MATERNAL PHYSIOLOGY IN PREGNANCY

Respiratory

- overall there is ~ 50% loss of respiratory reserve,
 - a. $\uparrow VO_2$
 - b. \downarrow FRC
 - c. \downarrow CVS reserve
 - d. airway changes

Alteration of Lung Volumes in Pregnancy		
Functional Residual Capacity	FRC	
Residual Volume	RV	~ 20% decrease
Expiratory Reserve Volume	ERV	
Vital Capacity	VC	
Inspiratory Reserve Volume	IRV	unchanged
Closing Volume	CV	
Total Lung Capacity	TLC	~ 5% decrease
Inspiratory Capacity	IC	~ 5% increase

• the diaphragm is *not* splinted but is elevated and moves freely

• the transverse and AP diameter of the chest increases to compensate for the elevation of the diaphragm

- · diaphragmatic breathing decreases in favour of thoracic excursion
- during normal tidal ventilation ~ 33% (\leq 50% ASA) have *airway closure*, especially supine
- · factors which do increase CV are advancing age, smoking and lung disease

• airway closure increases atelectasis, shunt flow and V/Q mismatch,

$$\rightarrow \quad \uparrow P_A O_2 \text{ and } P_{A-a} O_2 \text{ gradient}$$

• engorgement of the mucous membranes throughout the respiratory tract, causing swelling of the nasopharynx, oropharynx, larynx and trachea

• this may lead to difficulty in visualisation of the vocal cords, or to haemorrhage following manipulation of the airway

• increased levels of *progesterone* \pm oestrogen sensitise the respiratory centre to CO_2

• *dyspnoea* is experienced by ~ 60-70% of women early in pregnancy, when ventilation is only mildly increased

1.	\uparrow minute ventilation	~ 50%	at term
	i. \uparrow tidal volume	~ 40%	
	ii. \uparrow respiratory rate	~ 15%	$\rightarrow \downarrow $ <i>dead space</i> ventilation
2.	\uparrow alveolar ventilation	~ 70%	above the nonpregnant state

• this far exceeds,

1. \uparrow body weight ~ 20%

2. \uparrow VO₂ ~ 15-20%

• several studies have shown a decrease in *physiological dead space*, independent of tidal volume & rate changes

• this is believed to be due to more efficient mixing and distribution of ventilation, and possibly the increased CO of pregnancy \rightarrow *decreased* ETCO₂ - PaCO₂ gradient

• pregnancy may actually be associated with a *negative* ETCO₂ - PaCO₂ gradient (CJA)

 \cdot progesterone \rightarrow bronchodilatation and decreased airways resistance

• however, FEV₁, MBC and diffusing capacity remain unchanged

• pulmonary *compliance* is decreased ~ 30%,

1. C_L - unaltered

2. C_{cw} - decreased ~ 45%

- returns to normal immediately following delivery

• oxygen consumption increases ~ 20% during pregnancy, and up to 100% during labour

• the HbO₂ curve is shifted to the *right*, and arterial gas analysis reflects *chronic hyperventilation*

\rightarrow	pН	~ 7.44
	PaO_2	~ 95-105 mmHg
	$PaCO_2$	~ 32 mmHg
	HCO_3^{-}	~ 21 mmol/l

• PaO_2 tends to be high early, falling as FRC encroaches upon CV, and may be normal or slightly subnormal at term

• plasma HCO₃⁻ decreases to ~ 21 mmol/l to compensate for the P_{aCO2}

• therefore, at term there is less buffer reserve, and metabolic acidosis readily develops

• during labour ventilation may increase 300% with marked maternal hypocarbia & alkalaemia,

$$\rightarrow \begin{array}{c} P_{aCO2} \\ pH \end{array} \sim \begin{array}{c} 20 \text{ mmHg} \\ 7.55 \end{array}$$

• between contractions women may hypoventilate, with periods of hypoxaemia

• <u>Respiratory:</u> Importance for Anaesthesia

a.	intubation	mucosal bleedingdifficult intubation
b.	respiratory reserve	 rapid onset of hypoxia* high VO₂ / low FRC ± low PaO₂ decreased CO supine

- c. rapid gaseous induction
 - i. \downarrow MAC

ii.	\downarrow FRC	\rightarrow	less dilution
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- iii. $\uparrow MV \rightarrow rapid \, \delta \, depth$
- d. foetal effects
 - i. maternal respiratory alkalosis
 - umbilical/uterine vasoconstriction
 - \uparrow maternal HbO₂ affinity (relative not absolute, \uparrow DPG & curve \rightarrow R)
 - ii. maternal hypoventilation between contractions
- **NB:** following adequate preoxygenation, the PaO_2 in apnoeic pregnant women falls ~ 80 mmHg/min more than in the nonpregnant state

Cardiovascular Changes

Blood Volume

a.	↑ plasma	~ 50% ~ 40		aldosterone & oestrogen 70 ml/kg
b.	↑ RBC mass	~ 20-30% ~ 25		<i>dilutional</i> ↓ [Hb] & haematocrit 30 ml/kg
c.	\uparrow blood volume		\rightarrow	100 ml/kg

• \uparrow RBC mass occurs slower than \uparrow plasma, accounting for the relative *anaemia* of pregnancy

• *autotransfusion* of ~ 500 ml at delivery from the placenta into the maternal circulation

- this usually compensates, with the post-partum Hct. varying $\pm\,5\%$

• Cardiac Output

• increases by 8-10/52 gestation, reaching a peak at ~ 30/52, due to an increase in,

- a. 1 SV ~ 35%
- b. \uparrow HR ~ 15% \rightarrow CO ~ 40-50%

• CVP changes little, except during labor, or due to the effects of *aortocaval compression*

 $\rightarrow \downarrow CO \sim 40\%$ in in the supine position

• labour \rightarrow \uparrow catecholamines \rightarrow \uparrow SV and CO a further 40-45% above prelabour values

• uterine contraction further augments CO by *autotransfusion*, \uparrow blood volume ~ 10-25%

• BP increases with each contraction as PVR increases together with the increases in CO

• during the 3^{rd} stage, *CO* increases ~ 80% above prelabour values (NB: MCQ)

- CO returns to normal by the 2^{nd} postpartum week

NB: aortocaval compression is of major importance for foetal well-being

· most women do not become overtly hypotensive, "concealed caval compression"

• ~ 10% of women become frankly hypotensive, "revealed caval compression"

• frequently with a superimposed *reflex bradycardia*, despite the inability to maintain peripheral vascular tone

• Cardiac Work

• increased, which may result in LVF when there is poor cardiac reserve

- changes found on clinical examination include,
 - a. ejection systolic murmur
 - b. a loud split first heart sound
 - c. occasionally a soft diastolic murmur
 - d. the apex beat is displaced to the left
 - e. the ECG axis shifts to the left
 - f. the heart may appear enlarged on CXR

Blood Pressure

- a. ↑ CO ~ 50%
- b. \downarrow TPR uterine AV shunt & decreased viscosity
 - \rightarrow slight *decrease in MAP*

NB: a high BP in pregnancy, except during labour, is *always abnormal*

- CVP and PAOP remain *normal* during pregnancy
- CVP increases 4-6 cmH₂O during contractions

<u>Electrocardiogram LAD</u>

- · chamber volume and wall thickness increase during pregnancy
- upward displacement of the diaphragm and elevation of the heart
- arrhythmias occur more commonly during pregnancy, but are usually *benign*

• Oxygen Flux

• *increases* despite the slight \downarrow [Hb] and O₂ content, due to,

- a. ↑CO
- b. hyperventilation and \uparrow PaO₂ (early)
- c. $\uparrow 2,3$ -DPG \rightarrow HbO₂ dissociation curve to the *right* \rightarrow **P**₅₀ ~ **30.4 mmHg** (cf. 26.7)

<u>Cardiovascular:</u> Importance for Anaesthesia

• patients undergoing spinal or epidural anaesthesia must,

- a. be maintained in a *lateral tilt* position, with left uterine displacement
- b. be adequately *volume preloaded*

• regional anaesthesia attenuates some of the CVS changes which normally accompany labour, excepting those in the third stage which are not due to circulating catecholamines

NB: thus, epidural anaesthesia is recommended for any patient in whom an increase in myocardial work is undesirable

Blood Constituents

- there is a slight *decrease* in [Na⁺], [K⁺] and [Cl⁻]
- albumin, globulins & total protein increase, but their plasma concentrations decrease
- the normal albumin:globulin ratio of $\sim 1.6/1 \rightarrow 1/1$ at term
- · colloid osmotic pressure progressively decreases, parallel with the fall in serum albumin
- further decreases in COP occur in the postpartum period, irrespective of the mode of delivery

• thus, the preeclamptic patient, or those on tocolytic therapy are prone to the development of *pulmonary oedema*, despite near normal PAOP's

- changes in protein binding may lead to drug toxicity, due to changes in the unbound fraction
- pregnancy leads to a *hypercoagulable state*, due to,
 - a. ↑ factors VII, VIII, X, XII (? IX)
 - b. \uparrow fibrinogen (I) and FDP's
 - c. \downarrow fibrinolytic activity $-\downarrow$ levels of plasminogen activators
 - d. \downarrow antithrombin III
 - \rightarrow increased risk of thromboembolic disease

Uterine Circulation

• nonpregnant blood flow parallels metabolic activity of the myometrium and endometrium, undergoing cyclic variations with menstruation

· during pregnancy, blood flow increases rapidly with the increasing uterus and foetus

\rightarrow £20 fold increase

• early in pregnancy the $O_2 ER$ of the uterus is low, therefore, some factor other than autoregulation increases flow ??oestrogen

• as the size and requirements of the foetus increase much greater than blood flow during pregnancy, the O_2 extraction ratio increases progressively with pregnancy

Central Nervous System

- · LA requirements for subarachnoid or epidural anaesthesia are reduced in pregnancy
- possible causes include,
 - a. increased diffusion of LA to the receptor site
 - b. increased sensitivity of nerve fibres to LA
 - c. ? raised CSF progesterone levels

• valsalva manoeuvres during delivery may increase CSF and epidural pressures, markedly increasing the spinal spread of anaesthetic

• the MAC for the volatile agents is also reduced ~ 40% during pregnancy

• this was thought to be due to progesterone, however, studies in rats have shown *no correlation* between plasma progesterone and MAC reduction

• there may be an upregulation of the *endogenous opiate* pathways and the endorphin system

Renal

• the ureters and renal pelvis progressively dilate from the 12th week

- \rightarrow increased incidence of <u>UTI's</u>
- \uparrow RBF and GFR ~ 60% at term $\propto \uparrow$ CO and blood volume
- aldosterone levels are slightly increased, as are TBW and sodium
- plasma osmolality is decreased, with an effective "resetting" of the threshold for ADH secretion
- · urine volume increases due to the need to excrete a greater mass of waste products
- both BUN and $[Cr]_{pl}$ decrease due to an *increased creatinine clearance*
- during third trimester there may be alterations of renal function due to aortocaval compression

Hepatic & GIT Function

- \uparrow LFT's due to *enzyme induction*
- liver blood flow is not significantly altered and bilirubin levels are unaltered
- *plasma cholinesterase* ~ 30% and remains low for several weeks postpartum

- this generally doesn't affect the response to suxamethonium, as there is a larger V_{dSS} for the drug, which compensates for the decreased clearance

• during labour there is a greatly increased risk of *aspiration* and Mendelson's syndrome due to,

- 1. \downarrow gastric emptying
- 2. \downarrow lower oesophageal sphincter (LOS) tone
- 3. \uparrow gastric acidity
- 4. \uparrow intragastric pressure
- 5. \uparrow incidence of difficulty with intubation
- 6. frequently require emergency anaesthesia in the "middle of the night" by junior staff

Endocrine

- endocrine disease is rare in pregnancy, as pre-existing disease usually results in infertility
- *thyroid disease* is the commonest endocrinopathy during pregnancy
- earliest changes are increased levels of,
 - a. oestrogen
 - b. progesterone
 - c. βhCG

• normal pregnancy is associated with *increases* in the size of the,

- a. thyroid
 - \uparrow BMR & PBI
 - FT₄ normal and patients remain euthyroid
 - difficult as pregnancy symptoms mimic thyroid disease

 \uparrow Vit.D₃

- b. parathyroid
 - \uparrow PTH \rightarrow
- \uparrow Ca⁺⁺ absorption
- \downarrow Ca⁺⁺ excretion
- plasma [Ca⁺⁺] remains *normal*, the increase supplies the foetus
- c. anterior pituitary
 - \uparrow ACTH \rightarrow cortisol aldosterone prolactin
 - \uparrow MSH, β -END
- d. adrenals

FOETAL PHYSIOLOGY

Placental Circulation			
Normal Values	Average at Maturity	Adult Comparison	
Weight	500 g		
Lobules	200 - each multiple	villi	
Diffusion Distance	3.5 µm	~ 0.5 µm - lung	
Surface Area	$3-4 m^2$	~ 70 m ² - lung	
Blood Flow _{F/M}	300 ml/min ~ 50% of CO	600 ml/min	
Blood Volume _M	150 ml - intervillous sp	aces	
RBC Transit Time	15 secs	0.75 s - lung	
P _M O ₂	50 mmHg		
P_FO_2	30 mmHg		

Foetal Circulation

- ~ 55% of the foetal CO supplies the placenta via the umbilical arteries, where $SafO_2 \sim 60\%$
- umbilical vein saturation, $SuvO_2 \sim 80\%$, c.f. 98% of maternal arterial blood
- \cdot of this,
 - 1. majority \rightarrow passes through the liver
 - 2. small fraction \rightarrow passing directly into the IVC via the *ductus venosus*

• the portal and systemic venous blood of the foetus, $SvfO_2 \sim 26\%$

• the mixed venous blood in the IVC \rightarrow SvfO₂ ~ 67%

• most blood entering the RA from the IVC passes directly to the LA via the patent foramen ovale

• most of the blood entering the RA from the SVC passes into the pulmonary artery, then via the *ductus arteriosus* into the descending aorta

 \rightarrow net effect being the head receives the better oxygenated blood

Foetal Respiration

• three factors aid in foetal transfer of O_2

1.	[Hb _F] ~ 50% greater than [Hb _A]	\rightarrow	greater CaO_2 /ml
2.	Hb_F binds 2,3-DPG <i>less</i> effectively than Hb_A	\rightarrow	left shift
3.	$Hb_{F}-CO_{2} \rightarrow Hb_{A}-CO_{2}$	\rightarrow	"double" Bohr effect

NB:	Hb _F -O ₂ dissociation curve lie	s above and to the left	
	$Hb_{F}-P_{50} \sim 19 \text{ mmHg}$	$Hb_{A}-P_{50} \sim 30.4 \text{ mmHg}$	(cf. 26.7)

• the total *diffusing capacity* at term for O_2 ,

a. across the placenta $\sim 1.2 \text{ ml/O}_2/\text{min/mmHg}$

b. across the lung $\sim 20 \text{ ml/O}_2/\text{min/mmHg}$

- maternal 2,3-DPG level increases near term, increasing the P_{50} and improving unloading of O_2

• Hb_A begins to appear around the 20th week of intrauterine life

- no Hb_F is formed after birth,
 - a. at birth $Hb_A \sim 20\%$
 - b. 4 months $Hb_A > 90\%$

CO₂ is 20 times more diffusible and concentration gradient is high, ∴ diffusion not a problem
the maternal PaCO₂ is reduced by hyperventilation of pregnancy

Other Placental Functions

a.	active nutrient absorption	- where $[F] > [M] \rightarrow \text{amino acids, Cr, PO}_4$
b.	metabolism	- various drugs by MFO's and Plasma-ChE
c.	metabolic functions	 stores protein, Fe⁺⁺, Ca⁺⁺ acts ≡^t liver early, until foetal liver matures
d.	hormone synthesis	- βhCG - oestrogen - progesterone - hPL

Normal Values	Maternal	Foetal
Hb concentration	12 g/100 ml	18 g/100 ml
Blood flow	600 ml/min	300 ml/min
Uterine/Umbilical aa.		
• PaO ₂	95 mmHg	15 mmHg
• SaO ₂	97%	58%
• PaCO ₂	35 mmHg	48 mmHg
Uterine/Umbilical vv.		
• PvO ₂	33 mmHg	30 mmHg
• SvO ₂	50%	80%

Bupivacaine Cardiotoxicity

• *seizures*, presumably from accidental intravascular injection have been associated with *cardiac arrests* and difficult resuscitation \pm death

• Moore & coworkers in the largest clinical survey reported,

- a. seizures 2° to LA's were frequently associated with *hypoxia* or *acidosis*
- b. subsequently reported cases of bupivacaine induced convulsions managed with early ventilation with 100% O_2 , *without* subsequent cardiac arrest
- c. 21,000 administrations of bupivacaine, with 23 cases of convulsions *not* associated with cardiac arrest or neurological sequelae

 ${\boldsymbol \cdot}$ studies in awake sheep show that lignocaine and bupivacaine produce similar CNS toxicity when administered rapidly IV

• in the absence of,

- 1. hypoxia or hypercarbia
- 2. respiratory or metabolic acidosis
- 3. hyperkalaemia, or
- 4. hypotension
 - \rightarrow serious cardiac arrhythmias occurred following bupivacaine, but *not* lignocaine

• subsequent studies have shown bupivacaine cardiotoxicity is enhanced in the presence of hypoxia, hypercarbia or acidosis

· voltage clamp experiments with lignocaine and bupivacaine in guinea pig papillary muscles show,

- a. both agents block fast inward Na⁺ channels
- b. both reduce $\delta V/\delta t$ of phase 0 to a similar degree
- c. lignocaine dissociates from the channel ~ 1 sec
- d. bupivacaine dissociation takes ~ 5x that of lignocaine
- e. *frequency-dependent block* accumulates with bupivacaine, even at slow heart rates
 - \rightarrow bupivacaine is ~ 16x as toxic as lignocaine to the myocardium
- *NB*: as bupivacaine is ~ 4x as potent as lignocaine, this gives it a *relative toxicity ratio* ~ 4 *times*

- the net effect is that bupivacaine is potentially cardiotoxic at ~ 1.0 mg/kg if injected intravascularly

"Total Spinal" Anaesthesia

- subarachnoid injection of an epidural dose of local anaesthetic will result in,
 - a. unconsciousness
 - b. apnoea
 - c. hypotension & bradycardia
 - d. *dilated* pupils brainstem hypoperfusion \rightarrow fixed

• immediate management should include,

a.	airway maintenance & imediate endotracheal intubation
	+ O_2 and IPPV (frequently required for ~ 2-3 hours)

- b. Trendelenberg position \pm lateral tilt
- c. IV fluids
 d. atropine & ephedrine ± catecholamines
 e. assessment of foetal well-being ± emergent delivery

the requirement for *sedation* is usually minimal, with most patients having no recall of the events
more gradual onset of symptoms may be seen with subdural catheter placement, or with catheter migration following initial insertion

ASPIRATION PNEUMONITIS

• John Hunter provided the first description, giving evidence at a murder trial in 1781 (brandy & cats)

• James Simpson (1848) also indicted aspiration, rather than chloroform, as the cause of the first anaesthetic death of Hannah Greener

Winternitz (1920) first described *acid aspiration* and Hall (1940) associated this with obstetrics *Curtis and Mendelson* (1946) described,

- 1. 66 cases of gastric aspiration in obstetric patients undergoing GA for vaginal delivery
- 2. an experimental aspiration syndrome in rabbits with acidic versus neutral fluids
- 3. the development of pulmonary oedema and CXR changes
- 4. the beneficial effects of neutralisation of the stomach contents

• the true *incidence* is difficult to determine, reported figures include,

a.	all anaesthetic deaths	~ 1-20%
b.	anaesthesia related deaths	~ 0.008-0.2 per 1,000 cases
c.	"silent" regurgitation subsequent aspiration	~ 4-26% of all general surgical cases ~ 10-20% of these
d.	Olsson <i>et al.</i> (1986)	 - 185,358 anaesthetics - 38 cases of aspiration ~ 4.7 : 10,000 → 1 : 2,131 ~ 15 per 10,000 obstetric patients
e.	subsequent <i>mortality</i>	 reported ranges of 3-70% 5% is the most recent & reliable figure

NB: aspiration still a leading cause of ARDS & mortality from the later is still in the order of 50^+ %

• a multitude of factors *delay* the rate of gastric emptying,

- a. hyper/hypo-osmolar contents
- b. high calorie solids > low calorie solids > liquids
- c. acid within the duodenum & cholcystokinin
 - cf. gastrin, motilin and parasympathetic agents which increase emptying
- d. pain, anxiety, opioids and labour
- e. disease states, ie. inflammatory bowel disease, diabetes, hypothyroidism, peptic ulcer disease, electrolyte disorders, etc.
- gastric secretion continues to add volume to the gastric contents, mean ≤ 200 ml/hr,
 - a. interdigestive phase ~ 1 ml/min
 - b. digestive phase $\sim 3-4$ ml/min

Regurgitation & Vomiting

Def'n: regurgitation is the process whereby gastric contents *passively* flow through the gastro-oesophageal sphincter (lower oesophageal sphincter, LOS) into the oesophagus and the pharynx

- when the larynx is incompetent then "silent" aspiration can occur
- the pressure at the LOS is usually greater than intragastric pressure, preventing regurgitation
- the mechanism of action is multifactorial,
 - a. anatomical sphincter doesn't exist *per se*, muscle is similar above & below
 - b. physiological sphincter tonic contraction of the circular smooth muscle fibres
 - c. flap valve§
 - d. diaphragmatic action[§]
 - e. mucosal valve[§] [§]these act in unison
 - f. mechanical factors lowermost 2-3 cm of the oesophagus are intra-abdominal

• despite these factors reflux does occur, but is rarely seen at intragastric pressures $< 20 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$

- numerous drugs affect the competency of the LOS,
 - a. *decrease* LOS tone
 - i. anticholinergics: atropine, scopolamine, glycopyrrolate
 - ii. opioids: morphine, pethidine, fentanyl
 - iii. benzodiazepines: diazepam, midazolam

b. *increase* LOS tone

- i. gastrokinetics: metoclopramide, ? cisapride
- ii. hormones: motilin, gastrin, PGE₂
- iii. acetylcholinesterase inhibitors
- iv. increased *alkalinity* of gastric contents (MCQ)

- *Def'n: vomiting* is the reflex action by which intragastric contents are *actively* expelled from the stomach, through the oesophagus and oropharynx, involving the use of both voluntary and involuntary muscles
- the *vomiting centre* in the medulla receives input from,
 - a. the CTZ in the area postrema
 - b. the vestibular & olfactory apparati, and other cortical areas
 - c. almost the entirety of the GIT via the vagus nerve
- motor responses are mediated via,
 - a. the cranial nerves V, VII, IX, XII
 - b. phrenic and spinal motor nerves to the diaphragm and abdominal muscles
- the usual sequence of events in vomiting may include,
 - a. prodromal tachycardia, sweating, tachypnoea, salivation and a sensation of nausea
 - b. elevation of the hyoid bone & larynx, opening the crico-oesophageal sphincter
 - c. closure of the glottis, elevation of the soft palate, closing the posterior nares
 - d. respiration is held in *mid-inspiration*
 - e. simultaneous strong downward contraction of the diaphragm & abdominal muscles

 \rightarrow rapid elevation of intragastric pressure

f. LOS relaxation & reverse peristalsis \rightarrow expulsion of gastric contents

Risk Factors

1.	. depressed level of <i>consciousness</i>		
 hypotension, hypoxia, hypercapnia 			onia
	• metabolic encephalopath	y, com	a
	• ETOH, drug overdosage,	, anae	sthesia
	• CVA		
	 epilepsy 		
	• trauma		
	 cardiac arrest 		
2.	impaired airway reflexes		
	• drugs		- CNS, NMJ, local anaesthesia
	• intubation / extubation		
	• bulbar/pseudobulbar pals	У	 MS, motor neurone disease, GBS, polio CVA, brainstem infarction
	• elderly		
	• local disease, post-surgic	al	
3.	increased <i>regurgitation</i>	\rightarrow	LOS dysfunction
		\rightarrow	raised gastric pressure
	• pregnancy		
	 oesophageal disease 		- scleroderma, achalasia
	 hiatus hernia 		
	• obesity		
	 bowel obstruction 		
	• NG tube		

• an *at risk* has been defined as a patient having,

- 1. a gastric volume > **0.4 ml/kg** ~ 25 ml
- 2. a gastric pH < 2.5

• these limits were based on a paper by *Roberts and Shirley (1974)*, who used unpublished data from Rhesus monkeys

• more recent work by *Raidoo (1988)* found that a much greater volume (~ 0.8 ml/kg) was required to produce classic Mendelson's syndrome

• animal models involved the *direct installation* of acid into the lungs, whereas clinical aspiration is almost never associated with the aspiration of the entire stomach contents

- subsequent studies of non-lethal aspiration support the concept that pH is the more important factor

• *pregnancy* is unique among the risk factors for aspiration as the risk is *multifactorial*,

1.	↓ gastric <i>emptying</i>	 displacement of the pylorus increased progesterone (antagonises <i>motilin</i>)[§] pain, anxiety, narcotic analgesics
2.	\downarrow LOS tone	- anticholinergics, narcotics ?? loss of the cardio-oesophageal angle
3.	↑ gastric <i>acidity</i>	- placental gastrin secretion
4.	\uparrow intragastric pressure	mechanical effects of the uteruslithotomy

NB: barrier pressure (gastric - oesophageal) is normal, except in those who experience "heartburn"

 \cdot some workers have shown changes starting in early pregnancy, whereas others have found no change until ~ 34 weeks

• there is equal lack of agreement as to when the risk decreases following delivery

• numerous studies showing up to 75% of patients having gastric contents > 0.4 ml/kg & pH < 2.5, up to 48 hrs post-delivery

• however, this is no different from the general surgical population & the definition of "at risk" requires further clarification

NB: however, aspiration remains the major cause of maternal morbidity and mortality

Prevention

- 1. nil orally prevention of prolonged fasting with regular fluid intake
- 2. non-particulate antacids
- 3. H_2 blocking agents
- 4. anticholinergic agents however, these reduce tone of the LOS
- 5. metoclopramide
- 6. head-up position
- 7. avoid general anaesthesia
- 8. rapid sequence induction & cricoid pressure
- 9. endotracheal intubation with a cuffed ETT
- 10. awake extubation
- 11. alert, well trained recovery room staff

FAILED ENDOTRACHEAL INTUBATION

• this is the leading cause of anaesthetic related maternal *mortality*

• in Australia, Holland (AIC, 1984) ~ 69% of anaesthesia related deaths were airway catastrophes

• the Confidential Enquiry into PeriOperative Deaths (UK 1987) found that 1 in 3 deaths

attributable solely to anaesthesia was due to failure to intubate the larynx

• however, this report did not include obstetric patients, in whom the *incidence* of failed intubation is much higher,

- a. general surgical population ~1:2,303
- b. obstetric population $\sim 1:300$ ($\sim 8x \uparrow risk$)

• reports of Confidential Inquiries into Maternal Deaths in England and Wales found that,

- a. **13%** of all maternal deaths were associated with anaesthesia (1982-84)
- b. **41%** of deaths arising from anaesthesia related to intubation difficulties (1973-1984)

Airway Assessment

Clinical Assessment

• *does not* predict all cases

• bedside examination predictive of difficult intubation described by *Mallampati et al.* and modified by Samsoon and Young*

• assessment is made with the patient sitting upright and the head in the neutral position, with the mouth fully open and the tongue extended, *without* phonation,

Mallampati Classification - Class		
Class 1	faucial pillars, soft palate and uvula visible	
Class 2	faucial pillars and soft palate visible but uvula obscured by the tongue	
Class 3	only the soft palate is visible	
Class 4*	the soft palate is not visible	

• classification predicts ~ 50% of difficult airways, but has a high incidence of *false positives*

• Tham et al. showed that assessment in the supine position is equally predictive

Assessment of Airway

- 1. *history*
- 2. *examination* \rightarrow "MOUTHS"
 - i. Mandible
 - thyromental distance > 6 cm, 3 "finger-breadths"
 - alveolar-mental distance < 2 cm
 - "receeding", length subluxation
 - obtuse mandibular angles
 - ii. Opening
 - incisor gap > 4 cm (Wilson > 5 cm)
 - iii. Uvula
 - Mallampati grades I-IV as per Samsoon & Young
 - iv. Teeth
 - prominent upper incisors, "buck" teeth
 - solitary incisors, nuisance teeth, loose teeth
 - crowns, caps, plates & dentures
 - v. Head
 - flexion, extension, lateral flexion & rotation
 - vi. Silhouette
 - obesity
 - "no neck", neck masses, Dowager's hump
 - craniofacial anomalies

3. investigations

- i. direct awake laryngoscopy
- ii. indirect laryngoscopy
- iii. fluoroscopy
- iv. XRays (Bellhouse)
 - effective mandibular length
 - atlanto-occipital distance
 - C_1 - C_2 interspace
 - anterior-posterior thickness of the tongue
- v. CT scan
 - tracheal deviation, luminal diameter
 - intrathoracic trachea

PREGNANCY INDUCED HYPERTENSION

Incidence

- a. 5-10% of all pregnancies
- b. highest in primigravidas, though, the *prevalence* is greater in multiparous
- c. 0.05-0.2% of all deliveries progress to *eclampsia* (1:500-1:2,000)
- d. PIH is implicated in,
 - i. $\sim 20\%$ of maternal deaths
 - ii. $\sim 6-10\%$ of perinatal deaths

• Categories

1. gestational hypertension / proteinuria

- i. hypertension without proteinuria
- ii. proteinuria without hypertension
- iii. proteinuric hypertension \rightarrow *preeclampsia*
 - developing *after* the 20th week of gestation
 - may occur earlier if associated with *hydatidiform mole*

2. chronic hypertension

- i. incidentally associated with pregnancy
- ii. aggravated by pregnancy or preeclampsia
- 3. unclassified hypertension
 - found later than 20 weeks where the past hypertensive status is unknown
- 4. eclampsia
 - any form of hypertension accompanied by *fitting*

Preeclampsia

• gestational hypertension is defined as,

- 1. BP > 140/90 mmHg * on at least 2 occasions, > 6 hours apart, or
- 2. \uparrow BP above pre-pregnancy levels
 - i. > 30 mmHg systolic
 - ii. > 15 mmHg diastolic

• preeclampsia exists if any two of the following are present,

- 1. gestational hypertension
- 2. proteinuria > 300 mg/l per 24 hours (N: < 150 mg/l/24 hrs)
- 3. oedema

• severe preeclampsia is denoted by any of the following,

1.	systolic BP > 160 mmHg	
	diastolic BP> 110 mmHg	* on at least 2 occasions, > 6 hours apart
2.	proteinuria $> 5g / 24$ hours	* or rapidly increasing

- "nephrotic" > 3.5 g / 24 hrs

- 3. oliguria < 400 ml / 24 hours
- 4. cerebral or visual disturbance
- 5. cyanosis or pulmonary oedema
- 6. epigastric pain
- *NB: eclampsia* being the presence of any degree of hypertension, or proteinuria, with the occurrence of *convulsions*

Aetiology

• unknown, though, it is generally agreed the underlying disorder relates to *utero-placental ischaemia*

• some consider it a subset of TTP/HUS, being a generalised endothelial disorder, characterised by widespread vasospasm and platelet activation

- potential contributing factors,
 - a. genetic
 - b. acquired immune factors
 - immune reaction to *trophoblastic* tissue \rightarrow placental vasculitis & ischaemia
 - more common amongst,
 - i. nulliparas no previous exposure to trophoblast
 - ii. conditions with a large mass of trophoblast
 - hydatidiform mole
 - multiple pregnancy
 - diabetes
 - Rh incompatibility
 - c. imbalance in prostaglandin synthesis
 - i. **PGI**₂ / **TXA**₂ *imbalance* Walsh (Am.J. O&G, 1985)
 - behind the advent of the "CLASP" (collaborative low dose aspirin) trial
 - ii. angiotensin II / PGE_2 imbalance (PGE = vasodilator secreted by placenta)
 - d. abnormal (placental) activation of renin-angiotensin-aldosterone
 - e. nutritional disorders / deficiencies
 - f. a combination of these

Pathophysiology

NB: the majority of lesions are due to occlusive vascular spasm of arterioles

<u>Central Nervous System</u>

- a. normal total CBF, however, there is *focal* vasospastic ischaemic injury
 - MRI, CT and angiographic evidence
 - postmortem studies \rightarrow haemorrhagic necrosis around thrombosed precapillaries
 - · petechial haemorrhages are common after the onset of convulsions
 - EEG shows diffuse slowing (δ/θ) ~ 50% of preeclamptic women ~ 75% of eclamptic women
- b. generalised oedema does occur but usually 2° to *seizures*, not a 1° event * papilloedema occurs rarely
- c. headache, visual disturbance, other focal neurological signs
- d. irritability, hyperreflexia
- e. sensitive to central depressant drugs
- f. *convulsions*
 - i. frequently have prodromal signs, but may be completely unheralded
 - ii. often intractable leading to status epilepticus
 - iii. \geq 30% occur *post-partum* * most of these within the first 48 hours
 - iv. may occur with only minimal increase in BP, cf. hypertensive encephalopathy
- g. *intracranial haemorrhage* * leading cause of maternal death (~ 50%)

Cardiovascular

- ↑ total body water a. \downarrow blood volume b. ~ 10 mild disease \sim 30-40% in severe cases \downarrow RBC mass * masked by haemoconcentration c. arteriolar vasoconstriction d. i. ↑ SVR * PVR remains ~ normal ii. \uparrow sensitivity to vasoactive drugs ↑ LVSWI iii. ~ 25% show suboptimal myocardial function \uparrow vascular permeability e.
 - i. fluid shifts from intravascular to extravascular space
 - ii. hypoproteinaemia
 - iii. generalised oedema

f. \downarrow CO

* one study suggested normal to increased, however, they used MgSO₄ first

- g. CVP / PCWP low to normal
 - i. \downarrow CVP generally correlates with the severity of hypertension
 - ii. there may be marked discrepancy between CVP & PCWP
- NB: the initial presentation of low PCWP & CI, plus high SVR & HR responds well to initial *volume expansion*, with elevation in filling pressures and CI, and a reduction in SVR & HR; subsequent infusion of hydrallazine resulted in further reduction in SVR without a reduction in PCWP (Finster)

Respiratory

- a. frequently none
- b. facial and laryngeal oedema * difficulty with *intubation*
- c. \uparrow shunt and V/Q mismatch
 - i. pulmonary arteriolar resistance is normal or low
 - ii. $\uparrow \delta P_{A-aO2}$ may occur, usually associated with a *rise* in PCWP
 - iii. represents LV dysfunction more than ARDS
- d. *aspiration* during eclamptic seizures
- e. *pulmonary oedema* common at autopsy in fatal cases

Renal

- a. \downarrow ERBF and GFR
- b. swelling of glomerular endothelial cells and luminal narrowing by *fibrinoid* deposition
- c. \uparrow glomerular permeability to large molecules
- d. *proteinuria* \rightarrow may reach nephrotic levels > 5 g/24 hrs
- e. \downarrow clearance of *uric acid*, proportional to severity of hypertension
 - i. normal ~ 0.18-0.21 mmol/l ~ 3-3.5 mg/dl
 - ii. mild PIH > 0.24 mmol/l ~ 4.0 mg/dl
 - iii. severe PIH > 0.45 mmol/l ~ 7.5 mg/dl
- f. \downarrow clearance of urea & creatinine in more severe cases ~ 30-50%
- g. *oliguria* * frequently due to *hypovolaemia* & ⁻ RBF
- h. acute renal failure requiring dialysis,
 - i. overenthusiastic hypotensive therapy
 - ii. haemoglobinuria associated with HELLP
 - iii. good prognosis if remainder of disease is appropriately managed

■ *Hepatic*

- a. hepatic swelling & epigastric pain
 - i. subcapsular haemorrhages
 - ii. ischaemic hepatic necrosis
 - iii. fibrinoid deposits in venous sinusoids
- b. spontaneous hepatic rupture * rare, but mortality 55-75%
- c. ascites
- d. HELLP * elevated liver enzymes

Coagulation

a.	thrombocytopaenia	~ 20-30% of preeclamptic patients - usually in the range 100-150,000 / mm ³ * associated <i>platelet dysfunction</i> ~ 10-25%
b.	DIC	~ 7% of all cases, more common with <i>abruption</i>
c.	HELLP	 haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, low platelets associated with a poor maternal & foetal outcome no relationship between hypertension & HELLP

NB: recent studies indicate the SBT is *not* a reliable test of clotting (Rodgers & Levin, 1990, Sem. Thrombosis Haemostasis)

Foeto-Placental Unit

- a. \downarrow uterine and placental blood flow ~ 50-70%
- b. premature placental aging with,
 - i. increased infarcts
 - ii. uterine hypertonicity
 - iii. increased sensitivity to oxytocic drugs

c. \uparrow frequency of,

i.	intrauterine growth retardation	< 25 th percentile
ii.	intrauterine foetal death	≤ 23%
iii.	premature labour	
iv.	placental abruption	~ 15x normal frequency
v.	LUSCS	

vi. neonatal hypoglycaemia & hyperbilirubinaemia

Management - General

- *NB:* the cure for preeclampsia begins with *delivery* of the foetus, early delivery has been stressed as crucial in avoiding serious sequelae, all other treatment modalities are supportive only !
- conditions which mandate the *delivery* of the foetus, regardless of the gestational age, include
 - 1. eclampsia
 - 2. acute renal failure
 - 3. HELLP syndrome
 - 4. severe persistent hypertension
 - **NB:** delay rarely improves foetal survival and is detrimental to the mother
- standard *obstetric management* includes,
 - 1. decreasing CNS irritability / control of convulsions
 - 2. blood pressure control
 - 3. improving end-organ perfusion \rightarrow urine output ~ 1 ml/kg/hr
 - 4. correction of coagulopathy

• 1. CNS Irritability

a. <u>MgSO</u>₄

i.	anticonvulsant	 * administered parenterally <i>is not</i> an anticonvulsant itself ? effect is due to potent <i>cerebral vasodilatation</i> - also blocks NMDA glutamate receptors, ?protective - cleared by the kidney, ∴ monitor level & [Cr]_{pl} 			
	• therapeutic blo	ood levels	~ 2-4	mmol/l	r-
	loading dose				(~ 3g / 70 kg)
	 maintenance 		~ 1.0-2.0	g/h	
	 ampoules 		~ 10	mmol/5 m	l (2.5g)
ii.	muscle paralysis	 NMJ blockade is a <i>linear</i> function of plasma [Mg⁺⁺] ↓ release of ACh from motor neurones ↓ the sensitivity of the motor endplate ↓ the excitability of the muscle membrane * diaphragmatic paralysis at ³ 7 mmol/l 			
iii.	cardiovascular	 * diaphragmatic paralysis at ³ 7 mmol/l -↓ SVR and ↑ CO ± reflex tachycardia -↑ conduction time → ↑PR, ↑QRS and ↑QT duration ≥ 5 mmol/l -↓ discharge rate of SA node - may abolish digitalis induced VPC's → hypotension, conduction disturbances ± CHB 			

iv.	uterine / foetal	- reduces uterine hypercontractility \rightarrow <i>tocolytic</i> - crosses the placenta & may cause <i>foetal hypotonia</i>	
othe	er anticonvulsants		
i.	diazepam	 * treatment of choice for acute seizure control ~ 5-10 mg increments until effective 	
ii.	phenytoin	- more popular for prophylaxis due to lack of sedation - side effects \rightarrow rash, nausea and blurred vision	
	• therapeutic le	vels ~ 40-100 μ mol/l	
	loading dose	~ 10 mg/kg in 100 ml, over 20 minutes + 5 mg/kg in 100 ml, 2 hours later	
	• maintenance	$\sim 200 \text{ mg po/iv q8h}$, 12 hrs post-loading	

NB: Eclampsia Trial Collaborative Group, Lancet 1995

- 1687 women with *eclampsia*, in international multicentre randomised trial
- 2 arms of 2 groups, recurrence of *convulsions*, MgSO₄ versus,
- i. diazepam $\rightarrow ~ \sim 52\%$ (p < 0.00001)
- ii. phenytoin $\rightarrow ~ 67\%$ lower (p < 0.00001)
- mortality was not significantly different for either group versus MgSO₄
- foetal wellbeing was significantly better for MgSO₄ vs. phenytoin
 - better Apgar scores at 1 minute
 - less likely to be intubated
 - less likely to be admitted to neonatal ICU

2. Control of Hypertension

b.

good data to show that CVP may not reflect PCWP and there may be associated LV dysfunction
James states that "as volume loading is frequently necessary in these patients, a CVP line represents minimum monitoring in any patient with severe PET"

• the case for PA catheters is less clear, Clark & Cotton 1988 recommended their use in,

- 1. hypertension unresponsive to conventional doses of hydrallazine
 - 2. pulmonary oedema
 - 3. oliguria unresponsive to volume challenge

NB: but the majority of patients could be managed *without* central catheterisation

• as the condition is one of vasospasm and there is usually associated volume depletion, most authorities recommend *gradual* reduction in BP to slightly *supranormal* values

• rapid, or profound reductions in MAP may have adverse effects upon both mother and foetus

• arteriolar vasodilators are the most popular agents, but provision of adequate volume expansion must be instituted *prior* to their use

• methods for controlling hypertension include,

- a. bed rest and hospitalisation
- b. avoidance of aortocaval compression
- c. adequate volume resuscitation
- d. epidural if in labour

e.	hydrallazine	 ~ 5 mg IV q20m (max ~ 10 mg) * maximal effect is in ~ 15 minutes, \ 20 minute intervals - ↑ RBF, CO, <i>HR</i> and uterine blood flow
f.	nifedipine	- 10 mg SL q20m, up to 30 mg has been recommended
g.	b-blockersesmolollabetalol	 adverse effects in foetal sheep adrenergic blockade and hypoxaemia used successfully, but caution if the foetus is premature
h.	methyldopa	 usually used for chronic hypertension long safe history in pregnancy up to 1-3 g/day in divided doses may cause drowsiness, depression & postural hypotension
i.	nitroprusside	- short-term control of refractory hypertension
j.	nitroglycerine	- predominantly a venodilator & less effective with volume loading

■ <u>3. Renal Protection</u>

- despite the presence of *oedema* and *oliguria*, the use of diuretics is not recommended
- volume expansion, arteriolar dilatation with a slightly supranormal MAP are required
- aim for a urine output ~ 1 ml/kg/hr
- the use of low dose *dopamine* has not been widely investigated in PET

• 4. Respiratory

- involvement is generally minimal
- greatest problem is oedema of the upper airway and the potential difficulty in intubation
- · pulmonary oedema is usually the result of overenthusiastic volume loading
- ARDS is *uncommon*

5. Other Systems

- *thrombocytopaenia* is common but usually mild
- requirement for platelet transfusion is very uncommon
- low grade *DIC* also rarely requires active treatment
- management of *liver dysfunction* is purely supportive
- the rare complication of liver rupture requires emergency surgery for haemorrhage control

• Anaesthetic Management

NB: the role of anaesthetic management includes,

- 1. pain relief during labour
- 2. anaesthesia for LUSCS
- 3. intensive management of life-threatening complications
- 4. consultive help in the routine obstetric management

OBSTETRIC HAEMORRHAGE

NB: major cause of maternal *mortality* significant bleeding occurs in ~ **3%** of all pregnancies

1. placental causes

- i. placenta praevia[§]
- ii. abruptio placentae[§] [§] 50-70% of all *antepartum haemorrhage*
- iii. placenta accreta / increta / percreta
- iv. retained placenta
- v. advanced ectopic pregnancy

2. *uterine & cervical causes*

- i. uterine atony
- ii. uterine rupture
- iii. uterine inversion
- iv. cervical or vaginal lacerations
 - uterine or cervical abnormalities * polyps, tumours, varicosities
- vi. trauma

3. *coagulopathy*

v.

- i. DIC
 - intrauterine foetal death
 - chorioamnionitis
 - amniotic fluid embolism
 - placental abruption
- ii. preeclampsia
- iii. HELLP syndrome
- iv. coexisting haematological disease
- v. drugs

Placenta Praevia

• implantation of the placenta in the lower uterine segment, either partially or completely overlying the cervical os, classified as *total, partial* or *marginal*

- Clark (1985) reported an overall incidence ~ 0.3%
- increased incidence with,
 - 1. advanced maternal age ~ 3x increase over 35 years
 - 2. previous LUSCS * 10% with ≥ 4 previous sections $\sim 0.26\%$ without prior section
- classically presents as *painless* vaginal bleeding & accounts for 1/3 of all third trimester bleeding
- diagnosed on routine prenatal ultrasound with \geq 95% accuracy
- maternal mortality has decreased to < 1%, but foetal mortality may be as high as 20%

Placenta Accreta

- placenta accreta, increta and percreta are conditions of *abnormal placentation*
- frequently associated with *placenta praevia*
 - 1. placenta accreta villi attach directly to the myometrium, without decidua basalis - there is *no invasion* of the myometrium
 - 2. placenta increta there is *invasion into* the myometrium
 - 3. placenta percreta there is *invasion through* the myometrium \pm invasion of adjacent structures
- incidence has been reported as high as 1:2,562 pregnancies
- aetiology is *unknown*
- predisposing factors,
 - 1. placenta praevia * incidence of ~ 5% (Clark)
 - 2. prior LUSCS * incidence of ~ 24% with 1 previous section
 - 3. prior manipulation of the uterus D&C, myomectomy, etc.
 - 4. congenital malformations of the uterus
 - 5. uterine tumours
 - 6. multiparity
 - 7. ? smoking
- the principal risk is that of *haemorrhage*
- failure of conservative management may necessitate *hysterectomy*
- diagnosis during vaginal delivery, 2° to haemorrhage, requires standard ABC management

• in the patient with placenta praevia & previous section, or in those with ultrasound evidence of placenta accreta, *regional anaesthesia* is permissible providing there is no suggestion of placenta increta or percreta

- actually difficult to tell on ultrasound, $\$ most would elect for GA

Abruptio Placentae

Def'n: premature separation of an abnormally implanted placenta, after the 20^{th} week of gestation

- the incidence varies from 0.5-2.5%, and this constitutes 1/3 of antepartum haemorrhages
- maternal mortality is < 3%, however *perinatal mortality* is high, up to 60% in some studies
 associated factors include,
 - 1. hypertensive disorders of pregnancy
 - 2. chronic hypertension
 - 3. multiparity
 - 4. uterine abnormalities
 - 5. previous abruption
 - 6. premature rupture of the membranes
- vaginal bleeding is variable & frequently underestimates the degree of total loss
- blood tracks back into the myometrium and broad ligaments \rightarrow concealed abruption
- · diagnosis is made clinically or by ultrasound

• Complications

- 1. hypotension \pm haemorrhagic shock
- coagulopathy (DIC) ~ 20-40% of severe abruptions
 pregnancy induced hypertension ~ 50% of severe abruptions
- 4. acute renal failure $\sim 1-4\%$
- 5. postpartum haemorrhage
- 6. ischaemic organic necrosis

• DIC occurs 2° to the release of *tissue thromboplastin* from necrotic placental tissue, with activation of circulating *plasminogen*

- this leads to activation of fibrinolysis and a consumptive coagulopathy,
 - 1. hypofibrinogenaemia decreased factors V and VIII
 - 2. thrombocytopaenia
 - 3. \uparrow APTT & INR
 - 4. \uparrow fibrinogen degradation products
 - 5. widespread capillary damage and increased permeability

PREMATURITY

Def'n: birth of an infant between the 20^{th} and 37^{th} weeks of gestation

distinct from a *small for gestational age* infant $\rightarrow < 10^{\text{th}}$ percentile

• the incidence ranges from 7-8% in the USA

• it accounts for ~ 80% of all *perinatal deaths*, either directly or indirectly

• morbidity & mortality tends to be *greater* than for the SGA infants

Predisposing Factors

a. maternal factors

- i. previous history of premature labour or abortion
- ii. systemic disease diabetes, hyperthyroidism, CVS disease
- iii. trauma, surgery
- iv. coitus
- v. low socioeconomic status
- vi. drug abuse smoking, cocaine, ? ETOH
- vii. general anaesthesia

b. *uterine factors*

- i. premature ROM
- ii. incompetence of the cervix
- iii. malformations, tumours, retained IUCD
- iv. overdistension polyhydramnios, multiple gestation
- c. *placental abnormalities* praevia, abruption

d. foetal problems

- i. congenital malformations
- ii. infections
- iii. growth retardation
- iv. IUD

• Obstetric Problems

- a. breech presentation ~ 25% cf. 3% normally
- b. maternal haemorrhage * associated problems
 - i. placenta praevia
 - ii. abruptio placentae
 - iii. uterine atony from residual tocolytic agents
- c. prolapsed cord / foetal distress
- d. infection
 - association of prematurity with premature ROM
 - may be obscured by *glucocorticoids* given to enhance lung maturity

• Tocolysis

• absolute contraindications,

- a. significant maternal haemorrhage
- b. acute foetal distress
- c. chorioamnionitis
- d. eclampsia / severe preeclampsia
- e. foetal anomaly incompatible with life, or IUD
- relative contraindications,
 - a. mild / moderate preeclampsia
 - b. maternal disease
 - i. cardiovascular
 - ii. endocrine uncontrolled diabetes or hyperthyroidism
 - iii. renal disease
 - c. foetal growth retardation
- indications,
 - 1. *transfer* to a high risk obstetric unit
 - 2. enhancement of foetal *lung maturity*
 - < 34 weeks production of *surfactant* by type II pneumocytes is insufficient
 - maternal glucocorticoids may decrease IRDS, mechanism unknown
 - requires 24 hours for effect & effective within 7 days of delivery
 - undesirable side-effects which may be increased by β -adrenergic tocolytics
 - i. PIH
 - ii. diabetes
 - iii. possibly infection

Premature Rupture of the Membranes

• 80-90% of such patients will proceed into premature labour within 7 days

- risk of delaying these patients is the development of *chorioamnionitis*,
 - a. 4 fold increase in
 - i. IRDS
 - ii. neonatal sepsis
 - iii. intraventricular haemorrhage
 - b. prophylactic antibiotic therapy *has* been shown to reduce these complications
 - c. tocolytic therapy is *not* more effective than expectant management
 - d. relative contraindication to administration of glucocorticoids

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- a. labour and vaginal delivery in the event of failed tocolysis
- b. elective caesarean section for maternal / foetal wellbeing
- c. emergent caesarean section for foetal distress

• in addition to the usual requirements,

- 1. to maintain maternal safety
- 2. avoidance of foetal asphyxia, and
- 3. provision of maternal comfort
 - during vaginal delivery it is important to inhibit the maternal "bearing-down" reflex, and thus a potentially traumatic delivery
 - uncontrolled, precipitous delivery increases the risk of *intracranial haemorrhage*
- the preterm infant is also less tolerant of *asphyxia*, which markedly increases the risk of,
 - 1. respiratory distress syndrome
 - 2. intraventricular haemorrhage
 - 3. necrotising enterocolitis
- · however, premature labour is associated with a higher incidence of,
 - 1. placental abruption
 - 2. placenta praevia
 - 3. prolapsed cord, and
 - 4. infection

• therefore, a trial of premature labour is frequently associated with foetal distress and the need for urgent LUSCS

Side Effects of Tocolytic Agents				
Drug	Maternal Effects	Foetal Effects		
β-agonistsanxiety, nervousness nausea and vomiting hyperglycaemia hypokalaemia metabolic (lactic) acidosis hypotension, tachycardia chest pain, tightness arrhythmias pulmonary oedema, CCF		tachycardia foetal hyperglycaemia neonatal rebound hypoglycaemia increased free fatty acids foetal asphyxia (large doses) • maternal hypotension • increased uterine resistance		
MgSO ₄	anxiety, nervousness nausea and vomiting flushing drowsiness blurred vision sensitivity to muscle relaxants pulmonary oedema, CCF	hypotonia drowsiness decreased gastric motility hypocalcaemia		
Phosphodiesterase inhibitors	tachycardia, arrhythmias narrow therapeutic index hypotension tremor nausea & vomiting hyperglycaemia hypokalaemia	tachycardia hyperglycaemia rebound hypoglycaemia		
Prostaglandin synthetase inhibitors	GIT irritation inhibition of platelet function reduction in factor XII depressed immune function	? decreased uterine blood flow		
Ethanol	CNS depression disorientation, agitation, headache nausea and vomiting hypotension gastric hypersecretion & acidity hypoglycaemia metabolic acidosis	foetal & neonatal CNS depression neonatal respiratory depression hypotonia metabolic acidosis hypoglycaemia temperature instability gastric irritation & vomiting foetal alcohol syndrome (withdrawal)		

Tocolytic Agents

- the most commonly used agents are,
 - 1. β_2 -adrenergic agonists
 - 2. MgSO₄

Beta-Adrenergic Agonists

• salbutamol, terbutaline and ritodrine are the commonly used agents

• although they are **b**₂-selective</sub>, they have significant β_1 activity which accounts for most of the undesirable effects

- tachycardia, often > 120 bpm is common
- *pulmonary oedema* £5% of patients
- cause is not completely understood, but risk factors include,
 - a. prolonged therapy with / high doses of β -agonists
 - b. pre-existing cardiac disease
 - c. anaemia
 - d. inappropriate resuscitation & overhydration
 - e. multiple gestation
 - f. hypokalaemia
 - g. sepsis
 - h. ? combined therapy with $MgSO_4$
- concurrent use of glucocorticoids is no longer thought to be a risk factor
- opinion currently favours a noncardiogenic origin, in the absence of pre-existing cardiac disease
- *hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction* is impaired during β -adrenergic therapy
- this may account for hypoxia, out of proportion to the degree of pulmonary oedema

• predominantly β -vasopressors, such as *ephedrine*, will have reduced efficacy and may exacerbate the tachycardia

• recent human studies have shown that in the setting of maternal hypotension, the use of virtually *pure a-agonists* (phenylephrine, metaraminol), *does not* produce any adverse neonatal outcome,

- 1. Apgar scores
- 2. acid-base balance
- 3. neurobehavioural examination

NB: these studies were in *term* pregnancies, still to be validated in preterm

• metabolic side-effects include,

- 1. increased glycogenolysis, lipolysis, and gluconeogenesis
- 2. *hyperglycaemia* and raised plasma insulin
 - may require additional insulin in the diabetic
 - may be exacerbated by glucocorticoids for foetal lung maturation
 - neonatal *rebound hypoglycaemia* may be severe
- 3. intracellular shift of K⁺, with *hypokalaemia*
 - normal total body stores, therefore no treatment is required
 - hyperventilation / alkalaemia will enhance hypokalaemia
 - hypoventilation / acidaemia increase arrhythmias
- myocardial ischaemia and infarction have been associated with β -adrenergic use
- however, these are exceedingly rare in the absence of heart disease

• relative *contraindications*,

- 1. significant cardiac disease AS, MS, IHSS
- 2. uncontrolled hypertension
- 3. severe PIH
- 4. unstable diabetes mellitus
- 5. hyperthyroidism
- 6. ? asthma
- 7. history of migraine headaches

Magnesium Sulphate

- decreases uterine activity by membrane and intracellular competition with $\mbox{Ca}^{\mbox{\tiny ++}}$

- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ efficacy is comparable to that of ritodrine, though many side-effects are similar,
 - a. decrease in MAP * decreased PVR
 - b. tachycardia * reflex, not direct chronotropic cf. β -agonists
 - c. depression of myocardial contractility
 - d. myocardial conduction blockade
 - e. neumomuscular junction blockade
 - i. \downarrow ACh release from motor neurone
 - ii. \downarrow sensitivity of the motor endplate to ACh
 - iii. \downarrow excitability of the muscle membrane
 - *not* reliably antagonised by administration of Ca⁺⁺
 - f. postpartum uterine atony and haemorrhage
 - g. nausea, vomiting, flushing, drowsiness and blurred vision
- toxicity is far more likely in the presence of abnormal *renal function*
- in the absence of toxic plasma levels, the CVS effects are generally *less* than the β -agonists,
 - 1. pulmonary oedema seen less frequently
 - 2. tachycardia seldom significant
 - *NB:* however, some animal work suggests that Mg⁺⁺ blunts the compensatory haemodynamic response to *haemorrhage* to a greater extent
 - \ hypotension should be treated promptly with volume / ephedrine

	Clinical Manifestations of Hypermagnesaemia			
Plasma Le	evel	Clinical Features		
2.0-4.0	mmol/l	anticonvulsant ?? sedation mild vasodilatation increased AV & <i>intraventricular conduction</i>		
~ 5.0	5.0 mmol/l loss of <i>monosynaptic reflexes</i> (DTR's) increase in PR & QRS duration hypotension respiratory centre depression			
~ 6.0	mmol/l	NMJ blockade, severe weakness		
6.0-8.0	mmol/l	respiratory paralysis		
8.0-12.0	mmol/l	cardiac arrest (asystolic)		

AMNIOTIC FLUID EMBOLISM

- rare cause of maternal mortality
- first reported by Meyer in 1926, then subsequently in animal work by Warden in 1927
- · clinical importance established by Steiner and Lushbaugh in 1941
 - a. incidence ~ 1:8,000 to 1:80,000
 - b. *mortality* $\sim 86\%$ $\sim 25-50\%$ within the first hour

c. aetiology

- i. predisposing factors
 - advanced maternal age
 - multiple pregnancies majority > 3
 - foetal macrosomia
 - short duration labour with intense contractions
 - oxytocic stimulation intact membranes

ii. associated factors

- foetal demise ~ 40%
- meconium stained liquor
- amniotomy, amniocentesis
- PIH
- placenta praevia & placental abruption ~ 50%
- LUSCS
- pregnancy with an IUCD
- uterine rupture or cervical tears

Pathophysiology & Clinical Picture

• classical descriptions are of the unheralded onset of *shock, cyanosis, & coagulopathy*, typically in a multiparous patient

• the 2 life-threatening consequences of AFE are,

1. cardiopulmonary collapse

- acute pulmonary hypertension \rightarrow cor pulmonale & RVF
- V/Q mismatch, hypoxia, hypercarbia & acidaemia, further increasing PVR
- \downarrow LV preload & LV output, with peripheral vascular failure

2. **DIC**

- aetiology disputed
- potent thromboplastic activity of amniotic fluid, deposition of fibrin clots and activation of fibrinolysis → hypofibrinogenaemia & coagulopathy
- thromboplastic activity of trophoblastic tissue may play an integral role
- toxicity of amniotic fluid is greatly dependent upon the *particulate content*
- this is especially true for meconium, ? anaphylactoid response, however,
- i. *absence* of pruritis, urticaria & bronchospasm
- ii. requires "sensitisation", evidence for which is frequently lacking

• the most significant pathological finding are those in the lungs,

- 1. pulmonary oedema ~ 70%
- 2. alveolar haemorrhage
- 3. pulmonary embolisation with amniotic materials

• prodromal symptoms of AFE include the sudden onset of,

- a. chills & shivering
- b. sweating, anxiety
- c. coughing, followed by signs of respiratory distress
- *NB*: these are followed by shock, cardiovascular collapse and convulsions

• respiratory difficulty is manifest by,

- a. cyanosis & tachypnoea*
- b. bronchospasm (?)
- c. pulmonary oedema
- **NB:** $*2^{\circ}$ to *hypoxia*, which is also the cause of the *convulsions*

• the definitive diagnosis is usually made at autopsy, however additional diagnostic aids include,

a.	CXR	 enlargement of the RA & RV prominent proximal PA (cf. embolism) pulmonary oedema (not seen in PTE, cf. the former)
b.	Lung scan	- isolated perfusion defects
c.	CVC catheter	 initially raised pressures 2° to pulmonary hypertension later pressures may be low 2° to haemorrhage
d.	FBE / Coag's	 coagulopathy & anaemia later cf. the normal procoagulant state of pregnancy

Differential Diagnosis

- a. pulmonary thromboembolism
- b. air embolism
- c. aspiration of gastric contents
- d. eclamptic convulsions
- e. local anaesthetic toxicity
- f. acute LVF
- g. cerebrovascular accident
- h. haemorrhagic shock

- more common postdelivery
- chest pain is a more common finding
- similar except for doppler / auscultation
- temporal relationship to general anaesthesia
- presence of hypertension & proteinuria
- temporal relationship & dose administered
- presence of pre-existing heart disease
- no cyanosis or coagulopathy
- abruptio placentae, placenta praevia
- ruptured uterus

Management

• no specific therapy, supportive only

- a. *respiratory*
 - i. high F_1O_2
 - ii. CPAP
 - iii. intubation & ventilation $-100\% O_2 \pm PEEP$
 - iv. treatment of bronchospasm

b. cardiovascular

- i. left uterine displacement
- ii. CVP / PCWP guided volume resuscitation
 - pulmonary oedema is variably ascribed to excessive volume therapy
- iii. inotropic support of MAP
- iv. treatment of pulmonary vasospasm ? inhaled NO

c. treatment of DIC

- i. fresh whole blood, or packed cells plus FFP
- ii. cryoprecipitate several reports of improvement (? fibronectin)
 - * fibrinogen may act only to perpetuate coagulation
- iii. platelets
- iv. heparin * controversial, not recommended
- d. other
 - i. uterine massage and oxytocic stimulants (oxytocin \pm methylergonovine)
 - PG's for control of uterine haemorrhage
 * may result in *bronchospasm* and/or *pulmonary hypertension*
 - iii. *aprotinin* for control of lysis prior to delivery
 * aprotinin doesn't cross the placenta & EACA is teratogenic

THROMBOEMBOLIC DISEASE

Incidence

- a. ~ 0.05-1.8% of pregnancies (1:50 1:2000)
- b. ~ 5x more common during pregnancy & postpartum period
- c. ~ 3-6x more common *postpartum* cf. antepartum
- d. ~ 3x more common with LUSCS cf. vaginal delivery
- e. ~ 12% risk of repeat episode in the same pregnancy
- f. ~ 5-10% risk during subsequent pregnancies

Aetiology

• three classically described factors,

- 1. vessel wall trauma
- 2. venous stasis
 - · increased venous distensibility during first trimester
 - aortocaval compression from the second trimester
 - bed rest post-partum and with complications of pregnancy

3. altered coagulation status

- \uparrow coagulation \uparrow all factors, except XI & XIII
 - \downarrow antithrombin III
- \downarrow fibrinolytic activity
- \downarrow plasminogen activators
- \uparrow soluble fibrin-fibrinogen complexes
- neither the platelet count, nor platelet adhesiveness is increased

NB: other risk factors,

- i. increased maternal age
- ii. obesity
- iii. caesarean delivery
- iv. prolonged bed rest
- v. oestrogen therapy to suppress lactation
- vi. blood group other than *type O*
- vii. * antithrombin III deficiency (autosomal dominant)

Pathophysiology

- physiological disturbance depends upon,
 - a. the size of the embolus
 - b. the site of obstruction
 - c. the presence of pre-existing cardiopulmonary disease
- clinical syndromes range from,
 - a. asymptomatic

i.

i.

- small multiple emboli traversing the pulmonary arteries
 - subsequent lysis and no adverse haemodynamic consequences
- ii. isolated small emboli producing subsegmental obstruction
 - subclinical alteration of V/Q matching
- b. chronic recurrent pulmonary emboli
 - pulmonary hypertension \pm cor pulmonale and RVF
- c. moderate-large single, or multiple emboli
 - clinically symptomatic tachycardia, dyspnoea, mild fever, chest pain
 - ii. significant V/Q mismatch hypoxaemia, \uparrow A-a gradient
 - iii. \uparrow RV afterload / \downarrow LV preload
- d. massive embolus
 - severe dyspnoea, hypoxaemia, chest pain
 - hypotension, cardiogenic shock, $RVF \pm sudden death$
- the principal physiological derangement's with *massive embolism* are,
 - a. \uparrow RV afterload
 - b. $\uparrow V/Q$ mismatch
 - i. $(\uparrow V_D / V_T) \rightarrow dyspnoea \& tachypnoea$
 - ii. $\uparrow Q_s/Q_T$
 - due to loss of *surfactant* and local mediator release
 - * *hypoxaemia* is frequently *not* totally corrected by O_2 administration
 - c. \downarrow LV preload and CO with systemic hypotension
 - *NB:* right coronary blood flow usually *increases* following PTE, due to ↑RVSWI and autoregulation

Diagnosis

• many of the clinical signs of DVT can be present in normal pregnancy

- a. *venography*
 - where PTE is suspected, is the most sensitive & specific test
 - suboptimal for detecting deep femoral or pelvic vein thromboses
 - · there may be false positives with external vein compression, or poor technique

b. *doppler sonography*

- sensitivity ~ 90% and is most useful for popliteal, femoral and pelvic thrombi
- however, far less sensitive at detecting thrombi below the knee
- because of collateral venous channels ~ 50% of small calf thrombi are missed
- c. impedance plethysmography
 - sensitivity/specificity similar to doppler
 - similarly, less effective below the popliteal vessels
- d. thermography
- e. fibringen scanning $(^{125}I^-)$ * contraindicated in pregnancy (\rightarrow foetal thyroid)
 - * also C/I in lactating mothers
- f. radionuclide venography (99m Tc) ~ 90% sensitivity
- g. lung V/Q scan
 - safe during pregnancy, though, ^{99m}Tc should be used with uterine shielding ??
 - a perfusion defect with normal ventilation is adequate for treatment
 - serious morbidity occur in ~ 2-4% of those having angiography
- h. pulmonary angiography avoided due to radiation hazard & the foetus

Clinical Presentation

• the first sign of DVT may be PTE, and the manifestations of PTE may be nonspecific or absent,

- 1. apprehension, altered sensorium
- 2. shortness of breath, dyspnoea, $cough \pm haemoptysis$
- 3. sweating, syncope, tachycardia
- 4. chest pain, substernal tightness
- 5. CXR * usually normal
 - diminished vascular markings ("cut-off" sign)
 - elevated hemidiaphragm
 - pleural effusion
- 6. ECG sinus tachycardia, other arrhythmias
 - RV strain: RAD, tall R in V_1 , rarely S_1 - Q_3 - T_3
- NB: CXR & ECG are frequently normal, their main use is to rule out other pathology

Management

- a. standard ABC in cases of massive embolism with collapse
- b. supplemental F_1O_2 to maintain a $P_{aO2} > 70$ mmHg
- c. IVT access for drug administration
 - volume expansion in the presence of hypotension
- d. relieve anxiety with morphine
- e. anticoagulation

Anticoagulation

- *heparin* is a large ($x \sim 20,000D$) mucopolysaccharide, which acts as an *ATIII cofactor*
 - 1. to increase the levels of activated **factor X inhibitor**
 - 2. to inhibit the activation of **factor IX**
 - \rightarrow inhibiting the formation of *thrombin* from prothrombin
- prevents the formation of further thrombi but *does not* lyse existing clot
- plasma activity "half-life" ~ 1.5 hrs \rightarrow better administrated by infusion
- · heparin is not absorbed from the GIT and IM injection is contraindicated
- the greatest risk is *haemorrhage* ~ 4-33% of patients
- other reactions include,
 - a. alopecia
 - b. osteoporosis
 - c. thrombocytopaenia type I & II HITS
 - d. hypoaldosteronism with prolonged therapy (? preservative)
- long-term therapy in the nonpregnant patient is usually with *warfarin*
- however, this crosses the placenta readily and has a number of adverse effects,

a.	1 st trimester	\rightarrow	teratogenetic
b.	2 nd trimester	\rightarrow	severe CNS abnormalities in ~ 3%
c.	3 rd trimester	\rightarrow	foetal bleeding either before or after delivery
		\rightarrow	overall <i>foetal mortality</i> ~ 15-30%

- if the patient is on *heparin* at the time of labour, management is simpler,
 - 1. heparin *does not* cross the placenta, thus the risk of foetal haemorrhage is low
 - 2. the half-life is short, so if delivery is not anticipated for > 4-6 hours, there is no need to reverse the anticoagulation
 - 3. in an emergency heparin can be reversed with protamine
 - approximate dose \rightarrow *protamine* ~ 1 mg / 100^U *heparin*

• because of the ease of management, some advocate the use of heparin in these patients up to the time of delivery $(150-250^{U}/kg~q12h)$

• *thrombolytic agents* are presently contraindicated during pregnancy

• tPA may be associated with a lower risk of haemorrhagic complications and may be useful under these circumstances

• surgical management is also limited during pregnancy, procedures used including,

- 1. femoral vein or vena caval interruption
- 2. thrombectomy
- 3. embolectomy * ~ 80% mortality in *nonpregnant* patients

VENOUS AIR EMBOLISM

• *precordial doppler* can detect as little as **0.1 ml** of intracardiac air & the correlation with TEE during caesarean section is $\sim 100\%$

- the *incidence* of Doppler VAE during LUSCS is reported from,
 - a. 11 to 66% for epidural anaesthesia
 - b. 28 to 71% for general anaesthesia
 - *NB*: this may occur at any stage throughout the procedure, however is most likely to occur during *hysterotomy*, or repair of hysterotomy

Aetiology

a.	pneumoperitoneum	- for laparoscopy or hysteroscopy
b.	LUSCS	- especially with exteriorisation of the uterus
c.	surgery involving major veins	* classically sitting neurosurgery
d.	central venous cannulation	
e.	pump infusions	- CPB, haemofiltration / dialysis

f. orthopaedic surgery - especially THR

Contributing Factors

a. venous pressure gradient

- gradients \leq -5 cmH₂O have been associated with significant entrainment
- exteriorisation of the uterus increases this gradient & distends collapsed veins
- \downarrow CVP,
- i. relative / absolute hypovolaemia
- ii. prolonged labour with NPO status
- iii. pregnancy induced hypertension
- iv. regional anaesthesia with inadequate volume expansion

b. *posture*

- routine positioning with lateral tilt produces a gradient \geq -10 to -15 cmH₂O
- prone back operations, sitting neurosurgery, head-up ENT, etc.

c. volume & rate of entrainment

- small volumes entrained slowly are usually asymptomatic
- i. **3** 0.5 ml/kg/min \rightarrow results in symptoms
- ii. ³ 2 ml/kg/min \rightarrow generally fatal
- d. presence of an ASD * probe patent foramen ovale in ~ 10-25%

• Associated Problems

- a. pulmonary hypertension± acute RV failure
- b. systemic hypotension and tachycardia
- c. increased alveolar dead space and P_{A-aO2} gradient
- d. hypoxia
- e. arrhythmias, cardiac arrest
- f. systemic embolisation * coronary or cerebral

NB: rapid death following massive embolisation is 2° to obstruction to *RV outflow*

Monitoring

1.	poor	r sensitivity		
	i.	oesophageal stethoscope	~ 1.8	ml/kg/min
	ii.	systemic hypotension	~ 0.7	ml/kg/min
	iii.	ECG / tachyarrhythmias	~ 0.6	ml/kg/min
2.	inter	rmediate sensitivity ~ 0.5 ml/kg/min	required for	clinical symptoms
	i.	ETCO ₂	~ 0.42	ml/kg/min
	ii.	PA pressure rise	~ 0.42	ml/kg/min
	iii.	continuous CVP	~ 0.4	ml/kg/min
3.	high	sensitivity		
	i.	doppler precordial stethoscope	~ 0.02	ml/kg/min (1.5 ml/min)
	ii.	transoesophageal echocardiography	~ 5-10x m	ore sensitive than doppler

Clinical Presentation

- massive VAE, with EMD, hypotension, hypoxaemia and cardiac arrest is *infrequent*
- only ~ 1% of maternal deaths are attributed to VAE
- the routine picture is less profound, presumably due to the slow rate of entrainment
- the aetiology of *chest pain* during LUSCS is unclear & probably multifactorial, however,
 - a. 20-50% of women *with* doppler VAE will complain of chest pain
 - b. < 2% *without* doppler VAE will complain of chest pain
 - c. $SpO_2 < 92\%$ has been reported in up to 25% with doppler VAE
 - d. *dyspnoea* is present in 20 to 40% with doppler VAE
 - **NB:** dyspnoea and $\text{SpO}_2 < 92\%$, without doppler VAE is unusual

■ Management

- for symptomatic doppler evident VAE, or strongly suspected clinical VAE,
 - a. prevent further air embolisation
 - flood the operative field with saline if practicable
 - return the uterus to the abdominal cavity
 - b. 100% F_1O_2 (ie. cease N_2O)
 - c. usual recommendation is right lateral position, however,
 ? maintain left lateral tilt, as this decreases chance of RV outflow obstruction
 - d. IV volume expansion
 - e. place a *multiorifice CVC* line and attempt to aspirate air
 - f. if cardiovascular collapse occurs \rightarrow immediate delivery of the baby
 - g. drugs inotropes / vasoconstrictors
 - selective pulmonary vasodilators
 - antiarrhythmics
 - h. others
 - i. thoracotomy
 - ii. intracardiac needle aspiration
 ** must get RV & always get a *pneumothorax*
 - *NB*: any patient who becomes *comatose*, or fails to waken following GA, should have a CT head to exclude cerebral air embolism, as prompt management with *hyperbaric oxygen* is indicated

CARDIAC DISEASE

Valvular Heart Disease

- the prevalence of heart disease during pregnancy ranges from 0.4 to 4.1%
- · surgically amenable lesions should be corrected prior to pregnancy
- patients with valvular lesions should have antibiotic prophylaxis prior to operative procedures

Mitral Valve Prolapse

- prolapse of one or more of the MV leaflets (usually *posterior*) into the LA during systole
- estimated incidence ~ 5% general population
 - \leq **20%** in pregnancy
- clinical features include,
 - a. a midsystolic snap
 - b. a late systolic, bruit best heard at the *apex*
 - c. classically thin and tall patient, who may possess other Marfanoid features
- · diagnosis is usually suspected from auscultation and confirmed by echocardiography
- aetiology is unknown, but thought to involve autosomal dominant inheritance, with reduced male expression
- few are symptomatic and even fewer are on medical therapy, usually for TIA's or frequent PCV's
- sudden death is commonly discussed but exceedingly *rare* and results from arrhythmia
- if severe these patients are managed as for mitral regurgitation (see below)

Mitral Regurgitation

- the second most common valvular anomaly during pregnancy
 - a. soft S_1 and a widely split S_2
 - b. holosystolic murmur, best heard at the apex, radiating to the axilla
- $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$ the increased blood volume of pregnancy is usually helpful for the MR patient
- in chronic MR, in contrast to acute MR,
 - a. the LA dilates to accommodate the regurgitant volume
 - b. LA stretch may result in AF
 - may precipitate *pulmonary oedema*, with a maternal mortality ~ 17%
 - may result in *systemic embolisation*
 - c. the LV dilates and hypertrophies with the LA
 - d. \uparrow LVEDP
 - e. \downarrow LVEF

• techniques which decrease afterload are preferable, as they decrease the regurgitant fraction and increase forward cardiac output

- as these patients are *preload dependent*, they require
 - a. adequate volume expansion prior to establishment of regional block
 - b. absolute avoidance of aortocaval compression
- if *general anaesthesia* is to be used, then the following principals apply,

NB: "full, fast and loose"

- a. factors decreasing the regurgitant fraction,
 - decreasing afterload
 - vasodilators
 - regional anaesthesia
- b. factors increasing the regurgitant fraction,
 - ↑ afterload
 - \uparrow SNS tone pain, hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis
 - \downarrow HR
 - N₂O
- c. volume expansion prior to induction, and prompt replacement of blood loss

Mitral Stenosis

- **NB:** this is the most common of the *rheumatic* valvular lesions in pregnancy
- diastolic pressure gradient LA-LV determined by mitral valve area & flow a.
- b. \uparrow LAP, pulmonary venous pressure \pm pulmonary oedema
- passive, reversible pulmonary hypertension & \uparrow PVR c. irreversible pulmonary hypertension later \rightarrow
- $\downarrow CO$ ↓ LV filling & *LV dysfunction* d. \propto

• causes of sudden deterioration include,

- 1. AF
- 2. fever, infection, SBE
- 3. exercise, pregnancy

Symptoms

- dyspnoea, orthopnoea, PND a.
- b. acute pulmonary oedema
- haemoptysis - may be severe c.
- d. recurrent respiratory infection
- fatigue $-\downarrow$ CO, development of PAH e.
- chest pain ~ 10% f.
- systemic thromboembolism g.

Clinical Signs

- malar flush, peripheral cyanosis a.
- $\pm AF$ b. small volume pulse
- normal JVP $\pm loss of 'a' wave$ c.
- 'tapping' apex beat (palpable 1st HS) d. heart - palpable RV impulse & loud P₂
- * 4 cardinal signs \rightarrow auscultation e.
 - i. loud S_1
 - ii. opening snap
 - mid-diastolic rumble iii. - supine \pm left lateral
 - pre-systolic accentuation iv.

Investigations

a.	ECGP mitrale, biphasic IBV hypertrophy (B)	-	± AF ± "strain"
b.	 RV hypertrophy (PA CXR enlarged LA pulmonary venous c 		- Kerley B lines
	large pulmonary outmitral valve calcification		± pulmonary oedema - lateral > AP
с.	Echocardiographyassessment of sever	ity	 MV area, leaflet thickening estimated MV gradient
	 exclusion of atrial m LA size and presence LV size and function RA/RV size & function 	ce of thromb	-
d.	 Catheterisation MV area & pressure PVR and pulmonary LV function * coronary artery ar other valvular lesion 	y hypertensionatomy	on
■ <u>Clinica</u>	l Assessment of Severity	<u>v</u>	
a.	severity of dyspnoea /ie. NYHA classifica		
b.	systolic BP and pulse v	olume	
с.	signs of PAH	- RV heav - ↑ JVP	e& loud P ₂
d.	murmur	- duration	of murmur \propto degree of stenosis

- interval between S₂-OS
- \downarrow S₂-OS interval due to higher LAP & earlier extension of valve, \therefore worse
- e. loud S₁ and OS represent *pliable valve*
- f. CXR
 - valve calcification
 - LAH, PA prominence
 - CCF
 - ? LVH implies other disease process

Treatment

Medical

1.	SBE prophylaxis
----	-----------------

2.	AF	- digoxin ± quinidine - cardioversion
3.	systemic emboli	- warfarin, heparin peripartum
4.	dyspnoea	 diuretics, fluid restriction, low Na⁺ diet ACE inhibitors

Surgery

- 1. commisurotomy
- 2. valve replacement

• Anaesthetic Considerations

• Chesley claims that the mortality of paturients with MS is equal to that of those who have never conceived

• *atrial fibrillation* is a common sequelae of MS and *does not* result in an increased mortality in either pregnant or nonpregnant patients (Sullivan & Ramanathan NEJM 1985)

NB: "full, slow and tight"

- a. primary goal is to maintain a slow HR
 - rates > 110 are poorly tolerated
 - avoid anticholinergics, sympathomimetics, vasodilators (reflex)
 - with recent onset AF consider DC cardioversion, or digoxin to control rate

b. relatively *fixed CO*

- i. maintain SVR, avoid vasodilatation
- ii. maintain preload
 - within the constraints of pulmonary congestion
 - rapid infusions may precipitate AF or acute pulmonary oedema
- c. avoid pulmonary vasoconstriction
 - hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis

AORTIC STENOSIS

a.	aetiology	- congenital bicuspid valve

- rheumatic
- calcific or degenerative

b. *pathophysiology*

i.

- $\sim 2.5 3.5 \text{ cm}^2$
- ii. LV / aortic root pressure gradient
- iii. chronic pressure overload

normal valve area

- concentric LVH \rightarrow \uparrow LV mass
- LV failure / decompensation
- iv. fixed low output state
- v. \downarrow LVEF and CO
- vi. \uparrow LVEDP \rightarrow eventually \uparrow LAP
- vii. \uparrow PCWP \rightarrow eventually pulmonary hypertension
- c. symptoms * late onset and indicate severe stenosis
 i. angina life expectancy ~ 5 yrs ~ 50% have CAD
 ii. effort syncope life expectancy ~ 3-4 yrs eventually LVF ± arrhythmias
 iii. SOBOE life expectancy 2 yrs

Physical Examination

a.	pulse	 regular if in SR slow upstroke, plateau, small volume
b.	BP	- narrow pulse pressure
с.	heart	 ↑ LV impulse + presystolic lift (S₄) sustained, basal systolic thrill harsh SEM → carotids decrease in A₂/P₂ + <i>reverse splitting</i> * normal heart size until late

NB: $AS + cardiomegaly \rightarrow AI, MI, CCF & severe end-stage disease$

• Problems

- 1. the murmur may disappear with the development of LVF
- 2. the pressure gradient is low with LVF
- 3. in the elderly
 - i. murmur is often louder at the apex / LSE
 - ii. arteriosclerosis obscures pulse changes
 - iii. other causes of LVF are common

Investigations

a.	ECG	- SR, LVH ± strain ~ 10% LBBB
b.	CXR	 normal heart size convex LV border dilated ascending aorta (post-stenotic) valve calcification
c.	Echo	 AV disorganisation, LVH LV size and contraction LA size <i>not</i> good at quantifying severity
d.	Catheterisation	assessment of LV function and other valvescoronary anatomy

Catheter	AV gradient	AV area
normal	~ 0 mmHg	$2.5-3.5 \text{ cm}^2$
mild	0-25 mmHg	$1.2-2.0 \text{ cm}^2$
moderate	25-50 mmHg	$0.8-1.2 \text{ cm}^2$
severe	> 50 mmHg	$< 0.8 \text{ cm}^2$

Medical Treatment

- 1. SBE prophylaxis
- 2. digoxin & diuretics for LVF
- 3. balloon dilatation
- 4. vasodilators are *contraindicated*, except in severe LVF
- 5. cardioversion for sudden onset AF

• Anaesthetic Considerations

NB: ''full, normal rate & tight''

• these patients tolerate the increase in plasma catecholamines better than MS/MI patients

• some will use a slow onset epidural block, though, decreases in afterload are contraindicated

• spinal anaesthesia remains contraindicated

• *hypotension* should be treated aggressively, using predominantly α_1 -agonists (metaraminol) rather than ephedrine

- some recommend GA using thiopentone/volatile/N $_2O$ /vecuronium

• irrespective of the technique used, the following are relevant,

- a. good IV access * 2 x 16G or larger cannulae
- b. ECG with $II + V_5$ to monitor for *ischaemia*

c.	prevent ischaemia	 * avoid AF, loss of atrial contribution to LV filling - avoid tachycardia/bradycardia - avoid decrease SVR
d.	maintain	- <i>sinus rhythm</i> , HR ~ 70-80 bpm - preload and SVR

Aortic Regurgitation		
	Acute	Chronic
Aetiology:	 SBE aortic dissection traumatic 	 rheumatic Marfan's SBE syphilis RA, psoriasis, Reiter's UC, Crohn's, ankylosing sp. myxomatous degeneration
Symptoms:	 abrupt onset pulmonary oedema cardiogenic shock 	 asymptomatic period palpitations fatigue, SOBOE angina ~ 5-10%
Signs:	 rapid low volume pulse hypotension <i>normal</i> heart size¹ soft or absent S₁ loud S₃ EDM (soft) 	 'water hammer' pulse low diastolic pressure LV enlargement decrescendo DM at LSE ESM with high CO apical MDM (Austin Flint)
ECG:	• normal ± ischaemia	• LVH
CXR:	 LVF, pulmonary oedema dilated aorta	increased LV & aortic shadowpulmonary oedema late

• predominance of AI / AS determined clinically by,

- 1. pulse characteristic
- 2. pulse pressure
- 3. heart size

• clinical severity is determined by,

- a. pulse character bounding, collapsing, bisferens
- b. BP systolic > 140 & diastolic < 60
- c. cardiomegaly
- d. LV heave
- e. Austin-Flint murmur
- f. ECG LVH & strain
- g. loudness of the murmur is *not* a useful guide
- h. assessment of severity is via *echocardiography* and *catheterisation*

• Anaesthetic Management

NB: ''full, dilated and fast''

- a. maintain a HR > 80 bpm, with a low SVR
- b. avoid bradycardia & vasoconstriction
- c. regional anaesthesia, with sympathetic blockade, is the technique of choice
- d. if hypotension develops, *ephedrine* is the agent of choice
 - \rightarrow \uparrow HR & \uparrow vascular tone

IDIOPATHIC HYPERTROPHIC SUBAORTIC STENOSIS

• Features

- a. hypertrophic cardiomyopathy
- b. marked asymmetrical septal hypertrophy
- c. autosomal dominant inheritance ~ 50% familial

Pathophysiology

- a. anatomical septal hypertrophy
- b. marked \downarrow LV compliance
- c. \uparrow LAP
- d. hypercontractile LV
- e. dynamic subaortic muscular stenosis
- f. systolic anterior motion of anterior MV leaflet \pm occasionally with MR

Symptoms

- a. exertional angina
- b. effort syncope
- c. palpitations
- d. SOBOE
- e. sudden death

• Clinical Signs

- a. sharp upstroke, often bifid pulse
- b. ESM at the LSE and apex \rightarrow \uparrow by valsalva manoeuvre
- c. MR in 50%
- d. normal S_1 and normal or split S_2
- e. $\pm S_3$ and S_4

• Complications

- a. sudden death, syncope
- b. arrhythmias
- c. LVF *murmur decreases markedly
- d. angina

• Exacerbating Factors

- a. \uparrow contractility
- b. \downarrow preload
- c. \downarrow afterload

Factors Decreasing Dynamic Obstruction

- a. \downarrow contractility
- b. \uparrow preload
- c. \uparrow afterload

Investigations

a.	ECG	 LVH + strain changes septal Q-waves simulate AMI ± LA hypertrophy
b.	CXR	- often no LVF or cardiomegaly
c.	Echo	 - anterior septal hypertrophy - ratio of septum:free wall ≥ 1.5:1 ± increase in size of LA

■ <u>Treatment</u>

- a. β -adrenergic blockade
 - · usually administered to all pregnant patients chronically
 - reduce contractility, decrease outflow obstruction
 - the slower HR allows increased diastolic filling which increases the LVEF
- b. Ca⁺⁺ entry blockers
- c. ? diuretics
- d. management of arrhythmias * amiodarone *not* digoxin
- e. partial surgical resection of the septum

• Anaesthetic Considerations

as for MS & AS, Ostheimer believes slow onset epidural anaesthesia, instituted early in labour is not contraindicated, cf. spinal anaesthesia
general anaesthesia considerations are,

NB: "full, slow and tight"

- a. SBE prophylaxis
- b. avoid AF, tachycardia
 - falls in venous return or SVR
 - increases in contractility
- c. maintain slow HR, low contractility - high venous return & high SVR

ARRHYTHMIAS

• pregnancy is associated with an increased incidence of *benign arrhythmias* (PAC's / PVC's)

• investigation should focus on contributing factors, coexisting cardiac disease and the patient's haemodynamic status

Guide to Antiarrhythmics in Pregnancy				
Drug	Route	Application	Use in Pregnancy	Comments
Lignocaine	IV	VT, VF digoxin toxicity	safe	 toxic doses and foetal acidosis → accumulation and neonatal CVS depression
Quinidine	oral	PAT	relatively safe	 high doses may lead to premature labour rarely neonatal thrombocytopaenia
Procainamide	oral, IV	termination & prophylaxis in PAT	relatively safe	 maternal ANF & "lupus" syndrome chronically
Phenytoin	oral, IV	digoxin toxicity resistant VF/VT	not recommended ? OK acutely for digoxin toxicity	 "foetal hydantoin syndrome" bleeding disorders
Amiodarone	oral, IV	SVT, VT, VF	not recommended	
Verapamil	oral, IV	SVT, chronic AF	probably safe	• IV may cause hypotension & foetal distress
Digoxin	oral, IV	SVT, chronic AF	safe	monitor plasma levelsadjust dose with quinidine
Propranolol	oral, IV	atrial & ventricular tachyarrhythmias, chronic AF	relatively safe	 chronicly associated with IUGR, premature labour neonatal hypoglycaemia bradycardia respiratory depression

Sinus Arrhythmias

• HR normally increases 10-20% during pregnancy

• in the absence of hypoxia, hypotension, anaemia, or fever, tachycardia requires no therapy

• bradycardia is rare in pregnancy in the absence of organic cardiac disease

• other underlying conditions include hypothyroidism, coronary artery disease, cardiomyopathy, or drug effects

Supraventricular Tachycardias

a. premature atrial contractions

- increased in pregnancy & more likely to cause symptoms of anxiety etc.
- usually benign, often related to stress, fatigue, caffeine or alcohol consumption
- in rheumatic heart disease they may herald the onset of atrial flutter / fibrillation
- b. *paroxysmal atrial tachycardia* ± block
 - rapid reentry rhythm, beginning & terminating with a PAC
 - HR ranges from 140-220 bpm
 - increased susceptibility in pregnancy, or increased frequency of paroxysms
 - usually well tolerated haemodynamically, unless underlying CVS disease
 - sinus massage may help differentiate from,
 - i. sinus tachycardia no effect or gradual slowing
 - ii. flutter with 2:1 block increased degree of block
 - massage may be therapeutic in PAT converting the rhythm to sinus
 - R_x adenosine, edrophonium, metaraminol, digoxin, verapamil, β -blockade
 - PAT + block = *digoxin toxicity* \rightarrow check levels and treat hypokalaemia

c. multifocal atrial tachycardia

d. atrial flutter

- uncommon in pregnancy
- flutter waves ~ 220-340 bpm, with ventricular response ~ 150 bpm
- hyperthyroidism, chronic pulmonary disease & organic heart disease are common
- therapy for the underlying condition and slowing the ventricular rate
- R_x digoxin, verapamil, quinidine, procainamide

e. atrial fibrillation

- rare in pregnancy, except in patients with,
- i. mitral valve disease
- ii. cardiomyopathy
- iii. IHD
- iv. chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, pulmonary embolism
- v. hyperthyroidism
- ventricular rates ~ 140-200 untreated and 90-110 in chronic cases
- with chronic cases, left atrial thombus and systemic *embolism* is a major risk
- anticoagulation should be considered in these patients with heparin (not warfarin)
- R_x digoxin, verapamil, DC cardioversion for acute onset or if unstable

Ventricular Arrhythmia's

a. premature ventricular contractions

- isolated, asymptomatic PVC's require no therapy
- symptomatic PVC's in patients without underlying CVS disease are best managed by removal of precipitating factors, such as alcohol or caffeine
- echocardiography to rule-out mitral valve prolapse or asymmetrical septal hypertrophy
- in the presence of underlying CVS disease, PVC's may herald the onset of LVF

b. ventricular tachycardia

- rare in pregnancy, but does occur more frequently in those with frequent PVC's
- usually have underlying CVS disease, IHD, mitral valve disease, cardiomyopathy, valvular heart disease, mitral valve prolapse, asymmetrical septal hypertrophy, congenital long QT syndrome
- $R_x = DC$ cardioversion if unstable, lignocaine for stable, slower patients bretylium and phenytoin are second line agents correction of underlying abnormalities (hypo-K⁺/Mg⁺⁺, hypoxia) quinidine or procainamide are used for recurrent or chronic VT

c. ventricular fibrillation

- though rare, this is the most common cause of maternal death
- R_x = immediate DC cardioversion & advanced life support failure to respond mandates *immediate caesarean section*
- both cardioversion and defibrillation have been used successfully in pregnancy
- other than transient foetal arrhythmias, foetal outcomes have been good
- upward & lateral displacement of the mediastinum requires more lateral paddle placement

Conduction Abnormalities

Bundle Branch Blocks

• are rare in pregnancy, right being more common than left

• usually secondary to underlying CVS disease,

- a. cardiomyopathy
- b. coronary artery disease
- c. valvular heart disease

• in the absence of underlying disease, no specific therapy is required

• Wolff-Parkinson White Syndrome

- characterised by a short PR interval, prolonged QRS and a δ -wave

· these patients are more likely to experience arrhythmias during pregnancy

• usually reentrant rhythms, ventricular rates up to 200 bpm, through an aberrant pathway (bundle of Kent most common)

NB: $R_x = DCCV$ for unstable rhythms procainamide & β-blockers for chronic therapy

• *digoxin* may increase conduction through the aberrant pathway & is contraindicated

Atrio-Ventricular Block

- 1. **1st Degree** = prolonged PR interval (> 0.20 s) * requires no specific therapy
 - i. transient due to vagal tone
 - ii. secondary to drugs digoxin, β -blockers
 - iii. AV nodal disease
- 2. 2nd Degree
 - i. Mobitz I = progressive lengthening PR interval, followed by a dropped beat
 - caused by disease *within* the AV node
 - rarely causes significant bradycardia, or progresses to higher degree block
 - · associated with digoxin, increased vagal tone, inferior MI, or myocarditis
 - requires no specific therapy
 - ii. **Mobitz II** = fixed PR interval (long) with regular dropped beats
 - caused by disease *below* the AV node
 - ventricular rates can be quite slow, with dyspnoea, syncope & fatigue
 - frequently progresses to a higher level of block
 - permanent pacemaker insertion is indicated
- 3. 3^{rd} Degree = complete AV dissociation
 - ventricular rates are frequently 40-50 bpm
 - rare in women of childbearing age
 - usually associated with,
 - i. rheumatic heart disease
 - ii. inferior MI
 - iii. acute myocarditis
 - iv. congenital heart block *often have associated VSD
 - R_x = permanent pacemaker insertion

CONGENITAL HEART DISEASE

Left to Right Shunts

• common causes are ASD, VSD and PDA

- all result in *increased* pulmonary blood flow, for as long as left heart pressures exceed right
- eventually results in progressive pulmonary hypertension, RVH and failure

• pregnancy related increases in blood volume, HR and CO may be tolerated with small shunts

• progression to $R \rightarrow L$ shunt, *Eisenmenger's complex*, may be exacerbated by the decrease in SVR seen in pregnancy

• Anaesthetic Considerations

	a.	basel	ine investigations	- FBE, MBA ₂₀
				- ECG, CXR, and echocardiogram
	b.	SBE	prophylaxis	
	c.	IV fl	uid precautions	* paradoxical embolism
	d.	moni	toring	
		i.	ECG	- prone to arrhythmias, especially ASD
		ii.	SpO ₂	- all lesions, but esp. those at risk of shunt reversal
		iii.	IABP	* low threshold, any symptomatic patient
		iv.	PA catheter	- evidence of pulmonary hypertension
				- symptomatic CCF
				- shunt reversal
				?? no data would be interpretable
	e.	maintain preload & afterload		erload - volume preloading where required - prompt replacement of blood loss - avoidance of aortocaval compression
	C			*
	f.	avoic	l raised PVR	* avoid hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis
• for labour and delivery, CEA may be employed, however,				
for moour and derivery, CLAT may be employed, nowever,				

- 1. cautious volume loading should be employed
- 2. loss of resistance should employ *saline*, not air
- 3. the sensory level should be raised slowly, and
- 4. hypotension should be aggressively treated α_1 -agonists preferably

Right to Left Shunts

· commonly include tetralogy of Fallot, transposition of the great arteries, tricuspid atresia

• most of these will have been surgically corrected

• most common $R \rightarrow L$ shunt in the childbearing years is $L \rightarrow R$ with Eisenmenger's syndrome

• many patients who have had a "functional" repair with no residual symptoms will tolerate pregnancy with minimal increased risk

• for these patients endocarditis prophylaxis is the principal concern

· uncorrected, or "palliated" patients, are at high risk and have an increased morbidity / mortality

• the decrease in SVR, which may be maximal immediately postpartum, increases shunt flow

• stress and pain with labour may lead to increases in PVR

• Anaesthetic Considerations

a.	baseline investigations	- FBE, MBA ₂₀ - ECG, CXR, and echocardiogram
b.	endocarditis prophylaxis	
c.	IV fluid precautions	* paradoxical embolism
d.	monitoring i. ECG, SpO ₂	× 1 / 11
	ii. IABP & CVP	* almost all cases
e.	maintain preload & afterload	 volume preloading where required prompt replacement of blood loss avoidance of aortocaval compression * left uterine displacement
f.	supplemental O ₂	- but minimal effect with large shunt (> 30%)
g.	avoid raised PVR	* avoid hypoxia, hypercarbia, acidosis

• there is controversy over both pain relief during labour and anaesthesia for operative delivery

• if CEA is employed, the same considerations cf. $L \rightarrow R$ shunts apply, however, *any* decrease in SVR may be detrimental

• for labour, local / opioid mixtures are preferable due to the lesser sympathetic blockade

• any evidence of hypotension should be treated with α_1 -agonists (metaraminol)

• if general anaesthesia is chosen, then the use of volatile agents should be limited

• usual rapid sequence induction may be poorly tolerated, and a carefully performed regional technique may be safer despite the theoretical problems with afterload

COARCTATION OF THE AORTA

- usually located just *distal* to the left subclavian artery
- · associated conditions include cerebral aneurysms and other cardiac conditions
- most will have been surgically corrected prior to pregnancy, however in uncorrected lesions,
 - 1. maternal mortality ~ 3-9%
 - 2. foetal mortality $\sim 20\%$

• cardiac output is rate limited, and although bradycardia is poorly tolerated, tachycardia may also result in LV decompensation

- due to the limited SV, the \uparrow VO₂ of pregnancy can only be met by an \uparrow HR
- the progressive decrease in SVR may be poorly tolerated due to reflex tachycardia & CCF

• *aortic rupture* & dissection are possible distal to the stenosis, due to increased turbulent flow

• labour and delivery do not appear to increase the chance of rupture, although alterations of aortic anatomy have been documented in pregnancy

• most reported deaths from rupture have occurred *prior* to labour / delivery

· patients with surgically corrected lesions may undergo labour and delivery without increased risk

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- a. maintain "normal" HR & SVR
- b. PA catheter and IABP monitoring
 - patients with symptoms of CCF or aneurysmal dilatation of the aorta
 - IABP pre & post-stenosis if severe disease
- c. if a regional technique is chosen, then decreases in afterload and reflex increases in HR *must* be avoided

MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION

- in normal pregnancy this is a rare ~ 84 reported cases since 1922
- this corresponds to an incidence ~ 1:10,000
- the coronary anatomy of 30% of these cases was delineated, either angiographically or at PM,
 - a. thrombus formation & spasm are the 1° cause of AMI in pregnancy
 - b. atherosclerosis found in ~ 40% but not severe disease
 - c. AMI during pregnancy \rightarrow mortality $\geq 30\%$

• Factors Affecting Risk

a.	↑ maternal <i>age</i>	elevated cholesterolhypertensionwork related stress
b.	\uparrow in women <i>smoking</i>	? decreasing recently - accentuates hypercoagulable state

- c. *drug abuse* cocaine & coronary spasm
- d. cardiorespiratory changes of pregnancy
 - most changes are maximal from 32 weeks on & this corresponds with \uparrow risk
 - majority of MI's occur in the third trimester & death is twice as likely
 - i. \uparrow demand
 - \uparrow CO, HR, blood volume and VO₂
 - stress of labour \rightarrow CO may be 2-3x nonpregnant levels
 - ii. \downarrow supply
 - $\uparrow Q_s$ and arterial *desaturation*
 - \downarrow FRC & IRV decreases reserve
 - chronic mild hyperventilation & \uparrow 2,3-DPG with *right shift*
 - \downarrow SVR \rightarrow \downarrow mean diastolic BP and LV perfusion pressure
 - thrombus formation 2° to the *hypercoagulable* state of pregnancy
 - coronary spasm 2° to *renin* release from the chorion during ischaemia

Medical Management

- a. relieve ongoing ischaemia and limit extension of infarction
 - continuous NIBP/IABP, SpO_2 and foetal heart monitoring
 - maximise oxygenation
 - Ca⁺⁺ blockers, nitrates, β -blockers & opioids have *no* adverse foetal effects
 - Ca⁺⁺ blockers are especially useful due to the *vasospastic* component
 - cardioselective β -blockers are associated with fewer adverse foetal effects

- b. manage complications of AMI *especially arrhythmias, CCF
 - CCF is best managed with afterload reduction
 - *captopril* may be teratogenic & limited experience precludes routine use
 - digoxin is safe during pregnancy & first choice for SVT's
 - SNP is relatively contraindicated due to potential *thiocyanate* toxicity
 - lignocaine accumulates in the foetus but no lasting adverse effects demonstrated

c. anticoagulation

- i. low dose *heparin* for all patients
- ii. prevention of systemic emboli -
 - large anterior infarcts
 - CKMB ≥ 160
 - CPK ≥ 8 times normal
 - presence of AF or ventricular aneurysm
- d. *thrombolytic therapy* the role has not been established
- e. *percutaneous angioplasty* or surgical revascularisation
 - only if there is ongoing ischaemia and a large segment of myocardium is at risk

f. caesarean delivery

- any ongoing foetal hypoxia unresponsive to resuscitative measures
- balance between,
- i. avoiding the immediate 2 week post-infarct period, due to the risk of arrhythmias & haemodynamic instability, and
- ii. the stresses of pregnancy, with the risk of rupture, aneurysm etc.

• Anaesthetic Management

- a. maximise myocardial O₂ supply / demand
- b. avoid tachycardia, hypotension, hypertension
 - pain, anxiety, shivering
- c. monitoring ECG, SpO_2 , NIBP/IABP, CVC \pm PA catheter
- d. regional analgesia / anaesthesia
 - decreased LV afterload / preload
 - · blocks cardioaccelerator fibres & inhibits sympathetically mediated vasospasm
 - decreases the surgical stress response & avoids the stress of intubation
 - avoids the problems of a high dose opioid GA
- e. high dose opioid general anaesthesia
 - requires prolonged intubation of both mother & infant
 - usually restricted for decompensated patient, or those with mixed valvular lesions in addition to AMI
 - in unstable patients, retaining the ability to manipulate SVR may provide for greater haemodynamic stability
 - control of ventilation may maximise VO₂ and remove pharmacological constraints

ASTHMA

- a. incidence ~ 1:20 of general population
 - ~ 1% of pregnant women
 - ~ 10-15% of these will require hospitalisation
 - $\sim 50\%$ will have no change in their asthma with pregnancy
 - ~ 25% will improve & 25% worsen
- b. conditions associated with maternal asthma
 - preterm delivery, low birthweight infants & perinatal death occur more frequently
 - haemorrhage, PIH, requirement for induced labour also more common
- c. factors which affect asthma in pregnancy
 - \downarrow FRC ~ 20%
 - \uparrow VO₂
 - \uparrow progesterone \uparrow RR & MV
 - \pm bronchodilatation

Management

- *NB:* 1. the aim of therapy is to prevent bronchospastic episodes & the subsequent maternal and foetal hypoxia
 - 2. although some drugs may have adverse effects upon the foetus, there is generally *less risk* than if exposed to repeated episodes of *hypoxia*

• **b**-Sympathomimetics

- little data relating to teratogenicity
- high doses used for *tocolysis* may result in tachycardia, hypotension, & pulmonary oedema

• *albuterol* has been associated with an increased incidence of uterine haemorrhage during spontaneous abortion

• Steroids

- safety is undetermined
- some studies showing an association with,
 - 1. stillbirth, IUGR
 - 2. cleft palate

NB: others show no such association

- the systemic effects of *inhaled steroids* are minimal in nonpregnant patients
- if systemic steroids are required, then use the minimal effective dose, or alternate day therapy

• the mechanism of action is believed to be *direct bronchodilatation*, in addition to inhibition of synthesis of chemical mediators of inflammation

• Theophylline

- narrow therapeutic range, .: need to monitor & difficulty maintaining therapeutic plasma levels
- clearance is unchanged, or *reduced* in pregnancy
- no apparent teratogenic side effects
- potent tocolytic and may *prolong labour*
- · crosses the placenta easily and may result in,
 - a. \downarrow foetal HR variability
 - b. transient tachycardia in the newborn $\sim 10\%$ even with normal plasma levels

• the elimination half-life is prolonged in neonates

• Cromolyn Sodium

• not a bronchodilator & not efficacious in all patients

• difficult to predict those patients who will benefit from use, however, no adverse effects have been observed during pregnancy

Antihistamines

• in premature infants, there is a strong association with *retrolental fibroplasia* & maternal antihistamine use in the last 2 weeks of pregnancy

ENDOCRINE DISEASE

Thyroid Disease

NB: this is one of the most common endocrine disorders of pregnancy

Nontoxic Goitre

a.	 may increase in size due to relative <i>iodine deficiency</i> ↑ GFR and renal excretion 		
b.	clinical manifestations	- dyspnoea, altered phonation, dysphagia	
c.	anaesthesia	* potential for intubation difficulty - regional anaesthesia by choice	

Hyperthyroidism

a.	aetiology	 Graves' disease, or <i>diffuse toxic goitre</i> most common toxic nodular goitre, toxic multinodular goitre hydatidiform moles, choriocarcinoma
b.	manifestations	 * usual signs frequently seen in euthyroid patients - tachycardia, systolic ejection murmur - heat intolerance, increased skin temperature - diarrhoea, nervousness, weight loss (obscured by pregnancy) - eye changes; exophthalmos, lid lag / retraction - <i>hyperemesis</i> gravidarum may be the 1st sign
c.	investigations	 difficult as oestrogen increases <i>thyroxine binding globulin</i> plasma thyroxine elevated & T₃-uptake in hypothyroid range

Anaesthesia

- elective surgery should be postponed until rendered *euthyroid*
- if hyperthyroid, avoid sympathomimetic agents & ensure an adequate depth of anaesthesia

• plasma catecholamines are *not* increased and the circulatory response is not due to increased sensitivity, however, they will exacerbate changes

- · adequate premedication, ie. a benzodiazepine, is desirable
- · anticholinergic agents should be avoided due to tachycardia & inhibition of heat loss
- the thiobarbiturates have antithyroid properties & are OK for induction, though, the antithyroid effect has not been demonstrated clinically
- · ketamine and pancuronium are generally contraindicated
- CEA has the advantage of blocking adrenal and cardiac sympathetic innervation
- a potential problem is hypotension requiring pharmacological support

• superficial and deep cervical plexus blockade, combined with local infiltration is useful for thyroid surgery in the pregnant patient

- however, the addition of adrenaline may result in systemic effects
- β -blockers are generally useful for controlling the manifestations during surgery

- the increased VO_2 above the normal pregnant state further complicates the reduction in FRC & tendency to arterial desaturation

Thyroid Storm

a.	manifestations	 hyperpyrexia, tachycardia, AF, CVS instability ± collapse severe dehydration, anxiety, altered consciousness * may mimic MH
b.	anaesthesia	- same cf. hyperthyroidism

Hypothyroidism

a.	aetiology	 rare in term pregnancy associated with an increase in <i>spontaneous abortion</i> usually <i>iatrogenic</i>, surgery or radioactive iodine therapy
b.	manifestations	 fatigue, cold intolerance, cool dry skin, coarse hair hoarseness, constipation delayed DTR's, decreased mentation oedema, cardiomegaly, CCF, pleural ± pericardial effusions mild anaemia, hypercholesterolaemia, accelerated atherosclerosis low voltages & sinus bradycardia on ECG

Anaesthesia

- more sensitive to opioids, sedatives and anaesthetic agents
- hypoxic ventilatory drive is diminished
- · hypercapnic ventilatory drive is decreased in myxoedema coma, though not in hypothyroidism
- these factors may combine to predispose to *respiratory failure*
- metabolism of drugs, especially opioids is delayed

• the bradycardia, decreased contractility & CO delay induction with IV agents but speed induction with volatiles

• typically have reduced intravascular volume, therefore are at greater risk of hypotension from blood loss or sympathectomy

- thus prehydration is advised & ephedrine is useful for treating hypotension
- NMJ blockade may be prolonged with standard doses
- they are prone to develop hypothermia
- impaired free water clearance may result in hyponatraemia
- hypoglycaemia may develop 2° to thyroid hormone replacement

DIABETES

NB: this is actually the most common medical problem encountered in pregnancy

Pathophysiology

a.	placental insufficiency	 → major problem ~ 35-45% decrease blood flow
		- decrease worse with poor control (high HbA_{lc})
b.	HbA _{1c}	- poor carrier of oxygen - maternal P_{aO2} (? C_{aO2}) inversely related to levels
c.	ketoacidosis	 now a rare entity with good perinatal control remains a significant cause of neonatal mortality uncontrolled infection, steroids & β-mimetics for prematurity

- d. susceptibility to infection
- e. accelerated atherosclerosis
- f. autonomic neuropathy
- g. associated conditions
 - i. pregnancy induced hypertension
 - ii. premature labour
 - iii. abruptio placentae
 - iv. foetal macrosomia
 - v. major foetal congenital malformations
 - vi. rebound neonatal hypoglycaemia

	Classification*
Class A	 abnormal CHO tolerance nonpregnant no insulin requirement before / during pregnancy
Class B	• duration of diabetes < 10 years
Class C	• duration of diabetes 10-20 years
Class D	 duration of diabetes > 20 years
Class F	• associated with diabetic <i>nephropathy</i>
Class T	• associated with <i>renal transplant</i>
Class R	• associated with <i>retinitis proliferans</i>
Class H	• requiring insulin and associated with coronary artery disease
	* modified from White

- Datta & Brown (1977) found a higher incidence of foetal acidosis in infants of diabetic mothers
 in a subsequent study by Datta *et al.* using CEA, *foetal acidosis* was found to relate to both,
 - 1. the severity of the *diabetes*
 - 2. the duration and severity of *hypotension*
- the generation of foetal acidosis is multifactorial,
 - a. increased lactate production from the hypoxic placenta
 - b. increased placental glycogen $\rightarrow \uparrow$ lactate production
 - c. hyperglycaemia, in the presence of hypoxia further increases lactate production
 - d. foetal hyperglycaemia may be associated with an increased O_2 utilisation
- in 1982, Datta et al. repeated their study, using spinal anaesthesia, plus,
 - 1. tightly controlled maternal BSL levels * 80-120 mg/dl
 - 2. non-dextrose containing volume expansion Hartmann's solution
 - 3. aggressive management of hypotension -MAP > 100 mmHg
 - *NB*: neonatal pH's *did not* differ significantly from non-diabetic groups

• for general anaesthesia, there are a number of important factors,

- 1. increased *gastric stasis*
- 2. autonomic neuropathy
- 3. "stiff-joint syndrome" in juvenile onset diabetics
- 4. decreased insulin requirement immediately postoperativelydetermination of BSL's in recovery

HEPATIC DISEASE IN PREGNANCY

NB: the most common cause of hepatic dysfunction in pregnancy is viral hepatitis

• Cholestasis Of Pregnancy

- intrahepatic cholestasis with deposition of bile acids in the skin & pruritis
- ? increased sensitivity to bile acids 2° to *oestrogen* production
- increased risk of *prematurity* (~ 50% \uparrow) and foetal death
- foetal distress may occur in up to 30%, with a caesarean rate of 30-60%
- clinical manifestations include,
 - a. *pruritis* classical presenting symptom, usually 3rd trimester involving the palms, soles of the feet and the trunk
 - b. dark urine, light stools & mild jaundice
 - c. *prothrombin time* is usually normal
 - may be increased with vitamin K malabsorption
 - this may occur 2° to *cholestyramine* used to alleviate the jaundice
 - d. increased risk of *postpartum haemorrhage*

• Acute Fatty Liver Of Pregnancy

- aetiology is unknown, but there may be some link to *tetracyclines*
- in the untreated patient maternal & foetal morbidity / mortality ~ 80-90%
- immediate delivery has reduced *maternal mortality* ~ 10-33%
- foetal mortality remains high due to a high incidence of stillbirths
- untreated the disease may progress to,
 - a. fulminant hepatic failure & encephalopathy
 - b. DIC with uncontrolled GIT bleeding
 - c. death

• the incidence is higher in *young primiparas* giving birth to twins or male infants

- typically presents between the 36-40th weeks of gestation,
 - a. headache, fatigue, malaise
 - b. diffuse, or right upper quadrant, abdominal pain & severe persistent vomiting
 - c. jaundice & fever $\sim 50\%$
 - d. mild hypertension & peripheral oedema suggest PIH
 - e. there is usually evidence of DIC
 - f. plasma electrolyte & glucose abnormalities
 - g. encephalopathy & coma occur late

• Hepatic Involvement in Other Conditions

- 1. PIH, preeclampsia, eclampsia ~ 50% abnormal LFT's
- 2. HELLP syndrome

RENAL DISEASE

• normal physiological changes in pregnancy,

- a. \uparrow RBF & GFR ~ 50%
- b. \downarrow BUN & creatinine \propto GFR & protein uptake across the placenta
- c. \uparrow tubular reabsorption \propto GFR \rightarrow maintains water & sodium balance
 - however, commonly see glycosuria, amino-aciduria & proteinuria
 - serum *uric acid* levels decrease significantly in normal pregnancy & are a sensitive marker of *tubular function*
- d. dilatation of the collecting system extends to the pelvic brim
- in the absence of associated factors, such as hypertension or proteinuria,
 - a. creatinine

	i.	fema	le	~ 45	-95	µmol/l
	ii.	pregi	nancy	~ 30	-80	µmol/l
b.	creat	tinine	< 140 µmo	1/1	- no a	adverse effect
c.	creat	tinine	> 200 µmo	1/1	~ 20	ecreases the likelihood of conception 0% deliver prior to 36 weeks stillbirths, IUGR, neonatal deaths

NB: 1. levels > 200 μ mol/l may be associated with a decrease in maternal renal function which does *not reverse* after the pregnancy

2. the presence of *hypertension* may be the most important determinant of maternal & foetal outcome

3. the majority of renal disease occurs in females after their childbearing years, however, there are a number of conditions which may affect young females

• Glomerular Disease

- may result from infection, inflammation, or systemic diseases such as SLE or diabetes
- frequently accompanied by hypertension & proteinuria
- associated incidence of *preeclampsia* ~ 50%
- nehprotic syndrome commonly results from glomerular disease
- however, the commonest cause of this de novo in pregnancy is preeclampsia
- hypertension is the single most common medical complication of pregnancy
- concurrent hypertension may result in further deterioration of renal function
- diastolic pressures > 85 mmHg require differentiation, though, this may be difficult

• Acute Renal Failure

- incidence ~ 1:10,000
- usually related to late complications of pregnancy,
 - a. maternal haemorrhage placental abruption, placenta praevia, other causes
 - b. preeclampsia / eclampsia
 - c. postpartum HUS
 - d. amniotic fluid embolism
 - e. progression of pre-existing renal disease
- factors requiring consideration during anaesthesia include,
 - 1. pericardial effusion, CCF
 - 2. pulmonary infiltrates / oedema
 - 3. CNS depression with uraemia
 - 4. platelet dysfunction, anaemia

Renal Transplant

• factors relevant to management include,

- 1. natural history of the primary renal disease
- 2. current renal function $\sim 25\%$ suffer deterioration in pregnancy
- 3. time of conception relative to the time of surgery
- 4. immunosuppressive drugs used for rejection control
 - predisposition to infection in the mother
 - premature rupture of the membranes
 - foetal malformation, IUGR
 - adrenal insufficiency
 - neonatal lymhpopaenia within the first few weeks
- maternal and foetal outcome is good in ~ 70% who are otherwise healthy
- the risk of *prematurity* may be as high as 45%

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- CEA remains the method of choice for most patients, providing no coagulopathy is present
- generally results in *increased* uterine and renal perfusion, providing hypotension is avoided
- relatively contraindicated with long-term β -blockers, due to risk of hypotension/bradycardia

• general anaesthesia should be avoided unless regional contraindicated, due to the reduction of 30-50% in RBF/GFR with the volatile agents

Adrenal Disorders

■ <u>Adrena</u>	ocortical Insufficiency Add	lison's		
• may resu	ılt from,			
1.	1° destruction of the adrenal	 autoimmune tumour haemorrhagic necrosis infection (TB) 		
2.	1° hypofunction of the pituitary	tumour, infection (TB), sarcoidhaemorrhagic necrosis		
3.	2° suppression of the pituitary	 exogenous steroid administration steroid secreting tumours 		
 presentation may be indolent, or acute life threatening collapse clinical features,				
a.	weakness, fatigue, vomiting, diarr	hoea, abdominal pain		
b.	excess pigmentation			

c. hypotension \pm hypovolaemia

d.	biochemical abnormalities	- mild <i>hyponatraemia</i> , hypoosmolality
		 hyperkalaemia (Na⁺/K⁺ ratio < 25:1) hypoglycaemia
		- mildly elevated urea
		- mild anion gap <i>acidosis</i>

NB: mild hypotension, pigmentation, N&V are all common in normal pregnancy

- may be better tolerated in pregnancy due to foetal \rightarrow maternal transfer of *glucocorticoids*
- the post-partum diuresis & dehydration may precipitate an *adrenal crisis*
- anaesthetic considerations include,
 - 1. correction of hypovolaemia
 - 2. steroid supplementation
 - 3. correction of biochemical abnormalities
 - i. glucose supplementation
 - ii. Na⁺/K⁺ balance

4.	increased susceptibility to	- drug induced myocardial depression
		- muscle paralysis

- 5. decreased responsiveness to catecholamines
- 6. monitoring + IABP and CVP

Phaeochromocytoma

- rare in pregnancy, but high maternal / foetal mortality
- symptoms include,
 - a. anxiety, palpitations, tachyarrhythmias
 - b. headache, diaphoresis, blurred vision
 - c. heat intolerance
 - d. excessive weight loss
 - e. paroxysmal or sustained hypertension, usually *not* associated with proteinuria
 - f. episodic attacks triggered by ute
 - uterine contractionsfoetal movements
 - changes in posture

• prolonged α -adrenergic stimulation results in,

- a. decreased plasma volume with elevation of the haematocrit
- b. reflex hypotension / tachycardia

• the safety of adrenergic blocking drugs has not been established, however foetal survival is undoubtedly improved with their use

• the α -blocking agents *phentolamine* and *phenoxybenzamine* are combined with **b**-blockade to prevent the reflex tachycardia

- β -blockade may result in decreased foetal HR and increased uterine contractility
- avoidance of factors which increase catecholamine release,
 - 1. hypoxia, hypercarbia and acidosis
 - 2. hypotension *poorly controlled epidural anaesthesia
- · drugs known to have a pressor or tachycardic response should be avoided,
 - a. droperidol
 - b. anticholinergics
 - c. succinylcholine
 - d. histamine releasing agents dTC, atracurium, ? morphine
 - e. pancuronium
 - f. halothane *ventricular arrhythmias

• patients with *cardiomyopathy* may require infusion of catecholamines following tumour removal, pending up-regulation of receptors and decay of sympathetic blockade

• Cushing's Syndrome

- ovulation and pregnancy are rare with this condition
- increased incidence of spontaneous abortion, stillbirths, and premature labour
- effects 2° to excess circulating glucocorticoids
- common caused by,

a.	iatrogenic steroid administration	=	most common	
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- b. pituitary adenoma ~ 80% (of remainder)
- c. ectopic ACTH ~ 15%
- d. adrenal adenomas, hyperplasia

• classical features may closely resemble normal pregnancy,

- a. weight gain, truncal obesity, plethoric face, hirsuitism, bruising, striae
- b. weakness, osteoporosis, poor wound healing
- c. hypertension
- d. psychosis
- e. hypernatraemia, hypokalaemia and hyperglycaemia

• objectives of management,

- a. control of hypertension
- b. normalisation of volume status spironolactone
- c. correction of biochemical abnormalities hyperglycaemia
 - hypernatraemia/hypokalaemia
- d. perioperative steroid supplementation
- e. potential for airway difficulty

Hyperparathyroidism

- *parathyroid adenoma* is the commonest cause in pregnancy
- normal pregnancy \rightarrow \uparrow PTH and Vit.D₃
- however, serum Ca⁺⁺ levels are normally *decreased*,
 - 1. \uparrow foetal demands
 - 2. \uparrow RBF/GFR and renal excretion
 - 3. hypoalbuminaemia of pregnancy $\rightarrow \downarrow$ total Ca⁺⁺ > \downarrow ionised Ca⁺⁺

NB: serum Ca⁺⁺ levels may be *normal* in the hyperparathyroid patient

- labour and delivery usually proceed uneventfully
- there is an increased incidence of,
 - 1. stillbirths, spontaneous abortion, premature labour
 - 2. neonatal tetany

<u>Clinical Manifestations</u>

- 1. generalised weakness, malaise, lethargy
- 2. anorexia, hyperemesis, constipation
- 3. polyuria, polydipsia (nephrogenic DI)
- 4. hypertension

• Complications

- 1. renal calculi
- 2. pancreatitis
- 3. psychiatric disorders
- 4. hypercalcaemic crisis mental deterioration ± coma arrhythmias, CCF
 - renal failure

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- 1. maintenance or normovolaemia and renal output
- 2. ECG monitoring $-\uparrow Ca^{++} \& \downarrow QT_C$ - arrhythmias
- 3. osteoporosis and risk of pathological fractures
- 4. unpredictable response to NMJ blocking drugs, *.:.monitor*

Hypoparathyroidism

- rare in pregnancy, usually resulting from unintentional parathyroidectomy at thyroid surgery
- borderline cases may present due to increased demands of the foetus

<u>Clinical Manifestations</u>

- 1. fatigue, lethargy
- 2. paraesthesias, numbness
- 3. muscle weakness, tetany
- 4. carpopedal spasms, laryngeal stridor
- 5. altered mental status, convulsions
- 6. dry, rough skin, patchy hair loss, cataracts
- 7. *long QT* and decreased myocardial contractility

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- 1. plasma ionised Ca⁺⁺ can be rapidly reduced by *respiratory alkalosis*
- 2. CEA may prevent the hyperventilation associated with labour
 - \rightarrow decreased likelihood of *tetany*

Pituitary Disorders

• postpartum pituitary necrosis, *Sheehan's syndrome*, following shock or haemorrhage, is the commonest cause of anterior pituitary insufficiency

• the clinical picture relates to the degree of damage, and relates to the deficiency of hormones secreted by the ovaries, adrenal gland, and thyroid gland

• the presentation may be insidious, with the first sign being failure of *lactation* with breast involution

• more dramatic presentation may follow with hypoadrenalism & hypothyroidism

HAEMATOLOGICAL DISEASES

Haemoglobinopathies

• Thalassemia

• mixed disorders resulting in the diminution of production of the protein chains of Hb_A

a.	α-thalassaemia β-thalassaemia		- thalassaemia minor		
b.			- autosomal codominant		
	i.	heterozygous	- β-thalassaemia minor - half normal haemoglobin		
	ii.	homozygous	- β-thalassaemia major (Cooley's anaemia)		

• most patients with α -thalassaemias and β -thalassaemia minor require *no treatment*

• patients with **b**-thalassaemia major have,

- 1. little or no production of β -globin
- 2. *anaemia* average Hct < 20%
- 3. multiple transfusions with the potential for *iron overload*,
 - i. cardiomyopathy CCF & arrhythmias
 - ii. pancreatic dysfunction bronze diabetes
 - iii. hepatic dysfunction cirrhosis
 - iv. hepatomegaly & splenomegaly
- 4. skeletal malformations in association with *marrow hyperplasia*

Sickle Cell Disease

- most common in Negroes and people of Mediterranean descent
- · heterozygotes (sickle cell trait) are usually asymptomatic
- single gene mutation encoding for β -globin, substituting *valine* for *glutamate* at position 6

$$HbS = HbA_{\beta}^{6 \text{ glu} \rightarrow \text{ val}}$$

- 1. polymerisation of Hb under conditions of low P_{02} or acidosis
- 2. RBC distortion, decreased plasticity and decreased survival time

ightarrow hyperbilirubinaemia & anaemia

- 3. *vaso-occlusive* phenomena
 - i. placental infarction / insufficiency
 - ii. splenic infarction, sepsis
 - iii. pulmonary infarction, infiltrates, chest pain
 - iv. CVA's
 - v. avascular bone necrosis

Disorders of Coagulation

• normal pregnancy is associated with a *hypercoagulable state*,

- 1. \uparrow Factors I, VII, VIII, IX, X
- 2. expansion of blood volume
- 3. platelet count remains normal but $\uparrow TXA_2$ with \uparrow platelet aggregation
- 4. \downarrow proteins S & C, and plasminogen activators

■ *Iatrogenic Coagulopathy*

• usually patients with prior veno-occlusive disease or with prosthetic heart valves

usually on warfarin but are changed to heparin due to the teratogenic effects of the former
some would continue warfarin as it is more effective prophylaxis in the presence of prosthetic heart valves, converting to heparin only for labour and delivery

Idiopathic Thrombocytopenic Purpura

- commonest haematological disorder in pregnancy
- usual F:M ratio ~ 3:1
- autoimmune disorder due to antiplatelet antibodies, with accelerated platelet destruction

\rightarrow thrombocytopenia & splenomegaly

- often asymptomatic, or may present with bleeding diathesis
- CNS haemorrhage is the most serious consequence
- anti-platelet Ab's cross the placenta and may result in *neonatal thrombocytopaenia*,
 - 1. $\sim 50\%$ have platelet counts < 100,000
 - 2. risk of ICH during vaginal delivery
 - 3. no good evidence LUSCS is safer than NVD for the baby
- usual management includes steroids and splenectomy
- high dose *gamma-globulin* has been used for resistant cases
- however, maternal response *does not* correlate with that of the foetus

• <u>Von Willebrand Disease</u>

· autosomal dominant, variable penetrance mode of inheritance, characterised by,

- 1. reduced factor VIII activity
- 2. impaired aggregation of platelets & prolonged bleeding time

• most patients increase factor VIII levels with pregnancy and deliver normally

• if factor VIII levels/activity remain below 25% then consideration for cryoprecipitate or FFP at the time of delivery should be given

NEUROLOGICAL DISORDERS

Multiple Sclerosis

• relatively common disease in young people, *incidence* ~ 1:2000

• results in *demyelination* within the CNS, it *does not* involve the peripheral nerves

• characterised by unpredictable *relapsing course* and the incidence of exacerbation in the first 3 postpartum months is $\sim 3x$ the nonpregnant population

• conditions in the perioperative period are known precipitants, eg. pyrexia, surgery itself

• studies in both obstetric and nonobstetric patients have shown no significant increase with spinal or epidural anaesthesia

NB: there is *no evidence* that women who receive epidural or spinal anaesthesia have a higher relapse rate, however, the patient should be warned there is a higher relapse rate in the peripartum period, *irrespective* of the use of anaesthesia

• Epilepsy

• increased risk of complications,

- a. prematurity
- b. preeclampsia
- c. obstetric haemorrhage
- d. uterine hypotonia
- these may be 2° to medications or to the seizures themselves
- · LEA & regional techniques are safe
- if GA is required, then avoid ketamine & enflurane

• phenytoin & phenobarbitone interfere with vit.K metabolism & require coagulation studies

• Myasthenia Gravis

- a. history
 - course of the disease
 - previous surgery, thymectomy, plasmapheresis
 - daily muscle strength & functioning
 - bulbar involvement
 - presence of CAL
- b. medications
 - anticholinesterase dosage
 - immunosuppressives
- c. lung function tests
 - spirometry
 - arterial gas analysis if indicated
- d. optimisation of condition prelabour / anaesthesia
- e. regular assessment during labour for changing anticholinesterase requirement
 - peak flows
 - sequential vital capacity estimations
- f. LEA *preferred technique where possible
- g. GA
 - avoid CNS depressant medication
 - increased risk of aspiration
 - unpredictable response to neuromuscular blocking agents, usually,
 - i. increased sensitivity to nondepolarising agents
 - ii. resistance to suxamethonium ED_{95} up to 2.5x normal
 - duration of action of SCh is prolonged
 - requirement for elective postoperative ventilation

Elective Postoperative Ventilation ¹		
Factor		Points ²
• long history of myasthenia	> 6 yrs	12
• moderate to severe CAL	* not 2° to MG	10
• high pyridostigmine dose	> 750 mg/day	8
• diminished vital capacity	< 2.9 l < 40 ml/kg	4
¹ figures for non-pregnant patient	s	
2 total score > 10 points = post-	operative ventilation for > 3	hours

AUTOIMMUNE DISEASE

• mechanisms of immune host damage include,

- 1. circulating antigen-antibody activation of C', T-cells and macrophages (type II)
- 2. Ag-Ab immune complex deposition, with subsequent tissue damage (type III)
- 3. cell mediated, sensitised T-cell destruction of tissue (type IV)

• immunosuppression at the level of the foetoplacental unit allows ongoing pregnancy

• *progesterone* inhibits T-lymphocyte function

• several protein species have been isolated and appear to be associated with exacerbation or remission of a number of autoimmune diseases,

- 1. pregnancy-associated globulin 2-PAG
 - also called pregnancy associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A)
 - immunosuppressive glycoprotein affecting C' and lymphocyte transformation
- 2. pregnancy zone protein PZP
- 3. uromodulin
 - immunosuppressive glycoprotein isolated from urine which inhibits T-cell and macrophage function

Rheumatoid Arthritis

- · chronic, systemic, non-organ-specific autoimmune disease of unknown aetiology
- ? infectious synovitis that induces antigenic change which stimulates autoimmune response
- · Ab's are formed against a myriad of gamma globulins and EBV related antigens
- frequency in young women ~ 3x young males

• rarely occurs during, and is generally suppressed by pregnancy, possibly due to increased concentrations of circulating *cortisol*

• may relapse severely in the post-partum period (~ 2-4/12)

lactation appears to prolong remission

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- 1. airway problems
 - i. mandibular hypoplasia
 - ii. TMJ synovitis / arthritis
 - iii. cervical spine instability, fusion, subluxation
 - iv. cricoarytenoid arthritis
 - v. laryngeal rotation

- 2. cardiovascular
 - i. pericardial effusion, pericarditis
 - ii. rheumatoid nodules valvular
 - epicardial or myocardial
 - iii. coronary arteritis & focal interstitial myocarditis (rarely)
- 3. respiratory
 - i. CAL
 - ii. pleuritis
 - iii. interstitial fibrosis
 - iv. nodular lung disease Caplan's disease
 - v. pneumonitis
 - vi. pulmonary arteritis PAH rare
 - vii. intrapulmonary rheumatoid nodules (spontaneous rupture)

Systemic Lupus Erythematosus

- Ab formation against,
 - 1. intranuclear
 - i. single and double stranded DNA
 - ii. Sm1 ribonucleoprotein
 - 2. lymphocytes, erythrocytes
 - 3. neurons
 - 4. gamma globulins
- anticardiolipin antibody is one of many phospholipid Ab's present in SLE (20-65%)

Clinical Features

- a. incidence ~ 4-250 / 100,000 ~ 8-10:1 F:M ratio
- b. peak onset 2^{nd} - 4^{th} decades
- c. ~ 20% of cases are diagnosed at the onset of pregnancy during *routine screening*
- d. severity & frequency of exacerbation increases in ~ 50% of pregnancies
- e. usual presentation in pregnancy
 - i. fever, general malaise
 - ii. symmetric arthritis
 - iii. myalgias and muscle weakness
- f. occasional "preeclampsia-like" syndrome, with hypertension, proteinuria & oedema

• Anaesthetic Considerations

- 1. CVS
 - i. pericardial effusions ~ 25%
 - ii. acute or constrictive pericarditis
 - iii. tachyarrhythmias
 - iv. Libman-Sacks endocarditis & valvular malfunction (check Echo preop.)
 - v. rarely AMI
- 2. respiratory ~ 75%
 - i. interstitial pneumonitis
 - ii. fibrinous pleuritis \pm bilateral pleural effusions
 - iii. acute pulmonary vasculitis, or advanced arteriosclerosis
 - iv. focal alveolar haemorrhages
 - v. bronchopneumonias
 - vi. massive pulmonary haemorrhage rarely
- 3. renal
 - i. lupus nephritis ~ 50%
 - ii. nephrotic syndrome
 - iii. chronic renal failure
- 4. other

i.	coagulopathy	 APTT due to circulating <i>lupus anticoagulant</i> either a phospholipid or an anticoagulant Ab
ii.	anticardiolipin	 thrombocytopaenia (but increased adhesiveness) arterial thromboses (CVA, gangrene, MI, avascular necrosis of bone) venous thromboses & intravascular clot formation
iii.	Raynaud's pheno	omenon ~ 15%

• Foetal & Neonatal Considerations

- 1. increased incidence of premature labour, miscarriage & stillbirth
 - especially with antiphospholipid Ab's
 - · survival may be improved by antiplatelet or anticoagulant drugs
- 2. neonatal lupus syndrome
 - i. cytopaenias
 - ii. discoid rash
 - iii. cardiac conduction abnormalities