

1 **Full title:** Pregnant women's understanding and conceptualisations of the harms from drinking
2 alcohol: a qualitative study

3 **Short title:** How pregnant women conceptualise harm from alcohol use

4

5 Sophie Gibson,^{1,2} Cate Nagle,^{3,4} Jean Paul,^{1,5} Leisa McCarthy,⁶ Evelyne Muggli^{1,2,4*}

6

7 ¹ Reproductive Epidemiology, Murdoch Children's Research Institute, Parkville, Australia

8 ² Victorian Infant Brain Studies, Murdoch Children's Research Institute, Parkville, Australia

9 ³ Centre for Nursing & Midwifery Research, James Cook University, Townsville, Australia

10 ⁴ Townsville Hospital & Health Service, Townsville, Australia

11 ⁵ Department of Paediatrics, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, Australia

12 ⁶ Menzies School of Health Research, Alice Springs, Australia

13

14

15 * Corresponding author

16 Email: evi.muggli@mcri.edu.au.

17

18

19 **Abstract**

20 **Background:** Despite women's awareness that drinking alcohol in pregnancy can lead to lifelong
21 disabilities in a child, it appears that an awareness alone does not discourage some pregnant women
22 from drinking.

23 **Objectives:** To explore influences on pregnant women's decision making around alcohol use in a
24 population with frequent and heavy peer drinking (i.e. in two Indigenous Australian communities)
25 and another of non-Indigenous pregnant women attending antenatal care in a range of
26 socioeconomic settings.

27 **Methods:** Individual and group discussions were held with both Indigenous Australian and non-
28 Indigenous pregnant women attending a variety of antenatal care models, including two Indigenous
29 maternity services in Australia. Data were analysed using inductive content analysis.

30 **Results:** A total of 14 Indigenous Australian and 14 non-Indigenous pregnant women participated
31 in this study. Analysis identified five main influences on pregnant women's alcohol use: the level
32 and detail of women's understanding of harm; women's information sources on alcohol use in
33 pregnancy; how this information influenced their choices; how women conceptualised their
34 pregnancy; and whether the social and cultural environment supported abstinence.

35 **Conclusions for practice:** This study provides insight into how Indigenous Australian and non-
36 Indigenous pregnant women understand and conceptualise the harms from drinking alcohol,
37 including how their social and cultural environments impact their ability to abstain. Strategies for
38 behaviour change need to: correct misinformation about supposed 'safe' timing, quantity and types
39 of alcohol; develop a more accurate perception of Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder; reframe
40 messages about harm to messages about optimising the child's health and cognitive outcomes; and
41 develop a holistic approach encompassing women's social and cultural context.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Current research suggests that alcohol use in pregnancy continues to be prevalent despite antenatal
45 guidelines advising against drinking. The 2009 Australian National Guidelines to Reduce Health
46 Risks from Drinking Alcohol recommend that it is safest for women to abstain from drinking
47 alcohol completely throughout the duration of their pregnancy [1]. However, data from two large
48 national surveys of Australian women aged 18 to 45 years found that 34 to 49% of women
49 consumed alcohol in pregnancy [2, 3], and that despite women's awareness that drinking alcohol in
50 pregnancy can lead to lifelong disabilities in a child, nearly one third intended to drink alcohol in a
51 future pregnancy [2]. Whilst knowledge of the potential harms of alcohol consumption during
52 pregnancy is important, it is apparent that an awareness alone does not discourage some women
53 from drinking when pregnant. The relatively high prevalence of alcohol consumption during
54 pregnancy has also been reported in other high-income countries. An international cross-cohort
55 comparison of the prevalence of alcohol use during pregnancy revealed that high rates of alcohol
56 consumption in pregnancy, between 20 and 80%, were evident despite knowledge of the guidelines
57 recommending abstinence [4]. Of additional concern are the levels of alcohol consumed in some
58 sub-populations. For example, an Australian survey reported that of the 55% of Indigenous
59 Australian women who consumed alcohol in pregnancy, nearly half drank at least two to three times
60 per week and almost all consumed a minimum of seven standard drinks per occasion [5]. Similarly,
61 a 2017 systematic review found that around one in five Indigenous women in North America drink
62 at binge levels when pregnant [6].

63 While it is generally understood that frequent and heavy drinking among peers in populations with a
64 low socioeconomic background is strongly associated with frequent and heavy alcohol use in
65 pregnancy, [7] women who were highly educated, and/or with high incomes are also well
66 represented among those who continue to drink in pregnancy, albeit at lower levels of consumption
67 [2, 8-10]. Women with higher levels of education have more knowledge of the effects of alcohol
68 use in pregnancy [11], however their drinking choices are likely to be based on an individualised

69 risk perception rather than the advice from guidelines and health professionals. It appears that a
70 single health message to abstain from alcohol in pregnancy is not effective, especially in this
71 population. Advice for pregnant women may need to be tailored to allow for social influences,
72 attitudes, and personal experience, depending on the target population.

73 The objective of this qualitative study was to explore influences on pregnant women's decision
74 making around alcohol use in a population with frequent and heavy peer drinking (i.e. in two
75 Indigenous Australian communities) and another of non-Indigenous pregnant women from a range
76 of backgrounds. The aim was to better understand why messages to abstain may not always be
77 effective with pregnant women and to inform a more tailored approach to health promotion.

78 **Methods**

79 This study used data collected as part of a larger ongoing project, which aims to develop nationally
80 consistent and comprehensive maternal and perinatal mortality and morbidity data collections in
81 Australia, the National Maternity Data Development Project (NMDDP) [12]. The NMDDP
82 included individual and group interviews with Indigenous Australian and non-Indigenous pregnant
83 women to explore their views on being asked about alcohol use as part of their routine maternity
84 care and having this information reported at a national level. In this context, participants also
85 reflected on their personal opinions and decisions on alcohol use in pregnancy and their
86 understanding of the related harms. These conversations were analysed in the present study to
87 address our objectives. The study is presented in line with the Consolidated Criteria for Reporting
88 Qualitative Research (COREQ) [13].

89 Women who were pregnant, aged 18 years or older and able to speak and write in English were
90 invited to participate in the study. Recruitment was based on a convenience sample of women
91 attending antenatal care at a date and time that researchers were in attendance. The sites were three
92 public and one private health service in Victoria, Australia, and included socioeconomically
93 disadvantaged and regional areas, as well as two Indigenous Australian settings; one remote service
94 in the Northern Territory and one regional service in Victoria.

95 Women who met the selection criteria were approached by a member of the research team while
96 they were waiting for their antenatal clinic appointment. Women who were interested in the study,
97 provided written consent to participate and either took part in an individual interview held at a
98 mutually convenient time (mostly immediately following their antenatal appointment) or in a group
99 discussion later that day. Following consultation with clinic staff in the two Indigenous Australian
100 communities, a personal choice to take part in an individual or group interview was offered. This
101 was to allow for freedom of expression where a young woman may not feel comfortable to express
102 her own thoughts in the presence of an elder or may experience shame discussing the topic with
103 others from their community.

104 The women taking part in this study had no prior relationship with any of the researchers. All
105 individual and group interviews began with brief introductions to the researchers' background, an
106 explanation of the purpose of the study and an opportunity for the women to introduce themselves
107 with their name and gestational age (e.g. "*Hi, my name is Anne and I am 18 weeks pregnant*") and
108 ask questions. This was followed by a guided discussion of the women's attitudes towards alcohol
109 use during pregnancy, their understanding of the harms of drinking alcohol in pregnancy, and their
110 views on collecting prenatal alcohol consumption information for clinical management and
111 reporting purposes. Examples of guiding questions were: *What do you know about drinking alcohol*
112 *in pregnancy? Where would you get your information from about this sort of thing?*; *"What is your*
113 *experience of being asked by a maternity clinician about your alcohol drinking in pregnancy? What*
114 *were your reactions? Remember, we don't want to ask you about your actual alcohol consumption,*
115 *but to reflect on your own situation or that of friends."*; *"How important do you think is it that*
116 *maternity clinicians ask pregnant women about their alcohol use? Do you think that women in*
117 *general would understand the reasons for being asked about this?"*; and *"How important do you*
118 *think is it that information about alcohol use in pregnancy is collected and reported for all*
119 *pregnant women across Australia?"* The facilitator was free to ask follow-up questions to explore
120 more deeply any topics raised in the discussion. The questions were pilot tested in a single

121 discussion group with a convenience sample of five pregnant, or previously pregnant, women from
122 the researchers host institution. All individual and group discussions were facilitated by a skilled
123 qualitative researcher with expertise in the Indigenous Australian setting (JP). The presence of an
124 experienced Indigenous Australian health researcher (LMcC) further ensured that the interviews in
125 this setting were conducted respectfully and socially and culturally appropriate. In the groups, the
126 facilitator conducted the discussion and ensured all participants were given the opportunity to
127 contribute equally and a note taker was present to record contextual details and nonverbal
128 expressions. All discussions were audiotaped with participants' consent and transcribed verbatim
129 with field notes added where relevant. Participant names and study sites were replaced with
130 pseudonyms. No interviews were repeated and transcripts were not returned to participants.
131 Aboriginal and/ or Torres Strait Islander people are respectively referred to in this paper as
132 Indigenous Australian.

133 ***Data analysis***

134 Transcripts were analysed by a student researcher (SG) and her supervisor (EM) using inductive
135 content analysis [14] with progressive feedback from the interview facilitator (JP) on interpretation
136 and coding. Content analysis is particularly useful to systematically identify specific messages in
137 any type of social communication. It establishes the existence and frequency of concepts through
138 inclusion or exclusion of content according to consistently applied criteria relevant to the research
139 aims. Analysis involved repeated listening to recordings and reading of transcripts, coding and
140 annotating the text, using the data management software NVivo 11 and on hard copies, with
141 headings which represented manageable content categories. A process of selective reduction then
142 produced an agreed analysis matrix, which consisted of hierarchical flow charts and diagrams to
143 pictorially represent each heading and any possible connections between them. Data were then
144 abstracted into this matrix in a dynamic process by further reviewing and refining headings with
145 similar responses. These formulated categories became the final framework used to report results.
146 Each category was named using a term that was 'content-characteristic' [14]. Using inductive

147 content analysis enabled researchers to apply and discuss relevant theories to provide meaning and
 148 explain results which are included in the discussion section of this paper [15]. Participant feedback
 149 on the findings was not sought. A selection of representative quotes, with non-lexical utterances
 150 removed, is included in the results to illustrate the categories.

151 **Results**

152 We interviewed 14 Indigenous Australian pregnant women, three of whom took part in a group
 153 interview. In the non-Indigenous setting, we conducted one individual and five small group
 154 interviews with two to three pregnant women in each group, totalling 14 participants (Table 1).
 155 Interviews were undertaken between November 2015 and March 2016. Individual and group
 156 interviews ranged between ten and thirty minutes in duration.

157 **Table 1** Participating sites, number and gestation of participants

Site	Code for Table 2	Data collection method	Number of Participants	Gestation (weeks)
Metropolitan public hospital 1	MPUH1	1x individual interview	1	29
Metropolitan public hospital 2 (low SES)	MPUH2	2x group interviews	5	34-39
Rural/regional hospital	RH	2x group interviews	5	15-38
Metro private hospital	MPRH	1x group interview	3	20-31
Remote Aboriginal community controlled health service ^a	RIHS1	3x individual interviews	3	8-20 ^{+b}
Rural Aboriginal community controlled health service	RIHS2	8x individual interviews; 1x group interview	11	8-35

158 ^a This health service was located in the Northern Territory. All other sites were located in the State of Victoria.

159 ^b Sometimes women were unsure about their gestational age. Researchers were advised not to specifically ask about this
 160 if the information was not volunteered.

161 The five main categories in our final analysis matrix were: (1) women's understanding of alcohol-
 162 related harm (understanding); (2) women's information sources on alcohol use in pregnancy
 163 (informing); (3) how this information influenced their choices (choosing); (4) how women
 164 conceptualised their pregnancy (conceptualising): and (5) whether their environment was supportive
 165 of abstinence from alcohol (enabling). Between three and five subcategories were identified to
 166 describe each categorical concept which increased understanding and generated knowledge about
 167 the topic. The conceptual framework for understanding the factors which influence drinking choices

168 made by Indigenous Australian and non-Indigenous pregnant women is visualised in the Figure.

169 Table 2 includes a representative set of supporting participant quotes.

170 **Figure** Influences on pregnant women’s drinking choices: Conceptual framework.

171 **Figure caption:** Grey rings represent Health Belief Model [16] overlay used in discussion.

172 **Table 2** Conceptual framework: examples of supporting participant quotes

1. Understanding
<i>“I know that there is a number of things, I’m not exactly sure of what can happen but I know it can be dangerous.” (Participant 2 RIHS2)</i>
<i>“I know that there’s some risks, but I don’t know what they are. All I know is that I shouldn’t be drinking.” (Participant 2 RH)</i>
<i>“From what I’ve heard, it’s not good, there’s conditions that can be involved with the development of the baby, and all. Like the actual, when the baby is born, there’s serious brain function, cognitive development issues.” (Participant 1 MPUH1)</i>
<i>“I do think that probably the general consensus is that people, a lot of people, wouldn’t drink in the first twelve weeks at all and people might be more likely to after that.” (Participant 2 MPRH)</i>
<i>“I think people will be confused about the standard drinks. I don’t think people are clear what a standard drink (is). They think that ‘fill up a wine glass’ is a standard drink.” (Participant 2 MPRH)</i>
<i>“My grandmother drank one glass of red wine each day with my uncles, and yet they turned out perfectly fine. But I think it’s the hard stuff that you should avoid, how much percentage is in the actual alcohol or the wine, that’s about it.” (Participant 3 MPUH2)</i>
<i>“There’s a child at our school that has FASD and it’s hard to tell with her emotions, because she doesn’t know what face to make. So it’s just that means smiling and crying and if she sees another kid doing a face she copies like she doesn’t really have her own feelings.” (Participant 1 RIHS1)</i>

2. Informing

“Early on in the pregnancy, I didn’t know I was pregnant for the first eight weeks so, I had a bit of alcohol, and I freaked out a little bit once I found out I was pregnant. I asked the GP and they were like ‘no, should be fine’ and I read a little, re-read over everything just to refresh, and then kind of came to a conclusion, nothing’s going to be wrong.” (Participant 1 MPUH1)

“Say I have access to a diverse group of mothers, whether it be from nationality, cultural, age group, and everybody has their own opinion on it.” (Participant 2 MPUH2)

“I find a lot of stuff from America, and I will ask my mother in law, then my mama, because they both come from big families. If they don’t know, I ask my doctor, or a chemist or someone around me. For the young mums especially, I think the internet’s the first option for everyone because it’s there, you don’t have to leave the house.” (Participant 4 RIHS2)

“I was told through family, like what happens when you drink during pregnancy and stuff. They educated me before I went to a midwife sort of thing.” (Participant 6 RIHS2)

“I’ve seen a lot of TV ads as well about FASD.” (Participant 1 RIHS1)

“Probably the internet. I’d probably look up research myself and I’m part of a couple of mums’ groups online as well, so I’d probably talk to them about it and see where they would think. A good place to get information as well.” (Participant 1 MPUH2)

“Mum’s been a midwife, she was doing her midwifery course when I was in her belly, so she’s always been pretty open about everything and she tells me her views on things.” (Participant 2 RIHS1)

3. Choosing

“I think it’s very individual. Some people, some of my girlfriends, have had the occasional drink at a wedding or something and I wasn’t too concerned about it. But not drinking regularly or frequently or anything.” (Participant 1 MPRH)

“My mum, when I’m stressed, says ‘it’s okay if you have one’. I’m not comfortable doing that, my main reason is, because when I was pregnant with my twins, I was five months before I even

found out, and I had been drinking and smoking that entire time. They came 10 weeks early and I carry an incredible amount of guilt because I didn't pay attention to myself and it feels like it's my fault that they came early.” (Participant 2 RIHS2)

“I think there's conflicting information out there, but I will be of the opinion that none is safer, from what I have read.” (Participant 2 MPRH)

“There aren't really any good data on it, as far as in 'moderation' either, so...” (Participant MPRH)

You know mothers are probably just thinking about; ‘Oh well my mum did it with me, and her mum did it with her...’ (Participant 3 RIHS2)

“Yeah, like they always say, “It never hurt your mum, or it never hurt you, we used to smoke all the way through our pregnancy so...’.” (Participant 4 RIHS2)

4. Conceptualising

“Whatever you're eating and drinking, that's what your baby is drinking and eating as well... It's going inside your belly where the baby is.” (Participant 5 RIHS2)

“Even though they've got an addiction and they need help, you know, who's helping that little baby inside?” (Participant 3 RIHS1)

“I think people understand you're asked questions to assess your health and the health of your pregnancy and I think people understand that. (Participant 2 MPRH)

“I just decided what I wanted for me, that was all.” (Participant 2 MPUH2)

5. Enabling

“Whether it's a choice, or peer pressure, or they're following someone else.” (Participant 8 RIHS2)

“Especially if they're teenagers, all of their friends are teenagers and all of their friends are out drinking. They want to follow their friends and drink.” (Participant 1 RIHS1)

“If they want to just stop, I believe that they'd stop, but then again, it could be like other issues too. Just say that they have a partner, and they see them drink, then they feel like drinking

<p><i>because they don't want to be left out. There are all other things that come and play with it as well." (Participant 8 RIHS2)</i></p>
<p><i>"If you have a safe place to go to, where there's no drinking, then I guess its ok. But it's hard for women that don't have a safe place to go, or somewhere to go where there's not people drinking...." (Participant 1 RIHS1)</i></p>
<p><i>"If you have supportive, strong family that are close and help each other, that's really good." (Participant 1 RIHS1)</i></p>
<p><i>"Most of the time, if a woman is drinking during pregnancy, she's quite addicted to it. It's an addiction." (Participant 3 RIHS1)</i></p>
<p><i>"I guess someone who is drinking really heavily, perhaps they need some help. Maybe they need to see a counsellor or something like that, for an underlying issue, if they do have a problem with substance abuse." (Participant 1 MPUH2)</i></p>
<p><i>"Violence, which can lead to maybe the midwife referring on, or like depression or addiction. If something else is going on there as well, which could help with the treatment of, not only the mother, but the baby as well, and keeping the baby safe." (Participant 1 MPUH1)</i></p>

173

174 ***Women's understanding of harm (Understanding)***

175 When asked about the harms of alcohol use in pregnancy, all women displayed an understanding
176 and awareness that drinking alcohol was "bad", and generally acknowledged that alcohol use could
177 cause harm to their developing baby. Despite this knowledge, many participants were unclear about
178 the nature of harm to the baby. Some participants were able to describe one or more of the physical,
179 social, emotional or behavioural symptoms such as wide eyes, slow learning and hyperactivity.
180 Others named Fetal Alcohol Syndrome or 'FASD' (for Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder) as the
181 umbrella term for the effects from alcohol on the child, but then did not demonstrate an
182 understanding of the condition's characteristics. Very few participants could both name and explain
183 the disorder. Many non-Indigenous women were aware that the research evidence for harm

184 associated with low or occasional alcohol use was inconsistent and often described low level
185 drinking as being safe.

186 Participants often thought that harm was dependent on the timing of alcohol consumption,
187 suggesting there was a “*dangerous period*” and a “*safe period*”. They generally agreed that it was
188 important not to drink alcohol in the first 12 weeks of pregnancy and following this time, one or
189 two occasional drinks would be unlikely to cause harm to their baby. When thinking about alcoholic
190 drinks, most participants described a drink as being “*one glass of wine*” or “*a beer*”, showing only
191 limited understanding of the concept of a ‘standard drink’.

192 Some participants also believed that the type of alcoholic drink consumed played a role in the
193 potential for harm, suggesting that drinks with lower alcohol content such as wine or beer, as
194 opposed to spirits, were safer options.

195 ***Where women obtain information about alcohol in pregnancy (Informing)***

196 All participants reported that their knowledge and understanding of harm from drinking alcohol in
197 pregnancy stemmed from a variety of sources and not just from their midwife or doctor. Although
198 clinicians were the primary source of information, the internet, television advertisements, and
199 discussions with family and friends featured prominently. Indigenous Australian participants in
200 particular, reflected on discussions they had with their parents or grandparents about drinking
201 during pregnancy, whereas non-Indigenous participants spoke about observing the social pattern of
202 alcohol use in pregnancy of their family and friends whose children were subsequently unaffected.

203 Almost all Indigenous Australian participants mentioned that they had seen children affected by
204 prenatal alcohol exposure within their community, family or workplace, and that this raised their
205 awareness about the condition.

206 ***How this information influenced their choices (Choosing)***

207 Study participants used all information available to them to inform their decision-making.
208 Indigenous Australian participants had generally seen evidence of the consequences of drinking in
209 pregnancy and listened to their health practitioner’s advice to abstain from drinking alcohol. Most
210 Indigenous Australian participants also voiced that they could not understand why anyone would
211 drink if they knew there was a risk of harming their baby’s health. In contrast, many non-
212 Indigenous participants agreed that, while not drinking at all in pregnancy is safest, one or two
213 occasional drinks would not be harmful. They were happy to take on board the information and
214 advice given by their clinicians, but explained that their decision incorporated their own
215 observations and ‘research’ and that whether to drink alcohol when pregnant was an individual
216 choice.

217 ***How women conceptualise their pregnancy (Conceptualising)***

218 When reflecting on their drinking choices, the women in our study spoke about their pregnancy in
219 different ways, which also factored into their decision making. Women who spoke about their
220 health and the health of their pregnancy, were more likely to also talk about making individual
221 choices based on their own observations of the drinking behaviour of other pregnant women whose
222 children developed normally despite having been exposed to some level of alcohol. In contrast,
223 women who used language that was more directly connected to the developing fetus, such as the
224 “little baby inside”, tended to emphasise that abstinence was very important. This language was
225 used predominantly by Indigenous Australian women, but also by some women in rural or low
226 socioeconomic settings.

227 ***Whether the woman’s environment supports abstinence (Enabling)***

228 Whilst Indigenous Australian participants acknowledged that some women in the community,
229 particularly first-time mothers and those from remote communities, may not know about the harms
230 of drinking in pregnancy, they believed that an inability to abstain in pregnancy related more
231 directly to the influence of their social environment. Several Indigenous Australian women

232 explained that it was common for pregnant women in their community to have “*other stuff*” going
233 on, such as mental health issues, addiction and domestic violence. They also reflected on having the
234 support of their family and/or partner and the protective value of strong culture. They felt that a lack
235 of community, family and partner support was a clear risk factor for pregnant women to continue
236 their drinking, and that not having a “*safe place*” to stay was also a risk factor. Indigenous
237 Australian participants also thought that young pregnant women in particular were vulnerable to
238 drinking because of a high frequency of unplanned and unwanted pregnancy and trying to keep up a
239 social connection with their friends.

240 Although these points were predominantly raised by the Indigenous Australian women, some non-
241 Indigenous participants also proposed social and environmental factors. For instance, the social
242 importance of alcohol use, peer-pressure, and not being ready to disclose their pregnancy to others,
243 was thought to impact a pregnant woman’s ability to abstain from alcohol.

244 **Discussion**

245 This study found some specific influences on pregnant women’s alcohol use, which helped to
246 explain why a message promoting abstinence is not always effective. This information may assist
247 clinician’s conversations about alcohol use in pregnancy and facilitate women to make healthy
248 decisions. Women appeared to know that drinking alcohol when pregnant can be detrimental to the
249 developing baby, but when asked to describe the nature of harm in relation to alcohol use patterns
250 or the effects on the child, women were usually uncertain. All women used the information
251 available to them to make their decisions, but some placed great importance on individual choice;
252 perhaps rationalising their preference to drink alcohol while pregnant. The decisions to abstain in
253 the other group of women, which predominantly comprised the Indigenous Australian participants,
254 were based on their understanding of the responsibility of having a growing baby inside them,
255 listening to the health care provider, and being exposed to the harmful consequences of drinking
256 alcohol in pregnancy. Additional factors which enabled abstinence in both groups, included the

257 women's social environment and the support of a family or in the Indigenous Australian setting, a
258 strong culture.

259 The Health Belief Model [16] is a useful framework to assist in the understanding of the
260 relationship between health beliefs and health practices and provides a good fit to explain our study
261 findings and propose potential strategies for change below (see Figure). The model addresses: a) a
262 person's perception of a threat posed by a health problem, such as their susceptibility or the severity
263 of the condition (i.e. harm from alcohol use in pregnancy); b) the benefits of, or barriers to,
264 avoiding the threat by taking a recommended action (i.e. abstaining from alcohol in pregnancy); and
265 c) the factors that prompt the recommended health action and a person's ability to take such action
266 (i.e. abstinence within a social and/or cultural context) [17].

267 *Perceived susceptibility to harm*

268 Firstly, the idea that some alcohol was safe to drink after the first trimester, or that spirits were more
269 harmful than wine, influenced women's individual views of their susceptibility to harm.

270 Misconceptions about the safety or supposed health benefits of different types of alcoholic drink are
271 common, whether in the context of pregnancy, [18, 19] or in the general population [20]. Further, it
272 is well established that there are many misconceptions about the 'standard alcoholic drink'. The
273 'standard drink' or 'unit of alcohol' is a concept originally developed by the UK Government for
274 their 1987 guidelines on safe drinking and adopted by the World Health Organisation and many
275 countries around the world [21]. Despite standard drink labelling on alcoholic drink beverages, the
276 women in our study equated one glass of wine or 'a beer' with one single drink, even though for
277 example, a 375millilitres can of full-strength beer contains 1.5 standard drinks of alcohol in
278 Australia.

279 *Perceived severity of harm and benefits from abstaining*

280 Secondly, some women perceived the severity of harm from occasional alcohol use to be low. This
281 was usually based on their personal observations of the behaviour of family and friends, and a
282 perception of a lack of convincing research evidence on harm from low consumption patterns.

283 Consequently, beliefs about the benefits of abstaining from alcohol completely were also low in this
284 group of (non-Indigenous) women and the barriers to taking such action, for example when at a
285 social event, were seen to outweigh any risks. Together, these perceptions permitted nuanced
286 decisions by individual women about the quantity of alcohol was without risk of harm, even if they
287 received best practice health messages advising abstinence. In contrast to the group of women who
288 were making individual decisions about how much was safe to drink, pregnant women who
289 commonly saw heavy alcohol use in their community were more likely to believe that there could
290 be serious harm from alcohol to their child and that complete abstinence was important.

291 *Perceived barriers to abstaining*

292 Thirdly, despite an understanding of the potential harm from alcohol consumption and the
293 clinician's advice, a pregnant woman's social environment may limit her ability to abstain. Previous
294 research with Indigenous Australian communities indicates that while Indigenous Australian
295 women are less likely to drink alcohol in pregnancy than non-Indigenous women, if they do drink, it
296 is done so at risky levels [3, 5]. This was supported by our conversations with Indigenous
297 Australian women who spoke about the need for a strong, supportive family in environments such
298 as public housing town camps, where high-risk alcohol use is common.

299 All women in our study perceived that there was an expectation on them to drink alcohol in social
300 situations when not pregnant and explained that this influenced their decision or ability to abstain
301 during pregnancy. The pressure to comply with such social norms, especially in early gestation and
302 before the pregnancy is disclosed to others, are well documented in Australian and other Western
303 countries with a similar alcohol use culture [22, 23].

304 *Cues to action and self-efficacy*

305 Lastly, the outcomes from discussions with pregnant women in our study illustrate that abstinence
306 from alcohol has many facets, rendering a simple abstinence message ineffective in many instances.
307 To improve women's knowledge of the harms from alcohol and their own susceptibility, health

308 advice should include specific education to correct misinformation about ‘safe’ gestational timing,
309 and increase understanding of the ‘standard alcoholic drink’ concept to address the mistaken belief
310 that some types of drink are less harmful or even beneficial to one’s health. Further, we need to help
311 develop a more accurate perception of FASD and provide a clear message that is evidence-based.
312 Many women are aware of the current lack of evidence for harm associated with low or occasional
313 alcohol use and infer from this that it is safe to drink some alcohol. It is not currently known if there
314 is a ‘safe’ threshold of exposure, but alcohol is an established teratogen, acting either directly, or
315 through its metabolites, and affecting the regulation of cellular functions [24]. While exposure may
316 not necessarily result in adverse clinical outcomes for the child, it does mean that fetal development
317 is influenced at a biological level in response to alcohol. Women may think about avoiding potential
318 adverse cognitive outcomes in their child when making decisions about how much to drink when
319 pregnant, but prenatal alcohol exposure may also result in increased vulnerabilities to less clearly
320 defined later mental health problems, such as depression and anxiety [25]. Further, our own
321 research showed an association between any prenatal alcohol exposure and facial shape of one year-
322 old children, resulting in imperceptible, yet measurable, flattening of the midface and upturning of
323 the nose, and adding weight to the growing body of evidence on the influence of alcohol on all
324 stages of fetal development [26]. In light of this, we may need to reframe discussions around harm
325 prevention or whether there is a potentially ‘safe’ threshold, to messages about the importance of
326 alcohol abstinence in optimising health and cognitive outcomes for the unborn child. At the
327 population level, FASD-specific mass media campaigns, based on proven behaviour change
328 principles and with messages which combine threat (addressing perceived susceptibility and
329 severity) and self-efficacy (promoting confidence in ability to abstain) have been shown to be
330 effective in the past [27, 28].

331 For women with unsafe alcohol use or whose social and cultural environment makes abstinence
332 difficult, clinicians can play an important role in supporting and encouraging reduction in intake.
333 There is good evidence that brief interventions can be effective. These usually follow the ‘3 As’ of

334 ‘Assess, Advise and Assist’ and include building rapport, verbal reinforcement, goal setting to build
335 confidence, and assisting with personal circumstances [29, 30]. Building rapport and providing
336 culturally safe and holistic antenatal care is especially important for Indigenous Australian women
337 who may experience a disproportionate number of adverse circumstances [31, 32].

338 **Methodological considerations**

339 This was a qualitative research study comprising a convenience sample of pregnant women at low
340 risk of complications, attending a variety of antenatal care settings and this need to be considered in
341 the transferability of our findings. The findings presented arose from data generated in both group
342 and individual discussions with pregnant women, which may have affected the nature of
343 conversations. However, the combination of both types of data collection allowed for topics to arise
344 in a group interaction as well as the voicing of opinions in private, neither of which evoked
345 distinguishable content. While findings may be specific to the 28 women taking part and possibly
346 their broader interactions, our data analysis confirmed that data saturation was reached, and no new
347 topics arose that warranted further investigation.

348 The influence of unintended pregnancy, or the time period before pregnancy awareness in general,
349 on alcohol use was not considered specifically in this study and may require additional approaches,
350 such as FASD-specific public health initiatives.

351 **Acknowledgements**

352 We acknowledge the support of Central Australian Aboriginal Congress Aboriginal Corporation,
353 Mallee District Aboriginal Services, Cabrini Health, Western Health, Mercy Health and Goulburn
354 Valley Health and wish to thank all clinic managers and other staff for their generous help with
355 recruitment, organising rooms, and allowing us to interview their clients. We also thank Clare
356 Morrison and Taryn Charles for their assistance with the interviews and Rigan Tytherleigh, Rachel
357 Gordon and Joanne Kennedy for their interview transcription, Professor Della Forster for her
358 critical input into drafting of the manuscript and Romano Studer for his assistance with the figure

359 design. Most of all, we would like to thank all study participants for their time and effort in
360 assisting us with this research.

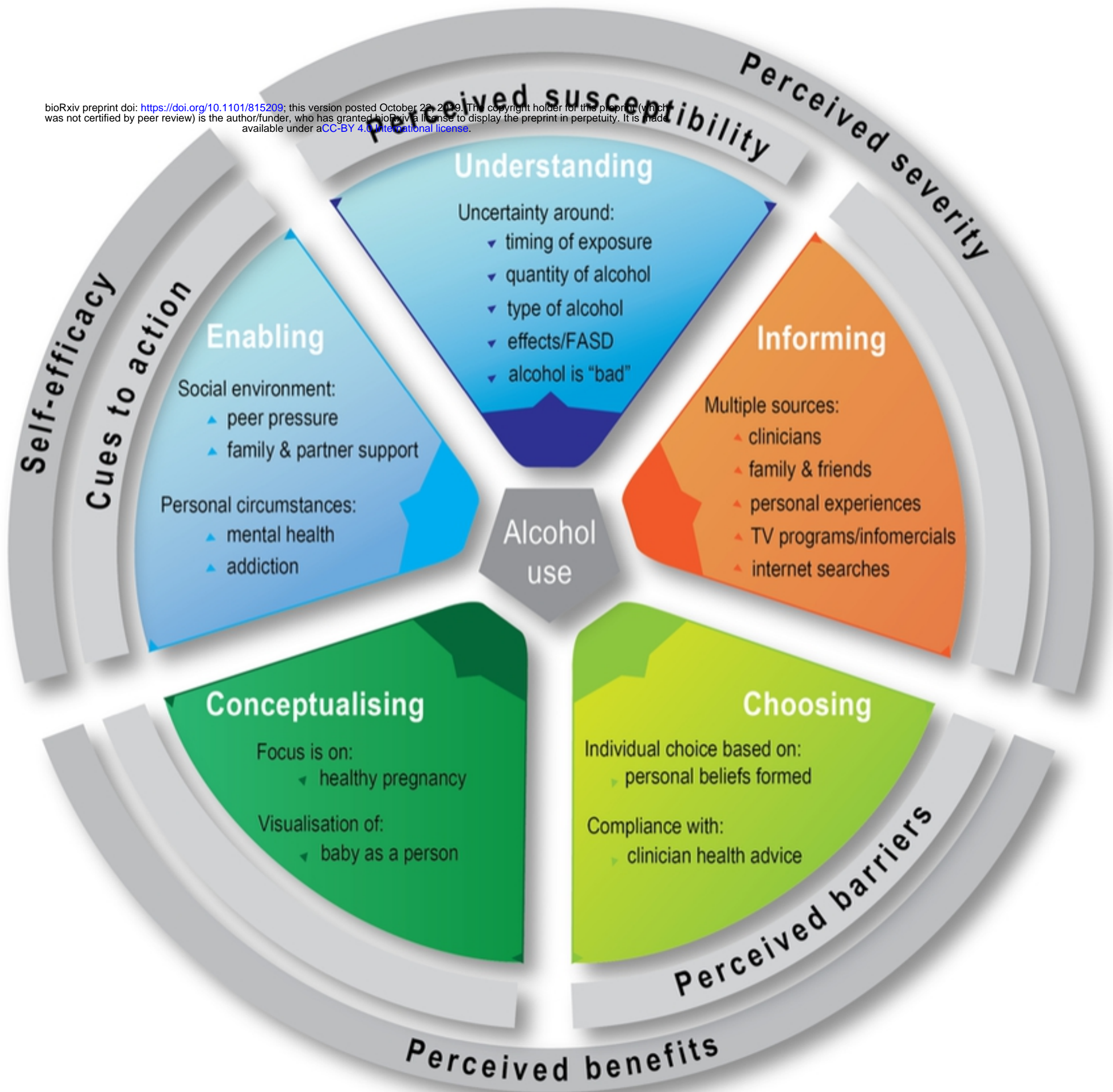
361 **References**

- 362 1. National Medical Health and Research Council. Australian guidelines to reduce health risks
363 from drinking alcohol; Guideline 4: Pregnancy and Breastfeeding. Canberra: NHMRC; 2009.
- 364 2. Peadon E, Payne J, Henley N, D'Antoine H, Bartu A, O'Leary C, et al. Attitudes and
365 behaviour predict women's intention to drink alcohol during pregnancy: the challenge for health
366 professionals. *BMC Public Health*. 2011;11:584.
- 367 3. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. 2016 National Drug Strategy Household
368 Survey:detailed findings. Drug Statistics series no. 31. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare,
369 Australian Government Department of Health and Ageing. Cat. no. PHE 214. Canberra: 2017.
- 370 4. O'Keeffe LM, Kearney PM, McCarthy FP, Khashan AS, Greene RA, North RA, et al.
371 Prevalence and predictors of alcohol use during pregnancy: findings from international multicentre
372 cohort studies. *BMJ Open*. 2015;5(7):e006323.
- 373 5. Fitzpatrick JP, Latimer J, Ferreira ML, Carter M, Oscar J, Martiniuk AL, et al. Prevalence
374 and patterns of alcohol use in pregnancy in remote Western Australian communities: The Lililwan
375 Project. *Drug Alcohol Rev*. 2015;34(3):329-39.
- 376 6. Popova S, Lange S, Probst C, Parunashvili N, Rehm J. Prevalence of alcohol consumption
377 during pregnancy and Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorders among the general and Aboriginal
378 populations in Canada and the United States. *Eur J Med Genet*. 2017;60(1):32-48.
- 379 7. May PA, Gossage JP. Maternal risk factors for fetal alcohol spectrum disorders: not as
380 simple as it might seem. *Alcohol Res Health*. 2011;34(1):15-26.
- 381 8. Tan CH, Denny CH, Cheal NE, Sniezek JE, Kanny D. Alcohol use and binge drinking
382 among women of Childbearing age - United States, 2011-2013. *MMWR*. 2015;64(37):1042-6.

- 383 9. Muggli E, O'Leary C, Donath S, Orsini F, Forster D, Anderson PJ, et al. "Did you ever drink
384 more?" A detailed description of pregnant women's drinking patterns. *BMC Public Health*.
385 2016;16:683.
- 386 10. Skagerstrom J, Chang G, Nilsen P. Predictors of drinking during pregnancy: a systematic
387 review. *Journal of Women's Health*. 2011;20(6):901-13.
- 388 11. Peadon E, Payne J, Henley N, D'Antoine H, Bartu A, O'Leary C, et al. Women's knowledge
389 and attitudes regarding alcohol consumption in pregnancy: a national survey. *BMC Public Health*.
390 2010;10:510.
- 391 12. Australian Institute of Health and Welfare A. Enhancing maternity data collection and
392 reporting in Australia: National Maternity Data Development Project Stage 2. Cat no. PER 73.
393 Canberra: AIHW. 2016.
- 394 13. Tong A, Sainsbury P, Craig J. Consolidated criteria for reporting qualitative research
395 (COREQ): a 32-item checklist for interviews and focus groups. *Int J Qual Health Care*.
396 2007;19(6):349-57.
- 397 14. Elo S, Kyngas H. The qualitative content analysis process. *J Adv Nurs*. 2008;62(1):107-15.
- 398 15. Hsieh HF, Shannon SE. Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative health*
399 *research*. 2005;15(9):1277-88.
- 400 16. Institute. NC. Theory at a Glance. A Guide for Health Promotion Practice,. US Department
401 of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. 2005.
- 402 17. Sharma M. Health Belief Model: Need for More Utilization in Alcohol and Drug Education.
403 *Journal of Drug & Alcohol Education*. 2011;55(1):3-6.
- 404 18. Meurk CS, Broom A, Adams J, Hall W, Lucke J. Factors influencing women's decisions to
405 drink alcohol during pregnancy: findings of a qualitative study with implications for health
406 communication. *BMC pregnancy and childbirth*. 2014;14:246.
- 407 19. Dumas A, Toutain S, Hill C, Simmat-Durand L. Warning about drinking during pregnancy:
408 lessons from the French experience. *Reproductive health*. 2018;15(1):20.

- 409 20. Kerr WC, Stockwell T. Understanding standard drinks and drinking guidelines. *Drug and*
410 *Alcohol Review*. 2012;31(2):200-5.
- 411 21. Kalinowski A, Humphreys K. Governmental standard drink definitions and low-risk alcohol
412 consumption guidelines in 37 countries. *Addiction*. 2016;111(7):1293-8.
- 413 22. Jones SC, Telenta J. What influences Australian women to not drink alcohol during
414 pregnancy? *Aust J Prim Health*. 2012;18(1):68-73.
- 415 23. Skagerstrom J, Haggstrom-Nordin E, Alehagen S. The voice of non-pregnant women on
416 alcohol consumption during pregnancy: a focus group study among women in Sweden. *BMC*
417 *Public Health*. 2015;15:1193.
- 418 24. Ehrhart F, Roozen S, Verbeek J, Koek G, Kok G, van Kranen H, et al. Review and gap
419 analysis: molecular pathways leading to fetal alcohol spectrum disorders. *Molecular psychiatry*.
420 2018.
- 421 25. Hellemans KG, Sliwowska JH, Verma P, Weinberg J. Prenatal alcohol exposure: fetal
422 programming and later life vulnerability to stress, depression and anxiety disorders. *Neurosci*
423 *Biobehav Rev*. 2010;34(6):791-807.
- 424 26. Muggli E, Matthews H, Penington A, Claes P, O'Leary C, Forster D, et al. Association
425 Between Prenatal Alcohol Exposure and Craniofacial Shape of Children at 12 Months of Age.
426 *JAMA Pediatr*. 2017;171(8):771-80.
- 427 27. France KE, Donovan RJ, Bower C, Elliott EJ, Payne JM, D'Antoine H, et al. Messages that
428 increase women's intentions to abstain from alcohol during pregnancy: results from quantitative
429 testing of advertising concepts. *BMC Public Health*. 2014;14:30.
- 430 28. Roozen S, Black D, Peters GY, Kok G, Townend D, Nijhuis JG, et al. Fetal Alcohol
431 Spectrum Disorders (FASD): an Approach to Effective Prevention. *Curr Dev Disord Rep*.
432 2016;3(4):229-34.
- 433 29. Carson G, Cox LV, Crane J, Croteau P, Graves L, Kluka S, et al. Alcohol use and pregnancy
434 consensus clinical guidelines. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can*. 2010;32(8 Suppl 3):S1-31.

- 435 30. Breen C, Awbery E, Burns L. Supporting Pregnant Women who use Alcohol or other
436 Drugs: a review of the evidence. National Drug and Alcohol Research Centre, UNSW Australia.;
437 2014.
- 438 31. McBain-Rigg KE, Veitch C. Cultural barriers to health care for Aboriginal and Torres Strait
439 Islanders in Mount Isa. *Aust J Rural Health*. 2011;19(2):70-4.
- 440 32. Clarke M, Boyle J. Antenatal care for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women.
441 *Australian family physician*. 2014;43(1):20-4.



Figure