Queensland Clinical Guidelines

Translating evidence into best clinical practice

Maternity and Neonatal **Ginical Guideline**

Trauma in pregnancy



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Review date:

Cultural acknowledgement

We acknowledge the Traditional Custodians of the land on which we work and pay our respect to the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander elders past, present and emerging.

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Flow Chart: Initial assessment and management of the pregnant trauma patient

Principles of care for the pregnant trauma patient

- Follow ATLS guidelines
- First priority is to treat the woman
- Multidisciplinary team that includes an obstetrician is essential
 - o Contact neonatal team early if viable gestation and birth imminent/likely
- Recognise anatomical and physiological changes of pregnancy
- Clear, coordinated and frequent communication essential
- Generally, medications, treatment and procedures as for non-pregnant patient
- Refer pregnant women with major trauma to a trauma centre
- o < 23 weeks gestation: to the nearest trauma centre
- o ≥ 23 weeks gestation: to a trauma centre with obstetric services

No

Thoroughly assess all pregnant women – even after minor trauma

Initial stabilisation

- · As indicated for all trauma patients
- Follow ATLS guidelines
- · Initiate early obstetric consultation
- Contact RSQ (1300 799 127) to expedite transport & identify receiving facility as required

Additionally for pregnancy

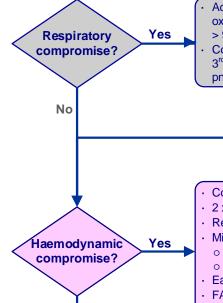
- · Position (tilt or wedge):
 - o Left lateral 15-30° (right side up) or
 - o Manual displacement of uterus
 - o Place wedge under spinal board if necessary
- · Routinely administer oxygen therapy
- Large-bore IV access

Yes Airway compromise?

- Early ETT intubation
- Pre-oxygenation
- o Consider cricoid pressure
- o Consider smaller ETT
- Insert oro/nasogastric tube

Cardiac arrest

- Manually displace uterus
- If \geq 20 weeks gestation, commence Resuscitative Hysterotomy (Perimortem CS) as soon as possible
- Follow ATLS guidelines
- Defibrillate as for non-pregnant patient
- Advanced cardiac life support drugs as indicated for nonpregnant patients



- Administer supplemental oxygen to maintain saturations > 95%
- Consider tube thoracostomy in 3rd or 4th rib space if pneumothorax or haemothorax

Control obvious haemorrhage

- 2 x large-bore IV access
- Recognise occult bleeding
- Minimise crystalloid infusion
- o Avoid volumes > 1 L
- o Assess response
- Early MHP activation
- **FAST**
- Rapid transfer to OT

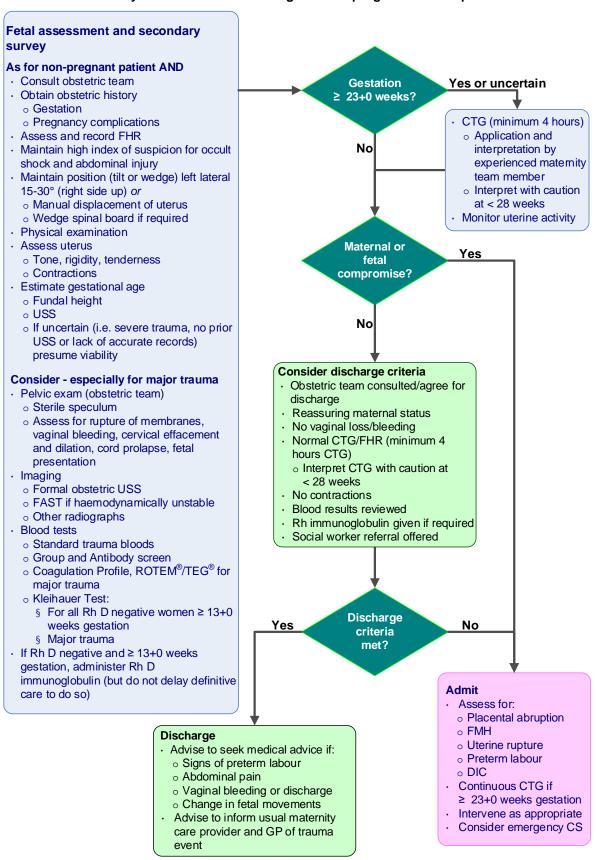
Proceed to flowchart: Secondary assessment and management of pregnant trauma patient

No

ATLS: Advanced Trauma Life Support, CPR: Cardiopulmonary Resuscitation, CS: Caesarean section, ETT: Endotracheal tube, FAST: Focused Abdominal Sonography for Trauma, IV: Intravenous, MHP: Massive Haemorrhage Protocol, OT: Operating Theatre, RSQ: Retrieval Services Queensland, >: greater than, ≥: greater than or equal to

Flow chart: F19.31-1-V2-R24

Flowchart: Secondary assessment and management of pregnant trauma patient



CS: Caesarean section, CTG: Cardiotocograph, DIC: Disseminated intravascular coagulation, FAST: Focused Abdominal Sonography for Trauma, FHR: Fetal heart rate, FMH: Feto-maternal haemorrhage, GP: General Practitioner, ROTEM®/TEG®: Point of care blood clotting analysers, USS: Ultrasound scan, <: less than, >: greater than or equal to

Flow chart: F19.31-2-V2-R24

Abbreviations

ATC	Acute traumatic coagulopathy
BP	Blood pressure
bpm	Beats per minute
CPR	Cardiopulmonary resuscitation
CS	Caesarean section
CT	Computerised tomography
CTG	Cardiotocograph
DFV	Domestic and family violence
DIC	Disseminated intravascular coagulation
FAST	Focused abdominal sonography for trauma
FFP	Fresh frozen plasma
FHR	Fetal heart rate
FMH	Feto-maternal haemorrhage
ISS	Injury severity score
IV	Intravenous
IVC	Inferior vena cava
MHP	Massive Haemorrhage Protocol
mSv	millisievert
MVC	Motor vehicle collision
RBWH	Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Brisbane, Queensland
RH	Resuscitative hysterotomy
RSQ	Retrieval services Queensland
PHR	Pregnancy health record
PSPABC	Professor Stuart Pegg Adult Burns Centre
TBSAB	Total body surface area of burns
USS	Ultrasound scan
VE	Vaginal examination

Definition of terms

Cardiotocograph	A recording of the fetal heart beat and uterine activity during pregnancy.	
Trauma	An acute physical harm, injury or hurt inflicted on the body by an external force.	
Major trauma	Classification of trauma depends on the mechanism and severity of injury. Refer to Appendix A: Prehospital criteria for major trauma and Appendix B: Injury Severity Score.	
Obstetrician	Local facilities may, as required, differentiate the roles and responsibilities assigned in this document to an 'Obstetrician' according to their specific practitioner group requirements. For example; Gynaecologists, General Practitioner Obstetricians, Specialist Obstetricians, Consultants, Senior Registrars and Obstetric Fellows.	
Sievert	International unit of measurement for the biological effect to human tissue by ionizing radiation.	

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1 Introduction

Physical trauma affects up to 8% of all pregnancies and is the leading cause of non-obstetric death during pregnancy. The predominant causes of trauma in pregnancy are motor vehicle collision (MVC) and domestic or family violence (DFV).

Compared with non-pregnant women of reproductive age, pregnant women are nearly twice as likely to die after trauma, and twice as likely to experience DFV.⁴ Management of pregnant trauma patients requires consideration of several issues specific to pregnancy. These include alterations to physiology and anatomy during pregnancy, exposure to radiation and possible teratogens, the need to assess fetal well-being, and monitoring for potential obstetric complications that may occur secondary to trauma.⁵ Evidence for care provision is limited with the majority of studies being retrospective and reported outcomes varying widely.³

1.1 Clinical standards

Table 1. Clinical standards

Aspect	Consideration		
Standard care	Refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline: Standard care for clinical standards such as documentation, communication for safety, consent and woman-centred care ⁶		
Pregnancy testing	 Consider every woman of reproductive age with significant injuries pregnant until proven otherwise⁵ History alone is unreliable in excluding pregnancy Perform a pregnancy test on all women of child bearing age who experience trauma⁷⁻⁹ Where pregnancy is confirmed after a trauma event, provide information and counselling on the implications of the care provided (e.g. diagnostic imaging) 		
Collaboration	Trauma specialist and team to lead and coordinate clinical assessment and stabilisation A multidisciplinary team approach that includes early involvement of obstatric and midwifeny staff is essential ^{2,10}		
Transfusion	If transfusion required and birth is not imminent, use cytomegalovirus (CMV) negative products Indicate pregnancy on request forms to blood bank Infuse all women of child bearing age with K negative units where available For women who decline blood products (e.g. Jehovah Witness), manage as per local HHS policy		
Training and staff support	 Educate clinicians about adaptations to cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) for the pregnant woman^{13,14} Include information about CPR in the pregnant woman in all generic life support training^{13,14} Offer debriefing to clinicians involved in pregnant trauma care events¹³ 		
Equipment	 Ensure the following is always available where trauma is managed: Equipment to manage a difficult airway Equipment to perform resuscitative hysterotomy (RH)^{13,15} § Also known as perimortem caesarean section Equipment for neonatal resuscitation¹¹ 		

1.2 General principles

Table 2. General principles

Aspect	Consideration	
Aim/Goal	 The goal of treatment is maintenance of utero-placental perfusion and fetal oxygenation by avoiding hypoxia and preventing hypotension, acidosis and hypothermia 	
	 Manage pregnant trauma patients in accordance with the Advanced Trauma Life Support (ATLS) guidelines¹⁶ 	
	 The first priority is identification of life threatening injuries to the woman^{2,5,8,10} 	
	 Thoroughly assess the woman as fetal survival is directly related to maternal wellbeing^{2,3} 	
General	 Beyond mid-pregnancy, move the gravid uterus off the inferior vena cava (IVC) to increase venous return and cardiac output in acutely injured woman⁵ 	
	 Achieve by positioning woman in left lateral tilt, or by manually displacing the uterus⁵ 	
	 Offer debriefing to the woman and/or family following pregnant trauma care events¹³ 	
	 Consider the need for short and long-term psychological support and/or referral following trauma events 	
	 Recognise maternal anatomical and physiological changes due to pregnancy^{2,17} 	
	Generally, do not withhold medications, tests, treatments and procedures	
Pregnancy considerations	required for the woman's stabilisation because of pregnancy ³ Provide pregnant women with minor injuries, medical treatment for their	
Considerations	injuries and appropriate fetal assessment ¹⁸	
	· Give tetanus vaccination or immunoglobulin when indicated ^{5,19}	
	Considered safe in pregnancy	
	 Position the woman to minimise aortocaval compression Consider gestation and the ability to provide effective care (e.g. 	
	intubation) when determining positioning requirements	
	 Left lateral tilt 15–30 degrees^{3,8,20} (right side up) 	
	Place a firm wedge under the right buttock/hip to achieve tilt	
	 In cases of major trauma, place the wedge under the spinal board¹³ If lateral tilt is not feasible, use manual uterine displacement to minimise 	
Positioning	IVC compression ^{7,13,21,22}	
	Can be performed from left or right side of woman:	
	§ Standing on the woman's left, the uterus (abdomen) is cupped with two hands and pulled towards themselves ²³	
	§ Standing on the woman's right, the uterus is pushed towards the	
	woman's left using one hand ²³	
	Refer to Appendix G: Positioning to relieve aortocaval compression	
	Common pitfalls include failure to: Detect early pregnancy	
	Suspect or recognise shock in the presence of normal vital signs	
	Detect abdominal injury because of a benign examination	
	Suspect and screen for DFV	
Common pitfalls	 Recognise and treat supine hypotensive syndrome Conduct necessary radiology studies due to fear of injury to the fetus 	
Johnnon pidans	 Distinguish between eclampsia and head injury¹⁶ 	
	 Observe and monitor with cardiotocograph (CTG) all women with minor 	
	trauma and a viable fetus (greater or equal to 23 weeks gestation)	
	 Test for Rh D status and administer Rh D immunoglobulin in Rh D negative women 	
	Initiate RH (perimortem caesarean section) as quickly as possible	

1.3 Transfer, retrieval and place of management

Table 3. Transfer, retrieval and place of management

Aspect	Consideration	
Place of management	 Refer all major trauma cases to a trauma centre [refer to Appendix A: Prehospital criteria for major trauma] Generally: If less than 23 weeks gestation, transfer to the nearest trauma centre⁵ If greater than or equal to 23 weeks gestation, transfer to a trauma centre with obstetric services⁵ In Queensland, Trauma Centres with obstetric services are located at: The Townsville Hospital Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital (RBWH) Gold Coast University Hospital Where feasible, major trauma surgery should occur in Level 4 or higher 	
Retrieval and Transfer	operating suite ²⁴ Arrange transfer/retrieval as per usual local protocols for major trauma If outside the Brisbane greater metropolitan area, arrange inter-hospital transfer via Retrieval Services Queensland (RSQ) Early notification of trauma to RSQ Telephone RSQ: 1300 799 127 Within the greater metropolitan area of Brisbane, transfer via Queensland Ambulance Service (QAS) to the RBWH Liaise with the RBWH Emergency Consultant – telephone (07) 3646 5900	

1.4 Gestational considerations

Table 4. Gestational considerations

Category	Considerations		
Estimating gestational age	 Management decisions may require estimation of gestational age²³ Woman may be unconscious or unaware of pregnancy In singleton pregnancies, the symphysis fundal height (measurement from maternal pubic bone to top of uterine fundus) in centimetres approximately corresponds to gestational age in weeks when measured between 16 and 36 weeks gestation²³ If tape measure is unavailable, finger breadths may be used as a replacement for centimetres Rule of thumb landmarks may also be used to estimate gestational age²³: 12 weeks: uterus palpable at above the symphysis pubis 20 weeks: uterus palpable at the level of the umbilicus 36 weeks: uterus palpable at the level of the xiphisternum Estimation may be skewed by other factors including abdominal distention, fetal growth restriction and increased body mass index²³ 		
Pre-viable gestation (< 23 +0 weeks) Dates and estimations of gestational age may be inaccurate or where there is doubt about the gestation, presume viability cTG monitoring not indicated Document presence/absence of fetal heart rate (FHR)			
Viable gestation	 Gestations greater than or equal to 23+0 weeks are potentially viable²⁵ Refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline: Perinatal care at the threshold of viability²⁵ Seek specialist advice and use clinical judgement, especially in regional and remote locations Commence CTG monitoring as soon as feasible²⁶ CTG will assess both maternal perfusion and fetal well-being 		

2 Physiological changes in pregnancy

An understanding of the anatomic and physiologic alterations of pregnancy is essential. 27 Refer to Appendix C for normal pregnancy values.

Table 5. Physiological and physical changes in pregnancy

	Changes in pregnancy	Implication
Cardiovascular system		
Plasma volume	Increased by up to 50%	Dilutional anaemia Reduced oxygen-carrying capacity Signs of shock due to blood loss appear late
Heart rate	Increased 15–20 beats per minute (bpm)	Increased CPR demands
Cardiacoutput	Increased by 30 to 50% ²³ Significantly reduced by pressure of gravid uterus on IVC	Increased CPR demands
Uterine blood flow	10% of cardiac output at term	Potential for rapid massive haemorrhage
Systemic vascular resistance	Decreased ²³	Sequesters blood during CPR
Arterial blood pressure (BP)	Decreased by 10-15 mmHg	Decreased reserve
Venous return	Decreased by pressure of gravid uterus on IVC ²³	Increased CPR circulation demands Increased reserve
Coagulation	Increased concentrations of most clotting factors	Activated state of coagulation cascade Increased tendencyfor thrombosis
Respiratory system		
Respiratoryrate	Increased	Decreased buffering capacity, acidosis more likely
Oxygen consumption	Increased by 20 to 33% ²³	Hypoxia develops more quickly
Functional residual capacity	Decreased by 25% ²³	Decreased buffering capacity, acidosis more likely
Arterial pCO ₂	Decreased	Decreased buffering capacity, acidosis more likely
Laryngeal oedema	Increased ¹¹	Difficult intubation
Mucosal congestion	Increased	Predisposition to airwaybleeding
Airway size	Decreased ¹¹	Difficult intubation
Upper airway blood supply	Increased ¹¹	Friable mucosa of airway may result in impaired airway visualisation and increased bleeding
Other changes		
Gastric motility	Decreased	Increased risk of aspiration
Gastro-oesophageal sphincters	Relaxed ²³	Increased risk of aspiration
Weight	Increased neck and mammary fat levels	Difficult airway management
Pelvic vasculature	Hypertrophied	Potential for massive retroperitoneal haemorrhage with pelvic fracture, uterine trauma ²
Bowel	Superior displacement	Potential for complexand multiple intestinal injuries with penetrating trauma of the upper abdomen
Bladder	Anterior and superior displacement by uterus	Susceptible to injury as effectively an intra- abdominal organ
Renal blood flow	Increased by 40% ²³ . Serum urea, nitrogen, creatinine reduced	'Normal' serum urea nitrogen and creatinine may reflect seriously compromised function

2.1 Uterine and placental considerations

Table 6. Implications for uterus and placenta in trauma

Aspect	Consideration	
Uterine changes throughout pregnancy	 First trimester (0 to 12+6 weeks) Uterus thick walled and small in size Uterus confined within and protected by bony pelvis⁷ Second trimester (13+0 to 27+6 weeks) Uterus enlarges beyond pelvis Fetus is small, mobile and protected by generous amniotic fluid Third trimester (28+0 weeks and onwards) Uterus thin walled and large in size In vertex position, fetal head is usually within pelvis with remainder of fetus exposed above pelvic brim Pelvic fracture in third trimester may cause skull fracture or intracranial injury to fetus 	
Implications of enlarged uterus	 injury to fetus Lacks autoregulation and is very sensitive to changes in maternal BP Maternal hypovolaemia or hypotension cause reduced uterine blood flow and uterine vasoconstriction Uterine contractions also reduce blood flow, shifting 300 to 500 mL of blood into systemic vessels during contractions²⁰ Diaphragmatic splinting reduces residual capacity and makes ventilation more difficult Aortal compression causes supine hypotension, reduced venous return and significantly impairs efficacy of resuscitation Heart rotation to the left—left axis deviation on electrocardiogram (ECG) can be normal in third trimester Woman's entire blood volume passes through uterus every 10 minutes⁷ Potential for massive blood loss from traumatised uterus^{2,7} 	
Placenta	 Little elasticity and is wilnerable to shear force at interface between uterus and placenta which can lead to placental abruption⁷ Refer to 7.2 Placental abruption Placenta and fetus extremely sensitive to catecholamine stimulation 	

3 Assessment

Conduct the primary and secondary survey as for non-pregnant patients. 17 Additional considerations for pregnancy are outlined below.

3.1 Primary survey

As for non-pregnant patients, the priority for pregnant women following trauma remains airway, breathing and circulation.²⁸

Table 7. Primary survey considerations for pregnancy

Aspect	Consideration
Airway and C-Spine	 Increased risk of airway management difficulties due to⁵: Weight gain Respiratory tract mucosal oedema¹¹ Hyperaemia and hypersecretion of upper airway¹¹ Decreased functional residual capacity Reduced respiratory system compliance Increased airway resistance Increased oxygen requirements Consider airway to be difficult and have most experienced provider secure and maintain airway¹¹ Increased risk of failed or difficult intubation⁵—consider: Early intubation⁵,13,20,27,28 Use of a short handle laryngoscope Smaller endotracheal tube (ETT)^{5,8,29} Use of laryngeal mask airway if unable to intubate Increased risk of aspiration due to delayed gastric emptying in pregnancy⁵ Ensure early gastric decompression with nasogastric or orogastric tube¹⁶ Apply cervical spine collar
Breathing and ventilation	 Increased risk of rapid desaturation¹¹ Provide oxygen supplementation to maintain maternal oxygen saturation greater than 95% to ensure adequate fetal oxygenation⁸ If safe to do so, raise the head of the bed to reduce weight of uterus on the diaphragm and facilitate breathing²⁸ If a chest tube is indicated, insert 1–2 intercostal spaces higher than usual to avoid potential abdominal injury due to raised diaphragm^{3,7,8,20,28} Increased risk of aspiration¹¹
Circulation and haemorrhage control	 Control obvious external haemorrhage Position with left lateral tilt 15–30 degrees²⁰ (right side up) or perform manual left uterine (abdominal) displacement [refer to Appendix G: Positioning to relieve aortocaval compression] If seriously injured, insert two large bore intravenous (IV) lines⁵ Avoid femoral lines due to compression by gravid uterus If unable to achieve IV access, consider intraosseous lines Assess response—maintain an awareness of pregnancy related physiological parameters Aim to avoid large volumes of crystalloids (greater than 1 L) which may lead to pulmonary oedema due to the relatively low oncotic pressure in pregnancy³⁰ Perform a thorough search for occult bleeding as maternal blood flow is maintained at expense of fetus⁷ If haemodynamically unstable, Focused Abdominal Sonography for Trauma (FAST) is useful to identify presence of free fluid in intra-abdominal and intrathoracic cavities Refer to Section 4 Haemorrhage
Disability	Rapid neurological evaluation ³¹ utilising the Glasgow Coma Scale and assess for neurological deficits distally
Exposure	Head to toe examination as for non-pregnant trauma patients ⁵ Expose and thoroughly examine all body parts ^{5,16} Prevent hypothermia

3.2 Fetal assessment

Following primary survey assessment and resuscitation of the woman, assess the fetus before conducting secondary survey. 16

Table 8. Fetal assessment

Aspect	Consideration		
Obstetric history	 If available, consult Pregnancy Health Record (PHR) Gestation in weeks and current pregnancy complications Singleton or multiple pregnancy Current fetal lie, presentation and placental location Antenatal care and rhesus status Previous pregnancy and birth complications 		
Estimation of gestational age	 Ideally obtained from woman or PHR Can be estimated by measuring fundal height Refer to Appendix F: Estimating gestational age by fundal height 		
Fetal response to trauma	 Fetal wellbeing is dependent on adequate uterine blood flow²⁰ Fetus may become hypoxic and respond by centralising blood flow to feta brain²⁰ 		
FHR monitoring	 Normal baseline FHR for a term fetus is 110–160 bpm³³ FHR is sensitive indicator of maternal blood volume and fetal well-being¹⁶ Differentiate maternal and FHR²² If greater than 23 weeks, initiate continuous CTG as soon as feasible^{7,22,26} Monitor FHR via CTG for minimum of 4 hours^{5,22,34} Good sensitivity for immediate adverse outcome Highly sensitive in detecting fetal distress and maternal perfusion²⁶ Abnormalities may be only indication of injury or compromise to the fetus²⁰ CTG application and interpretation requires clinicians trained in their use Physiological control of FHR and resultant CTG trace interpretation differs in the preterm fetus compared to the term fetus, especially at gestations less than 28 weeks³⁵ CTG trace review should be performed by a clinician experienced and confident with CTG interpretation relevant to the gestation³⁵ Move staff and equipment to the woman's location rather than transporting a woman to an obstetric unit for monitoring 		

3.3 Secondary survey

Once primary life threats are excluded or managed, further assessment can be undertaken.3

Table 9. Secondary survey additional considerations for pregnancy

Aspect	Consideration
Physical examination	Inspect abdomen for ecchymosis or asymmetry In cases of MVC, incorrect positioning of the seat belt across the gravid uterus may: Cause marked bruising of the abdomen Increase the risk of placental abruption and uterine rupture Refer to Appendix E: Seat belt positioning in pregnancy Assess uterine to be contractions, rigidity, tendences, policible fetal parts.
	 Assess uterine tone, contractions, rigidity, tenderness, palpable fetal parts The gravid abdomen may be relatively insensate to peritoneal irritation
Pelvic/vaginal examination (VE)	 If indicated, perform sterile speculum VE^{8,22} Evaluate for ruptured membranes, vaginal bleeding, cord prolapse, cervical effacement and dilation in labour, fetal presentation⁸ Vaginal bleeding may indicate preterm labour, abruption, pelvic fracture or uterine rupture¹⁷ Do not perform digital VE until placenta praevia is excluded⁵ Experienced practitioner to perform VE when indicated Consider urinary catheter insertion²⁸ If suspected spinal cord injury, perform rectal examination for anal tone and perineal sensation

3.4 Diagnostic imaging

Table 10. Diagnostic imaging in trauma in pregnancy

Aspect	Clinical care
Context	 The risks of radiation to the fetus are small compared with the risk of missed or delayed diagnosis of trauma³⁴ Risk to fetus is dependent on gestational age and radiation dose³⁶ The fetus is most vulnerable to radiation during the first 15 weeks of gestation^{37,38} Confusion about safety of diagnostic imaging for pregnant women can result in unnecessary avoidance³⁶ Magnetic resonance imaging does not have radiation and is appropriate for assessment of spinal cord injury as per non-pregnant patient
Radiation dose	 Increased risks to the embryo or fetus have not been observed for intellectual disability, birth defects, growth restriction, neurobehavioural effects, impaired school performance, convulsive disorders, or embryonic or fetal death below an effective dose of 100 millisieverts (mSv)³⁹ Optimisation of the examination's exposure parameters has the largest effect on doses It is preferable to perform a single computerised tomography (CT) scan with iodinated contrast rather than perform multiple suboptimal studies without contrast² Personal protective equipment, (e.g. lead gown) is advised for pregnant women only when the position of the uterus is in the direct X-ray beam (and not if it interferes with imaging)⁴⁰ Refer to Appendix H: Approximate fetal effective doses (mSv) from common radiological examinations
Contrast	Although iodinated contrast agents cross the placenta and may be taken up by the fetal thyroid, no cases of fetal goitre or abnormal neonatal thyroid function have been reported in connection with in-utero contrast exposure ² Gadolinium has known teratogenic effects on animals and is not recommended unless benefits clearly outweigh the risks ⁴¹
Ultrasound scan	 USS can assess gestational age, solid organ injury, intraperitoneal fluid, pericardial fluid, FHR, fetal activity, fetal presentation, placental location, amniotic fluid volume^{2,34,38} USS is not a reliable indicator of recent placental abruption^{2,13,34} FAST scan is as accurate as in non-pregnant patients,⁸ for detecting presence of intra-abdominal or intrathoracic free fluid
Recommendation	 Do not defer radiographic studies indicated for maternal evaluation including abdominal CT due to concerns regarding fetal exposure to radiation⁵ If risk of non-diagnosis outweighs risk of exposure, perform examination³⁶ X-ray examinations of the extremities, and CT examinations of the head and neck can be undertaken on pregnant or possibly pregnant women without concern^{39,40} Provide information and counselling to women exposed to radiation during diagnosis and care

4 Haemorrhage

Table 11. Management of haemorrhage

Aspect	Consideration
	Obstetric haemorrhage is often underestimated and may be concealed ⁴²
General principles	 Clinical signs may not be apparent until blood loss is severe 1200–1500 mL of blood loss before signs of hypovolaemia apparent³⁰ Danger of failing to identify blood loss and/or underestimating severity³⁰ Maintain a high index of suspicion for bleeding and an awareness of the limitations of clinical signs¹³ Be attentive to possibility of acute traumatic coagulopathy (ATC):
	 Unique pathophysiology present in up to a quarter of trauma patients⁴³ Characterised by failure of coagulation system to maintain haemostasis following major injury⁴³
Clinical signs	 Most common signs of hypovolaemia are³⁰: Increase in heart rate (greater than 100 bpm) Tachypnoea and pallor Cold, pale, sweaty, cyanosed skin with delayed capillary refill Alteration of mental state Fall in urine output Narrowed pulse pressure and hypotension (late sign)
Fibrinogen	 In pregnant women, fibrinogen levels increase to an average of 5–6 g/L compared to non-pregnant levels of 2.0–4.5 g/L⁴² Use fibrinogen concentrate or cryoprecipitate early and aim to maintain fibrinogen levels above 2.5g/L⁴⁴
Point of care (POC) blood clotting analysers	Both thromboelastography® (TEG®) and thromboelastometry (ROTEM®) point of care blood clotting analysers are in use in Queensland If available, follow a locally agreed algorithm relevant to device used and facilitate education and training on use Ensure algorithm has appropriate parameters and targets for pregnancy
Massive Haemorrhage Protocol (MHP)	 Activate MHP early in pregnant patients⁴² Establish and follow a locally agreed MHP for pregnant women If no local MHP refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline <i>Primary</i> postpartum haemorrhage⁴⁵ or the National Blood Authority MHP^{42,46} There is no evidence that the dose and timing of fresh frozen plasma (FFP) should differ from standard MHPs in pregnant women, except when disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC) is present Refer to Table 24 Disseminated intravascular coagulation In the setting of trauma with significant bleeding, tranexamic acid is considered safe for the fetus¹ Unknown if use in pregnancy trauma reduces mortality¹
Management	 Principles of treatment are same as for non-pregnant patients Identify source of bleeding as external or internal Control external bleeding with direct manual pressure on wound, limb elevation, packing, or by reduction and immobilisation of fractures Management of internal bleeding may be aided by use of binders or splint application Rapid transfer to operating theatre or interventional radiology as indicated If hypovolaemia suspected, initiate volume limited fluid resuscitation to restore circulating volume and ensure adequate maternal and uteroplacental perfusion^{2,13} If required, transfuse O-negative blood until cross-matched available⁵ If ongoing volume resuscitation required, consider activating MHP or ROTEM®/TEG® algorithm Treat ATC as per principles of non-pregnant patient Control bleeding through rapid surgical or radiological intervention, and with balanced resuscitation of blood and blood components Early use of Tranexamic Acid (TXA) Utilise MHP and coagulation testing with ROTEM®/TEG® Avoid vasopressors²⁰ as they may compromise uteroplacental perfusion⁵ Use only for intractable hypotension that is unresponsive to fluid resuscitation, or to manage neurogenic shock⁵

5 Cardiac arrest

Preparedness for pregnant patients in cardiac arrest is essential for all emergency departments. ¹¹ Ensure that team members with responsibility for pregnant women are familiar with physiological changes of pregnancy which can affect resuscitation techniques and potential complications. ²³ Ideally, a maternal cardiac arrest team is comprised of an adult resuscitation team, as well as obstetric, anaesthetic, midwifery and neonatal teams. ¹¹

Table 12. Implications for CPR

Aspect	Consideration
General principles	 Follow standard guidelines for cardiac arrest^{3,47} If primary cause is trauma, focus efforts on reversible causes: Prevention of hypoxia by securing patent airway Restoration of circulating blood volume Chest decompression Early consideration of resuscitative thoracotomy First priority for medical cardiac arrest is to commence compressions³⁰ Hand placement for compressions is the same as for non-pregnant patients²³ Do not monitor fetus⁴⁷ Remove internal and external fetal monitors if present^{23,47} Commence RH as soon as possible Refer to 5.1 Resuscitative hysterotomy (perimortem caesarean section) Defibrillate as for the non-pregnant trauma patient¹¹—no significant shock is delivered to the fetus^{23,29,48} When indicated, perform without hesitation or delay²³ Ensure CTG leads are removed prior to defibrillation²⁹ Administer advanced cardiac life support drugs as would be indicated for the non-pregnant patient^{13,48} Deflate air-filled mattresses if in use²³
Positioning	 After 20 weeks gestation, the uterus impedes resuscitation by: Decreasing venous return causing supine hypotension Reducing stroke volume and cardiac output 13,21,30 Decreasing the effectiveness of thoracic compressions 13,21,29,49 If uterus is palpated at or above the umbilicus, perform manual left uterine (abdominal) displacement to minimise aortocaval compression 11,23,30 Simultaneously allows for aortocaval decompression and high-quality chest compressions 11,23 Allows woman to remain supine which improves airway access, ease of defibrillation and IV access 11 Refer to Appendix G: Positioning to relieve aortocaval compression Tilting women in cardiac arrest can: Delay starting compressions Reduce quality and efficacy of compressions 11,30,47
ABC considerations	 Refer to Table 7. Primary survey considerations for pregnancy Hypoxaemia develops more rapidly in pregnant patients, therefore, rapid and high-quality airway and breathing interventions are essential²³ Insert advanced airway early in resuscitation⁴⁷ Initially ventilate with 100% oxygen⁴⁷ Tidal volumes may need to be reduced because of elevated diaphragm^{11,29} There is no significant vertical displacement of the heart during pregnancy⁵⁰ No need to alter hand placement for chest compressions

5.1 Resuscitative hysterotomy (perimortem caesarean section)

Table 13. Resuscitative hysterotomy

Aspect	Consideration
Definition	A CS that is initiated after CPR has commenced ³²
Deminition	Also known as Perimortem caesarean section
Benefits	 Primarily performed as a resuscitative procedure in the interests of maternal survival¹³ RH within 4—5 minutes of cardiac arrest is widely supported for potential survival of both the woman and the fetus^{3,51} Emptying the uterus through RH provides several important benefits for the woman: Allows for complete aortocaval decompression once uterus evacuated¹¹ Alleviates compression of IVC, improving venous return^{32,47,48,51,52} Allows for redistribution of uterine blood to other organs⁵¹ Increases functional residual capacity of woman, allowing for better oxygenation⁵¹ Overall increased effectiveness of CPR⁵¹ Delay in initiating RH has been linked to adverse outcomes¹⁵
Timing	 If CPR has commenced and woman is more than 20 weeks gestation, perform a RH as quickly as possible⁵³ For both women and the fetus, there is roughly linear decrease in injury free survival rates as the time interval from maternal arrest to birth increases⁵³ Survival and neurologic outcome of the viable fetus is related to time between maternal death and birth^{9,48,49} Reversible causes for maternal cardiac arrest are absolute indications for prompt delivery^{23,53}
Management	 Perform RH at the point of resuscitation^{13,23,47} as quickly as possible⁵³, no later than 4—5 minutes following maternal cardiac arrest when possible⁵ Do not wait until four minutes post cardiac arrest to commence RH⁵³ Do not delay RH by moving the woman to an operating environment or by attempting to assess fetal viability^{13,23,30,52} Ideally, make a vertical midline incision to skin This incision is extensible if further surgical interventions are required Incision to uterus may be horizontal or vertical depending on clinical circumstances and skill/experience of surgeon Priority is to do procedure as quickly as possible Refer to Appendix C: Resuscitative hysterotomy procedure Continue CPR during and after the procedure^{30,52} Ensure neonatal team and neonatal resuscitation equipment are ready to receive infant once born¹¹

6 Mechanisms and causes of trauma in pregnancy

Compared to non-pregnant women of childbearing age, there is a higher incidence of MVCs and penetrating trauma in pregnant trauma patients. 54

6.1 Blunt trauma

Table 14. Blunt trauma in pregnancy

Aspect	Consideration
Context	 Most common type of trauma presentation in pregnancy (82%)¹⁰ MVC is most common cause of blunt trauma¹⁶ and the most common mechanism of trauma for pregnant patients⁵⁴ Other causes include falls and direct assault¹⁶ Direct fetal injuries occur in less than 1% of cases of severe blunt abdominal trauma⁷ Abdominal wall, uterine myometrium and amniotic fluid act as buffers protecting fetus from direct injury¹⁶
Motor Vehicle Collision (MVC)	 Leading cause of maternal death in pregnant population⁵ Mechanism of injury often involves uterus⁵ Outcome is related to⁵: Mechanism of collision and acceleration-deceleration velocities Use of protective devices such as seat belts and air bags Wearing a seat belt in a motor vehicle during pregnancy is effective in reducing risk of adverse outcomes in a MVC^{5,16} Provide information to pregnant women about the importance of correct positioning of motor vehicle seat belts while pregnant [refer to Appendix D: Seat belt positioning in pregnancy] Potential injuries and consequences include¹⁸: Placental abruption as a result of shearing forces and abrupt changes in amniotic fluid pressure Uterine contractions leading to preterm labour Feto-maternal haemorrhage Direct fetal intracranial injury (uncommon)

6.2 Penetrating trauma

Table 15. Penetrating trauma in pregnancy

Aspect	Consideration
Context	 Less common trauma presentation type (18%)¹⁰ Gunshot and stab wounds are primary causes⁵ Stab wounds tend to have better prognosis than gunshot wounds Fetal loss is frequent following penetrating trauma to uterus (71% in gunshot wounds and 42% in stabbings)²
Anatomical considerations	Beyond second trimester, maternal bowel less likely to be involved due to protection by uterus Visceral organs displaced upward Less likely to be injured overall Upper abdominal stab wounds can result in more complex bowel injury Penetrating injuries below fourth intercostal space anteriorly or below tip of scapula posteriorly may cause visceral injuries Uterus and fetus are susceptible to significant injury after penetrating abdominal trauma Fetus more likely to sustain significant injury than mother Fetus sustains injury in 60–70% of cases, while visceral maternal injuries are only seen in 20% of penetrating abdominal trauma
Gunshot wounds	 More damaging and higher mortality for both mother and fetus than low velocity injuries Fetal injury is generally a result of prematurity, maternal shock, uteroplacental injury or direct fetal injury⁵
Recommendation	 Management does not differ in pregnant patient¹ Low threshold for exploratory laparotomy¹⁷ Exploratory laparotomy does not necessitate a CS¹

6.3 Burns

Table 16. Burn trauma in pregnancy

Aspect	Consideration
General context	 Paucity of evidence on major burns during pregnancy⁵⁵ Most from developing countries where incidence of burns is higher^{56,57} Total body surface area of burns (TBSAB) positively associated with maternal death⁵⁵ Maternal survival declines incrementally when TBSAB exceeds 55% Inhalation injury exacerbates maternal-perinatal risk Maternal endocrine system changes alter water distribution in pregnancy⁵⁸ Fluid shift towards interstitial space can lead to difficult fluid resuscitation in pregnant burn victims⁵⁸ Fetal outcome highly dependent on gestation and extent of maternal injury⁵⁷ Fetal injuries are not typically direct injuries, but rather secondary to maternal state¹ If TBSAB is less than 10%, risk to mother and fetus is minimal, but is significant when TBSAB exceeds 50%
Queensland context	 The Professor Stuart Pegg Adult Burns Centre (PSPABC) situated at the RBWH is the only tertiary referral centre for burns in Queensland Pregnant women with burns are a rare presentation Between 1997 and 2017, 13 pregnant women were admitted to PSPABC⁵⁹ Represents 0.01% of all women admitted to unit 100% maternal and fetal survival Nine patients received operative management Three women required CS TBSAB ranged from 0.5–30% (average 8.5%) Predominant mechanism of injury was scalding of hot liquid (50%) Time from point of injury to admission to RBWH varies widely If emergent birth is indicated, consider all circumstances and if CS prior to transfer is warranted
Management principles	 Basic principles of treatment unchanged by pregnancy⁶⁰, aside from considerations about teratogenic drugs⁵⁶ Emergent assessment including Extent of TBSAB Presence of inhalation injury Gestational age and electronic fetal monitoring for viable pregnancies Early supplemental oxygen if inhalation injury suspected Consider risk of thrombosis as per pregnancy state Burns do not increase risk of venous thromboembolism: Use standard thromboprophylaxis⁶¹ High suspicion for sepsis with early and aggressive treatment Low threshold mechanical ventilatory support If circumferential burns to trunk (abdomen or thorax) and respiratory compromise, escharotomy is indicated
Fluid Resuscitation	 Fluid resuscitation according to Parkland's formula (TBSAB and urine output)⁵⁷ Limited evidence to guide rate and volume for pregnant women with burns
Birth	 If burns are extensive and woman is in third trimester, recommend early birth⁵⁷ If TBSAB 55% or more for viable fetus, recommend urgent CS without delaying for corticosteroids^{1,55} If TBSAB less than 55%, administer corticosteroids with expectant management^{1,55}

6.4 Domestic and family violence

Table 17. Domestic and family violence in pregnancy

Cause	Consideration
Context	 Incidence increases during pregnancy⁵⁴, especially in third trimester⁵ Most commonly struck body area is abdomen⁵ Mechanism may be blunt or penetrating
Reporting	 It is not mandatory to report child protection concerns relating to an unborn child. This does not constrain staff from reporting their concerns about the potential risk of harm to a child following their birth to Child Safety Services⁶² If aware of other children in the family where violence has occurred, consider mandatory reporting⁶² Undertake a search of systems where Unborn Child High Risk Alert may be recorded and respond appropriately where applicable⁶³
Recommendation	 Consider DFV as a cause of trauma in pregnancy Be vigilant and question every woman who sustains trauma about DFV without partner present⁵ Offer referral to social workers as appropriate to the circumstances (e.g. intimate partner violence, following fetal demise, if transfer required, for counselling and support) Consider psychosocial assessment prior to discharge where DFV is a consideration and ensure discharge summary is sent to primary carer

7 Potential obstetric complications

7.1 Uterine rupture

Table 18. Uterine rupture

Aspect	Clinical care
Context	 Uterine rupture is more likely with advanced gestational age and severe direct abdominal trauma^{7,30} Diagnosis usually made on USS⁶⁴ (extrusion of uterine contents, free fluid in pelvis)
Clinical presentation	 CTG abnormalities⁶⁴ (most common feature) Severe pain Fetal demise⁶⁴ Positive FAST Uterine tenderness with guarding and rigidity^{30,64} Vaginal bleeding⁶⁴ Palpable fetal parts abdominally^{30,64} Maternal shock including hypotension and tachycardia⁶⁴
Management	 CS with midline laparotomy Urgent delivery of fetus Repair of uterus (simple repair, subtotal hysterectomy or total hysterectomy) as indicated by individual circumstances³⁰ Prompt haemodynamic resuscitation with blood products decreases risk of DIC⁶⁵ Hysterectomy if uncontrolled haemorrhage⁶⁵

7.2 Placental abruption

Table 19. Placental abruption

Aspect	Consideration
Context	 Common complication of trauma especially following MVC^{3,26} Separation of implanted placenta before birth⁶⁴ Separation can be complete or partial⁶⁴ Leading cause of fetal death following trauma^{2,5,26} accounting for 50–70% of all trauma-related fetal losses² Can occur with rapid deceleration without direct trauma⁶⁶ Can occur following relatively minor trauma³⁰ Most occur within 2–6 hours of injury, and almost all within 24 hours⁵
Clinical presentation	 Presentation can vary widely and include a lack of symptoms^{64,67} Abdominal pain^{5,68,69} Vaginal bleeding 60–80% of cases^{5,64} Amount does not necessarily correlate with severity⁶⁴ Uterine contractions^{2,5} Uterine tenderness⁶⁹/tense or 'woody' feel⁶⁸ If placenta is posterior, abdomen may be soft³⁰ Evidence of fetal compromise^{5,68} Maternal haemodynamic instability⁶⁴
Investigations	 Although USS may detect abruption, it is not sensitive enough to exclude abruption^{68,69} False negative reported 50–80%³⁴ Do not delay treatment for USS³⁴ confirmation CTG better than USS in risk stratifying for suspected placental abruption^{2,7} Uterine contractions have high-frequency, low-amplitude pattern with an elevated baseline tone⁶⁴ FHR can show recurrent late or variable decelerations, bradycardia, or sinusoidal patterns⁶⁴ Consider feto-maternal haemorrhage (FMH)¹³ [Refer to Section 7.4 Feto-maternal haemorrhage]
Management	 Significant placental abruption requires urgent delivery by CS^{45,68} Midline incision preferable if other abdominal injuries suspected Consider hospital admission for surveillance as clinically indicated Give Rh D immunoglobulin to all non-sensitised Rh D negative women independent of whether routine antenatal prophylactic Rh D immunoglobulin has been administered [refer to Table 22. Rh D immunoglobulin in trauma] Consider antenatal corticosteroids between 23+0 and 34 +6 weeks gestation¹³ Monitor for DIC and request urgent clotting studies as indicated⁶⁸ Do not delay treatment by waiting for coagulation results if massive blood loss occurs⁶⁸

7.3 Preterm labour

Table 20. Preterm labour

Aspect	Clinical care
Context	Onset of labour before 37+0 weeks gestation ⁶⁴
Clinical presentation	 Uterine contractions of more than four per hour accompanied by cervical change⁸ Cramping abdominal/back pain⁶⁴ Pelvic pressure⁶⁴ An increase or change in vaginal discharge⁶⁴ Vaginal bleeding⁶⁴
Management	 Consult with an obstetrician regarding management appropriate for the circumstances Refer to the Queensland Clinical Guideline: Preterm Labour⁷⁰: Consider tocolytic therapy Consider corticosteroids aimed at promoting fetal lung maturity

7.4 Feto-maternal haemorrhage

Table 21. Feto-maternal haemorrhage

Aspect	Clinical care		
Context	 FMH occurs in approximately 10–30% of pregnant trauma patients^{7,31} The severity of the FMH is related to the size of the bleed in relation to the overall fetal blood volume, the rate at which this blood is lost and whether the event is acute or chronic Clinical presentation of FMH is variable and can be non-specific^{71,72} Decreased or absent fetal movements have been reported^{71,72} Fetal distress, especially if the fetal heart tracing is sinusoidal (indicating fetal anaemia) Massive FMH is a rare but severe complication which can result in fetal anaemia, fetal hypoxia, intrauterine death or neonatal neurologic damage⁷² Women may experience a transfusion reaction (nausea, oedema, fever, and chills)⁷¹ May occur more commonly with anteriorly located placentae and in women who experience uterine tenderness after trauma⁷³ 		
Assessment of FMH	 The Kleihauer test is used to detect and quantify FMH⁷⁴ Commonly to determine dose of Rh D immunoglobulin (Rh D-lg) for Rh D negative women¹⁷ Results are reported quantitatively in mL of fetal blood within maternal circulation A 'negative' result is commonly understood to be less than 1 mL of fetal blood The Kleihauer test is not a test for placental abruption^{64,68} The evidence is limited about the usefulness of a positive Kleihauer test for predicting outcomes and guiding clinical management^{17,75} (beyond determining the dose of RhD-lg for Rh D negative women) Flow cytometry is the most accurate quantitative test for FMH⁷⁴ and will be initiated by Pathology Queensland as a standard procedure when the quantitative result of the Kleihauer test is greater than 4 mL 		
Management	 Continuous electronic fetal monitoring of the viable fetus Abdominal USS to detect fetal heart activity, placental location, amniotic fluid index, suspected intraperitoneal bleeding, gestational age, fetal weight Elevated peak systolic velocity of the fetal middle cerebral artery correlates with fetal anaemia^{76,77} Emergency CS may be indicated 		
Recommendation following trauma	 Recommend Kleihauer test for Rh D negative women 13+0 weeks gestation or greater^{74,78,79} Aids determination of RhD-Immunoglobulin dose Consider a Kleihauer test for women with major or abdominal trauma Aids identification of FMH May inform immediate and longer term pregnancy management and outcomes Maintain a high index of suspicion and clinical surveillance for the possibility of significant FMH 		

7.4.1 Prevention of Rhesus alloimmunisation

Table 22. Rh D immunoglobulin in trauma

Aspect	Clinical care		
 Approximately 21% of women in Queensland are Rh D negative. FMH occurs in 10–30% of pregnant trauma patients Majority of post-traumatic FMH small and subclinical Massive FMH is rare and generally clinically evident with fetal of demise 			
Assessment	 If woman is Rh D negative and 12+6 weeks or less, quantification of FMH is not required Individualise RhD-Immunoglobulin administration according to clinical circumstances Refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline: Early pregnancy loss⁸¹ If woman is Rh D negative and 13+0 weeks or more, collect maternal blood (blood group, antibody screen and Kleihauer test) prior to administration of Rh D immunoglobulin⁷⁸ Do not delay or withhold administration of Rh D immunoglobulin based on or pending the results of quantitative testing 		
RhD-Ig	 If gestation is less than or equal to 12+6 days and no contraindications: Indicated for miscarriage 250 IU for singleton pregnancy 625 IU for multiple pregnancy Insufficient evidence to support routine use for bleeding in an ongoing pregnancy⁷⁸ If significant abdominal trauma, individualise RhD-lg administration according to clinical circumstances^{82,83} If gestation is 13+0 weeks or more and no contraindications: Indicated for obstetric haemorrhage, abdominal trauma, or any other suspected intrauterine bleeding or sensitising event in the nonsensitised woman Standard dose 625 IU If not offered within 72 hours, a dose offered within 9–10 days may provide protection⁷⁸ 625 IU of Rh D immunoglobulin protects against 6 mL fetal red cells (12 mL whole blood), which is equivalent to 0.25% fetal cells in the maternal circulation⁷⁴ If FMH is quantified at greater than 6 mL, give additional doses of RhD-Immunoglobulin sufficient to provide immunoprophylaxis within 72 hours⁷⁸ o 625 IU for each additional 6 mL (or part thereof) of fetal red cells detected Refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline: Early Pregnancy Loss⁸¹ 		
Contraindications	 Rh D positive woman Rh D negative woman with preformed Anti-D antibodies⁷⁸ Previous sensitivity or allergy to Rh D immunoglobulin 		

7.5 Amniotic fluid embolism

Table 23. Amniotic fluid embolism

Aspect	Clinical care		
	Unpredictable, rare and often fatal ^{29,64}		
	 Acute collapse typically occurring during labour, birth or within 30 minutes of birth^{13,30,84} 		
	o May also occur in the context of abdominal trauma ^{85,86}		
	· Also known as anaphylactoid syndrome of pregnancy ^{29,87}		
	 Exact pathophysiological mechanism is poorly understood⁶⁴ Appears to involve abnormal inflammatory maternal response to fetal 		
Context	tissue exposure ⁸⁷		
	 Pathophysiological process comparable to anaphylaxis or severe sepsis¹³ 		
	Clinical diagnosis is one of exclusion ^{30,88}		
	 Lack of universally recognised diagnostic criteria⁸⁷ 		
	• Estimated incidence 1.7–2.5 per 100 000 births ^{87,88}		
	Mortality rate estimates range from 20–60% ^{87,88}		
	 Classic symptoms include respiratory distress, hypoxia, hypotension and coagulopathy^{13,88} 		
	Other symptoms include		
	o Maternal hypotension ^{13,29,30,64,87} (100% of women ²⁹)		
Clinical	 Acute hypoxia (dyspnoea, cyanosis or respiratory arrest)^{30,87,88} 		
presentation	o Seizures 13,87,88		
	 Cardiac arrest^{13,29,30,64,87} (87% of women²⁹) Haemorrhage^{13,88} 		
	Coagulopathy/DIC ^{13,30,64,88}		
	§ Bleeding from uterus, incisions or IV sites ⁸⁷		
	If AFE occurs before birth, profound fetal distress ^{13,87}		
	Management is primarily supportive ^{13,29,87}		
	Major goals of management ²⁹ :		
	 Adequate oxygenation 		
	Aggressive restoration of cardiac output		
	Reversal of coagulopathy		
	Key factors for successful management ⁸⁹ : Characteristics as		
Management	Sharp vigilance High lovel of clinical suspicion		
	 High level of clinical suspicion Rapid, all-out resuscitative efforts 		
	Involve obstetrician, neonatologist, anaesthetist, haematologist and		
	intensivist as early as possible 13		
	Prompt delivery if cardiopulmonary arrest ⁸⁷		
	Resuscitation and airway management ⁶⁴		
	Blood product replacement including FFP, platelets and cryoprecipitate ⁶⁴		

7.6 Disseminated intravascular coagulation

Table 24. Disseminated intravascular coagulation

Aspect	Clinical care		
Context	 Life threatening condition⁹⁰ Always occurs secondary to another occurrence such as: Placental abruption, obstetric haemorrhage, fetal demise or AFE^{30,90} Placental abruption and AFE are associated with severe early onset DIC⁹⁰ Rate in pregnancy ranges from 0.03–0.35%⁹⁰ May result in clinically detectable microvascular bleeding as well as abnormal blood coagulation tests^{45,78} 		
Diagnosis	 Diagnosis is challenging in setting of pregnancy: Increased D-Dimers and fibrinogen levels in pregnancy Activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT) shortened in pregnancy Key trends indicative of DIC⁹⁰: Decreasing platelet count and fibrinogen Prolongation of prothrombin time Increasing fibrin-related marker 		
Management	 Overriding management is to treat underlying cause Early and accurate recognition is vital⁹⁰ Tests need to be repeated to reflect dynamic changes⁹⁰ Requires early aggressive management¹³ If undelivered, deliver fetus and placenta¹³ Collect baseline bloods early and frequently If clinical signs present do not delay treatment by waiting for coagulation results⁶⁸ If there is bleeding, consider early use of tranexamic acid Replace missing haemostatic components with blood products⁹¹ Where available utilise POC blood clotting analysers (ROTEM®/TEG®) Avoid hypothermia and acidosis Refer to Queensland Clinical Guideline <i>Primary postpartum haemorrhage</i> for management, blood/product replacement and MHP activation protocols⁴⁵ Consult with a haematologist⁶⁸ If there is active bleeding, consider early use of cryoprecipitate or fibrinogen concentrate to maintain fibrinogen levels above 2.5 g/L⁴⁴ Advise platelet transfusion if marked or moderate thrombocytopenia Give FFP if actively bleeding or significantly elevated International normalised ratio (INR) 		

8 Musculoskeletal injury

Management principles are generally the same as for the non-pregnant patient.

Table 25. Musculoskeletal injury

Aspect	Clinical care			
 Spine and spinal cord injuries Adequate immobilisation of neck and spine¹⁷ If possible, position left lateral tilt 15–30 degrees (right side up) Early multidisciplinary approach to care Consider birth at advanced gestations 				
Major pelvic fracture	 Immobilise pelvis Vaginal birth is not absolutely contraindicated¹ Birth by CS if unstable fracture or pelvic architecture disrupted¹⁷ Consider fetal injury/skull fracture—may be more common with fetal head engagement¹⁷ Consult with neonatologist 			
Limb fracture and longer-term immobility	 Assess for venous thromboembolism (VTE) risk and consider prophylaxis³⁷ Refer to the Queensland Clinical Guideline: Venous thromboembolism (VTE) prophylaxis in pregnancy and the puerperium⁹² 			

9 Minor trauma

Table 26. Minor trauma

Aspect	Clinical care			
Definition	 Pre-hospital transfer, any trauma injury that does not meet the criteria for defining major trauma Refer to Appendix A: Prehospital criteria for major trauma An Injury Severity Score (ISS) of less than 12 Refer to Appendix B: Injury Severity Score 			
Context	 Even minor injuries in the pregnant woman can be associated with placental abruption, preterm labour, massive FMH, uterine rupture and fetal loss^{2,7} Severity of injury may not be predictive of fetal outcome^{2,18} Around 50% of fetal losses occur following minor trauma⁹³ Adverse fetal outcomes are increased after minor trauma not requiring hospitalisation^{2,18,66} 			
FHR monitoring	 CTG provides good screening/high sensitivity for immediate adverse outcome Monitor FHR via CTG for 4 hours^{22,34} at a minimum⁵ 			
Discharge following minor trauma	 Criteria: Normal CTG²² § Interpret with caution at 23–28 weeks gestation § Refer to Table 8. Fetal assessment for FHR monitoring considerations No contractions No vaginal bleeding/loss²² Reassuring maternal status Laboratory evaluation within normal limits Kleihauer test reviewed and sufficient Rh D immunoglobulin administered (if required) Consult with the obstetric team prior to discharge Consider review by physiotherapy team prior to discharge to assess and treat musculoskeletal injuries and conditions such as whiplash Offer social work referral before discharge Advise the woman to seek medical advice if experiencing: Signs of preterm labour Abdominal pain Vaginal bleeding Change in fetal movements 			
Follow up	 Establish local policies and procedures to ensure adequate follow up of all investigations Increased antenatal surveillance is required even after minor trauma as the risk of adverse obstetric outcomes is increased including premature labour, low birth weight, fetal demise¹⁸ and placental abruption² Advise the woman to inform her usual maternity care provider of the trauma event Ensure that discharge summary is provided to both the woman and her primary care provider 			

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Appendix A: Prehospital criteria for major trauma

If any of the following criteria (except systolic BP*) present, consider the trauma 'Major' and respond accordingly.

R	Vital signs criteria		
	Conscious state Altered level of consciousness		
	Respiratory rate	Less than 10 or greater than 30 breaths/minute	
	SpO ₂ (room air)	Less than 95%	
	Heart rate	Greater than 120 bpm	
	*Systolic BP	Less than 90 mmHg	
*Interpret BP in conjunction with gestation, other vital signs, injury pattern and mechanism of injury			

	*Systolic BP	Less than 90 mmHg			
*Inte	rpret BP in conjunction with gesta	ation, other vital signs, injury pattern and mechanism of injury			
R	Injury pattern criteria				
	Injuries to the head, neck, chest, abdomen, pelvis, axilla, or groin that:				
	 Are penetrating Are Significant blunt injuries Are Sustained from blasts Involve two or more of those regions 				
	Limb amputation above the wris	t or ankle			
	Suspected spinal cord injuries				
	Burns > 20% or other complicate airway, or respiratory tract	ted burn injury including burn injury to the hand, face, genitals,			
	Serious crush injury				
	Major open fracture, or open dislocation with vascular compromise				
	Fractured pelvis				
	Fractures involving two or more of the following: femur, tibia, or humerus				
R	Mechanism of injury criteria				
	Ejection from vehicle				
	Fall from height ≥ 3 metres				
	Explosion				
	High impact motor vehicle crash	n with incursion into the occupant's compartment			
	Motorcyclist impact >30km/hour				
	Motor vehicle crash >60km/hour				
	Vehicle rollover				
	Road traffic crash in which there was a fatality in the same vehicle				
	Entrapped for > 30 minutes				
	Pedestrian impact				
	Struck on head by falling object	>3m			

Adapted from: Queensland Government. Queensland Ambulance Service (QAS) Clinical Practice Manual (CPM) Clinical Practice Guideline: Trauma/Pre-hospital trauma by-pass. 2017 and Queensland Government, Retrieval Services Queensland. RG1001 Early notification of trauma guidelines 2017

Appendix B: Injury Severity Score

The Injury Severity Score (ISS) assesses the collective effect of multiple injuries. It is based on an anatomical injury severity classification known as the Abbreviated Injury Scale (AIS). Each individual injury is assigned an Abbreviated Injury Scale (AIS) score. The AIS classifies each injury as follows:

- 1: Minor
- 2: Moderate
- · 3: Serious
- 4: Severe
- 5: Critical
- 6: Maximal (unsurvivable)

Each of the AIS injury scores are then assigned to one of six body regions:

- Head or neck
- Face
- · Chest
- · Abdominal or pelvic contents
- · Extremities or pelvic girdle
- External

The three most severely injured body regions have their score squared and added together to produce the ISS. Scores range from 0 to 75. If an injury is assigned an AIS of 6 (unsurvivable), the ISS is automatically assigned to 75. An ISS greater than 12 constitutes major trauma.

Appendix C: Resuscitative hysterotomy procedure

Large vertical abdominal incision required. Uterine incision may be either vertical or horizontal

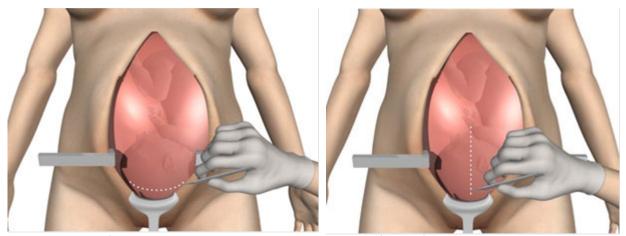


Image produced by: Clinical Multimedia Unit, Metro North Hospital and Health Service, Queensland.

Appendix D: Average haemodynamic and laboratory values in pregnancy

Mean values for haemodynamic changes throughout pregnancy

	Pre-pregnancy	1 st Trimester	2 nd Trimester	3 rd Trimester
Heart rate (beats/minute)	70	78	82	85
Systolic BP (mmHg)	125	112	122	115
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	70	60	63	70
Central venous pressure (mmHg)	9.0	7.5	4.0	3.8
Femoral venous pressure (mmHg)	6	6	18	18
Cardiac output (L/minute)	4.5	4.5	6.0	6.0
Uterine blood flow (mL/minute)	4000	4200	5000	5600

Source: Suresh MS, Latoya Mason C, Munnur U. Cardiopulmonary resuscitation and the parturient. Best Practice and Research: Clinical Obstetrics and Gynaecology. 2010; 24(3):383-400.

Pathology Queensland reference intervals

	Gestation (weeks)	Reference range	Units
	1–12	5.7-13.6	x 10 ⁹ /L
Milita Diagraf Calla (MDC)	13–24	6.2-14.8	x 10 ⁹ /L
White Blood Cells (WBC)	25-42	5.9-16.9	x 10 ⁹ /L
	>42	5.7-16.9	x 10 ⁹ /L
	1–12	3.6-10.1	x 10 ⁹ /L
Nautrophila	13–24	3.8-12.3	x 10 ⁹ /L
Neutrophils	25-42	3.9-13.1	x 10 ⁹ /L
	>42	3.6-13.1	x 10 ⁹ /L
Eosinophils	1->42	<0.6	x 10 ⁹ /L
	1–12	1.1-3.5	x 10 ⁹ /L
Lymanhaaytaa	13–24	0.9-3.9	x 10 ⁹ /L
Lymphocytes	25-42	1.0-3.6	x 10 ⁹ /L
	>42	0.9-3.9	x 10 ⁹ /L
	1–12	170-390	x 10 ⁹ /L
Districts	13–24	170-410	x 10 ⁹ /L
Platelets	25-42	150-430	x 10 ⁹ /L
	>42	150-430	x 10 ⁹ /L
	1–12	3.52-4.52	x 10 ¹² /L
Pad Pland Calla (PRC)	13–24	3.20-4.41	x 10 ¹² /L
Red Blood Cells (RBC)	25-42	3.10-4.44	x 10 ¹² /L
	>42	3.10-4.52	x 10 ¹² /L
	1–12	110–143	g/L
Haamadahin	13–24	100-137	g/L
Haemoglobin	24-42	98–137	g/L
	>42	98-143	g/L
	1–12	0.31-0.41	
Haematocrit	13–24	0.30-0.38	
Haematocht	25–42	0.28-0.39	
	>42	0.28-0.41	
Mean Cell Haemoglobin (MCH)	1->42	27.5-33.0	pg
Mean Cell Haemoglobin Concentration (MCHC)	1->42	320–360	g/L
Fruithment to Codimentation Date	1–12	<30	mm/hour
Erythrocyte Sedimentation Rate	13–24	<64	mm/hour
(ESR)	>24	<72	mm/hour
Bicarbonate (Total CO ₂)	All	18–26	mmol/L
Creatinine	All	32–73	mmol/L
Protein (Total)	14–40	61–75	g/L
Albumin	27–40	33–40	g/L
Albuillill	1–14	0.10-0.25	mmol/L
Urate	15–27	0.10-0.25	mmol/L
Orale	>27	0.10-0.35	mmol/L
	<i>></i> ∠1	0.10-0.55	IIIIIIUI/L

Appendix E: Seat belt positioning in pregnancy

Improper seat belt use is a major risk factor for adverse outcomes during motor vehicle collisions.³

Correct positioning of the seat belt includes:

- · Lap belt over hips below uterus
- · Sash between breasts above uterus

Correct application of the seat belt

- Reduces maternal/fetal injuries
- Reduces ejection mortalities
- · Improves fetal survival

Use of a lap belt only is not recommended. It increases uterine flexion and may increase placental abruption.

Correct and incorrect positioning of seat belt

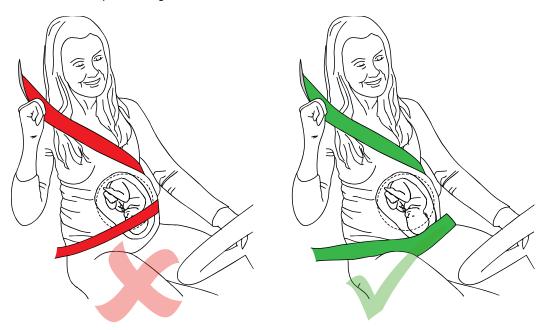


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Appendix F: Estimating gestational age by fundal height

Measure the vertical distance in the midline from the symphysis pubis to the top of the fundus in centimetres. This measurement correlates approximately with the gestational age. Considerations that may impact on accuracy include:

- · Multiple pregnancy
- · Growth restriction
- Poly/oligohydramnios
- · Breech or abnormal lie

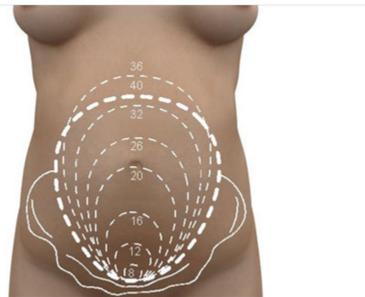
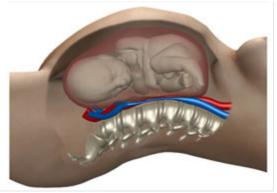
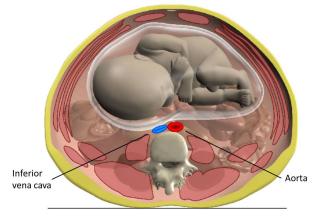


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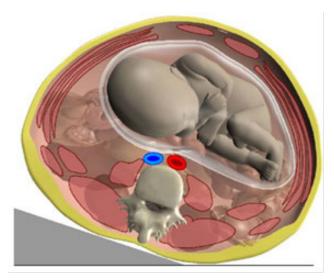
Appendix G: Positioning to relieve aortocaval compression

Inferior vena cava compression when positioned supine



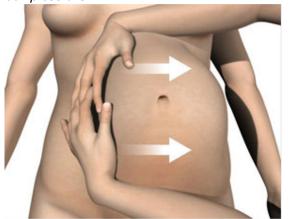


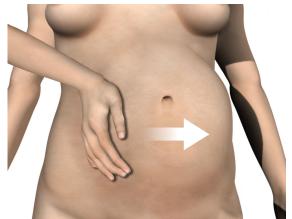
Left lateral tilt (right side up) 15-30 degrees to relieve compression





Manual displacement of the uterus to relieve compression—preferred position for cardiac compressions





Images produced by: Clinical Multimedia Unit, Metro North Hospital and Health Service, Queensland

Appendix H: Approximate fetal effective doses (mSv) from common radiological examinations

Note: Treat all doses as indicative only. Individual doses can differ from tabulated values by as much as a factor of 10, except for those examinations remote from the lower abdomen.

Examination	1 st Trimester	3 rd Trimester		
Conventional radiography				
Skull	<0.01	<0.01		
Chest	<0.01	<0.01		
Cervical spine	<0.01	<0.01		
Thoracic spine	<0.01	<0.01		
Lumbar spine	2	6		
Abdomen	1.5	2.5		
Pelvis	1	2		
Intravenous pyelogram (IVP)	2	10		
Extremities	<0.01	<0.01		
Mammography	<0.01	<0.01		
Barium meal	1	6		
Barium enema	7	25		

Computerised Tomography (CT)

Head	< 0.005	<0.005
Neck	< 0.005	<0.01
Chest without portal phase	0.1	0.6
Chest with portal phase	1	7
Chest (pulmonary embolism)	0.1	0.4
Chest/abdomen/pelvis	12	13
Abdomen/pelvis - single phase	12	12
Abdomen/pelvis - multiple phase	15	30
Thoracic spine	0.2	1.0
Lumbar spine	10	25
Pelvimetry	-	0.2

NB: < = less than

Source: Australian Radiation Protection and Nuclear Safety Agency. Radiation protection in diagnostic and interventional radiology; Radiation protection series RPS 14.1. 2008.

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