

Systemic Lupus Erythematosus and Pregnancy Outcomes: An In-Depth Review

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Introduction

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) is a chronic autoimmune disease that predominantly affects women of childbearing age. Pregnancy in SLE is no longer contraindicated for most patients, but it remains a complex clinical scenario due to the interplay between the disease and the physiological changes of gestation. Normal pregnancy entails immune modulation, hormonal fluctuations, and cardiovascular adaptations, all of which can influence the course of SLE and vice versa. Historically, women with lupus faced substantially higher risks of maternal and fetal complications compared to healthy pregnancies, including increased rates of preeclampsia, pregnancy loss, and maternal mortality. For example, a U.S. study in the early 2000s found maternal death in SLE pregnancies was over 20-fold higher than in the general obstetric population. Thanks to advances in care, outcomes have improved over time (with declining trends in adverse events), and many women with well-controlled SLE can now have successful pregnancies. Nevertheless, SLE pregnancies are still considered “high-risk” and require careful management to mitigate complications. This review provides an extensive overview of how SLE interacts with pregnancy, examining the research methodologies used to study this topic, the spectrum of risks and complications, optimal management strategies, recent advancements in medical understanding, and the psychological challenges faced by pregnant women with SLE. Each section integrates findings from a broad range of medical literature – including cohort studies, meta-analyses, and expert guidelines – to present a comprehensive picture of SLE in pregnancy.

Methodologies in Research on SLE and Pregnancy

Researchers have employed diverse approaches to investigate SLE’s impact on pregnancy outcomes, ranging from traditional clinical studies to cutting-edge data science techniques. **Clinical cohort studies and registries** are foundational – both prospective and retrospective designs have quantified risks by tracking pregnant SLE patients over time. For instance, the PROMISSE study (Predictors of Pregnancy Outcome in SLE and APS) was a large multicenter prospective cohort that identified key risk factors for adverse pregnancy outcomes using logistic regression models. It revealed, among other factors, that lupus anticoagulant positivity and active disease at conception strongly predict poor outcomes. Similarly, population-based retrospective analyses have leveraged hospital databases to compare SLE pregnancies to non-SLE pregnancies. One U.S. nationwide analysis of over 51,000 SLE deliveries (2008–2017) vs. 40 million non-SLE deliveries quantified the increased incidence of complications in lupus, confirming significantly higher rates of preterm birth, intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR), and severe maternal morbidity in the SLE group. Such large-scale studies, often using administrative or registry data, provide valuable epidemiological evidence.

Statistical prediction models have been developed to stratify risk in individual patients. Traditional multivariable models (e.g. logistic regression) have identified clinical predictors of adverse outcomes with reasonable accuracy. For example, baseline use of antihypertensive medication, low platelet counts, and high disease activity are incorporated into risk calculators for pregnant patients. In fact, using routine clinical data from the first trimester, researchers were able to predict composite adverse outcomes with about 78%

accuracy in one study. These models help clinicians counsel patients on their personalized risks. Additionally, systematic reviews and **meta-analyses** synthesize findings across studies – an influential meta-analysis by Smyth *et al.* reviewed 37 studies (2,751 SLE pregnancies) and found that about 25% of lupus pregnancies involve disease flares and 16% involve lupus nephritis activity, underscoring these as common maternal complications. Meta-analytic methods increase statistical power to estimate outcomes like flare rates or preeclampsia incidence in SLE.

AI-driven approaches are a newer frontier in this field. Machine learning (ML) models have been applied to improve prediction of pregnancy complications in SLE and other high-risk pregnancies. For example, Mozannar *et al.* (2023) developed a human-AI collaborative system that analyzes health insurance claims data to flag high-risk pregnancies in real time. Such models can triage patients by risk and potentially alert care managers to provide early interventions. In SLE-specific research, Fazzari *et al.* (2022) explored multiple ML algorithms (random forests, neural networks, support vector machines, etc.) to predict adverse outcomes using the PROMISSE dataset. Notably, the ML models confirmed the same core risk factors identified by traditional methods (active lupus, antiphospholipid antibodies, thrombocytopenia), and the best-performing ensemble model achieved an area-under-curve of ~0.78. While this represents only a modest improvement over logistic regression, it highlights how AI can handle complex interactions (e.g. synergy between lupus anticoagulant and anticardiolipin antibody) that might be missed by simpler analyses. **Interdisciplinary studies** also integrate laboratory science – for instance, some investigators employ immunologic and placental studies to understand pathophysiology (such as examining placental tissue for complement deposition in lupus patients) or use genomics and proteomics to search for biomarkers predicting pregnancy outcomes. Overall, by combining clinical observation, statistical modeling, and innovative AI techniques, researchers are gradually closing knowledge gaps and enhancing our ability to predict and manage SLE-related pregnancy risks.

Risks & Complications in SLE Pregnancies

Pregnant women with SLE face a **heightened risk of complications** affecting both mother and fetus compared to the general obstetric population. These risks stem from underlying disease activity, autoantibodies (like antiphospholipid antibodies), and the medications used to control SLE. Key maternal complications include disease flares, preterm labor, hypertensive disorders, and organ-specific issues, while fetal complications range from pregnancy loss to neonatal lupus. Understanding each of these risks is crucial for anticipatory management.

Maternal Risks and Complications

- **Disease Flares:** Pregnancy can precipitate SLE flares, especially if the disease is active or poorly controlled at conception. Roughly 20–25% of lupus pregnancies experience a lupus flare, though reported flare rates vary with baseline disease status. Women in remission before pregnancy have significantly lower flare rates (as low as 7–20%) whereas those with active SLE at conception have flare rates up to 60%. Organ-specific flares, particularly lupus nephritis, are of special concern. Active nephritis occurs in about 1 in 6 SLE pregnancies and markedly raises the risk of maternal complications like severe hypertension and preeclampsia (57% incidence with renal flares vs. 11% without). Flares can also lead to damage accrual (e.g. kidney impairment) and necessitate high-dose immunosuppressive therapy during pregnancy. Prompt recognition and treatment of disease reactivation are vital, as uncontrolled flare activity is linked to higher rates of preterm birth and fetal loss. Fortunately, maintaining low disease activity for at least 6 months pre-pregnancy has been associated with a significantly reduced flare risk and better outcomes.
- **Hypertensive Disorders and Preeclampsia:** One of the most serious complications in SLE pregnancy is preeclampsia (PE), a hypertensive disorder characterized by high blood pressure and proteinuria. Women with SLE have an approximate 2- to 3-fold increased risk of preeclampsia compared to healthy pregnancies. Population studies indicate about 20–30% of lupus pregnancies develop preeclampsia, a rate much higher than the ~5–8% in the general obstetric population. Risk factors such as active lupus (especially nephritis), chronic hypertension, and antiphospholipid syndrome (APS) further elevate the likelihood of PE. Preeclampsia in SLE often presents a diagnostic dilemma because its signs (hypertension, proteinuria, elevated liver enzymes, low platelets in HELLP syndrome) can overlap with lupus flare or nephritis. Lupus nephritis itself predisposes to PE, making it challenging to distinguish one from the other when a patient with SLE develops worsening blood pressure and proteinuria in mid to late pregnancy. Clinicians may use adjunct biomarkers (for example, serum complement levels and anti-

dsDNA titers tend to reflect lupus activity, whereas angiogenic factors like sFlt-1/PLGF are altered in PE) to help differentiate the conditions. Preeclampsia requires urgent obstetric management (often necessitating early delivery), whereas a lupus flare calls for immunosuppressive therapy – thus, distinguishing the two is critical. Uncontrolled lupus and high-dose corticosteroid use (prednisone) in late pregnancy have also been associated with higher preeclampsia rates. Overall, hypertensive disorders contribute significantly to maternal and fetal morbidity in SLE pregnancies, including risks of stroke, placental abruption, and indicated preterm birth.

- **Thromboembolism and Antiphospholipid Syndrome:** SLE patients, especially those with antiphospholipid antibodies, are prone to thromboses and microvascular complications. Pregnant women with the antiphospholipid syndrome (APS) – often overlapping with lupus – have high rates of recurrent miscarriages, placental insufficiency, and blood clots. APS antibodies (lupus anticoagulant, anticardiolipin, anti- β_2 glycoprotein I) can cause placental thrombosis leading to early pregnancy loss or late complications like intrauterine growth restriction. In one cohort, lupus patients with lupus anticoagulant had an odds ratio >8 for adverse pregnancy outcome. Even in our Romanian cohort example, low complement levels and the presence of lupus anticoagulant were among the most cited predictors of poor outcome. APS-related clotting also raises maternal risk of deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary embolism, stroke, and other thromboembolic events, which can be life-threatening. Indeed, stroke (cerebrovascular disorder) was found to be nearly 4 times more likely during delivery in mothers with SLE compared to non-SLE mothers in a large U.S. analysis. Careful thromboprophylaxis (discussed in Management) is required for these patients to mitigate clotting risks during pregnancy and postpartum when hypercoagulability is heightened.
- **Maternal Mortality and Severe Morbidity:** While rare, maternal mortality remains a grave concern in lupus pregnancy. Active SLE, especially with organ involvement, dramatically increases the risk of life-threatening complications such as disseminated infection, organ failure, or catastrophic APS. From 2000–2003, maternal deaths in SLE were reported at 325 per 100,000 live births (0.325%), which was >20 times higher than in women without SLE. More recent data suggest maternal mortality in lupus has decreased with better care, but it still exceeds general population rates. Aside from mortality, **severe maternal morbidity** is significantly elevated. One study defined severe maternal morbidity by CDC criteria (unexpected outcomes of labor/delivery with serious health consequences) and found lupus patients had far higher rates – for example, during labor and delivery, SLE mothers were ~ 15 times more likely to develop acute renal failure and about 4 times more likely to require a blood transfusion (often due to hemorrhage) than non-SLE mothers. They also had more frequent intensive care admissions and longer hospital stays. Infection is another complication: immunosuppressive medications and active disease can predispose SLE patients to serious infections (which accounted for 40% of maternal deaths in one review). Vigilance for maternal complications must therefore be extremely high in managing lupus pregnancies.
- **Medication-Related Effects:** Managing SLE often requires medications that can themselves impact pregnancy. High-dose glucocorticoids (steroids) can cause gestational diabetes, excessive weight gain, hypertension, and increase infection risk. These side effects can compound pregnancy risks (e.g. diabetes and hypertension add to preeclampsia risk). Immunosuppressants like cyclophosphamide are teratogenic and generally contraindicated during pregnancy due to risk of fetal malformations and potential maternal side effects (they are reserved only for life-threatening disease flares, typically after organ formation or postpartum). Methotrexate and mycophenolate mofetil (MMF) are also highly teratogenic, causing embryonic loss and birth defects, and thus must be discontinued well before conception. On the other hand, some medications beneficial to lupus can positively influence pregnancy outcomes: for example, continuing hydroxychloroquine throughout pregnancy has been shown to reduce lupus activity and is associated with lower risk of flares and even a reduced incidence of neonatal lupus in the baby. Low-dose aspirin is frequently recommended to SLE mothers from the first trimester onward to decrease the chance of preeclampsia and placenta-mediated complications. In sum, balancing medication use is challenging – one must avoid drugs that harm the fetus while ensuring the mother's disease remains adequately controlled, since uncontrolled SLE can itself lead to poor outcomes. We discuss specific management adjustments in a later section.

Fetal and Neonatal Risks

- **Miscarriage and Fetal Loss:** SLE increases the risk of early pregnancy loss (miscarriage) and later-term fetal demise. Estimates vary, but fetal loss rates in lupus pregnancies have improved to roughly 10–20% in recent series (including both

miscarriage and stillbirth), down from higher percentages in past decades. Many first-trimester losses in SLE may be due to the same causes seen in the general population (chromosomal anomalies, etc.), but active lupus and antiphospholipid antibodies greatly heighten the risk. Women with APS can experience recurrent miscarriages due to thrombosis of placental vessels; without proper treatment, APS can cause multiple losses. The presence of lupus anticoagulant is perhaps the strongest single predictor of fetal loss in SLE – the PROMISSE study found LAC-positive patients had significantly higher fetal/neonatal mortality (up to 22% in high-risk subgroups). Active lupus nephritis and high disease activity are also associated with increased fetal demise. With modern management (e.g. prophylactic heparin/aspirin for APS, and pre-pregnancy disease control), many women with lupus now carry pregnancies successfully, but the miscarriage rate remains modestly elevated compared to healthy women.

- **Preterm Birth:** Preterm delivery is one of the most common complications in SLE pregnancy. Lupus patients have an approximately twofold higher frequency of preterm birth than the general obstetric population. Large studies illustrate this clearly: in a nationwide U.S. analysis, 14.5% of SLE pregnancies were delivered preterm (<37 weeks) compared to 7.3% in non-SLE pregnancies. Other cohorts report even higher rates, especially when including indicated preterm births due to maternal/fetal complications; for instance, a tertiary center study found over 50% of lupus pregnancies had delivery before 37 weeks when factoring in all high-risk indications. The causes of prematurity in SLE are often iatrogenic – meaning doctors may need to induce early delivery or perform a preterm C-section because of worsening maternal conditions (severe preeclampsia, renal flare, etc.) or fetal distress. Spontaneous preterm labor can also occur if lupus causes placental insufficiency or if there are uterine complications. Lupus flares correlate with preterm birth: pregnancies during which a lupus flare occurs have significantly higher odds of ending preterm (one study showed 35% of those with renal flares delivered preterm, vs 9% if no flare). Preterm infants from lupus pregnancies face typical prematurity-related issues (respiratory distress, NICU stays), so preventing early delivery by maintaining maternal health is a priority. Even when born at term, babies of mothers with SLE tend to have lower birth weights on average, reflecting a propensity toward placental insufficiency.
- **Intrauterine Growth Restriction (IUGR) and Low Birth Weight:** Placental dysfunction in SLE can manifest as fetal growth restriction. Chronic maternal inflammation, antiphospholipid microthromboses in placental vessels, and preeclampsia all contribute to limited nutrient/blood delivery to the fetus. As a result, **small-for-gestational-age (SGA)** infants are more common. One study noted IUGR in 8.0% of SLE pregnancies vs only 2.7% in non-SLE controls. Another found the rate of SGA babies (<5th percentile weight) was ~10% in lupus pregnancies. Risk factors for IUGR in SLE include active nephritis, APS, and hypertension – all of which impair placental function. Improved monitoring has helped detect IUGR early; for example, uterine artery Doppler ultrasounds in the second trimester can identify abnormal placental blood flow. Research shows an elevated uterine artery pulsatility index or a low cerebroplacental ratio on Doppler is often predictive of fetal growth restriction in lupus pregnancies. When IUGR is detected, clinicians intensify surveillance and may deliver the baby early if the intrauterine environment is hostile. Despite these risks, many SLE mothers do deliver healthy-weight infants, particularly if their disease is well controlled and they do not have APS. It is noteworthy that even SLE patients without obvious complications have a higher rate of Cesarean delivery, often due to cautious obstetric management; SLE pregnancies had more frequent C-sections in some series (partly due to indications like IUGR or non-reassuring fetal status).
- **Neonatal Lupus (NL):** One unique risk to the offspring of mothers with SLE (or other rheumatic diseases) is neonatal lupus, a passively acquired autoimmune syndrome. Neonatal lupus is caused by the transplacental passage of maternal **anti-Ro/SSA and anti-La/SSB auto-antibodies** into the fetus. These antibodies can affect the fetal tissues, most notably the cardiac conduction system and skin. The most severe manifestation is **congenital heart block (CHB)**, where the fetal atrioventricular node is damaged, leading to irreversible heart block in utero or neonatal life. Fortunately, only about 1–2% of babies born to mothers with anti-Ro/SSA antibodies develop congenital heart block or other NL manifestations. However, the risk increases if the mother has had a previous child with neonatal lupus (recurrence risk ~15–20%), or if maternal antibody titers are high. Approximately 30–40% of SLE patients carry anti-Ro/La antibodies, so this risk is relevant for a substantial subset. Neonatal lupus can also cause a characteristic rash (annular skin lesions that appear in the neonatal period), hepatobiliary inflammation, or cytopenias. These symptoms are usually transient, clearing as maternal IgG antibodies wane in the infant's circulation (by 6–8 months of age). Congenital heart block, however, is permanent and often necessitates a pacemaker in the infant shortly after birth. The good news is that widespread use of **hydroxychloroquine (HCQ)** in lupus pregnancy has been associated with a decreased incidence of cardiac neonatal lupus – HCQ is thought to lower the probability of significant antibody-mediated

damage to the fetal heart. Additionally, high-risk mothers (anti-Ro positive, especially those with a prior affected child) undergo serial fetal echocardiography between ~16 and 26 weeks' gestation to detect early signs of heart block. If an abnormal fetal heart rhythm is noted (e.g. a prolonged PR interval), some centers will initiate treatments (like dexamethasone or IVIG) in attempts to prevent complete block, though the efficacy of such interventions is debated. Overall, neonatal lupus is a rare complication, but one that requires specialized monitoring. It also has psychological ramifications – expecting mothers may experience significant anxiety awaiting the “all clear” for their baby’s heart. We address the emotional aspect in a later section.

In summary, while most women with SLE now achieve favorable pregnancy outcomes, they remain at elevated risk for a host of complications: flares and preeclampsia threaten the mother’s health, and miscarriage, prematurity, growth restriction, and neonatal lupus threaten the baby’s health. It is this double-sided risk profile that makes lupus pregnancies uniquely challenging. Recognizing these risks allows for tailored monitoring and prophylactic measures to improve outcomes, as we discuss next.

Management Strategies for SLE During Pregnancy

Managing SLE in pregnancy requires a **holistic, multidisciplinary approach** that addresses preconception planning, careful monitoring, judicious medication use, and patient education. The overarching goals are to keep the mother’s disease quiet, prevent flares, and promptly treat any complications, while also fostering optimal conditions for fetal growth and preventing pregnancy-specific disorders. In practice, this means close collaboration between rheumatologists, obstetricians (especially Maternal-Fetal Medicine specialists), nephrologists (if renal lupus is present), cardiologists (for antiphospholipid or cardiac issues), and often neonatologists. What follows is an overview of key management principles at each phase of the journey – from preconception through postpartum – and strategies proven to improve pregnancy outcomes in SLE.

Flowchart of recommended care for SLE in pregnancy, from preconception through postpartum. This multidisciplinary plan emphasizes disease stabilization before pregnancy, regular monitoring (every 4–6 weeks) of SLE activity and fetal well-being, use of prophylactic medications (like low-dose aspirin and heparin) when indicated, and coordinated postpartum follow-up.

Preconception Counseling and Disease Optimization: Management begins *before* pregnancy. All women with SLE who desire pregnancy should receive preconception counseling, ideally with input from both rheumatology and high-risk obstetrics. In this counseling, the patient’s individual risk factors are reviewed – including disease history (especially lupus nephritis or past obstetric APS complications), autoantibody profile (e.g. anti-Ro, antiphospholipid antibodies), current medications, and comorbid conditions like hypertension. Crucially, patients are advised to **plan pregnancy during a period of quiescent or low disease activity**, generally at least 6 months of remission, as this significantly lowers flare risk and adverse outcomes. If a patient’s disease is active, pregnancy should be deferred and aggressive treatment given to induce remission. This may mean using cyclophosphamide or high-dose steroids *prior* to pregnancy for severe lupus, then switching to pregnancy-safe maintenance therapy once stability is achieved. Preconception visits also involve **medication adjustments**: any teratogenic drugs must be stopped and switched to alternatives well in advance of conception. For example, mycophenolate, methotrexate, and cyclophosphamide are replaced with safer immunosuppressants like azathioprine or calcineurin inhibitors (tacrolimus); warfarin (if used for APS) is changed to heparin; and any high-risk blood pressure medications (ACE inhibitors or ARBs) are changed to pregnancy-compatible options (like labetalol or nifedipine). It’s recommended to **continue hydroxychloroquine** through conception and pregnancy for all lupus patients, as HCQ is safe and associated with reduced lupus activity and neonatal lupus rates. Patients who are positive for antiphospholipid antibodies or have a history of thrombosis/pregnancy losses will often be started on prophylactic therapy (low-dose aspirin and/or heparin) as soon as pregnancy is confirmed– this strategy is decided in the preconception planning. Baseline evaluations should include tests for anti-Ro/SSA and anti-La/SSB antibodies (if not already known) and anticardiolipin, β_2 -glycoprotein I, and lupus anticoagulant testing, because these results directly inform pregnancy monitoring (e.g. need for fetal echocardiograms or anticoagulation). Overall, the preconception phase is about risk stratification and optimization: the care team essentially determines if the patient is “**pregnancy ready**” – if not, they intervene until she is (or counsel against pregnancy if risks are prohibitive, such as severe pulmonary hypertension or advanced renal failure, where pregnancy may be life-threatening).

Monitoring and Ongoing Care During Pregnancy: Once pregnant, a lupus patient should be managed with **frequent and thorough monitoring** by a multidisciplinary team. A rheumatologist typically sees the patient at least every 4–6 weeks throughout gestation to

assess disease activity. At these visits, a physical exam and laboratory work-up are performed, including complete blood counts, kidney and liver function tests, urinalysis for protein, complement levels (C3, C4), and anti-dsDNA titers. These metrics help detect any lupus flare or organ involvement early. Pregnancy-specific lupus activity indices (such as SLEPDAI or LAI-P) may be used to quantify disease activity while accounting for normal pregnancy changes. Concurrently, the obstetric team monitors fetal development and pregnancy progression. Typically, ultrasounds are done more frequently than in a normal pregnancy – often each trimester or even monthly – to check fetal growth and amniotic fluid. Given the higher risk of placental insufficiency, Doppler ultrasounds of uterine and umbilical arteries might be employed in the second trimester to screen for preeclampsia or IUGR risk markers. If the mother has anti-Ro/SSA antibodies, specialized fetal echocardiography is started by ~16 weeks and repeated every 1–2 weeks through 26 weeks to catch any emerging fetal heart block. This early window is critical for detecting first-degree heart block (prolonged AV interval) before it progresses. In mothers with antiphospholipid antibodies, surveillance for signs of placental thrombosis or insufficiency is heightened; some centers perform uterine artery Dopplers or even placental scans in the late first trimester to ensure proper implantation.

Throughout pregnancy, **medication management** is continually adjusted. The guiding principle is to maintain lupus control while minimizing fetal risks. Safe medications – **hydroxychloroquine, low-dose aspirin, and azathioprine** – are continued or introduced if needed to control disease. If a lupus flare occurs, prompt treatment is instituted: typically corticosteroids (the lowest effective dose) are first-line for flares; intravenous methylprednisolone can manage moderate to severe flares and has minimal placental transfer (especially non-fluorinated steroids like prednisone or methylprednisolone are preferred as they are inactivated by the placenta). For severe flares (e.g. a severe nephritis relapse), other immunosuppressants like azathioprine or calcineurin inhibitors (cyclosporine, tacrolimus) can be escalated since they are relatively safe in pregnancy. **Cyclophosphamide** is generally avoided in the first and second trimesters due to teratogenicity, but in life-threatening situations (such as lupus cerebritis or severe nephritis not responding to other therapy), cyclophosphamide may be considered in the late second or third trimester as a last resort, after thorough counseling. Biologic therapies like belimumab or rituximab are not routinely used, though case-by-case they have been used when the benefit outweighs unknown fetal risks; these decisions are made collaboratively with patients and often involve informed consent about limited safety data. Meanwhile, to manage antiphospholipid syndrome, standard care is to administer **thromboprophylaxis**: typically low-dose aspirin plus prophylactic low-molecular-weight heparin for women with APS or strong aPL positivity. This has been shown to significantly improve live birth rates in APS by preventing placental clotting. If the patient had a prior thrombosis (thrombotic APS), full therapeutic anticoagulation (higher dose heparin) is used. These medications (aspirin and heparin) are safe for the fetus. Throughout pregnancy, it is also important to manage general health: control blood pressure (target <140/90 with safe antihypertensives), monitor for gestational diabetes (especially if on high-dose steroids), and treat any intercurrent infections promptly given the patient's immunocompromised state. The obstetric team will also plan the timing and mode of delivery in coordination with maternal condition – for example, if preeclampsia supervenes or if the lupus is flaring badly, an earlier delivery might be indicated. Many lupus patients, if stable, are able to carry to 37–39 weeks and have a planned induction or C-section as needed. It's not uncommon for a planned delivery around 38 weeks in well-controlled patients, balancing the risk of late-pregnancy flare or preeclampsia against the baby's maturity.

Interdisciplinary Coordination and Patient Education: A hallmark of optimal lupus pregnancy care is the integration of multiple specialists and clear communication. **Multidisciplinary team meetings** or joint clinics can be very beneficial. As recommended by EULAR and ACR, rheumatologists and obstetricians should coordinate closely on monitoring plans and intervention thresholds. For example, when a lupus patient is admitted for a complication, having her rheumatologist involved in the hospital management (alongside obstetricians) ensures both lupus control and obstetric needs are addressed. In centers where available, joint “lupus pregnancy clinics” allow patients to see both specialists in one visit and foster team decision-making. Involving a **neonatologist or pediatric cardiologist** before delivery is also prudent if neonatal lupus or prematurity is anticipated, so that appropriate newborn care (e.g. NICU, pacemaker for CHB) is arranged. Beyond clinician coordination, **patient education and psychosocial support** are integral management components. Patients should be counseled on how to recognize signs of lupus flare versus normal pregnancy symptoms, and on the importance of medication adherence. Many patients have understandable anxiety about taking medications during pregnancy – for instance, some may question continuing immunosuppressants out of fear of harming the baby. It is critical to educate that certain medications (like HCQ and azathioprine) are important for preventing flares and are considered low risk to the fetus, whereas uncontrolled lupus is far more dangerous to the baby than the medications. Education extends to lifestyle recommendations as well: getting adequate rest, controlling stress, avoiding smoking, and keeping prenatal appointments all contribute to better outcomes. Some centers offer patient support groups or connect pregnant SLE patients with peers who've had successful pregnancies, to provide encouragement and practical tips. **Prenatal counseling** also involves the patient's partner and family when possible – one study noted

that women with SLE prefer pre-pregnancy counseling that includes their partner and is delivered directly by their specialists. This ensures the support system around the patient is informed and involved.

Delivery and Postpartum Care: The timing of delivery in SLE is individualized. If pregnancy has been uncomplicated, delivery at full term is ideal. Vaginal delivery is often possible unless obstetric indications for C-section arise (which they often do, such as placental insufficiency or fetal distress). A plan should be in place for managing active lupus near the time of delivery – for example, stress-dose steroids during labor if the patient has been on long-term corticosteroids to prevent adrenal insufficiency, or continuing heparin up until 24 hours before induction to balance clotting and bleeding risks. In antiphospholipid patients, aspirin and heparin are usually stopped at the onset of labor or 12–24 hours before a planned C-section to reduce bleeding, then restarted postpartum. The **postpartum period** (puerperium) is a high-risk time for SLE women. First, there is an increased risk of lupus flare in the 4–8 weeks after delivery, particularly for those who had active disease during pregnancy. Close monitoring by rheumatology should continue in the postpartum follow-up; many providers see the patient at 2–4 weeks postpartum to check for flares and reinforce medication plans. If medications were held or reduced during pregnancy (for example, some patients elect to discontinue certain drugs while pregnant), postpartum is often the time to **reinstate full therapy** – especially since breastfeeding compatibility is considered for each drug. Notably, most lupus medications are compatible with breastfeeding. Prednisone, hydroxychloroquine, heparin, aspirin, azathioprine, and even low-dose tacrolimus or cyclosporine can all be used while breastfeeding with minimal transfer to breast milk. Methotrexate and cyclophosphamide are exceptions (these are contraindicated in lactation), but those are usually not part of maintenance therapy postpartum unless needed for a severe flare. Thus, mothers with SLE are encouraged to breastfeed if they wish, as the majority can safely continue their treatment regimen and nurse. Secondly, postpartum is a hypercoagulable state for all women, so in lupus/APS patients the thrombotic risk is particularly high. Current practice is to continue prophylactic anticoagulation (heparin and/or aspirin) for at least 6 weeks after delivery in patients with antiphospholipid syndrome or other risk factors. If the patient was on warfarin prior to pregnancy (for mechanical valves or high-risk APS), warfarin can be resumed a few days postpartum (warfarin is safe in breastfeeding). **Postpartum monitoring** also includes blood pressure checks (since preeclampsia can manifest postpartum or linger), and monitoring of blood counts and renal function if there were any complications like HELLP syndrome or kidney flare. Lastly, before concluding postpartum care, providers should discuss **future pregnancies and long-term disease management**. If this pregnancy had complications, what is the plan to mitigate those next time? Patients should also be reminded about contraception if they wish to avoid immediate further pregnancies – effective contraception is important because unplanned pregnancies in active lupus can be dangerous. In summary, postpartum care is an extension of pregnancy management with an added emphasis on controlling lupus flares and ensuring the mother's safe recovery.

Through vigilant multidisciplinary management – starting from preconception counseling, through intensive monitoring in pregnancy, to coordinated delivery and postpartum care – the majority of women with SLE can achieve successful pregnancy outcomes today. In fact, studies show that if a lupus patient enters pregnancy in remission and lacks high-risk features, her chance of a good outcome exceeds 80–90%. This represents a marked improvement from past eras. Nonetheless, there are still cases of severe complications, highlighting the need for continued advancements and personalized approaches, which we explore in the next section.

Advancements in Medical Understanding and Care

The landscape of SLE and pregnancy management has evolved significantly, especially in the last decade, due to technological and medical advances. Ongoing research is continually refining our understanding of lupus in pregnancy and introducing new tools to improve care. Here, we discuss several key advancements: from predictive analytics and biomarkers to novel therapies and personalized medicine approaches that hold promise for the future.

Improved Risk Prediction through Technology: One major stride is the incorporation of machine learning and big data analytics into predicting pregnancy outcomes. Traditional risk factors (like lupus nephritis or antiphospholipid antibodies) have long been known, but advanced algorithms can analyze complex interactions among dozens of variables simultaneously. As noted earlier, ML models such as random forests and ensemble learners have modestly improved the accuracy of adverse outcome prediction in lupus pregnancies. Beyond research settings, health systems are starting to deploy predictive tools in clinical practice. For example, the human-AI collaboration system by Mozannar *et al.* uses machine learning classifiers on insurance data to identify pregnant patients (including those with SLE or other risks) who are likely to develop complications, enabling early care interventions. These AI-driven approaches can “flag” high-risk pregnancies that might otherwise be missed and ensure that patients get appropriately referred to specialists or receive prophylactic

therapies sooner. In the future, one can envision an integrated risk score for a lupus patient that combines clinical data, lab trends, and even genetic markers, updated in real-time via an electronic health record alert, to assist clinicians in decision-making.

Biomarker Discovery – Towards Personalized Medicine: Advances in immunology and molecular profiling are opening new avenues to predict and prevent complications. Researchers are investigating biomarkers in the blood or placenta that could signal impending issues. For instance, in SLE pregnancies, persistently low complement levels or rising anti-dsDNA titers during gestation have been linked to impending flares or preeclampsia, and these are being studied as early warning markers. Additionally, there is exciting work on **genomic, proteomic, and metabolomic markers** of adverse pregnancy outcomes (APO). Recent studies have explored gene expression signatures, certain cytokine or protein levels, and metabolite profiles that might predict complications like preterm birth or fetal growth restriction in lupus patients. While results have varied and are not yet conclusive, the ultimate goal is to identify a panel of biomarkers that, when measured in early pregnancy, can accurately stratify patients by risk. For example, one study found that an imbalance in angiogenic factors (like a very high sFlt-1 to PLGF ratio) was indicative of developing preeclampsia in lupus patients, whereas another noted that abnormal levels of certain complement split products could predict lupus flare vs. preeclampsia differentiation. If validated, these biomarkers could be incorporated into routine care – a blood test mid-pregnancy might tell us which lupus patients need intensified surveillance or preemptive treatment. This push towards **personalized medicine** means moving away from a one-size-fits-all approach to one where each lupus pregnancy is managed according to that individual's unique risk profile (their disease history, lab markers, genetic factors, etc.). The concept of a personalized “pregnancy plan” for lupus – already practiced informally – will be further supported by these scientific advancements.

Therapeutic Developments: On the treatment front, new medications for lupus are emerging, and their use in pregnancy is an area of careful progress. Biologic therapies such as **belimumab** (a monoclonal antibody against BLyS) and **rituximab** (against CD20 B-cells) have expanded the arsenal for severe lupus. Although these drugs are generally avoided in pregnancy due to insufficient safety data, there have been case reports and small series of lupus patients who required them during pregnancy. So far, results are cautiously optimistic – for example, some women with refractory lupus nephritis have received rituximab in the second trimester and had disease control without obvious teratogenic effects (aside from transient B-cell depletion in the newborn). Belimumab, which does cross the placenta later in pregnancy, has been reported in a few pregnancies with no definitive link to adverse outcomes, but data are very limited. Recognizing the ethical challenge, experts are calling for more research into the use of new lupus drugs in pregnant patients. In parallel, there are efforts to **develop safer therapies** or preventive treatments for pregnancy-specific problems. One exciting area is the prevention of congenital heart block in neonatal lupus: clinical trials are underway (or proposed) to test medications like IVIG infusions or novel anti-inflammatory agents in mothers who have a high risk of having a baby with heart block, aiming to prevent the antibody-mediated damage. Additionally, improved formulations of drugs like hydroxychloroquine (or measuring HCQ blood levels) might ensure patients get optimal benefit from this cornerstone medication during pregnancy. Another development is in the management of antiphospholipid syndrome – besides heparin and aspirin, studies are looking at drugs like hydroxychloroquine (which APS patients are now often given, even if they don't have SLE, because HCQ has anti-thrombotic properties) and statins or complement inhibitors to further reduce APS pregnancy complications in refractory cases. While not yet standard, these represent how understanding of the immunology of APS and preeclampsia (for example, the role of complement) is influencing experimental therapies. Finally, **diagnostic techniques** have improved: higher resolution ultrasounds and fetal echocardiography allow earlier and more accurate detection of fetal problems. Non-invasive testing, like cell-free fetal DNA screening, can rule out chromosomal issues in early pregnancy, providing reassurance that a mid-trimester loss may more likely be lupus-related if it occurs. Even placental imaging with MRI is being explored for high-risk pregnancies to detect placental infarctions or inflammation in vivo.

Multidisciplinary Care Models and Guidelines: An advancement not in technology but in practice is the establishment of dedicated lupus pregnancy clinics in many tertiary centers. These clinics embody the interdisciplinary approach, often featuring a team that includes rheumatologists, obstetricians, and nurses specialized in high-risk pregnancy. Studies suggest that such coordinated care can improve outcomes and patient satisfaction. On an international level, professional guidelines have been published (e.g. EULAR and ACR guidelines on reproduction in rheumatic diseases) that synthesize the latest evidence and expert consensus to guide clinicians. They emphasize early risk assessment, use of HCQ and aspirin, APS management, and the importance of joint care – messages we have detailed in this review. The mere existence of these guidelines and their broad dissemination is an advance in itself, standardizing care so that even patients not seen in expert centers can benefit from evidence-based management. Still, as noted in a 2024 review, there remain “open issues” – e.g., how to manage patients with subthreshold APS (who don't meet full criteria but have some antibodies and

losses) or how to handle the use of newer agents – which require further research. Efforts are underway to address these through international research collaborations.

In summary, the care of pregnant women with SLE today is supported by more knowledge and tools than ever before. Predictive models (statistical and AI-based) are helping identify high-risk patients for closer monitoring. Research into biomarkers and disease mechanisms is paving the way for personalized management plans. And the introduction of new therapies, along with structured interdisciplinary care models, is gradually improving both maternal and fetal prognosis. Outcomes that were once thought unachievable – such as a woman with a history of severe lupus nephritis having a healthy full-term baby – are now routine in many centers, thanks to these advancements. The continued challenge will be to ensure these innovations are accessible and implemented broadly, and to keep pushing the frontiers so that someday the risks of SLE in pregnancy approach those of the general population.

Psychological & Emotional Aspects

Beyond the physical risks, women with SLE who become pregnant face significant **psychological and emotional challenges**. Coping with a high-risk pregnancy can be stressful for anyone, and the unpredictable nature of lupus – with its potential flares and complications – often amplifies anxiety. It is essential to recognize and address these mental health aspects as part of comprehensive care for SLE patients.

Heightened Anxiety and Depression: Studies have shown that patients with SLE already have higher rates of anxiety and depression than the general population, due to the burden of managing a chronic, unpredictable illness. Adding pregnancy to the mix can intensify these issues. One literature review found that among women with SLE, the incidence of anxiety symptoms ranges from 15% to 45%, and depression from 25% to 47%, markedly above population norms. During pregnancy, women may worry excessively about the health of their unborn baby – **will my lupus flare and harm the baby? Will the medications I'm taking cause birth defects? What if I have a miscarriage or preterm birth?** These concerns are not unfounded, given the real risks, and they can create pervasive anxiety. Many women also feel a loss of control, as they must rely on frequent medical evaluations and face uncertainty at each test or ultrasound. Depression can arise from both hormonal changes and situational stress. Some patients feel guilt, blaming themselves if something goes wrong (even though lupus activity is not under willful control). Others may experience grief if advised to avoid pregnancy or limit family size due to their health.

It's also noted that **pregnancy intention and readiness** play a role in psychological outcomes. Unplanned pregnancies in SLE (which can happen if disease causes irregular cycles or if patients underestimate fertility) are associated with higher stress and depression early in pregnancy. Conversely, women who plan and prepare tend to feel more in control. A study on pregnancy intention in SLE found those with unplanned pregnancies reported more disease symptoms and depression, highlighting the need for pre-pregnancy counseling and planning to improve mental well-being.

Stress of Medical Surveillance: The intensive monitoring regimen itself can be emotionally taxing. Frequent doctor visits, laboratory tests, and ultrasounds – while reassuring in one sense – can also continuously remind a woman of everything that might go wrong. The two-weekly fetal echocardiograms for anti-Ro positive mothers, for instance, are a double-edged sword: mothers are grateful for the careful check-ups, but each session carries anxiety as they await the results (many describe holding their breath until they hear that the fetal heartbeat is normal). This **constant vigilance** can lead to high levels of stress. Chronic stress during pregnancy is undesirable as it may have physiologic effects (like elevated cortisol), so addressing and mitigating stress is important not just for mental health but possibly for pregnancy health as well.

Impact on Family and Relationships: The emotional toll of SLE in pregnancy also extends to family dynamics and future planning. Some women with severe lupus choose not to conceive at all out of fear, leading to feelings of loss or inadequacy. In one survey, about one-third of women with SLE who did not have children cited SLE-related reasons (personal decision due to fear of complications, medical advice, or past infertility from treatments) as the cause of their childlessness. This indicates that lupus can interfere with life goals like parenthood, which can be psychologically distressing. For those who do pursue pregnancy, partners and family members also experience anxiety regarding the mother's and baby's health. Economic and social stressors can arise if the woman must reduce work or if there are high medical expenses. Ensuring the patient has a strong support system is vital. Communication with the partner is crucial so that they understand the condition and can provide emotional support; indeed, many SLE patients express a preference for involving their partner in counseling sessions.

Fear and Uncertainty of Flares: The possibility of a lupus flare at any time – and particularly postpartum – can cause lingering fear. Pregnant women with SLE might interpret any symptom (fatigue, joint pain, a new rash) with alarm, unsure if it signals a flare that could jeopardize the pregnancy. This hyper-awareness, while understandable, can degrade quality of life. On the flip side, some women might minimize symptoms due to fear of treatments or hospitalization harming the baby, leading to internal conflict or denial. Psychological support can help patients find a balanced perspective and encourage open reporting of symptoms without catastrophic thinking.

Postpartum Emotions: After delivery, aside from the normal new-parent adjustments, SLE mothers must contend with recovery and risk of flares. The postpartum period carries a risk for **postpartum depression (PPD)** in any woman (~10% on average), and lupus

patients may have an even higher susceptibility because of fatigue, physical pain, or disappointment if the outcome was not as hoped (for example, if the baby needed NICU care or if the mother had a traumatic medical experience). Moreover, certain neuropsychiatric lupus symptoms can overlap with or exacerbate postpartum depression and anxiety, making it important for providers to differentiate the two. Mothers may also worry about caring for a newborn if their lupus flares – “What if I’m too sick to take care of my baby?” – which can be a source of anxiety and needs reassurance and planning (like having family help in place).

Importance of Psychological Support: Given these challenges, integrating mental health support into the care of pregnant SLE patients is paramount. **Patient counseling** – by obstetricians, rheumatologists, or specialized nurses – at each visit can help address fears with facts. Simple reassurance like “Your disease is under good control, which bodes well for the baby” backed by evidence can alleviate some anxiety. Referral to a **psychologist or psychiatrist** should be offered if there are significant symptoms of anxiety or depression. Cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) and stress-reduction techniques can equip patients with coping strategies for uncertainty. In some cases, psychiatric medication may be appropriate (certain antidepressants or anti-anxiety medications are relatively safe in pregnancy and may be used if needed). Additionally, **support groups** or peer mentoring can be incredibly beneficial – talking to other women who went through lupus pregnancies successfully can provide hope and practical advice. Hospitals or lupus organizations often have programs or can connect patients (even online forums can serve this role). As Neri *et al.* concluded in their study, psychological support is an important component in the counseling of patients with rheumatic disease during pregnancy and in their children’s upbringing. Support should extend to the family as well – involving spouses in discussions, for instance, can help them provide better emotional support and also allay their own fears.

In summary, the emotional journey of a pregnant woman with SLE is complex, characterized by hope but also fear. Healthcare providers should actively inquire about mental well-being at prenatal visits, normalize the patient’s feelings (“It’s understandable to feel anxious given what you’re managing”), and provide resources for counseling or support. By treating the **whole patient** – mind and body – we can improve not only her quality of life but potentially also pregnancy outcomes, since lower stress and better mental health have been linked to healthier pregnancies. The resiliency many lupus patients show through pregnancy is remarkable, and with adequate support, they can emerge from the experience empowered and prepared for the challenges of motherhood with a chronic illness.

Conclusion

Pregnancy in systemic lupus erythematosus represents a convergence of medical, psychological, and logistical challenges – but as this extensive review has highlighted, it is a journey that can be navigated successfully with modern understanding and care. SLE’s impact on pregnancy outcomes is profound: it raises the risk of complications like flares, preeclampsia, preterm birth, and fetal loss, and introduces unique issues such as neonatal lupus. However, outcomes have improved dramatically over the past few decades. Whereas lupus pregnancies were once associated with alarmingly high rates of morbidity and mortality, today most women with well-controlled SLE can expect a positive outcome for both mother and child. This improvement is a result of **advancements in research and interdisciplinary care**. Studies have elucidated key risk factors (for example, antiphospholipid antibodies and active disease drive many complications), leading to targeted management strategies like aspirin/heparin prophylaxis and timing pregnancy in remission. Innovations such as machine-learning risk models, while still evolving, offer hope for even earlier identification of which pregnancies need the most intensive care. At the same time, emerging biomarkers and treatment options promise a future of more personalized and effective interventions – perhaps one day allowing us to prevent flares or preeclampsia before they happen, or safely treat severe lupus without harming the pregnancy.

A recurring theme in this review is the importance of **interdisciplinary collaboration and patient-centered care**. Optimal outcomes occur when rheumatologists, obstetricians, and other specialists work together seamlessly, and when the patient is an informed, empowered partner in the process. Every stage – from preconception counseling where risks are assessed and mitigated, to postpartum follow-up where flares and depression are monitored – requires coordination. Equally, the patient’s values and preferences must be honored: decisions like pursuing pregnancy, continuing certain medications, or mode of delivery should involve shared decision-making, guided by medical evidence but tailored to what is acceptable to her. Psychological support is not an afterthought but a pillar of care; by addressing mental health, we improve adherence to medical plans and the overall well-being of mother and baby.

Implications for future research and care include several avenues. First, there is a need for more prospective studies and clinical trials in pregnant SLE patients. Ethical concerns have historically limited trials in pregnancy, but as a result, many recommendations are based

on observational data and expert opinion. Future research could focus on unanswered questions like: How effective is hydroxychloroquine in preventing cardiac neonatal lupus (there is consensus it helps, but quantifying that would solidify practice)? What is the optimal management for women with low-titer antiphospholipid antibodies and recurrent loss (where current criteria might not mandate full anticoagulation)? Can biologics like belimumab be safely used if needed – perhaps via pregnancy registries to gather more safety data? Another research front is **basic science**: understanding the immunological crosstalk between mother, placenta, and fetus in lupus. This could unveil new treatment targets, such as complement inhibition to prevent APS-related placental damage. There is also room to develop better **clinical tools** – for example, composite indices that incorporate both lupus activity and obstetric factors to guide management intensity (somewhat akin to how oncology has staging systems). And as data accumulate, guidelines should be continually updated to reflect best practices, helping to standardize care globally.

For clinicians, the insights from this review reinforce that caring for a pregnant lupus patient means being vigilant and proactive. Early referral to high-risk obstetric care, keeping lupus quiescent (often with continued HCQ and allowed medications), and preemptively addressing modifiable risks (like starting aspirin to curb preeclampsia risk) are all strategies backed by current evidence. For patients, it is important to know that while lupus pregnancies are high-risk, *high-risk does not mean impossible*. With today's knowledge, **most women with SLE can have children safely**, especially if they work closely with their healthcare team to plan ahead and manage the disease. The journey may have more frequent doctor visits and some difficult moments of uncertainty, but many lupus mothers describe the birth of a healthy child as one of their greatest triumphs over the disease.

In conclusion, SLE in pregnancy exemplifies the progress of modern medicine – turning a once-forbidden endeavor into a feasible and often successful one. Continued research and innovation, coupled with compassionate multidisciplinary care, are pivotal in further improving outcomes and quality of life for these patients. By building on the foundation outlined in this review, future healthcare providers can aim to narrow the gap between lupus pregnancies and normal pregnancies even further, ensuring that women with SLE can pursue motherhood with confidence and support.

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