sheffield, Bangladesh, and South
19 Africa. The design and questions for the review were informed by consultation with these
20 groups.
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23 **Results**

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25 Our search identified 3,133 citations which were screened by two reviewers. A third reviewer
26 was also involved where there was a lack of consensus or uncertainty regarding inclusion.
27 Following screening, 424 full text papers were retrieved for data extraction. At data extraction
28 a further 285 were excluded. The process of identifying the included reviews is summarised
29 in Figure 1.
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33 We included 139 reviews which addressed a range of primary and secondary interventions
34 and measured the effectiveness of the intervention in reducing the risk of PTB. These are
35 summarised in Table 2 There was a considerable variation in the number of included studies
36 in the reviews for each intervention, reflecting differing research questions objectives
37 (therefore different PICOs) and search strategies.
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40 *Figure 1: Flow of studies through review process*
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Table 2 Summary of included systematic reviews and settings of primary studies included in the review

| Interventions | Number of reviews | Number of primary studies | country NR | country of primary study | | | | | studies where setting NK |
|--|-------------------|---------------------------|------------|--------------------------|----|-----|-----|-------|--------------------------|
| | | | | LI | LM | UM | HI | mixed | |
| Primary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Health Systems | | | | | | | | | |
| Models of antenatal care delivery (group/specialised) ¹⁸⁻²⁸ | 11 | 68 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 64 | 0 | 0 |
| Midwifery led care ²⁹ | 1 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Improving ANC coverage ³⁰ | 1 | 34 | 0 | 10 | 15 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Health behaviours | | | | | | | | | |
| Smoking cessation ^{31 32} | 2 | 111 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 110 | 0 | 0 |
| Weight management ³³⁻³⁸ | 6 | 70 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 8 | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Nutritional interventions | | | | | | | | | |
| Macronutrient supplements ^{39 40} | 2 | 34 | 0 | 3 | 9 | 10 | 8 | 4 | 0 |
| Micronutrient supplements ²⁴⁻⁵⁵ | 33 | 481 | 2 | 29 | 82 | 122 | 214 | 6 | 9 |
| Vitamin D ⁴¹⁻⁴⁶ | 6 | 75 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin A ^{47 48} | 2 | 24 | | | | | | | |
| Vitamin E, C, E and C ⁴⁹⁻⁵¹ | 3 | 67 | | | | | | | |
| Iron, folic acid, iron and folic acid ⁵²⁻⁵⁹ | 8 | 182 | | | | | | | |
| Fish oil ⁶⁰⁻⁶⁴ | 5 | 38 | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|-----|----|---|---|----|----|---|----|
| Zinc ⁶⁵⁻⁶⁶ | 2 | 25 | | | | | | | |
| Calcium ⁶⁷⁻⁶⁸ | 2 | 27 | | | | | | | |
| Iodine ⁶⁹ | 2 | 14 | | | | | | | |
| Multiple micronutrients ⁷⁰⁻⁷² | 3 | 29 | | | | | | | |
| Screening and treatment of periodontal disease⁷³⁻⁸⁴ | 12 | 46 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 7 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Screening and prevention/treatment of infection | 14 | 91 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 79 | 0 | 2 |
| Asymptomatic bacteriuria ⁸⁵⁻⁸⁸ | 4 | | | | | | | | |
| Screening and antibiotics for syphilis ⁸⁹ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Influenza vaccine ⁹⁰⁻⁹¹ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Lower genital tract infection ⁹² | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| UTI ⁹³⁻⁹⁴ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Vaginal candidiasis ⁹⁵ | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Nonspecific infection ⁹⁶⁻⁹⁷ | 2 | | | | | | | | |
| Malaria ⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁰ | 3 | 17 | 0 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Secondary prevention interventions: | | | | | | | | | |
| Cerclage ¹⁰¹⁻¹¹⁸ | 18 | 123 | 10 | 0 | 7 | 11 | 42 | | 51 |
| Bed rest ¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹ | 3 | 40 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 36 | 0 | 0 |
| Cervical pessary ¹²²⁻¹²⁷ | 6 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 14 | 1 | 0 |
| Progesterone ¹²⁸⁻¹⁴³ | 16 | 59 | 5 | 1 | 7 | 8 | 28 | 4 | 11 |
| Tocolytics ¹⁴⁴⁻¹⁵⁶ | 11 | 167 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 13 | 68 | 0 | 84 |

ANC: antenatal care, NK: not known, NR: not reported, LI: low income, LM: low middle, UM: upper middle, HI: high income, UTI: urinary tract infection.

Context of primary studies

A total of 1372 primary studies were included across all of the 139 reviews. Not all of these studies will have been measuring PTB as an outcome but were included within the review which may have been measuring a range of maternal outcomes including PTB. The largest number of primary studies were those evaluating micronutrient supplements (n=481) and tocolytics (n=167). A total of 113 of the reviews described the country in which the primary studies were undertaken and so this data was known for 1288 (93.9%) of the 1372 included primary studies. Of these, 390 (30.3%) were undertaken in LMICs, fifteen primary studies were multicentre and included data gathered from LMIC and HIC settings, though only three of these studies included LICs. Of the studies undertaken in LMICs, a majority (n=255;) examined the effects of nutritional supplements. Excluding nutritional intervention studies, the proportion of LMIC-based primary studies of interventions to reduce PTB accounts for only (n=135) 10.5% of the included studies where settings are known..

Of the total number of primary studies undertaken in LMIC contexts, those studies undertaken in LIC settings represented a very small proportion of included studies. Participants from LICs were represented in only 4.5% (n=58) of the total number of studies, and if the nutritional intervention studies are excluded, they account for only 2.5% (n=32) of the studies evaluating interventions. Of those primary studies that were undertaken in LMIC settings the numbers within each country category differed significantly. The proportion of the studies that are undertaken in LIC, LMC and UMC were 14.9% (n=58), 34.8% (n=136) and 50.2% (n=196) respectively. There are only single trials that have evaluated the impact of progesterone, tocolytics and interventions to increase calorie intake in LIC settings. There are no trials that have evaluated smoking cessation, preventing excessive weight gain, prevention and treatment of periodontal disease, flu vaccine and cervical pessaries. The number of trials in each of the country categories within each intervention type are shown in Table 2.

When this data is compared alongside data that shows the prevalence of PTB globally it is clear that there is an inverse pattern in the distribution of the data (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

The effectiveness of interventions

The effectiveness of interventions in reducing the risk of PTB was variable with no intervention showing consistent effectiveness across the included reviews. Although interpretation of this data is limited by the lack of quality appraisal of the included reviews, and therefore should be viewed with caution. Overall, the scoping review demonstrates considerable inconsistency of results of interventions. Of the 139 reviews, 28 reported a reduction in PTB in intervention versus a control, 80% (n=111) of the reviews found that the intervention had no impact in reducing the risk of PTB. The summary result (relative risk and odds ratio are shown in Figure 3). The results show the reduction in PTB less than 37 weeks gestation. In three reviews the intervention was not statistically significant at 37 weeks but was reported as statistically significant at 34 weeks¹⁰⁹, 35 weeks¹³⁴ and 36 weeks¹²⁸. Two reviews reported a positive effect of the intervention in reducing risk of preterm birth but reported the outcome on a continuous measure. These included the effectiveness of macronutrient supplements³⁴ (SMD -0.19 (95% CI -0.34 to -0.04)) and cerclage (mean difference 95% CI 33.98 days

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3 (17.88 to 50.08))¹⁰⁶. The interventions reporting binary outcomes which appear to have the greatest
4 effect (RR = 0.2-0.4) in reducing PTB are: antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria⁸⁶ (RR = 0.34 (95% CI
5 0.11 to 0.62), the screening and treatment of syphilis⁸⁹ (RR = 0.36 (95% CI 0.27-0.47), and treatment
6 of vaginal candidiasis⁹⁵ (RR = 0.36, (95% CI 0.17 to 0.75). Interventions with moderate effects (RR =
7 0.4-0.6) included treating lower genital tract infection⁹² and vitamin D supplements.⁴⁶ Four of the
8 reviews (Figure 2) with a positive effect of the intervention considered that the strength of evidence
9 supporting the finding could be considered high and the finding reliable. None of these reviews
10 included studies conducted in LIC settings, and only one included one study in a LMIC.

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14 Figure 3 Summary results of systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB
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25 *ANC: antenatal care, RR: relative risk, OR: odds ratio, LGT: lower genital tract, L,M,IC: low, low middle,*
26 *upper middle income countries.*
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Dealing with context and generalisability within evidence synthesis

The authors of the included reviews used different approaches to dealing with the contextual variation when pooling data from primary studies, which was either to ignore, document, explore or control for differences. Twenty-seven reviews (23.8%) did not describe the setting of the primary study, ignoring variation in outcomes that may arise as a result of these differences. This occurred most frequently in reviews of cervical cerclage (see Table 2). The majority of the included reviews 86 (76.1%) documented the country in which the primary study was carried out either within the text, tables of study characteristics or in accompanying appendices, but this was not considered further in terms of its implications for the findings, or application for future practice or research.

Eight reviews^{30 39 40 44 46 65 99 157} sought to explore the impact of geographical and economic context by undertaking a subgroup analysis comparing trials conducted in low income settings with those in high income settings or regression analysis with geographical regions as covariates (Africa, Americas, Southeast Asia, Europe, Eastern Mediterranean, Western Pacific). In addition, one study¹⁵⁷ listed the country instead of the author name on the forest plot allowing ready visualisation of differences across settings. Nine reviews^{31 42 47 50 51 55 67 68 71} undertook subgroup analysis based on features of the population that might vary across settings and influence the effectiveness of the intervention, such as baseline nutritional status of the mother. One review⁷² exploring multiple micronutrient supplementation controlled for settings by limiting the review to include only those studies undertaken in LMIC contexts. Four reviews^{72 102 128 134} undertook an IPD (individual patient data) analysis, allowing subgroup analyses about differences in effect more easily than with aggregate data. This approach allowed comparison between effects for women recruited and receiving the intervention in different settings, effect sizes in each country could also be shown in the analyses.

DISCUSSION

This scoping review has revealed an inverse pattern of research, with only 30.3% of published research included in systematic reviews of interventions reporting PTB outcomes carried out in LMIC settings, and only 4.5% was conducted in the poorest countries in the world where the burden of PTB is greatest. The distribution of types of intervention tested and evaluated in these settings is not even across interventions, but is largely focused on very context specific interventions (prevention of malarial infection) and nutritional supplementation. Similar patterns of a mismatch between research effort and health needs in non- high income regions have been identified across a broad range of diseases.^{158 159} It has also been previously reported that primary research often fails to capture those with the greatest health care needs such as vulnerable populations.^{160 161}

This review has also revealed a limited approach in evidence synthesis to explore the applicability of findings across geographical settings and to draw attention to these gaps with a resultant risk that interventions shown to be effective in HI settings may not translate to LIC settings and may indeed have adverse effects when applied to LIC settings. Likewise, the focus of research in HIC settings means that interventions that may have greater benefit in LIC settings – where the problem is greatest – remain untested or replicated with larger numbers of participants. Adolescent pregnancy and short inter pregnancy intervals, both of which are more common in LMICs, have been highlighted as important risk factors for PTB¹⁶² yet there is a lack of data on interventions to address these and their effectiveness in reducing the risk of PTB.

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3 The lack of robust evidence to inform both the primary and secondary prevention of PTB in LIC
4 settings, where the prevalence of PTB is highest presents challenges for developing appropriate and
5 contextually relevant clinical guidance. . The factors that mean findings cannot be generalised from
6 high resource settings to low and middle resource settings are multiple and will differ across
7 interventions. Ethnicity, poverty, gender dynamics, pollution, temperature, climate, diet, access to
8 health care, educational status, employment conditions are all examples of factors that might play a
9 role in these differences. Improved understanding of the etiopathogenesis of PTB is also necessary for
10 defining an accurate model of risk prediction and would help in understanding what factors in local
11 settings increase risk and facilitate the development of an accurate model of risk prediction.¹⁶³
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15 Two recent overviews of reviews^{9 10} also found that few interventions are effective in PTB prevention.
16 The following interventions were identified in these reviews as showing positive or possible benefit:
17 lifestyle and behavioural changes (including diet and exercise); nutritional supplements (including
18 calcium, zinc and vitamin D supplementation); nutritional education; and screening for lower genital
19 tract infections. Positive effects of secondary interventions were found for low dose aspirin among
20 women at risk of preeclampsia; clindamycin for treatment of bacterial vaginosis; treatment of vaginal
21 candidiasis; progesterone in women with prior spontaneous PTB and in those with short mid-trimester
22 cervical length; L-arginine in women at risk for preeclampsia; levothyroxine among women with
23 thyroid disease; calcium supplementation in women at risk of hypertensive disorders; smoking
24 cessation; cervical length screening in women with history of PTB with placement of cerclage in those
25 with short cervix; cervical pessary in singleton gestations with short cervix; and treatment of
26 periodontal disease. Our review findings were in concordance, although, in addition, we identified
27 screening and antibiotic treatment for syphilis, and positive effects of fish oil supplements. In most
28 instances the trials were small and authors recommended larger well-designed RCTs. The lack of
29 consistency across review findings for interventions also merits more exploration. Compromised
30 methodological rigour can inflate trial findings by 30% to 50%.^{164 165} Some of the differences in our
31 review findings reflect some differences in the included reviews.
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38 The interventions identified in this review, and those of Matei et al (2019)⁹ and Medley et al (2019)¹⁰
39 informing guideline development, clinical practice and policy decision making have been little tested
40 in LMIC settings. In those interventions where there is more consistency in review findings such as
41 cervical cerclage, there are no studies that have been conducted in low income settings and over half
42 of the reviews did not report or consider settings in their analyses.
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45 This scoping review has shown that many authors of systematic reviews fail to use design and
46 statistical approaches that adequately address contextual variations between the included source
47 studies and imperfectly represent 'real world' conditions within the target context (Higgins et al 2019).
48 While those reviews that sought to take into account LMIC contexts were unable to conduct the
49 analyses due to a lack of data, they nonetheless were able to highlight the gaps in research, for
50 example the lack of studies in vitamin D undertaken in Africa.⁴⁴
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54 The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) reporting
55 standards reference 'context' in terms of the circumstances requiring the review itself, rather than
56 referencing the contexts of studies included in the review.¹⁶⁶ The PRISMA extension for Complex
57 Interventions includes the elements of 'time' and 'setting'.¹⁶⁷ However, grouping LMIC data, or even
58 LI data may still be too broad. Even within the categories of LIC there is considerable diversity that
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3 may impact on how an intervention works and within countries there may also be considerable
4 diversity between the wealthiest and poorest groups. For example, the time taken to reach
5 comprehensive emergency obstetric care facilities in low resource settings is often underestimated
6 and for most women is likely to be 120 minutes of travel time.¹⁶⁸ Context cannot be standardised, it
7 will vary from review to review, as different interventions and different populations are considered.
8 'Context' and the factors that might influence the efficacy, uptake, acceptability, appropriateness,
9 accessibility and availability of an intervention requires a good understanding of the aetiology and
10 mechanisms by which risk factors interact with environmental, microbial, socio-political and health
11 system variations across settings.¹⁶⁹

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16 It must be acknowledged that there are significant barriers to undertaking research in many settings
17 across the globe. These include very practical challenges such as a lack of access to high quality data
18 and the challenges of estimating gestational age.¹⁷⁰ Recent changes to global health funding arena
19 include a very large proportion being spent on the pandemic as well as government
20 reductions, e.g. in the UK ¹⁷¹. These reductions in funding will undermine what has been a growth
21 in research in LMIC settings and will impede efforts to address the imbalances highlighted in this
22 scoping review.
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26 A number of limitations exist in this scoping review. We have not sought to identify the setting of
27 primary studies where this is not reported in the systematic review. We have also not limited our
28 analysis to studies within the reviews that only contributed findings to the risk of PTB. Most reviews
29 explored several maternal and infant outcomes. Therefore, in this scoping review, included primary
30 studies may not have contained PTB outcome data. We limited our scoping review to exploring
31 evidence within systematic reviews as these are key sources of evidence to inform guideline
32 development and policy decision making. It is possible that further primary studies have been
33 published but are not included in this analysis. Nevertheless, it gives an indication of the distribution
34 of research being undertaken in the poorest regions of the world that address PTB.
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38 **CONCLUSION**

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40 Only 4.5% of primary research to examine the effectiveness of interventions to reduce the risk of
41 PTB is carried out in settings where the burden is greatest. No interventions which reduce the risk of
42 PTB, judged to be supported by strong evidence, include studies undertaken in low resource
43 settings. In the synthesis of studies, current methods often fail to address the contextual variation
44 and consider the applicability of findings in low resource, high burden settings. This has implications
45 for supporting policy making, and development of contextually relevant clinical guidelines. While
46 methods can be undertaken to improve approaches to evidence synthesis, they cannot compensate
47 for the lack of primary research in low resource settings. This is critical if global health inequalities
48 are to be addressed and millennium development goals¹⁷² to reduce under-five mortality are to be
49 achieved. Funding and supporting research in LMICs would have a three-fold benefit; firstly, if the
50 prevalence of the disease is higher it is easier to reach statistical significance for efficacy or inefficacy
51 of each tested intervention. Secondly, it would address the knowledge gap highlighted in this review
52 and finally – and most importantly – the implementation of effective interventions would have the
53 potential for greater public health impact where the risks are greater, more prevalent and outcomes
54 more severe.
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Figure Headings

Figure 1: Flow of studies through review process

Figure 2: Rates of PTB and proportion of primary studies undertaken in each setting.

Figure 3 Summary results of systematic reviews of interventions showing reduction in risk of PTB

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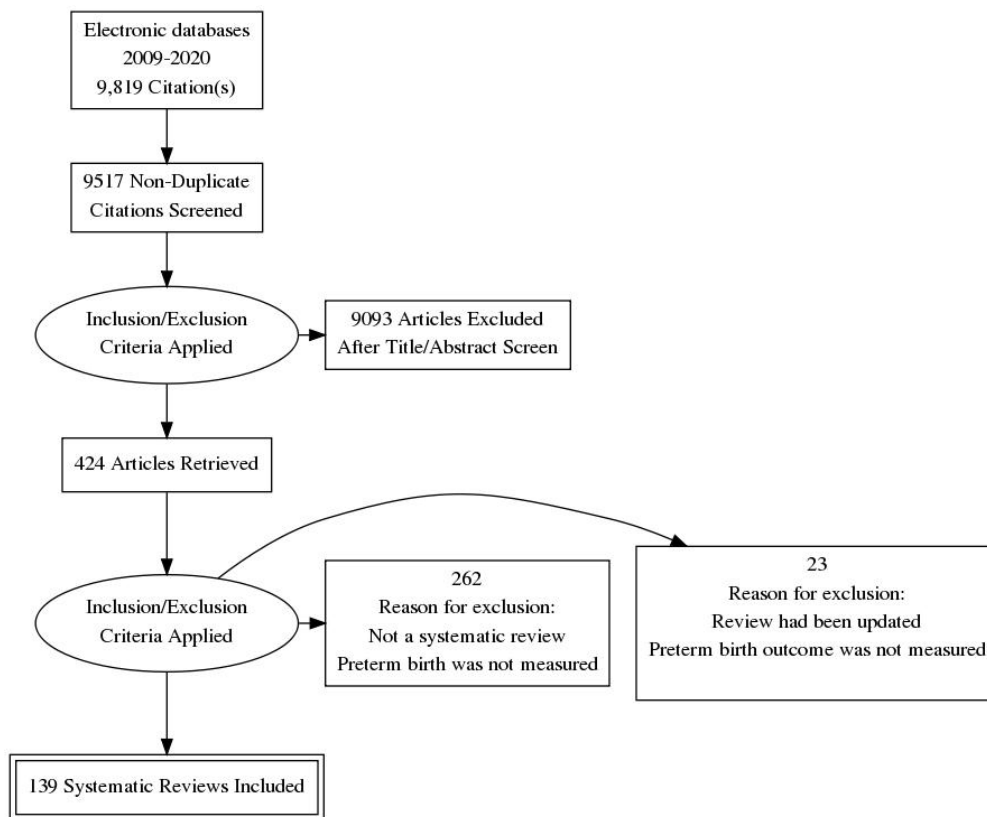
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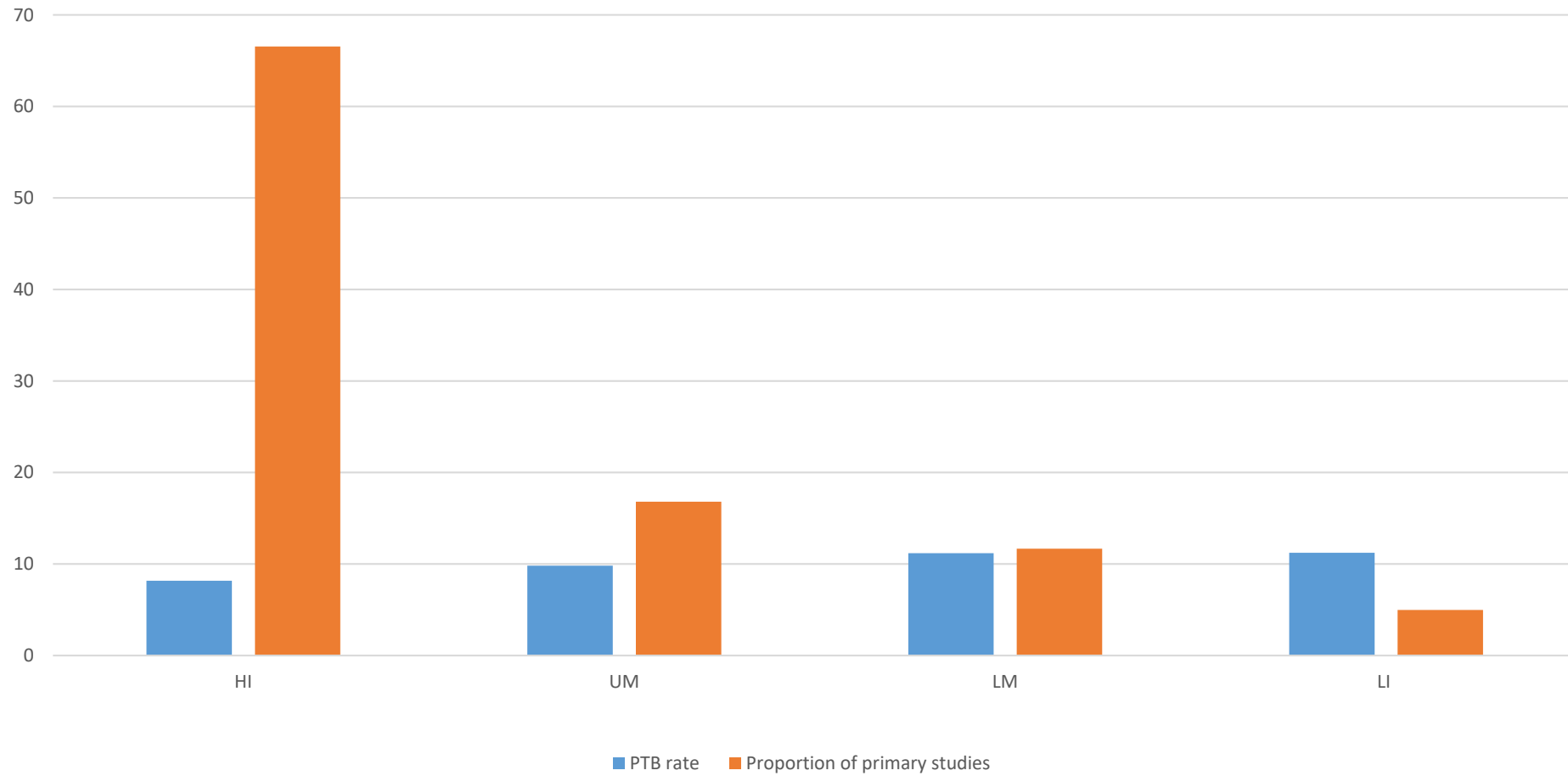
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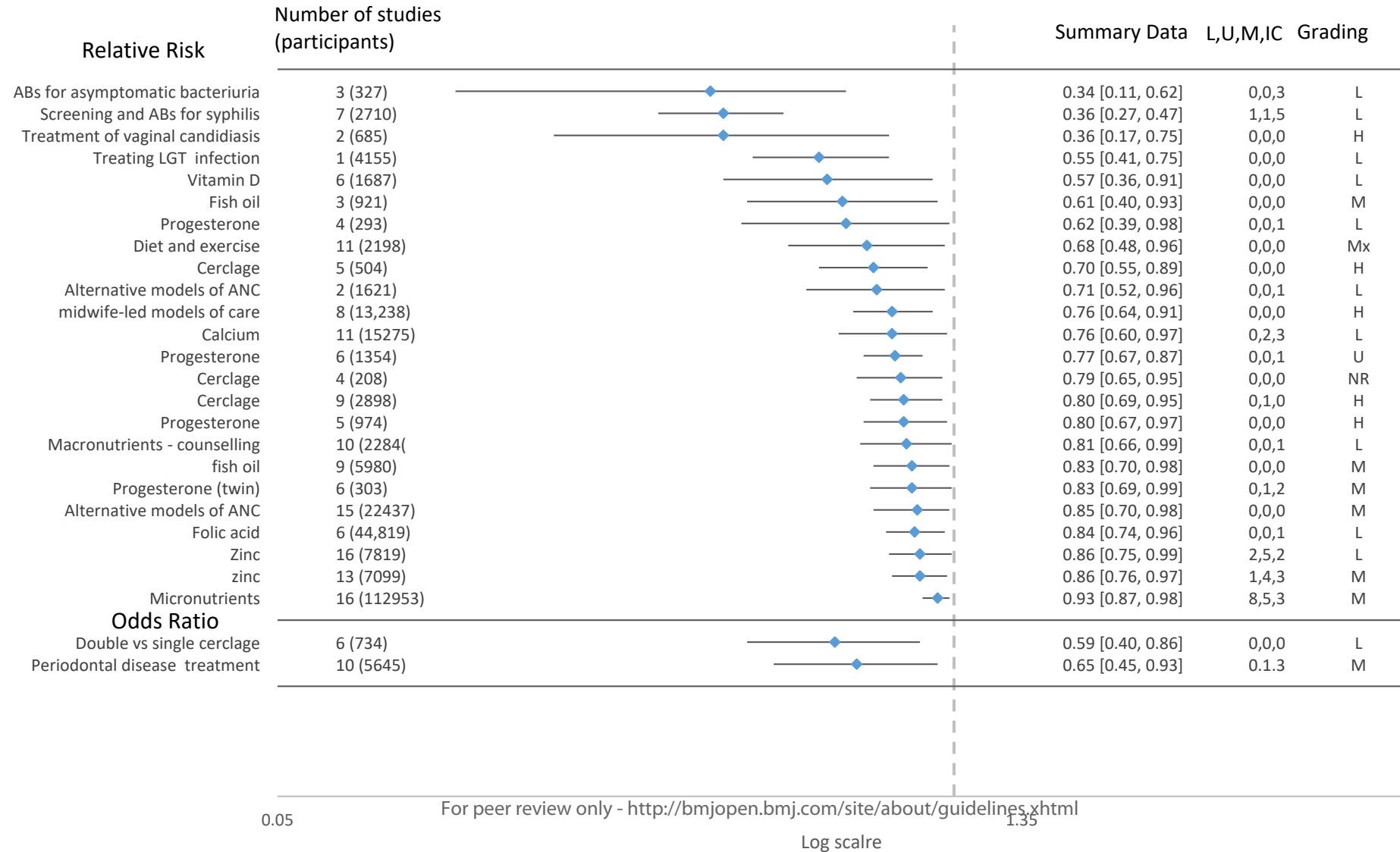
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Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) Checklist

| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|--|--------------------|
| TITLE | | | |
| Title | 1 | Identify the report as a scoping review. | |
| ABSTRACT | | | |
| Structured summary | 2 | Provide a structured summary that includes (as applicable): background, objectives, eligibility criteria, sources of evidence, charting methods, results, and conclusions that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| INTRODUCTION | | | |
| Rationale | 3 | Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known. Explain why the review questions/objectives lend themselves to a scoping review approach. | |
| Objectives | 4 | Provide an explicit statement of the questions and objectives being addressed with reference to their key elements (e.g., population or participants, concepts, and context) or other relevant key elements used to conceptualize the review questions and/or objectives. | |
| METHODS | | | |
| Protocol and registration | 5 | Indicate whether a review protocol exists; state if and where it can be accessed (e.g., a Web address); and if available, provide registration information, including the registration number. | |
| Eligibility criteria | 6 | Specify characteristics of the sources of evidence used as eligibility criteria (e.g., years considered, language, and publication status), and provide a rationale. | |
| Information sources* | 7 | Describe all information sources in the search (e.g., databases with dates of coverage and contact with authors to identify additional sources), as well as the date the most recent search was executed. | |
| Search | 8 | Present the full electronic search strategy for at least 1 database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated. | |
| Selection of sources of evidence† | 9 | State the process for selecting sources of evidence (i.e., screening and eligibility) included in the scoping review. | |
| Data charting process‡ | 10 | Describe the methods of charting data from the included sources of evidence (e.g., calibrated forms or forms that have been tested by the team before their use, and whether data charting was done independently or in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators. | |
| Data items | 11 | List and define all variables for which data were sought and any assumptions and simplifications made. | |
| Critical appraisal of individual sources of evidence§ | 12 | If done, provide a rationale for conducting a critical appraisal of included sources of evidence; describe the methods used and how this information was used in any data synthesis (if appropriate). | |
| Synthesis of results | 13 | Describe the methods of handling and summarizing the data that were charted. | |



| SECTION | ITEM | PRISMA-ScR CHECKLIST ITEM | REPORTED ON PAGE # |
|---|------|---|--------------------|
| RESULTS | | | |
| Selection of sources of evidence | 14 | Give numbers of sources of evidence screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally using a flow diagram. | |
| Characteristics of sources of evidence | 15 | For each source of evidence, present characteristics for which data were charted and provide the citations. | |
| Critical appraisal within sources of evidence | 16 | If done, present data on critical appraisal of included sources of evidence (see item 12). | |
| Results of individual sources of evidence | 17 | For each included source of evidence, present the relevant data that were charted that relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| Synthesis of results | 18 | Summarize and/or present the charting results as they relate to the review questions and objectives. | |
| DISCUSSION | | | |
| Summary of evidence | 19 | Summarize the main results (including an overview of concepts, themes, and types of evidence available), link to the review questions and objectives, and consider the relevance to key groups. | |
| Limitations | 20 | Discuss the limitations of the scoping review process. | |
| Conclusions | 21 | Provide a general interpretation of the results with respect to the review questions and objectives, as well as potential implications and/or next steps. | |
| FUNDING | | | |
| Funding | 22 | Describe sources of funding for the included sources of evidence, as well as sources of funding for the scoping review. Describe the role of the funders of the scoping review. | |

JBI = Joanna Briggs Institute; PRISMA-ScR = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews.

* Where *sources of evidence* (see second footnote) are compiled from, such as bibliographic databases, social media platforms, and Web sites.

† A more inclusive/heterogeneous term used to account for the different types of evidence or data sources (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy documents) that may be eligible in a scoping review as opposed to only studies. This is not to be confused with *information sources* (see first footnote).

‡ The frameworks by Arksey and O'Malley (6) and Levac and colleagues (7) and the JBI guidance (4, 5) refer to the process of data extraction in a scoping review as data charting.

§ The process of systematically examining research evidence to assess its validity, results, and relevance before using it to inform a decision. This term is used for items 12 and 19 instead of "risk of bias" (which is more applicable to systematic reviews of interventions) to include and acknowledge the various sources of evidence that may be used in a scoping review (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy document).

From: Tricco AC, Lillie E, Zarin W, O'Brien KK, Colquhoun H, Levac D, et al. PRISMA Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR): Checklist and Explanation. *Ann Intern Med.* 2018;169:467–473. doi: [10.7326/M18-0850](https://doi.org/10.7326/M18-0850).

