APH

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- bleeding from or into the genital tract, occurring from 24+0 weeks of pregnancy and prior to the birth of the baby.

- The most important causes of APH are placenta praevia and placental abruption, although these are not the most common.

- APH complicates 3–5% of pregnancies and is a leading cause of perinatal and maternal mortality worldwide.

- Up to one-fifth of very preterm babies are born in association with APH

- Obstetric haemorrhage remains one of the major causes of maternal death in developing countries and is the cause of up to 50% of the estimated 500 000 maternal deaths that occur globally each year.

- Obstetric haemorrhage encompasses both antepartum and postpartum bleeding.

Etiology

- Abruptio Placenta (30%)
- Placenta praevia (20%)
- Uterine rupture (rare)
- Vasa Previa (rare)
- Others
  - Local causes cervical ectropion, polyp/trauma
  - Genital tract tumours
  - Unknown origin

- the amount of blood lost is often underestimated and the amount of blood coming from the introitus may not represent the total blood lost (for example in a concealed placental abruption).
- It is important therefore, when estimating the blood loss, to assess for signs of clinical shock.
- The presence of fetal compromise or fetal demise is an important indicator of volume depletion.
- Recurrent APH is the term used when there are episodes of APH on more than one occasion.

Classification

Spotting – staining, streaking or blood spotting noted on underwear or sanitary protection

Minor haemorrhage – blood loss less than 50 ml that has settled

Major haemorrhage – blood loss of 50–1000 ml, with no signs of clinical shock

Massive haemorrhage – blood loss greater than 1000 ml and/or signs of clinical shock.

Maternal complications

- Anaemia
- Infection
- Maternal shock
- Renal tubular necrosis
- Consumptive coagulopathy
- Postpartum haemorrhage
- Prolonged hospital stay
- Psychological sequelae
- Complications of blood transfusion

Fetal complications

- Fetal hypoxia
- Small for gestational age and fetal growth restriction
- Prematurity (iatrogenic and spontaneous)
- Fetal death

Management

- clinical assessment to establish whether urgent intervention is required to manage maternal or fetal compromise.
- The process of triage includes history taking to assess coexisting symptoms such as pain, an assessment of the extent of vaginal bleeding, the cardiovascular condition of the mother, and an assessment of fetal wellbeing.

If there is no maternal compromise a full history should be taken

History

- whether there is pain associated with the haemorrhage. Placental abruption should be considered when the pain is continuous. Labour should be considered if the pain is intermittent.
- Risk factors for abruption and placenta praevia should be identified.
- The woman should be asked about her awareness of fetal movements and attempts should be made to auscultate the fetal heart.
- If the APH is associated with spontaneous or iatrogenic rupture of the fetal membranes, bleeding from a ruptured vasa praevia should be considered.
- Previous cervical smear history may be useful in order to assess the possibility of a neoplastic lesion of the cervix as the cause of bleeding

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Examination

- The primary survey should follow the structured approach of

  airway (A), breathing (B) and circulation (C).

- Following initial assessment and commencement of resuscitation, causes for haemorrhage should be sought.

- Treatment according to the cause .

Abdominal palpation

- assess for tenderness or signs of an acute abdomen.
- The tense or ‘woody’ feel to the uterus on abdominal palpation indicates a significant abruption.
- assess for uterine contractions.
- A soft, non-tender uterus may suggest a lower genital tract cause or bleeding from placenta or vasa praevia.

Speculum examination

- can be useful to identify cervical dilatation or visualise a lower genital tract cause for the APH.
- If the woman presents with a clinically suspicious cervix, she should be referred for colposcopic evaluation

Digital vaginal examination

- can provide information on cervical dilatation if APH is associated with pain or uterine activity

- If placenta praevia is a possible diagnosis (for example, a previous scan shows a low placenta, there is a high presenting part on abdominal examination or the bleed has been painless),

digital vaginal examination should not be performed until an ultrasound has excluded placenta praevia.

	Placental abruption	Placenta praevia	Uterine rupture
Bleeding	Revealed, concealed or mixed	Revealed, usually bright red blood	Often minimal vaginal bleeding
Pain	Very painful - reluctant to be palpated	Painless	Varies from none to exquisite tenderness
Uterus	Hard, woody (Couvelaire) Difficult to palpate	Soft, presenting part not usually engaged	Soft, absence of contractions, fetal parts easily felt

Ultrasound scan

- to confirm or exclude placenta praevia if the placental site is not already known.
- The sensitivity of ultrasound for the detection of retroplacental clot (abruption) is poor
- ultrasonography will fail to detect three-quarters of cases of abruption. However, when the ultrasound suggests an abruption, the likelihood that there is an abruption is high
- to establish fetal heart pulsation if fetal viability cannot be detected using external auscultation

Maternal investigations

- to assess the extent and physiological consequences of the APH. The maternal investigations performed will depend on the amount of bleeding.
- The Kleihauer test should be performed in rhesus D (RhD)-negative women to quantify fetomaternal haemorrhage (FMH) in order to gauge the dose of anti-D immunoglobulin (anti-D Ig) required.
- .

❑In cases of major or massive haemorrhage :

- full blood count and coagulation screen and 4 units of blood cross-matched.
- Urea, electrolytes and liver function tests .
- The initial haemoglobin may not reflect the amount of blood lost .
- The platelet count, if low, may indicate a consumptive process seen in relation to significant abruption; this may be associated with a coagulopathy.

❑ In minor haemorrhage, a full blood count and group and save should be performed. A coagulation screen is not indicated unless the platelet count is abnormal.

Fetal investigation

- An assessment of the fetal heart rate should be performed, usually with a cardiotocograph (CTG) in women presenting with APH once the mother is stable or resuscitation has commenced, to aid decision making on the mode and timing of delivery

Management

- Women presenting with spotting who are no longer bleeding and where placenta praevia has been excluded can go home after a reassuring initial clinical assessment.
- All women with APH heavier than spotting and women with ongoing bleeding should remain in hospital at least until the bleeding has stopped.
- Each woman must be assessed on an individual basis and sound clinical judgment applied

- Clinicians should offer a single course of antenatal corticosteroids to women between 24+0 and 34+6 weeks of gestation at risk of preterm birth.

- In women presenting with spotting, where the most likely cause is lower genital tract bleeding, where imminent delivery is unlikely, corticosteroids are unlikely to be of benefit, but could still be considered

- Antenatal corticosteroids are associated with a significant reduction in rates of neonatal death, respiratory distress syndrome and intraventricular haemorrhage

Should women presenting with APH who are RhD-negative be given anti-D Ig?

- Anti-D Ig should be given to all non-sensitised RhD-negative women after any presentation with APH, independent of whether routine antenatal prophylactic anti-D has been administered.

- In the non-sensitised RhD-negative woman in the event of recurrent vaginal bleeding after 20+0 weeks of gestation, anti-D Ig should be given at a minimum of 6-weekly intervals.

- In the non-sensitised RhD-negative woman for all events after 20+0 weeks of gestation, at least 500 iu anti-D Ig should be given followed by a test to identify FMH greater than 4 ml red blood cells; additional anti-D Ig should be given as require

Placental Abruption

- **Premature separation (before completion of 2nd stage of labour) of a normal-sited placenta from the lining of the uterus**

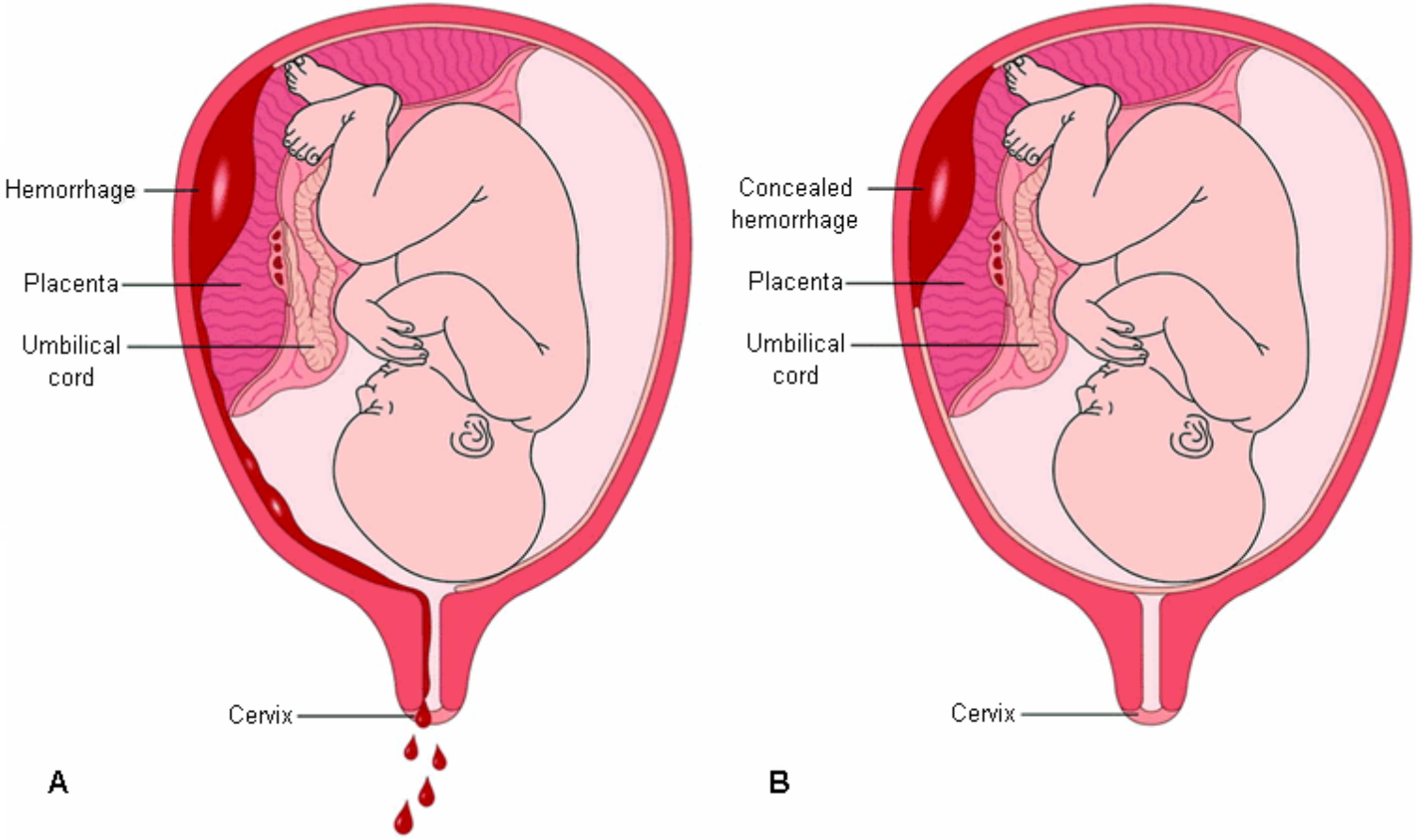
- Prevalence in European countries is 3-6/1000 pregnancies
- 70% of cases have been found to be in low-risk pregnancies
- Perinatal mortality rate 48%

Types of placental abruption

(A) Revealed placental abruption, where blood tracks between the membranes, and escapes through the vagina and cervix.

(B) Concealed placental abruption where blood collects behind the placenta, with no evidence of vaginal bleeding

Concealed vs. revealed



Risk factors for placenta abruption

- ❑ The most predictive is abruption in a previous pregnancy.
- 4.4% incidence of recurrent abruption
- 19–25% for women who have had two previous pregnancies complicated by abruption.

Other risk factors :

- ❑ advanced maternal age, multiparity, low body mass index (BMI),
- ❑ Chronic hypertension ,preexisting DM
- ❑ smoking and drug misuse (cocaine and amphetamines) during pregnancy
- ❑ thrombophilias : significant associations were only observed with heterozygous factor V Leiden and heterozygous prothrombin

20210A mutation

- ❑ abdominal trauma (both accidental and resulting from domestic violence),

- ❑pre-eclampsia
- ❑ fetal growth restriction
- ❑ Multiple gestation
- ❑polyhydramnios
- ❑PROM
- ❑First trimester bleeding
- ❑ intrauterine infection
- ❑pregnancy following assisted reproductive techniques,

Pathophysiology of placental abruption

1. Due to etiology

↓

Hemorrhage into decidua basalis

↓

Decidua splits

↓

Development of decidual hematoma

↓

Separation, compression, ultimate destruction of placenta.

2. Decidual spiral artery ruptures

↓

Retroplacental hematoma forms

↓

Expands with increase in bleeding.

↓

Area of separation rapidly becomes extensive & reach margins

↓

Uterus unable to contract & compress vessels

↓

Blood dissect membranes from uterine wall

Presentation

- Vaginal bleeding
- Abdominal pain
- Uterine contractions– abruptions can occur in labour or stimulate labour to begin
- Fetal distress or intrauterine death
- Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy – non-clotting vaginal bleeding, bleeding from drip sites and skin bruising.
- Maternal circulatory shock

Grade	Description
0	Asymptomatic, a small retroplacental clot detected
1	Vaginal bleeding, uterine irritability, and tenderness present; no signs of maternal or fetal distress
2	Vaginal bleeding, uterine contractions, no signs of maternal shock; signs of fetal distress present
3	Severe bleeding present or concealed, uterine hypertonus, 'wooden-hard' uterus, persistent abdominal pain, maternal shock, and often coagulopathy; fetal distress or death

Management …

- If fetal death is diagnosed, vaginal birth is the recommended mode of delivery for most women (provided the maternal condition is satisfactory), but caesarean birth will need to be considered for some.
- If the fetus is compromised, a caesarean section is the appropriate method of delivery with concurrent resuscitation of the mother.
- Women with APH and associated maternal and/or fetal compromise are required to be delivered immediately.
- The optimum timing of delivery of women presenting with unexplained APH prior to 37 wks (preterm) and no associated maternal and/or fetal compromise is not established. A senior obstetrician should be involved in determining the timing and mode of birth of these women

- If the woman presents after 37+0 weeks of gestation, it is important to establish if the bleeding is an APH or blood stained ‘show’; if the APH is spotting or the blood is streaked through mucus it is unlikely to require active intervention.

- in the event of a minor or major APH, induction of labour with the aim of achieving a vaginal delivery should be considered in order to avoid adverse consequences potentially associated with a placental abruption

Placenta previa

a placenta developing within the lower uterine segment and graded according to the relationship and/or the distance between the lower placental edge and the internal os of the uterine cervix.

The estimated incidence of placenta praevia at term is 1 in 200 pregnancies

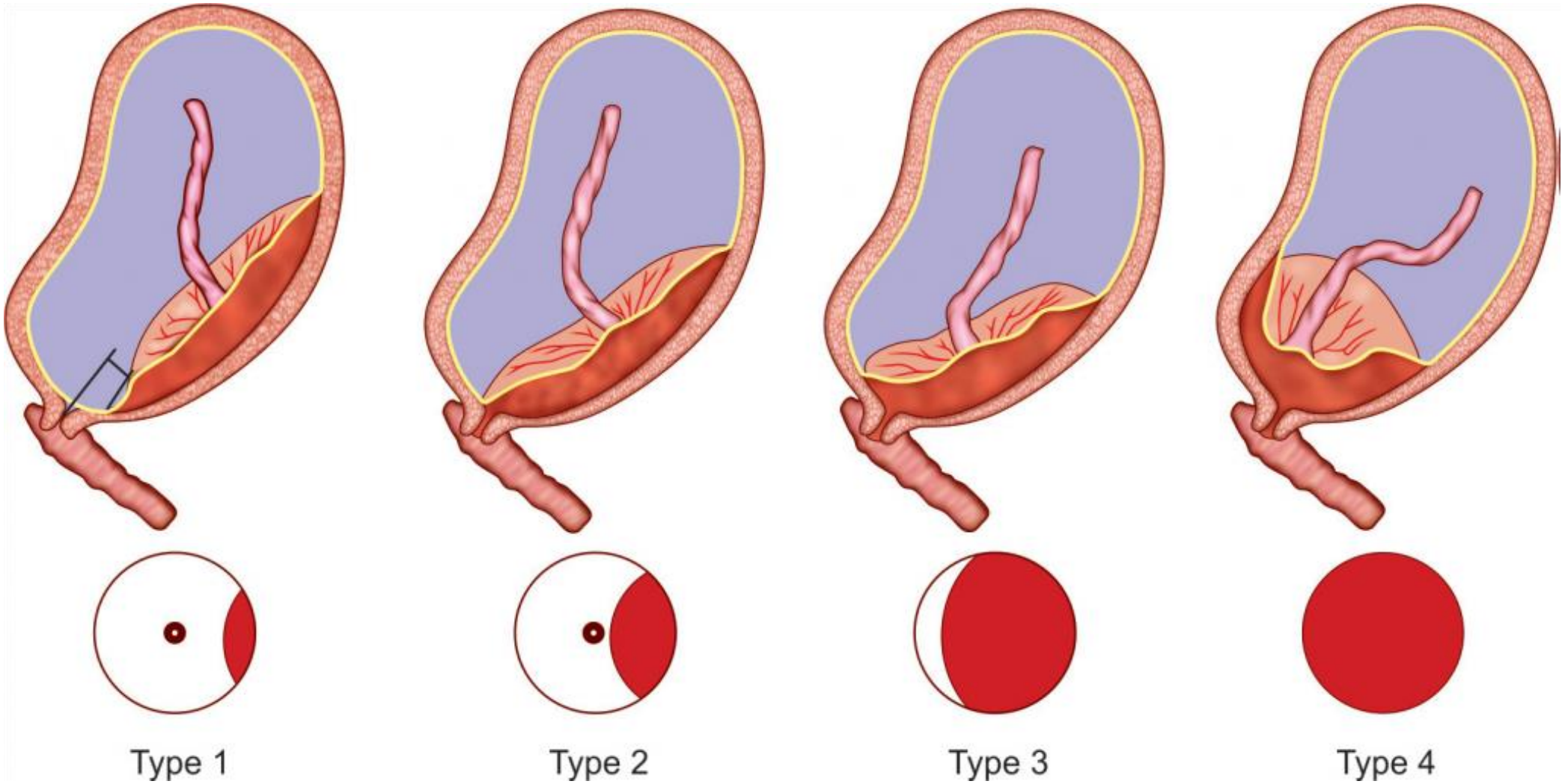
Grade I or low lying placenta : a lower edge inside the lower uterine segment less than 20 mm from the os

grade II or *marginal praevia* :a lower edge reaching the internal os;

grade III or *partial praevia :* the placenta partially covers the cervix;

grade IV or *complete praevia* : the placenta completely covers the cervix.

Grades I and II are also often defined as ‘minor’ placenta praevia whereas grades III and IV are referred to as ‘major’ placenta praevia..


Type 1
Type 2
Type 3
Type 4

Risk factors for placenta previa

❑ Previous placenta praevia (adjusted OR 9.7)45–47

❑ Previous caesarean sections :

✓ previous caesarean section OR 2.2

✓ Two previous caesarean sections OR 4.1

✓ Three previous caesarean sections OR 22.4

❑

❑ Deficient endometrium due to presence or history of:

✓ endometritis

✓ manual remove al of placenta

✓ curettage

✓ submucous fibroid

Cont.

- Previous termination of pregnancy
- Multiparity
- Advanced maternal age (>40 years)
- Multiple pregnancy
- Smoking
- Assisted conception

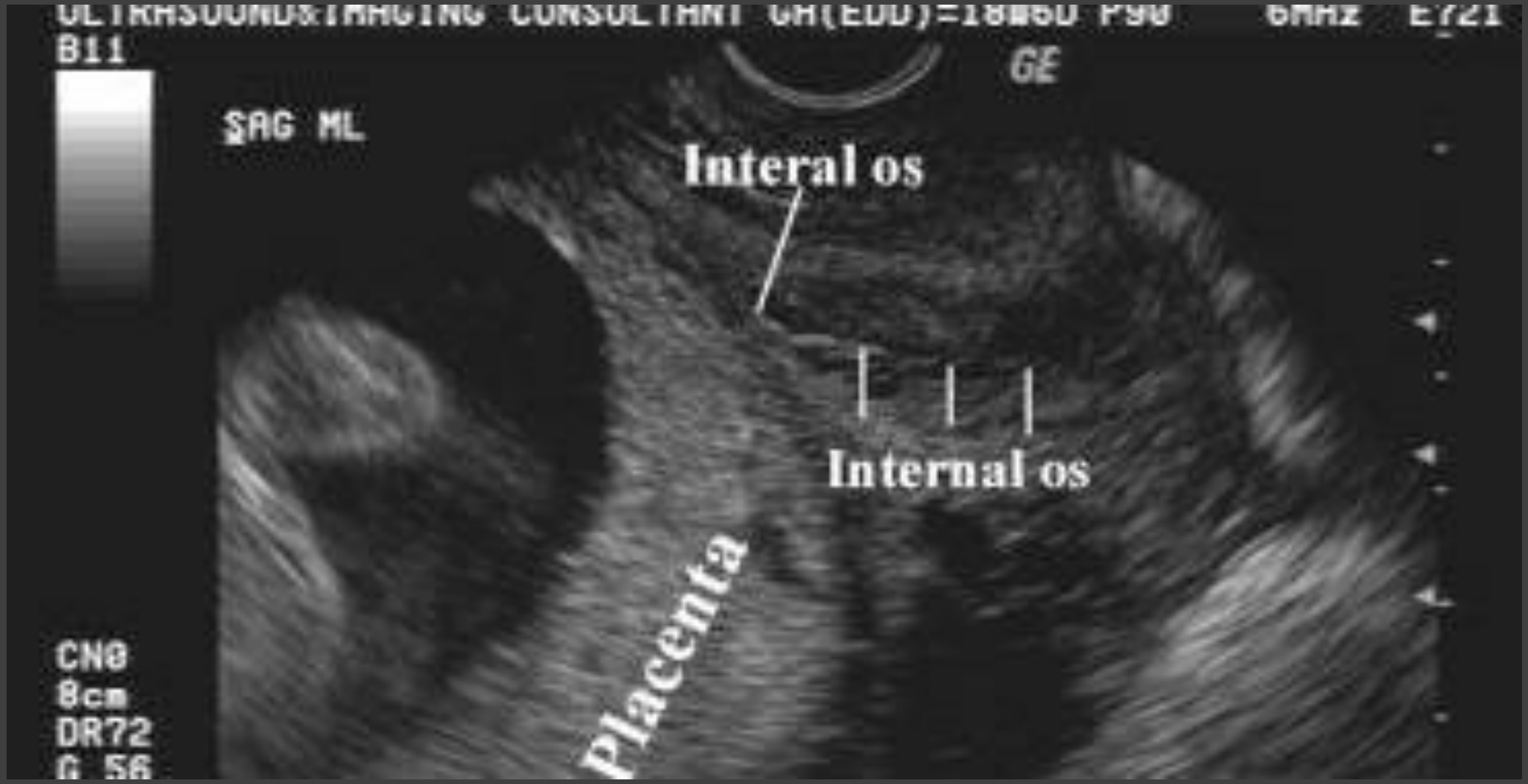
Presentation

- Vaginal bleeding
  - Painless (contrast with abruptio placenta)
  - Bright red (the blood is still oxygenated)
  - Variable in amount from 'spotting' to torrential/life-threatening
  - May be recurrent
  - Provoked by sexual intercourse or the onset of labour
- Malpresentation 35% of cases(e.g. breech or transverse)
- The fetus is usually well and in good condition

dx

- The midpregnancy routine fetal anomaly scan should include placental localisation thereby identifying women at risk of persisting placenta praevia or a low-lying placent

- Transvaginal ultrasound scan is superior to transabdominal and transperineal approaches and is safe.


B11
SAG ML
GE
Interal os
Internal os
Placenta
CN8
8cm
DR72
G 56

Delivery

- timing should be tailored according to antenatal symptoms and, for women presenting with uncomplicated placenta praevia, delivery via elective cesarean section should be considered between 36^{+0} and 37^{+0} weeks of gestation.

- Late preterm (34^{+0} to 36^{+6} weeks of gestation) delivery should be considered for women presenting with placenta praevia or a low-lying placenta and a history of vaginal bleeding or other associated risk factors for preterm delivery

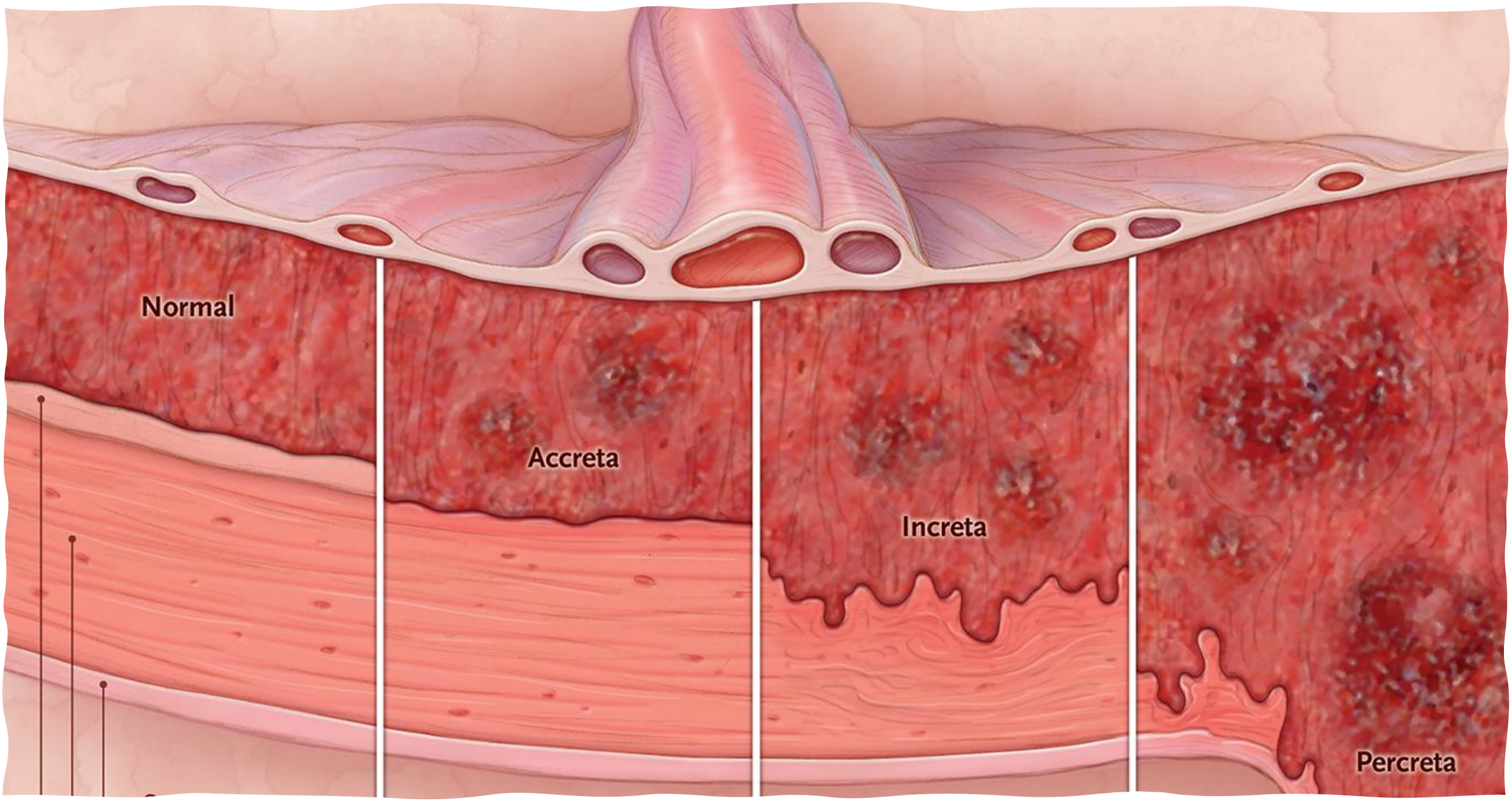
Indications for delivery before 37 weeks

- Onset of labour
- Fetal distress
- Severe growth restriction
- Intrauterine death
- Severe vaginal bleeding / maternal jeopardy

Morbidly adherent placenta

- Abnormal invasive placentation that can be categorised by depth of invasion

  - Placenta accreta: chorionic villi attach directly to the myometrium in the absence of decidua
  - Placenta increta: placental villi invade deeper into the myometrium, but do not extend to the outermost layers of the uterus
  - Placenta percreta: chorionic villi penetrate through the myometrium up to the serosa


Normal
Accreta
Increta
Percreta

Placenta accreta spectrum

- The major risk factors for placenta accreta spectrum are history of accreta in a previous pregnancy, previous caesarean delivery and other uterine surgery, including repeated endometrial curettage.
- This risk rises as the number of prior caesarean sections increases

Diagnosis

- Previous caesarean delivery and the presence of an anterior low-lying placenta or placenta praevia should alert the antenatal care team of the higher risk of placenta accreta spectrum.

- Ultrasound imaging is highly accurate when performed by a skilled operator with experience in diagnosing placenta accreta spectrum

- MRI may be used to complement ultrasound imaging to assess the depth of invasion and lateral extension of myometrial invasion, especially with posterior placentation and/or in women with ultrasound signs suggesting parametrial invasion

Delivery

- In the absence of risk factors for preterm delivery in women with placenta accreta spectrum, planned delivery at 35^{+0} to 36^{+6} weeks of gestation provides the best balance between fetal maturity and the risk of unscheduled delivery
- Caesarean section hysterectomy with the placenta left in situ is preferable to attempting to separate it from the uterine wall.
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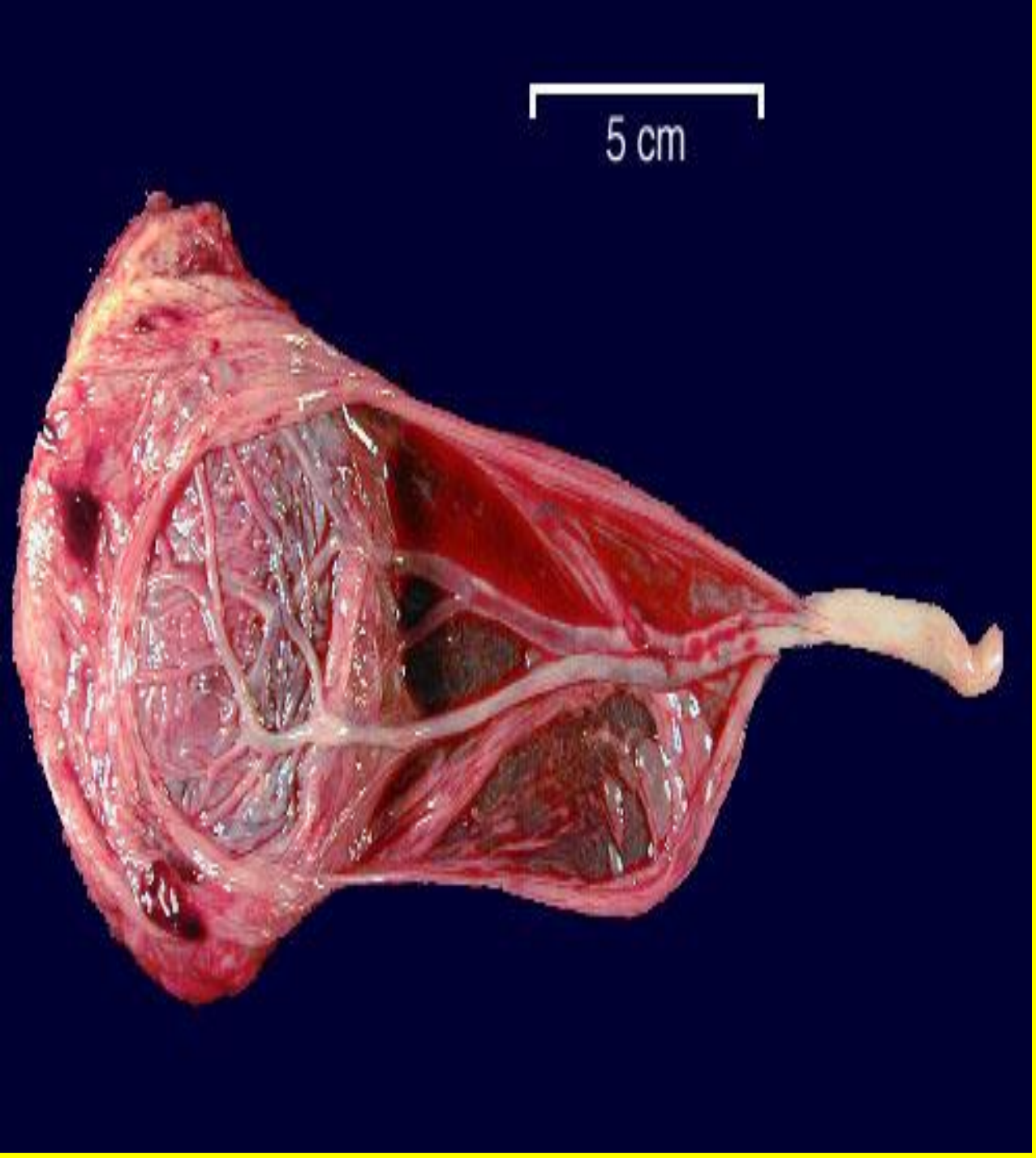
Vasa praevia

- Fetal vessels crossing the internal cervical os through the free placental membranes
- 1/3000 deliveries
- 60% of women with vasa praevia at delivery have placenta praevia or low-lying placenta identified during the second-trimester ultrasound scan

✓The major risk factors are :

✓ Velamentous cord

✓ Accessory placental lobe


5 cm

Vasa praevia: Diagnosis

- Transabdominal and transvaginal colour Doppler ultrasonography
- The classic triad of the vasa praevia
  - Membrane rupture
  - Painless vaginal bleeding
  - Fetal bradycardia

  - Delivery is by urgent caesarean section

Rupture uterus

- full-thickness loss of integrity of the uterine wall and visceral peritoneum

❑Incedence :

- unscarred uterus 0.5–2.0 / 10,000
- VBAC (depend on the previous uterine scar)
- Classical C/S 5%
- LUSCS 0.5%

Risk factors

- High parity
- Previous uterine surgery
- Induction or augmentation of labour
- Hyperstimulation
- Malpresentation
- Macrosomia
- Uterine abnormalities
- Trauma including RTA & obstetric manoeuvres
- 5% risk of recurrence

Signs and symptoms

- Symptoms are often non-specific
- Abdominal pain between uterine contractions
- +/- bleeding
- Loss of station(fetal head)
- Inability to identify uterine contractions
- Haematuria and blood-stained liquor
- CTG abnormalities/ Lost FHR

Management

Uterine Repair

hysterectomy