



Venous ThromboEmbolic Disease

Click the next button to continue...



Copyright © 2020 Shelly Betancourt and Michelle Becher

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, distributed, or transmitted in any form or by any means, including photocopying, recording, or other electronic or mechanical methods, without the prior written permission of the publisher, except in the case of brief quotations embodied in critical reviews and certain other noncommercial uses permitted by copyright law. For permission requests, write to the publisher at the address below.

Maternal 911 Education Systems, LLC
475 West Center St.
Ithaca, MI 48847
www.maternal911.com

Maternal 911 and Maternal 911 in Action contains information designed as an educational resource to aid practitioners in providing obstetric care and the use of this information is voluntary. This information should not be considered as inclusive of all proper treatments or methods of care or as a statement of the standard of care. It is not intended to substitute for the independent professional judgement. Maternal 911 reviews the publication regularly, but may not reflect the most recent evidence.

Maternal 911 makes every effort to present accurate and reliable information. The Maternal 911 and Maternal 911 in Action are publications provided 'as is' without any warranty of accuracy, reliability or otherwise, either express or implied. Maternal 911 does not guarantee, warrant, or endorse the products or services of any firm, organization, or person. Neither co-founder nor any officers, directors, members, employees, participants or agents will be liable for any loss, damage or claim with respect to liabilities, including direct, special, indirect, or consequential damages, incurred in connection with this publication or reliance on the information presented.

Data from completing the modules may be used in research and publications with privacy maintained.



Course Description:

Venous thromboembolic (VTE) disease is a high acuity, low occurring process that when recognized can be managed. The course will help by giving understanding of the disease and its management. VTE is a detrimental disease process that is life threatening for the women it effects. The VTE course will provide knowledge for treatment of the pregnant woman while keeping the fetus safe.

Approximate Time to Complete: 70 minutes



Click here to download a print version of this course.



By the end of the module, participants will be able to:

- Have equipment and supplies needed when Thromboembolic Disease occurs in a health care setting while providing care to the pregnant woman.
- Expand knowledge base for learning theories and their instructional implications regarding health care delivery in a setting when a woman is pregnant and Thromboembolic Disease occurs.
- Develop, implement, and evaluate health care delivery in a practice setting prior to an actual event. This will allow for early recognition of an actual event.
- Put knowledge into active health care delivery. This will allow for rapid implementation of the necessary steps needed when Thromboembolic Disease occurs.
- Address issues and implement changes in the health care unit as necessary to ensure a safe environment. Have equipment and supplies needed when Thromboembolic Disease occurs in every labor and delivery room.
- Convert proven learning into actual health care delivery.

- Definition
- Risk Factors and Presentation
 - Risk Factors
 - Risk Factors- Postpartum
 - Risk Factors - VTE Location
 - Risk Factors – Inherited Thrombophilias
 - Pathogenesis
 - Clinical Presentation
- Testing
 - Laboratory
 - Imaging
 - Types of Imaging Used
- Diagnosis
 - Diagnosis
 - Compressive Ultrasonography (CUS)
 - Diagnosis
 - Summary
- Management and Treatment
 - Prevention and Management
 - Clinical Scenarios
 - Laboratories
 - Dosing
 - Treatment
 - Labor and Delivery
 - Immediately PostPartum
 - Length of Therapy
 - Inferior Vena Cava Filters



- Document icon Risk Factors – Inherited Thrombophilias
- Document icon Pathogenesis
- Document icon Clinical Presentation
- Section icon Testing
 - Document icon Laboratory
 - Document icon Imaging
 - Document icon Types of Imaging Used
- Section icon Diagnosis
 - Document icon Diagnosis
 - Document icon Compressive Ultrasonography (CUS)
 - Document icon Diagnosis
 - Document icon Summary
- Section icon Management and Treatment
 - Document icon Prevention and Management
 - Document icon Clinical Scenarios
 - Document icon Laboratories
 - Document icon Dosing
 - Document icon Treatment
 - Document icon Labor and Delivery
 - Document icon Immediately PostPartum
 - Document icon Length of Therapy
 - Document icon Inferior Vena Cava Filters
 - Document icon Thrombolysis
 - Document icon Complications of Medications
- Section icon Summary
 - Document icon Summary
 - Document icon Course Completed Page





Venous ThromboEmbolic Disease

Collectively deep venous thrombosis (DVT) and pulmonary embolism (PE) are referred to as venous thromboembolic disease (VTE).

Well established risk factors for VTE, DVT and PE are pregnancy and the puerperium.



- Fortunately, the prevalence of VTE in pregnancy is low.
- The diagnosis of VTE occurs 1 in 500 - 2000 pregnancies within the United States [1-7].
- The incidence of VTE was 85 per 100,000 pregnancies in a retrospective case-control study of 395,335 pregnant women at 24 weeks of gestation [14].
- An overall incidence of VTE was 200 per 100,000 women-years in a population-based inception cohort study over a 30 year period [5].
- Compared to PE, DVT was three times more common [5].



Occurrence

PE accounts for 9% of maternal deaths and is the seventh leading cause of maternal mortality [9-11].



- In comparison, black women have a three to four times higher pregnancy related mortality rate than white women.
 - Deaths from VTE are higher in black women and the reasons for this cannot be directly attributed to increased rates of VTE [8].
- The largest racial disparity occurs with pregnancy related mortality in the maternal and child health indicators [11].

Carefully consider the risk assessment protocols available and adopt them in a systematic way to reduce the incidence of VTE in pregnancy and postpartum.



[Click here to learn more about occurrence of VTE.](#)





Occurrence

From the late 1990's to early 2000, the incidence of VTE appears to decrease, largely due to a decrease in postpartum VTE incidence [5, 12].

- This change is unclear but could be due to the general increase in the use of thrombo-prophylaxis in the postpartum period.

However, VTE associated pregnancy hospitalizations between 1994 and 2009 reports an increase of 14% with a concomitant increase in comorbid conditions such as obesity and hypertension among those admitted for VTE [13].

DVT's account for 75-80% of VTE cases in pregnancy, with PE accounting for the other 25%. One half occurs in pregnancy and the other half postpartum [43].





- When comparing to non-pregnant women, there is an incidence 4 to 50 times higher in pregnancy to develop a VTE [1-6, 93].
- A personal history of thrombosis is the most important risk factor for VTE in pregnancy, increasing a woman's risk 3-4 fold [36].
- VTE has the highest risk in the postpartum period with higher than usual prevalence in the left lower extremity and pelvis.
- Further risk occurs in women with inherited thrombophilias.

- Compared to the nonpregnant population, the risk of VTE is higher in all stages of pregnancy, however, it is greatest in the postpartum period.
 - Equal distribution of VTE across trimesters of pregnancy are found in most studies [1, 2, 13-17].
 - However, there has been two large retrospective studies showing predominance in the first trimester (50% before 15 weeks) and third trimester (60%) [18, 19].



The list below includes factors that increase the risk of VTE antepartum, but are less well described:

Multiple Gestation [20]

Varicose veins [21]

Inflammatory bowel disease [20]

Urinary tract infection [20]

Diabetes [20]

Sickle Cell Anemia [67]

Hospitalization for non-delivery reasons (particularly those >3 days) [21]

Body mass index (BMI) $\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ [21]

Increased maternal age ≥ 35 years [21]



- As previously mentioned, the risk of VTE is 2-5 times more common postpartum compared to the antepartum period [22-24].
- For the first six weeks postpartum, the risk is highest and slowly declines to rates approximate to that of the general population by 13-18 weeks [22].
- Commonly cited factors that increase the risk of VTE postpartum include the following [14,17,19, 20, 22-24]:
 - Cesarean delivery (a fourfold increase risk compared to vaginal birth) [93]
 - Medical comorbidities
 - Varicose veins
 - Cardiac disease
 - Inflammatory bowel disease
 - Body mass index (BMI) $\geq 25\text{kg/m}^2$
 - Young gestational age
 - Preterm delivery < 36 weeks gestation
 - Obstetric hemorrhage
 - Stillbirth
 - Increased maternal age ≥ 35 years
 - Hypertension
 - Smoking
 - Eclampsia or preeclampsia
 - Postpartum infection

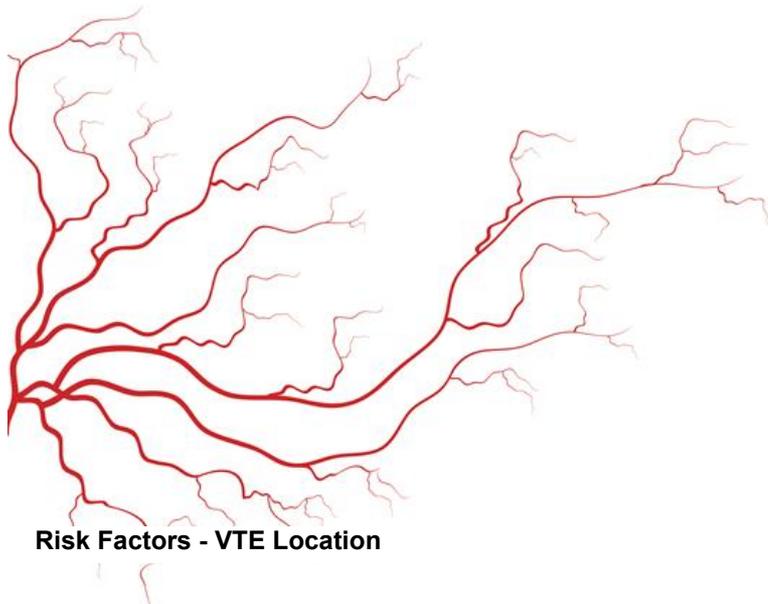


- The absolute risk of VTE postpartum appears to be quite low after six weeks, but is certainly highest the first six weeks postpartum [20, 21, 23].
- The majority of thrombotic events are from VTE (68%) followed by stroke (28%) and myocardial infarction (4%) [20, 21, 23].
- Those with thrombotic events were more likely to be older (35 years or older), have risk factors for thrombosis (i.e. eclampsia, hypercoagulable state, smoking, cesarean section) and be white or black rather than Hispanic or Asian [20, 21, 23].



Interestingly, the majority of lower extremity DVT's occur on the left side during pregnancy and most commonly in the proximal veins (i.e. femoral). In addition, pelvic vein thrombosis is significantly higher during pregnancy and the puerperium.

There is no research describing an increased incidence of upper extremity DVT during pregnancy nor the puerperium.



Left Lower Extremity DVT

- DVT is predominantly left-sided in pregnancy (70 to 90%).
- In a study of sixty pregnant women with a first episode of VTE, there were 58 isolated left lower extremity DVT's, two bilateral and none in the right lower extremity [13].
- In a retrospective study of 124 pregnant women with a DVT, the left leg was affected in 88% of the women [25].
- The left leg large distribution has been attributed to increased venous stasis in the left leg related to compression of the left iliac vein, coupled with compression of the inferior vena cava by the gravid uterus [14, 26, 27].

Pelvic Vein DVT

- Pelvic vein DVT is more commonly diagnosed in pregnancy than in the general population.
- The true prevalence in pregnancy is unknown and may be due to poor sensitivity of compressing the proximal vein during ultrasound for the diagnosis of thrombosis in the pelvic veins [28].



The VTE risks are higher in pregnant women who have inherited thrombophilias [4, 29-35].
 Discussing these thrombophilias in detail is beyond the scope of this program.

The table below reviews high versus low risk thrombophilias [36].

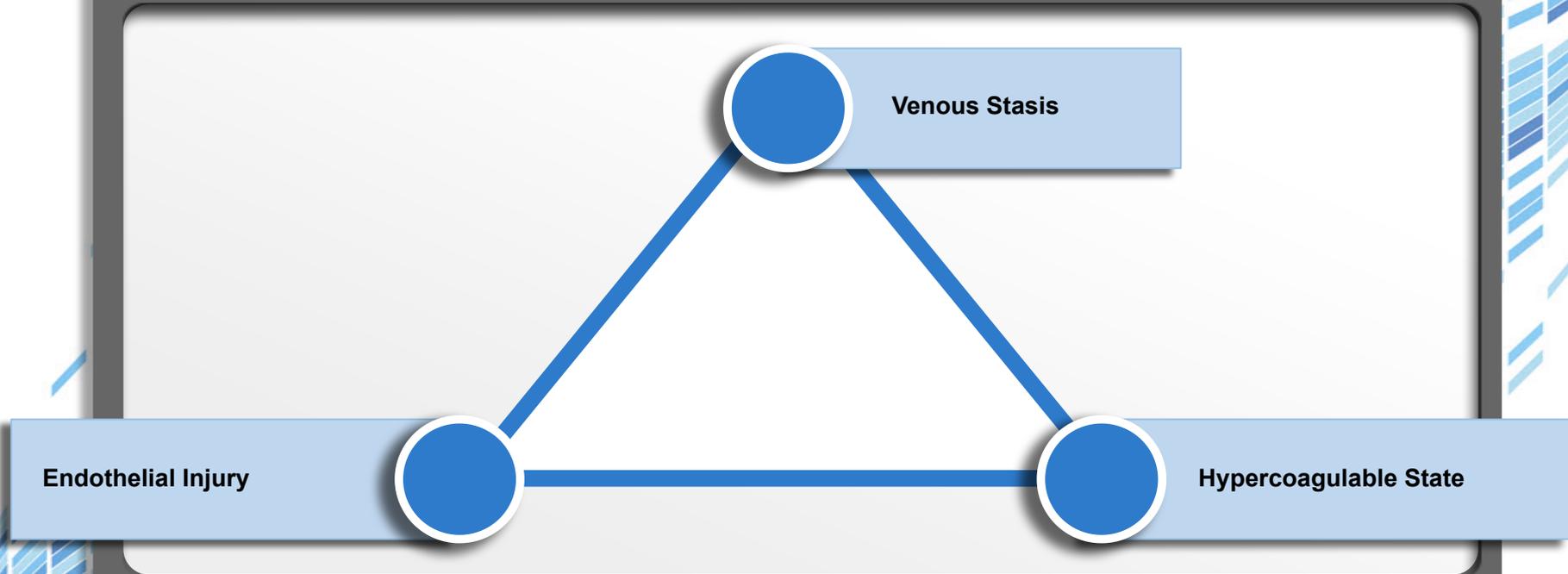
Low Risk Thrombophilia	High Risk Thrombophilia
Factor V Leiden Heterozygous	Antithrombin deficiency
G20210A Heterozygous	Double heterozygous Prothrombin G20210A & Factor V Leiden
Protein C deficiency	Factor V Leiden Homozygous
Protein S deficiency	Prothrombin G20210A Mutation Homozygous
	Antiphospholipid Syndrome

Briefly, the most common inherited thrombophilias are illustrated with the following studies, with variable range in risk of VTE in pregnant patients.

- The thrombotic risk is three times higher for pregnant women with factor V Leiden, compared to the general population [29].
- Pregnant patients with factor V Leiden deficiency and G20210A prothrombin gene mutation along with a history of prior VTE or an affected first degree relative have up to a 50-fold increased risk of VTE [35].
- Pregnant women with an inheritable deficiency of antithrombin III, protein S, or protein C have an 8-fold increase risk of venous thrombosis in the antepartum and postpartum periods combined, compared to pregnant women without a known thrombophilia [30].
- One study described a 5% risk of thrombosis during pregnancy among women with known antiphospholipid syndrome [37].



All three components of Virchow's triad are known to occur in pregnancy and postpartum [2]:



These three features likely contribute to the increased risk of VTE in pregnancy.

Two factors lead to venous stasis of the lower extremities during pregnancy:

- Pregnancy-associated changes in venous capacitance
- Compression of large veins by the gravid uterus.

The increased venous stasis during pregnancy appears to occur even before the uterus has enlarged substantially.

The venous pooling and valvular incompetence are due to hormonally induced dilation of capacitance veins decreasing the linear flow velocity in the lower extremities, although blood volume and total venous return are supra-normal in pregnancy [38].





- Pathogenesis shows early changes amplified by inferior vena cava and iliac vein compression by the gravid uterus [38, 40].
- The left sided predilection of DVT in pregnancy is thought to be compounded by compression of the left iliac vein by the right iliac artery [1, 39].
- Pathogenesis for VTE in pregnancy is thought to involve endothelial injury. Delivery is associated with vascular injury and changes at the uteroplacental surface, likely contributing to the increased risk of VTE in the immediate postpartum period.
- Vascular intimal injury can be exaggerated by forceps, vacuum, or surgical delivery and amplify this phenomenon [1].

- During pregnancy, protein S is noted to decrease; however, with pregnancy being a known hypercoagulable state, it is associated with progressive increases in several coagulation factors including factors I, II, VII, VIII, IX, and X [1, 29, 41,42].
- A resistance to activated protein C shows a progressive increase, normally observed in the second and third trimester [36, 43] and one study showing high resistance to activated protein C associated with an increased risk for pregnancy related venous thrombosis [44].





Clinical Features

- Normal pregnancy and the puerperium features overlap with clinical features of DVT in pregnancy.
- Thus, it can be difficult to distinguish the clinical features associated with the hemodynamic changes of pregnancy from clinically important DVT.
- The clinical presentation of DVT in pregnancy is identical to a non-pregnant woman, other than the higher propensity to develop left-sided DVT and iliac vein thrombosis.
- When the proximal vein has a thrombus, the signs and symptoms to suggest this diagnosis are diffuse pain and swelling that may or may not be associated with erythema, warmth and tenderness of the lower extremity.
- Iliac vein thrombosis has symptoms including swelling of the entire leg with or without flank, lower abdomen, buttock or back pain [45].

Laboratory Considerations

- Compared to the general population, D-dimer has limited diagnostic value in pregnant women suspicious of having a DVT.
- Arterial blood gases are not routinely indicated to diagnose DVT.
- There have been extensive studies for the use of serum D-dimer, a breakdown product of cross-linked fibrin, for serum assays (enzyme linked, turbidimetric, hemagglutination).
- The negative predictive value of D-dimer in ruling out DVT is high in non-pregnant patients, particularly when combined with clinical probability models or with a negative compressive ultrasound.
- D-dimer increases during pregnancy, making this test not useful during pregnancy, although the negative predictive value remain high.
- D-dimer has limited utility in pregnancy, largely due to the natural rise in D-dimer with each trimester and slow decline postpartum.
- There are not established normal reference ranges during pregnancy, thus the altered levels of D-dimer throughout pregnancy and the puerperium are subject to misinterpretation.
 - False negative D-dimer's have been reported in pregnant women with DVT or PE [36].



- The majority of research to support the imaging for diagnosing DVT in pregnancy is extrapolated from large studies in the non-pregnant population with smaller studies suggesting similar efficacy in pregnancy.
- DVT in pregnancy is most often diagnosed by demonstrating poor compressibility of the proximal veins on compression ultrasound (CUS).
- Rarely is the diagnosis of DVT made by noting a filling defect on CT or MRI.
- In both pregnant and non-pregnant patients the proximal vein CUS is highly sensitive and specific diagnostic study for the diagnosis of DVT.
- However, CUS is less sensitive for pelvic vein thrombosis (more common in pregnant women) and for calf vein thrombosis (less common) [28].
- When CUS is negative, poor doppler flow in the iliac vein has reasonable accuracy for the diagnosis of suspected pelvic vein DVT; obtaining serial compression ultrasound is sensitive strategy utilized to follow suspected calf vein DVT in the rare circumstances it propagates normally.





Click the left and right arrows to see more.

Compression Ultrasonography (CUS)

- For diagnosing symptomatic proximal vein thrombosis, in pregnant patients, poor compressibility of a thigh vein with ultrasound probe is highly sensitive (95%) and specific (>95%) [50].
- To assist in diagnosing isolated iliac vein thrombosis during pregnancy, patient positioning in the left lateral decubitus and the addition of doppler analysis for flow variation with respiration helps [46].
- When positive, the diagnosis of DVT by CUS in a pregnant patient should prompt immediate anticoagulation.
- As discussed before, CUS is less sensitive for pelvic vein thrombosis and for calf vein thrombosis [28].
- When CUS is negative, pelvic vein thrombosis may be suspected when the visualized vein is compressible, but the absence of normal changes of flow during respiration or with valsalva occur.
- Utilizing serial CUS can detect suspected calf vein thrombosis that propagates proximal as progression of pregnancy occurs.





Click the left and right arrows to see more.

Serial Compression Ultrasonography

- Calf vein thrombosis can propagate proximally in approximately 20% of cases in non-pregnant patients [48].
- In non-pregnant patients, it has been validated performing day 3 and day 7 serial CUS has detected suspected calf DVT in the setting of initially negative CUS [48, 49].
- Using this modality to follow non-pregnant patients with suspected DVT with initial negative CUS, only 2% are subsequently diagnosed with DVT [48].
- This same finding has been replicated in pregnancy with a small number of prospective studies.
- A prospective study from a single center of 221 women with suspected DVT and initial negative ultrasound showed serial proximal CUS excluded DVT with sensitivity of 94.1% and negative predictive value of 99.5% at three months [50].
- In a similar pregnant population, two additional studies (one retrospective and another observational) imaged the whole leg with serial CUS and very few DVT's detected in the follow up period after the initial negative testing [51, 52].
- In conclusion, regarding CUS, these studies suggest similar findings to what is found in the general population, showing serial CUS is valuable as a sensitive modality to image and diagnose the rare cases of calf DVT that propagates proximally during pregnancy.





Click the left and right arrows to see more.

Magnetic Resonance Venography

- A modality that can detect both thigh and pelvic vein DVT with a sensitivity approaching 100% in the non-pregnant population is magnetic resonance venography [53].
- Data is limited in pregnancy.
- Data is limited in pregnancy, however, small case series of pregnant patients suggest this modality is useful for the diagnosis of pelvic and femoral vein thrombosis in situations where other non-invasive exams were equivocal [54, 55].





Click the left and right arrows to see more.

Ascending Contrast Venography

- In the non-pregnant population, the gold standard for diagnosing lower extremity DVT is visualizing a filling defect by ascending contrast venography [57, 58].
- In pregnancy, venography is rarely performed due to concerns of exposure of ionizing radiation to the fetus, technical difficulties of femoral vein cannulation and decreased sensitivity for isolated ileofemoral thrombosis due to abdominal pelvic shielding [1, 47, 56].
- The alternative imaging test, CUS, approaches venography in diagnostic sensitivity and specificity without these risks, rendering contrast venography less useful for the diagnosis of DVT [1, 47, 56].

Slide 4 of 4





Diagnosing VTE

- To diagnose VTE successfully in pregnancy and the puerperium, it requires clinicians to have a high index of clinical suspicion and a low threshold to order objective confirmatory tests.
- To diagnose DVT in pregnancy, the approach is consistent with evidence-based guidelines published by the American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) in 2012 and the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) in 2018 [67, 36].
- The ACCP and ACOG guidelines are resources for the clinician regarding testing and implementation of anticoagulation based on individual assessment of a pregnant woman suspected of having a DVT.



Pretest Probability

Wells Score

D-dimer

Predictive scoring systems (i.e. Wells score), the LEfT clinical prediction rule and D-dimer levels have had potential clinical probability assessment tools for the diagnosis of suspected DVT.

Unfortunately, these tools have not been validated in large prospective trials and are less useful in pregnant women compared to the general population.

Thus, the LEfT clinical prediction rule should not be used as a standalone test to exclude DVT and needs further validation in a larger population before it can be routinely applied in clinical practice.



Click the terms to see more information.





Pretest Probability

Wells Score

D-dimer

For non-pregnant patients suspected to have DVT, the Wells and modified Wells scoring systems are the most common.

Unfortunately, these are not validated for use in pregnancy and should be interpreted with much caution in this population.

To note, some of the listed features (i.e. active cancer, recent surgery) are not likely to be present in young healthy pregnant women while other features, such as pitting edema and lower extremity tenderness, are common symptoms of pregnancy without the presence of a DVT.



Click the terms to see more information.



Pretest Probability

Wells Score

D-dimer

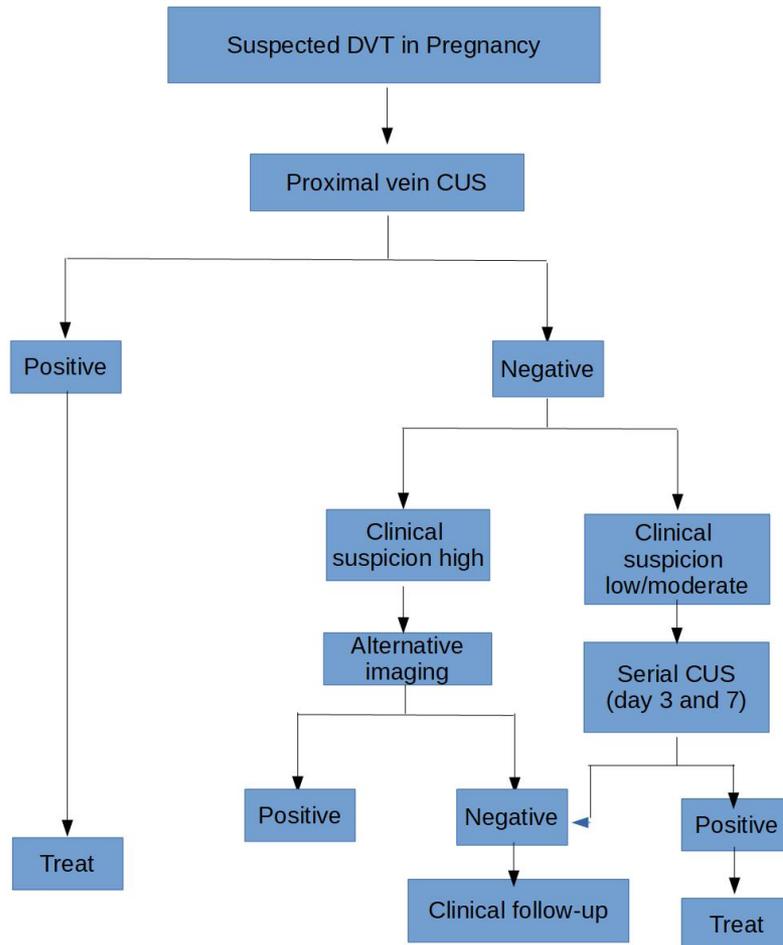
D-dimer has limited value in pregnancy for pretest probability in diagnosing DVT. This is due to the natural rise in D-dimer levels with each trimester, even using the cut-off value of $>500\text{ng/mL}$ (by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) or RBC agglutination) [60-63].

On the other hand, a negative test ($<500\text{ng/mL}$) can significantly lower the clinical suspicion for DVT and aid the clinician in the decision to avoid further testing [59, 61] ([Algorithm](#)).

A higher cut-off value for D-dimer is not validated in pregnancy and cannot be routinely used as pretest probability tool for diagnosing suspected DVT in pregnancy.



Diagnosis Algorithm for Suspected Deep Venous Thrombosis in Pregnancy



- All pregnant patients suspected of having a DVT should undergo evaluation with an initial test of CUS ([Algorithm](#)).
- As discussed, the first-line test for the diagnosis of suspected DVT in pregnancy is proximal CUS. Venography and magnetic resonance imaging are not [59].
 - In advanced pregnancy, CUS should be performed with the patient in the left lateral decubitus position.
- The CUS results and clinical suspicion help to determine if further testing needs to occur; such as doppler ultrasound of the iliac vein, magnetic resonance or contrast venography ([Algorithm](#)).



Negative CUS

- A negative CUS does not rule out DVT in the pregnant patient.
- Further testing depends upon the degree of clinical suspicion.
- When the initial CUS is negative, but clinical suspicion for DVT remains, there are two reasonable options:
 - Further testing concurrent with empiric anticoagulation
 - Further testing with anticoagulation reserved for confirmed cases on follow-up testing.
- There is insufficient data to guide the clinician with this decision.
- When clinical suspicion is evident, the clinician must rely upon judgment and weigh risks of untreated VTE versus bleeding in the pregnant patient.



- All pregnant patients suspected of having a DVT should undergo evaluation with an initial test of CUS ([Algorithm](#)).
- As discussed, the first-line test for the diagnosis of suspected DVT in pregnancy is proximal CUS. Venography and magnetic resonance imaging are not [59].
 - In advanced pregnancy, CUS should be performed with the patient in the left lateral decubitus position.
- The CUS results and clinical suspicion help to determine if further testing needs to occur; such as doppler ultrasound of the iliac vein, magnetic resonance or contrast venography ([Algorithm](#)).

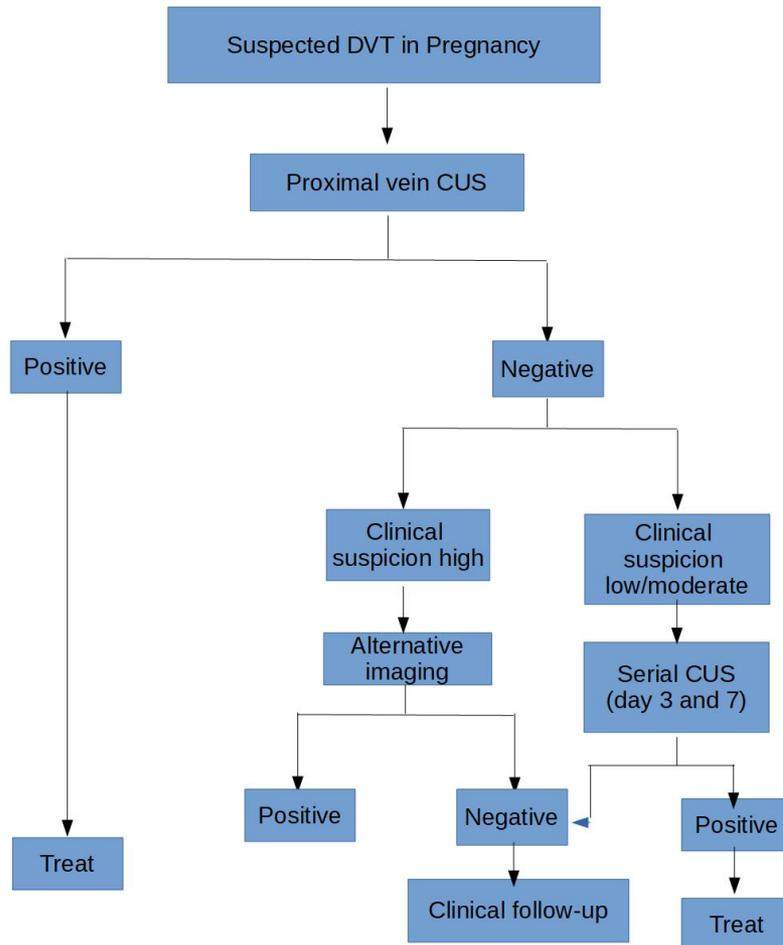


Positive CUS

- When CUS is positive, the diagnosis of DVT occurs.
- Anticoagulation should be initiated.
- The bleeding risks during pregnancy and puerperium are minimal and certainly outweigh the benefits of anticoagulation for DVT.



Diagnosis Algorithm for Suspected Deep Venous Thrombosis in Pregnancy



Diagnosis

- With concerning signs and symptoms (i.e. suspected iliac vein thrombosis with swelling of the entire leg and buttock), it may be warranted to obtain further evaluation with doppler ultrasound directed at the iliac vein followed by magnetic resonance and then contrast venography, as needed.
- Empiric anticoagulation is suggested in these pregnant women.
- The issues with this preference places high value in the diagnostic certainty and risk of maternal death for an untreated thrombosis in pregnancy, and placing less value on risk of radiation or contrast exposure.
- For patients in whom the clinical suspicion is not high, serial CUS is preferred (performed on day three and seven) without empiric anticoagulation but with clinical follow-up throughout pregnancy.
- Preference to avoid unnecessary anticoagulation occurs when the risk of DVT is low.
- Safety for withholding anticoagulation in this setting is assured from data with non-pregnant [48, 59, 64] and pregnant patients [50-52, 59, 61].
- Consider measuring D-dimer levels as an alternative if serial CUS is not feasible. When D-dimer is < 500ng/mL, DVT is unlikely [61].
- With ultrasound and magnetic resonance imaging, there is no measurable radiation exposure associated with these testing modalities.

The differential diagnosis of DVT in pregnancy is similar to that in nonpregnant patients.

- The differential includes other entities that present with erythema, warmth, edema and tenderness of the lower extremity with or without flank, lower abdomen, buttock or back.
- Many of the physiologic changes of normal pregnancy (i.e. lower extremity swelling and cramping), can mask the clinical signs and symptoms of DVT in pregnancy.
- The clinical suspicion for DVT should be high in the setting of pregnancy.
- Features highly suggestive for the diagnosis include unilateral sign and symptoms and the classic symptoms of iliac vein thrombosis; however, these are not always present.
- Such symptoms should prompt immediate investigation for DVT with compressive or Doppler ultrasound.
- It is important to note that DVT can co-exist with other conditions.
- An alternative diagnosis (i.e. cellulitis) will lower the clinical suspicion for DVT and may negate the need for diagnostic imaging.

Prevention

- Consider discussing prophylaxis if prior DVT or thromboembolic disease (i.e. Factor V Leiden) is present
- Provide prophylaxis in pregnancy when indicated (i.e. compression stockings preop for cesarean)

Management

- The first line management of suspected VTE is dependent on the degree of clinical suspicion for acute PE, if contraindications for anticoagulation are present and if PE, DVT or both are suspected.
- Empiric anticoagulation is indicated prior to diagnostic testing when there is a high suspicion for acute PE.
- Anticoagulant therapy is discontinued if VTE is excluded.
- If there is low or moderate clinical suspicion, empiric anticoagulant therapy prior to diagnostic evaluation should be determined case-by-case.
- When PE is suspected, but anticoagulant therapy is contraindicated, diagnostic evaluation should be expedited.
 - Anticoagulation-independent therapy (e.g. inferior vena cava filter) is indicated if VTE is confirmed.
 - Anticoagulant therapy is generally withheld when there is suspicion for DVT alone, without evidence of acute PE, until VTE is confirmed, assuming the diagnostic evaluation can be performed very timely.
- The following table reviews clinical scenarios for antepartum and postpartum management.

See the table of clinical scenarios for antepartum and postpartum management on the next page.



Clinical Scenario	Antepartum Management	Postpartum Management
No history of VTE, no thrombophilia	Surveillance* without anticoagulation therapy	Surveillance without anticoagulation therapy or postpartum prophylaxis anticoagulation therapy if the patient has multiple risk factors VT [†]
VTE diagnosed during pregnancy	Adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH	Adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH for a minimum of 6 weeks postpartum. Longer duration of therapy may be indicated depending on the timing of VTE during pregnancy, prior VTE history, or presence of thrombophilia. Oral anticoagulants may be considered postpartum based upon planned duration of therapy, lactation, and patient preference.
Single provoked VTE (precipitated by a single event such as surgery, trauma, or immobility) unrelated to estrogen or pregnancy due to a transient (resolved risk factor, non thrombophilia	Surveillance* without anticoagulation therapy	Surveillance without anticoagulation therapy or postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy if the patient has additional risk factors †
History of single unprovoked VTE (no identified precipitating factor present; includes prior VTE in pregnancy or associated with hormonal contraception), not on long-term anticoagulation	Prophylactic, intermediate-dose, or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH	Prophylactic, intermediate-dose, or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH regimen for 6 weeks postpartum
Low risk thrombophilia [‡] without previous VTE	Surveillance* without anticoagulation therapy	Surveillance without anticoagulation therapy or postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy if the patient has additional risk factors [‡]
Low risk thrombophilia [‡] with a family history (first-degree relative) of VTE	Surveillance* without anticoagulation therapy or prophylactic LMWH/UFH	Postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy or intermediate-dose LMWH/UFH
Low risk thrombophilia [‡] with a single previous episode of VTE--Not receiving long-term anticoagulation therapy	Prophylactic or intermediate-dose LMWH/UFH	Postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy or intermediate-dose LMWH/UFH
High risk thrombophilia [¥] without previous VTE	Prophylactic or intermediate-dose, or adjusted dose LMWH/UFH	Postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy or intermediate-dose LMWH/UFH
High risk thrombophilia [¥] with a single previous VTE or an affected first-degree relative--Not receiving long-term anticoagulation therapy	Prophylactic intermediate-dose or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH	Postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy or intermediate or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH for 6 weeks (therapy level should be equal to the selected antepartum treatment)
Two or more episodes of VTE--Not receiving long-term anticoagulation therapy (regardless of thrombophilia)	Intermediate-dose or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH	Postpartum prophylactic anticoagulation therapy or intermediate or adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH for 6 weeks (therapy level should be equal to the selected antepartum treatment)
Two or more episodes of VTE--Not receiving long-term anticoagulation therapy (regardless of thrombophilia)	Adjusted-dose LMWH/UFH	Resumption of long-term anticoagulation therapy. Oral anticoagulants may be considered postpartum based upon planned duration of therapy, lactation, and patient preference.

Abbreviations: LMWH, low molecular weight heparin; UFH, unfractionated heparin; VTE, venous thromboembolism

*VTE risk assessment should be performed pre-pregnancy or early in pregnancy and repeated if complications develop, particularly those necessitating hospitalization or prolonged immobility.

†First-degree relative with a history of thrombotic episode, or other major thrombotic risk factors (eg, obesity, prolonged immobility, cesarean delivery).

‡Low-risk thrombophilia: Factor V Leiden heterozygote; prothrombin G20210A mutation heterozygote; protein C or protein S deficiency, antiphospholipid antibody.

¥High-risk thrombophilias include Factor V Leiden homozygosity prothrombin G20210A mutation homozygosity, heterozygosity for factor V Leiden and prothrombin G20210A mutation, or antithrombin deficiency.



The following approach is generally consistent with the 2012 American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) guidelines on VTE and pregnancy [67].

Once anticoagulation is indicated, it should be initiated using subcutaneous low molecular weight heparin (SC LMWH), intravenous unfractionated heparin (IV UFH), or subcutaneous unfractionated heparin (SC UFH) [65].

- [Warfarin](#)
- [Synthetic Heparin](#)
- [Subcutaneous LMWH](#)
- [IV UFH](#)

Warfarin

Generally, warfarin is not utilized, particularly in the first trimester, because of the associated teratogenicity.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



The following approach is generally consistent with the 2012 American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) guidelines on VTE and pregnancy [67].

Once anticoagulation is indicated, it should be initiated using subcutaneous low molecular weight heparin (SC LMWH), intravenous unfractionated heparin (IV UFH), or subcutaneous unfractionated heparin (SC UFH) [65].

- [Warfarin](#)
- [Synthetic Heparin](#)
- [Subcutaneous LMWH](#)
- [IV UFH](#)

Synthetic Heparin

- Due to the lack of safety data, synthetic heparin pentasaccharides (i.e. fondaparinux, indraparinux) are avoided.
- Another unique aspect of anticoagulation in pregnancy is monitoring; it tends to be more vigilant because less is known about the appropriate dosing with pregnancy.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



The following approach is generally consistent with the 2012 American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) guidelines on VTE and pregnancy [67].

Once anticoagulation is indicated, it should be initiated using subcutaneous low molecular weight heparin (SC LMWH), intravenous unfractionated heparin (IV UFH), or subcutaneous unfractionated heparin (SC UFH) [65].

- [Warfarin](#)
- [Synthetic Heparin](#)
- [Subcutaneous LMWH](#)
- [IV UFH](#)

Subcutaneous LMWH

- Subcutaneous LMWH is preferred over IV UFH or SC UFH in most patients because it is easier to use and it appears to be more efficacious with a better safety profile.
- These findings are extrapolated from clinical trials in non-pregnant patients.
- In 22 randomized trials, a meta-analysis, SC LMWH decreased mortality and recurrent thrombosis.
- SC LMWH is more likely to reduce thrombus size and less likely to cause major hemorrhage [66].



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



The following approach is generally consistent with the 2012 American College of Chest Physicians (ACCP) guidelines on VTE and pregnancy [67].

Once anticoagulation is indicated, it should be initiated using subcutaneous low molecular weight heparin (SC LMWH), intravenous unfractionated heparin (IV UFH), or subcutaneous unfractionated heparin (SC UFH) [65].

- [Warfarin](#)
- [Synthetic Heparin](#)
- [Subcutaneous LMWH](#)
- [IV UFH](#)

IV UFH

- Based on clinical knowledge, IV UFH is preferred in patients with marked elevated risk of hemorrhage or persistent hypotension due to PE.
- The reasoning in pregnant women with these risks (risk of bleeding, marked hypotension) is the short half-life and near complete reversal with protamine.
- Either IV UFH or SC UFH is preferred over SC LMWH when the pregnant woman has severe renal failure.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



Little information exists about the appropriate dosing of anticoagulants during pregnancy [67,68].

- Due to the limited data, it seems prudent to have additional caution when dosing these medications with more vigilant monitoring of anticoagulant activity and utilizing the weight adjusted dosing.

The following regimens are reasonable for the initial treatment of VTE during pregnancy or the puerperium.

- Regardless of the regimen, anticoagulant therapy should continue through the pregnancy.
 - **LMWH**
 - **IV UHF**
 - **SC UHF**

- Reasonable initial dosages of SC LMWH include [67, 68]:
 - Dalteparin (Fagmin ®) 200 units/kg once daily
 - Tinzaparin (Innohep ®) 175 units/kg once daily
 - Dalteparin 100units/kg every 12 hours
 - Enoxaparin (Lovenox ®) 1mg/kg every 12 hours
- Dosing is then titrated to an anti-Xa level of 0.6-1.0iu/mL for twice daily administration and 1-2iu/mL for once daily [67, 69, 70].
- The anti-Xa level is first measured six hours after the third or fourth dose with every 12 hour dosing or six hours after the second or third dose when the dosing is once daily.
- Typical adjustments involve an increase or decrease by 10-25%.
- Further anti-Xa levels may be measured six hours after the third injection following the adjustments made to the medication.
- Some clinicians recheck the anti-Xa level every one to three months, once satisfactory levels are obtained; however, this is controversial because few women require dose adjustments [54].

Antifactor Xa levels are not required when LMWH is utilized for prophylactic anticoagulation because the optimal level has not been determined.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



Little information exists about the appropriate dosing of anticoagulants during pregnancy [67,68].

- Due to the limited data, it seems prudent to have additional caution when dosing these medications with more vigilant monitoring of anticoagulant activity and utilizing the weight adjusted dosing.

The following regimens are reasonable for the initial treatment of VTE during pregnancy or the puerperium.

- Regardless of the regimen, anticoagulant therapy should continue through the pregnancy.
 - **LMWH**
 - **IV UFH**
 - **SC UFH**

- IV UFH dosing consists of initial bolus of 80 units/kg followed by a continuous infusion of 18 units/kg per hour [66].
- Every four hours this infusion is titrated to achieve therapeutic activated partial thromboplastin time (aPTT) and corresponds to an anti-Xa level of 0.3-0.7IU/mL.
- Each laboratory will have specified target ranges for the aPTT. Once this target level is reached, it should be rechecked once or twice daily.
- When long term or outpatient anticoagulant therapy is planned, the IV UFH can be transitioned to SC UFH or SC LMWH [67].

Antifactor Xa levels are not required when LMWH is utilized for prophylactic anticoagulation because the optimal level has not been determined.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



Little information exists about the appropriate dosing of anticoagulants during pregnancy [67,68].

- Due to the limited data, it seems prudent to have additional caution when dosing these medications with more vigilant monitoring of anticoagulant activity and utilizing the weight adjusted dosing.

The following regimens are reasonable for the initial treatment of VTE during pregnancy or the puerperium.

- Regardless of the regimen, anticoagulant therapy should continue through the pregnancy.
 - **LMWH**
 - **IV UFH**
 - **SC UFH**

- A reasonable initial dose of SC UFH is 17,500 units every 12 hours.
- The SC UFH dose is then titrated to achieve therapeutic aPTT, where the aPTT level corresponds to an anti-Xa level of 0.3-0.7IU/mL [67].
- The target aPTT range will be laboratory-specific.
- It is typical to have the first aPTT level measured six hours after the second dose then adjust by an increase or decrease of 10-30%.
- Measuring the aPTT level six hours after the second dose following adjustments would be appropriate.
- The aPTT may be measured after 3-4 days of treatment once a stable dose is achieved and then every few weeks.
- During the last 10 weeks of the pregnancy, more frequent monitoring is warranted.

Antifactor Xa levels are not required when LMWH is utilized for prophylactic anticoagulation because the optimal level has not been determined.



Mouse-over the blue terms to learn more.



Treatment

- Initiating LMWH is appropriate with low risk patients in an outpatient setting. Hospitalization may be warranted with the use of IV UFH when there is a large clot, maternal co-morbidities, or hemodynamic instability. A transition to LMWH may be started as the patient becomes hemodynamically stable [36, 43]
 - Typically the transition is done after the patient has received IV UFH for 5-10 days [69].
 - Six hours after the first SC UFH dose the first aPTT can be checked and then six hours after every dose adjustment until a stable dose produces the desirable therapeutic level.
 - Once there is stable dosing of the SC UFH, the aPTT may be checked once or twice daily for 3-4 days and then every few weeks.
- The last ten weeks of pregnancy requires more frequent monitoring.





LABOR AND DELIVERY

When delivery is predicted (i.e. induction, scheduled cesarean), treating with SC LMHW should be discontinued 24 hours prior.

- The effects of heparin then resolve. This is particularly important for patients who desire neuraxial anesthesia and avoiding spinal hematoma upon insertion or removal of the neuraxial anesthesia catheter.

When the pregnant patient has a high risk for recurrent VTE (i.e. those with acute PE or proximal DVT developed in the past month), it may not be desirable to stop the anticoagulation therapy for 24-36 hours.

- These patients may benefit from having their SC LMWH or SC UFH switched to IV UFH.
- The IV UFH can be discontinued 4-6 hours prior to delivery [67].

Once the aPTT is in the normal range, the neuraxial catheter may be placed [71].

Immediately Post Partum

- The regimen, SC LMWH, IV UFH or SC UFH, should be started twelve hours after cesarean delivery or six hours after a vaginal delivery, when significant bleeding has not occurred.
- Long term anticoagulation therapy options include SC LMWH, SC UFH or an oral vitamin K antagonist (i.e. warfarin).
- When warfarin therapy is the chosen option, the patient should receive both warfarin and heparin for at least five days.
- Once the international normalized ratio (INR) has been in the therapeutic range (typically two or three) for two consecutive days, then the heparin may be stopped.
- During lactation, warfarin is considered safe because it does not accumulate in breast milk to a substantial degree [75].





Length of Therapy

The determination of length of anticoagulation should be individualized because the optimal duration is unknown.

Anticoagulation should occur for 3-6 months in women whose only risk for VTE were transient, such as pregnancy and cesarean delivery [67, 76-78].

Generally, anticoagulation therapy continues for at least six weeks postpartum [67, 79]. Patients with persistent risk factors for VTE may require longer therapy and should be individualized.

Inferior Vena Cava Filters

Inferior vena cava (IVC) filters have been used during pregnancy with indications being the same in pregnant women as non-pregnant patients [79, 80].

- During active bleeding, following recent surgery or following a hemorrhagic stroke conventional anticoagulation is contraindicated.
- In women who develop new VTE despite being anticoagulated, conventional anticoagulation has proven ineffective.
- When a complication occurs from anticoagulation, such as significant bleeding, halting of anticoagulation therapy would be prudent.
- With a massive PE, the pulmonary vascular bed is already significantly compromised and unlikely to tolerate another insult.
- A temporary IVC filter may be placed into the IVC in women who develop VTE during pregnancy or the puerperium, since the patient population tends to be quite young and have temporary risk factors for VTE [81, 82].
- The inability to retrieve a filter placed during the third trimester of pregnancy due to the filter tilting, has been reported [83].

Thrombolysis and Thrombectomy

- Teratogenicity due to thrombolytic agents has not been reported, but the risk of maternal hemorrhage is high.
- As a result, thrombolytic therapy should be reserved for pregnant patients with life-threatening acute PE (i.e. persistent and severe hypotension due to the PE) [102].
- Observational studies provide the only data about the efficacy and safety of thrombolytic therapy and/or thrombectomy during pregnancy (i.e. there are no controlled trials) [86-93].
- In a review of case reports and case series (172 pregnant women undergoing treatment with thrombolytic agents) shows the maternal mortality was one percent, the incidence of fetal loss was six percent and the incidence of maternal hemorrhagic complications was eight percent [85].
- Only a few cases have been described, but the risk of postpartum hemorrhage appears to be greatest among women treated within eight hours of delivery [87-92].
- Case studies of thrombectomy report its successful use as a life saving measure when other measures have failed [92, 93].

Heparin has several side effects, including bleeding, thrombocytopenia, skin necrosis, and osteoporosis. These adverse effects can occur even at prophylactic doses but are more likely with long term use.

Bleeding

Skin Necrosis

Osteoporosis

Thrombocytopenia

The bleeding management during heparin therapy depends upon:

- The location and severity of bleeding
- The degree of anticoagulants (i.e. anti Xa level or aPTT)
- The risk of discontinuing the anticoagulant

In many cases, the heparin can be stopped and restarted after the bleeding is controlled.

Consideration to insert an inferior vena cava filter (IVC) should occur if the bleeding is severe enough to prohibit resumption of anticoagulation.

The anticoagulation therapy should not be resumed if the bleeding is related to a placenta previa or abruption. However, this recommendation is based on low quality evidence.



Click the side effects above to learn more.



Heparin has several side effects, including bleeding, thrombocytopenia, skin necrosis, and osteoporosis. These adverse effects can occur even at prophylactic doses but are more likely with long term use.

Bleeding

Skin Necrosis

Osteoporosis

Thrombocytopenia

Skin Necrosis

Heparin-induced skin necrosis is a manifestation of Heparin Induced Thrombocytopenia (HIT) and may occur in the absence of thrombocytopenia.



Click the side effects above to learn more.



Heparin has several side effects, including bleeding, thrombocytopenia, skin necrosis, and osteoporosis. These adverse effects can occur even at prophylactic doses but are more likely with long term use.

Bleeding

Skin Necrosis

Osteoporosis

Thrombocytopenia

Osteoporosis

Long term heparin therapy, longer than seven weeks, can reduce bone mineral density by reducing bone formation.

This effect appears more common with unfractionated heparin than low molecular weight heparin.



Click the side effects above to learn more.



Heparin has several side effects, including bleeding, thrombocytopenia, skin necrosis, and osteoporosis. These adverse effects can occur even at prophylactic doses but are more likely with long term use.

Bleeding

Skin Necrosis

Osteoporosis

Thrombocytopenia

Thrombocytopenia

Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is a potentially fatal complication of heparin therapy.



Click the side effects above to learn more.



Click the right arrow to go to the next page.





- Venous thromboembolism can occur during pregnancy as an isolated lower extremity deep venous thrombosis (DVT) or pulmonary embolism (PE).
- Pregnancy is a risk factor for VTE with a reported incidence that is 4-50 times higher in pregnant patients compared to their non-pregnant counterparts.
- Lower extremity DVT risk is highest in the first six weeks postpartum with a higher incidence of left-sided DVT and pelvic vein clot.
- Proximal vein thrombosis signs and symptoms are diffuse pain and swelling that may or may not be associated with erythema, warmth, and tenderness of the lower extremity.
- Iliac vein thrombosis include symptoms that include swelling of the entire leg with or without flank, lower abdomen, buttock or back pain.



Click each box for more information.





- The clinical features of DVT in pregnancy overlap with many of the features of normal pregnancy.
- Clinical suspicion, a high index of suspicion and low threshold along with the use of objective confirmatory testing are required to accurately diagnose DVT during pregnancy.
- There is limited value with D-Dimer and clinical predication rules as pretest probability for the diagnosis of DVT during pregnancy and the puerperium.
- D-dimer, whether moderate or highly sensitive (with higher cut off values), have not been adequately validated for routine use in pregnancy.
- On the other hand, a negative D-dimer is associated with a high negative predictive value in any trimester.
- DVT diagnosis in pregnancy is made by demonstrating a lack of compressibility of the proximal veins on compressive ultrasound (femoral vein thrombosis) or poor flow on doppler imaging of the femoral-iliac vein (iliac vein thrombosis).

 **Click each box for more information.**





- D-dimer levels and clinical exam cannot be used alone to diagnose DVT.
- Evaluation of a woman suspected to have a DVT in pregnancy depends on the degree of clinical suspicion.
- For all pregnant patients suspected of having lower extremity DVT, it is recommended to undergo proximal vein CUS with the patient in the left lateral decubitus position as the first-line diagnostic test, over venography or magnetic resonance imaging.
- Pregnant women suspected of having a lower extremity DVT, proximal vein compression ultrasound (CUS) is warranted with the patient in the left lateral decubitus position as the first line diagnostic test, over venography or magnetic resonance imaging.

 *Click each box for more information.*





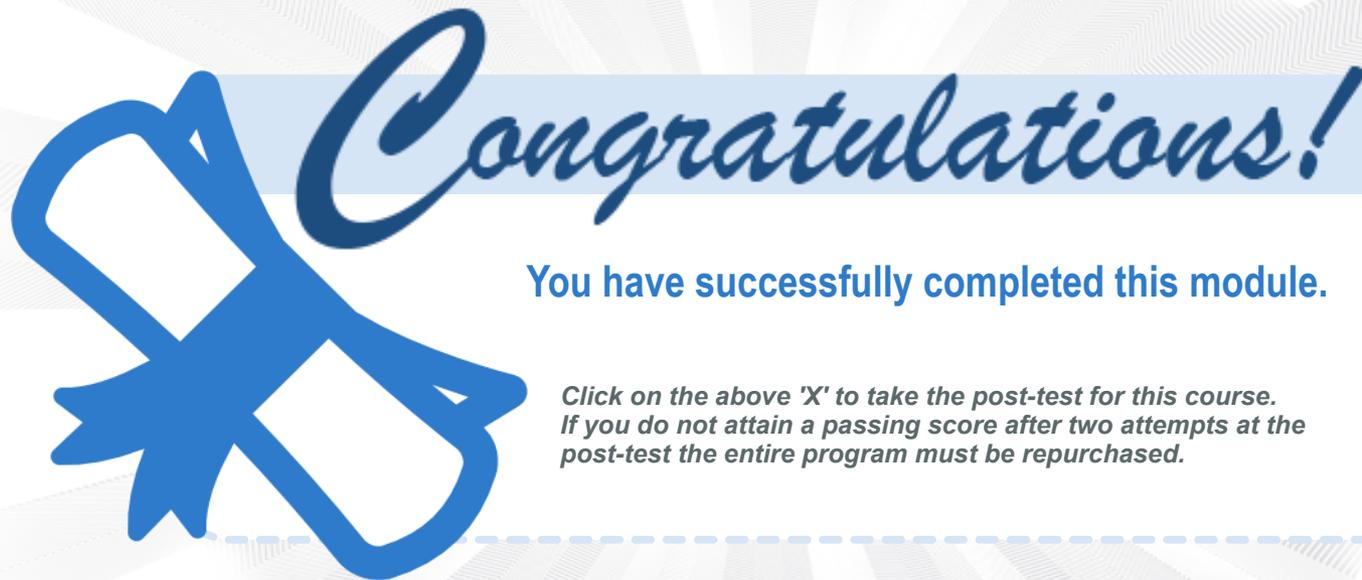
- Pregnant women with a negative CUS with high clinical suspicion, particularly those with signs and symptoms of iliac vein thrombosis (pain, swelling of the entire leg and buttock), Doppler ultrasound directed at the iliac vein is indicated rather than magnetic resonance or contrast venography.
- Initial treatment of suspected VTE during pregnancy depends on the degree of clinical suspicion, whether anticoagulation is contraindicated and whether PE, DVT or both are suspected.
- Dose adjusted subcutaneous low molecular weight heparin (SC LMWH) is utilized for pregnant women rather than adjusted dose intravenous unfractionated heparin (IV UFH) or vitamin K antagonists.
- Direct thrombin inhibitors are not recommended (i.e. dabigatran) or anti-Xa inhibitors (i.e. rivaroxaban, apixaban) in pregnant women.

 **Click each box for more information.**





- It is recommended to continue anticoagulant therapy for at least six weeks postpartum.
- A total duration of anticoagulation is recommended for at least three to six months where the only risk for VTE were transient such as pregnancy.
- Women with persistent risk factors for VTE may require longer therapy and should be individualized.
- Thrombolytic therapy is typically reserved for pregnant or postpartum patients with life-threatening acute pulmonary embolism.



You have successfully completed this module.

*Click on the above 'X' to take the post-test for this course.
If you do not attain a passing score after two attempts at the
post-test the entire program must be repurchased.*

1. Marik PE, Plante LA. Venous thromboembolic disease and pregnancy. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 359:2025.
2. Greer IA. Thrombosis in pregnancy: maternal and fetal issues. *Lancet* 1999; 353:1258.
3. Prevention of venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism. NIH Consensus Development. *JAMA* 1986; 256:744.
4. Kujovich JL. Hormones and pregnancy: thromboembolic risks for women. *Br J Haematol* 2004; 126:443.
5. Heit JA, Kobbervig CE, James AH, et al. Trends in the incidence of venous thromboembolism during pregnancy or postpartum: a 30-year population-based study. *Ann Intern Med* 2005; 143:697.
6. Morris JM, Algert CS, Roberts CL. Incidence and risk factors for pulmonary embolism in the postpartum period. *J Thromb Haemost* 2010; 8:998.
7. Lee RV, McComb LE, Mezzadri FC. Pregnant patients, painful legs: the obstetrician's dilemma. *Obstet Gynecol Surv* 1990; 45:290.
8. Chang J, Elam-Evans LD, Berg CJ, et al. Pregnancy-related mortality surveillance--United States, 1991--1999. *MMWR Surveill Summ* 2003; 52:1.
9. Sachs BP, Brown DA, Driscoll SG, et al. Maternal mortality in Massachusetts. Trends and prevention. *N Engl J Med* 1987; 316:667.
10. MacKay AP, Berg CJ, Liu X, et al. Changes in pregnancy mortality ascertainment: United States, 1999-2005. *Obstet Gynecol* 2011; 118:104.
11. <http://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/dvt/data.html>
12. Treffers PE, Huidekoper BL, Weenink GH, Kloosterman GJ. Epidemiological observations of thromboembolic disease during pregnancy and in the puerperium, in 56,022 women. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 1983; 21:327.
13. Ghaji N, Boulet SL, Tepper N, Hooper WC. Trends in venous thromboembolism among pregnancy-related hospitalizations, United States, 1994-2009. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2013; 209:433.e1.
14. Simpson EL, Lawrenson RA, Nightingale AL, Farmer RD. Venous thromboembolism in pregnancy and the puerperium: incidence and additional risk factors from a London perinatal database. *BJOG* 2001; 108:56.
15. Ginsberg JS, Brill-Edwards P, Burrows RF, et al. Venous thrombosis during pregnancy: leg and trimester of presentation. *Thromb Haemost* 1992; 67:519.
16. Rutherford S, Montoro M, McGehee W, Strong T. Thromboembolic disease associated with pregnancy: an 11-year review. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1991; 164(Suppl):286.
17. Kierkegaard A. Incidence and diagnosis of deep vein thrombosis associated with pregnancy. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 1983; 62:239.
18. Stein PD, Hull RD, Kayali F, et al. Venous thromboembolism in pregnancy: 21-year trends. *Am J Med* 2004; 117:121.
19. Gherman RB, Goodwin TM, Leung B, et al. Incidence, clinical characteristics, and timing of objectively diagnosed venous thromboembolism during pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* 1999; 94:730.

20. Sultan AA, West J, Tata LJ, et al. Risk of first venous thromboembolism in and around pregnancy: a population-based cohort study. *Br J Haematol* 2012; 156:366.
21. Sultan AA, Tata LJ, West J, et al. Risk factors for first venous thromboembolism around pregnancy: a population-based cohort study from the United Kingdom. *Blood* 2013; 121:3953.
22. Abdul Sultan A, West J, Tata LJ, et al. Risk of first venous thromboembolism in pregnant women in hospital: population based cohort study from England. *BMJ* 2013; 347:f6099.
23. Kamel H, Navi BB, Sriram N, et al. Risk of a thrombotic event after the 6-week postpartum period. *N Engl J Med* 2014; 370:1307.
24. Tepper NK, Boulet SL, Whiteman MK, et al. Postpartum venous thromboembolism: incidence and risk factors. *Obstet Gynecol* 2014; 123:987.
25. Haemostasis and Thrombosis Task Force, British Committee for Standards in Haematology. Investigation and management of heritable thrombophilia. *Br J Haematol* 2001; 114:512.
26. Chan WS, Spencer FA, Ginsberg JS. Anatomic distribution of deep vein thrombosis in pregnancy. *CMAJ* 2010; 182:657.
27. Cockett FB, Thomas ML, Negus D. Iliac vein compression.--Its relation to iliofemoral thrombosis and the post-thrombotic syndrome. *Br Med J* 1967; 2:14.
28. Hull RD, Raskob GE, Carter CJ. Serial impedance plethysmography in pregnant patients with clinically suspected deep-vein thrombosis. Clinical validity of negative findings. *Ann Intern Med* 1990; 112:663.
29. McColl MD, Ramsay JE, Tait RC, et al. Risk factors for pregnancy associated venous thromboembolism. *Thromb Haemost* 1997; 78:1183.
30. Kearon C, Ginsberg JS, Hirsh J. The role of venous ultrasonography in the diagnosis of suspected deep venous thrombosis and pulmonary embolism. *Ann Intern Med* 1998; 129:1044.
31. Friederich PW, Sanson BJ, Simioni P, et al. Frequency of pregnancy-related venous thromboembolism in anticoagulant factor-deficient women: implications for prophylaxis. *Ann Intern Med* 1996; 125:955.
32. Grandone E, Margaglione M, Colaizzo D, et al. Genetic susceptibility to pregnancy-related venous thromboembolism: roles of factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A, and methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase C677T mutations. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1998; 179:1324.
33. Dizon-Townson DS, Nelson LM, Jang H, et al. The incidence of the factor V Leiden mutation in an obstetric population and its relationship to deep vein thrombosis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1997; 176:883.
34. Gerhardt A, Scharf RE, Beckmann MW, et al. Prothrombin and factor V mutations in women with a history of thrombosis during pregnancy and the puerperium. *N Engl J Med* 2000; 342:374.
35. Bergrem A, Dahm AE, Jacobsen AF, et al. Differential haemostatic risk factors for pregnancy-related deep-vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism: a population-based case-control study. *Thromb Haemost* 2012; 108:1165.
36. ACOG Practice Bulletin #196 Thromboembolism in Pregnancy; *Obstet Gynecol* copyright 2018 American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists.

37. Zotz RB, Gerhardt A, Scharf RE. Inherited thrombophilia and gestational venous thromboembolism. *Best Pract Res Clin Haematol* 2003; 16:243.
38. Branch DW, Silver RM, Blackwell JL, et al. Outcome of treated pregnancies in women with antiphospholipid syndrome: an update of the Utah experience. *Obstet Gynecol* 1992; 80:614.
39. Bourjeily G, Paidas M, Khalil H, et al. Pulmonary embolism in pregnancy. *Lancet* 2010; 375:500.
40. Goodrich, SM, Wood JE. Peripheral Venous Distensibility and velocity of venous blood flow during pregnancy or during oral contraceptive therapy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1964; 90:740.
41. Macklon NS, Greer IA, Bowman AW. An ultrasound study of gestational and postural changes in the deep venous system of the leg in pregnancy. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1997; 104:191.
42. Hellgren M, Blombäck M. Studies on blood coagulation and fibrinolysis in pregnancy, during delivery and in the puerperium. I. Normal condition. *Gynecol Obstet Invest* 1981; 12:141.
43. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Thromboembolism in pregnancy. ACOG Practice Bulletin 19. ACOG 2000; Washington, DC.
44. Walker MC, Garner PR, Keely EJ, et al. Changes in activated protein C resistance during normal pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1997; 177:162.
45. Gerbasi FR, Bottoms S, Farag A, Mammen E. Increased intravascular coagulation associated with pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* 1990; 75:385.
46. Wright H, Osborn S, Edmunds D. Changes in the rate of flow of venous blood in the leg during pregnancy, measured with radioactive sodium. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1950; 90:481.
47. Kovac M, Mikovic Z, Rakicevic L, et al. The use of D-dimer with new cutoff can be useful in diagnosis of venous thromboembolism in pregnancy. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol* 2010; 148:27.
48. Polak JF, Wilkinson DL. Ultrasonographic diagnosis of symptomatic deep venous thrombosis in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1991; 165:625.
49. Lohr JM, Kerr TM, Lutter KS, et al. Lower extremity calf thrombosis: to treat or not to treat? *J Vasc Surg* 1991; 14:618.
50. Heijboer H, Cogo A, Büller HR, et al. Detection of deep vein thrombosis with impedance plethysmography and real-time compression ultrasonography in hospitalized patients. *Arch Intern Med* 1992; 152:1901.
51. Chan WS, Spencer FA, Lee AY, et al. Safety of withholding anticoagulation in pregnant women with suspected deep vein thrombosis following negative serial compression ultrasound and iliac vein imaging. *CMAJ* 2013; 185:E194.
52. Le Gal G, Prins AM, Righini M, et al. Diagnostic value of a negative single complete compression ultrasound of the lower limbs to exclude the diagnosis of deep venous thrombosis in pregnant or postpartum women: a retrospective hospital-based study. *Thromb Res* 2006; 118:691.
53. Rațiu A, Navolan D, Spătariu I, et al. Diagnostic value of a negative single color duplex ultrasound in deep vein thrombosis suspicion during pregnancy. *Rev Med Chir Soc Med Nat Iasi* 2010; 114:454.
54. Carpenter JP, Holland GA, Baum RA, et al. Magnetic resonance venography for the detection of deep venous thrombosis: comparison with contrast venography and duplex Doppler ultrasonography. *J Vasc Surg* 1993; 18:734.

55. Spritzer CE, Evans AC, Kay HH. Magnetic resonance imaging of deep venous thrombosis in pregnant women with lower extremity edema. *Obstet Gynecol* 1995; 85:603.
56. Lee RV, McComb LE, Mezzadri FC. Pregnant patients, painful legs: the obstetrician's dilemma. *Obstet Gynecol Surv* 1990; 45:290.
57. Torkzad MR, Bremme K, Hellgren M, et al. Magnetic resonance imaging and ultrasonography in diagnosis of pelvic vein thrombosis during pregnancy. *Thromb Res* 2010; 126:107.
58. Hull R, Hirsh J, Sackett DL, et al. Clinical validity of a negative venogram in patients with clinically suspected venous thrombosis. *Circulation* 1981; 64:622
59. Lensing AW, Büller HR, Prandoni P, et al. Contrast venography, the gold standard for the diagnosis of deep-vein thrombosis: improvement in observer agreement. *Thromb Haemost* 1992; 67:8.
60. Bergqvist A, Bergqvist D, Hallböök T. Deep vein thrombosis during pregnancy. A prospective study. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 1983; 62:443.
61. Kline JA, Williams GW, Hernandez-Nino J. D-dimer concentrations in normal pregnancy: new diagnostic thresholds are needed. *Clin Chem* 2005; 51:825.
62. Chan WS, Chunilal S, Lee A, et al. A red blood cell agglutination D-dimer test to exclude deep venous thrombosis in pregnancy. *Ann Intern Med* 2007; 147:165.
63. Chan WS, Lee A, Spencer FA, et al. D-dimer testing in pregnant patients: towards determining the next 'level' in the diagnosis of deep vein thrombosis. *J Thromb Haemost* 2010; 8:1004.
64. Wells PS, Hirsh J, Anderson DR, et al. Comparison of the accuracy of impedance plethysmography and compression ultrasonography in outpatients with clinically suspected deep vein thrombosis. A two centre paired-design prospective trial. *Thromb Haemost* 1995; 74:1423.
65. Middeldorp S. How I treat pregnancy-related venous thromboembolism. *Blood* 2011; 118:5394.
66. Hirsh J, Bauer KA, Donati MB, et al. Parenteral anticoagulants: American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines (8th Edition). *Chest* 2008; 133:141S.
67. Bates SM, Greer IA, Middeldorp S, et al. VTE, thrombophilia, antithrombotic therapy, and pregnancy: Antithrombotic Therapy and Prevention of Thrombosis, 9th ed: American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines. *Chest* 2012; 141:e691S.
68. Romualdi E, Dentali F, Rancan E, et al. Anticoagulant therapy for venous thromboembolism during pregnancy: a systematic review and a meta-analysis of the literature. *J Thromb Haemost* 2013; 11:270.
69. Togli MR, Weg JG. Venous thromboembolism during pregnancy. *N Engl J Med* 1996; 335:108.
70. UpToDate.com: <http://www.uptodate.com/contents/deep-vein-thrombosis-anad-pulmonary-embolism-in-pregnancy-treatment?source=searchresult&search=DVT+treatment+in+pregnancy&selectedTitle=1%E150>
71. Horlocker TT, Wedel DJ, Benzon H, et al. Regional anesthesia in the anticoagulated patient: defining the risks (the second ASRA Consensus Conference on Neuraxial Anesthesia and Anticoagulation). *Reg Anesth Pain Med* 2003; 28:172.
72. Dulitzki M, Pauzner R, Langevitz P, et al. Low-molecular-weight heparin during pregnancy and delivery: preliminary experience with 41 pregnancies. *Obstet Gynecol* 1996; 87:380.

73. Lumpkin MM. FDA public health advisory. *Anesthesiology* 1998; 88:27A.
74. Wysowski DK, Talarico L, Bacsaanyi J, Botstein P. Spinal and epidural hematoma and low-molecular-weight heparin. *N Engl J Med* 1998; 338:1774.
75. Bates SM, Ginsberg JS. How we manage venous thromboembolism during pregnancy. *Blood* 2002; 100:3470.
76. Barbour LA. Current concepts of anticoagulant therapy in pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol Clin North Am* 1997; 24:499.
77. Ginsberg JS, Brill-Edwards P, Burrows RF, et al. Venous thrombosis during pregnancy: leg and trimester of presentation. *Thromb Haemost* 1992; 67:519.
78. Schulman S, Rhedin AS, Lindmarker P, et al. A comparison of six weeks with six months of oral anticoagulant therapy after a first episode of venous thromboembolism.
79. Kamel H, Navi BB, Sriram N, et al. Risk of a thrombotic event after the 6-week postpartum period. *N Engl J Med* 2014; 370:1307.
80. Zwaan M, Lorch H, Kulke C, et al. Clinical experience with temporary vena caval filters. *J Vasc Interv Radiol* 1998; 9:594.
81. Zwaan M, Lorch H, Kulke C, et al. Clinical experience with temporary vena caval filters. *J Vasc Interv Radiol* 1998; 9:594.
82. Kocker M, Krcova V, Prochazka M. Retrievable Gunther Tulip Vena Cava Filter in the prevention of pulmonary embolism in patients with acute deep venous thrombosis in perinatal period. *Eur J Radiol* 2009;70:165.
83. McConville RM, Kennedy PT, Collins AJ, Ellis PK. Failed retrieval of an inferior vena cava filter during pregnancy because of filter tilt: report of two cases. *Cardiovasc Intervent Radiol* 2009; 32:174.
84. Ahearn GS, Hadjiliadis D, Govert JA, Tapson VF. Massive pulmonary embolism during pregnancy successfully treated with recombinant tissue plasminogen activator: a case report and review of treatment options. *Arch Intern Med* 2002; 162:1221.
85. Turrentine MA, Braems G, Ramirez MM. Use of thrombolytics for the treatment of thromboembolic disease during pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol Surv* 1995; 50:534.
86. Patterson DE, Raviola CA, D'Orazio EA, et al. Thrombolytic and endovascular treatment of peripartum iliac vein thrombosis: a case report. *J Vasc Surg* 1996; 24:1030.
87. Roberts DH, Rodrigues EA, Ramsdale DR. Postpartum acute myocardial infarction successfully treated with intravenous streptokinase--a case report. *Angiology* 1993; 44:570.
88. Cincotta RB, Davis SM, Gerraty RP, Thomson KR. Thrombolytic therapy for basilar artery thrombosis in the puerperium. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995; 173:967.
89. Fagher B, Ahlgren M, Astedt B. Acute massive pulmonary embolism treated with streptokinase during labor and the early puerperium. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 1990; 69:659.
90. Hall RJ, Young C, Sutton GC, Cambell S. Treatment of acute massive pulmonary embolism by streptokinase during labour and delivery. *Br Med J* 1972; 4:647.

91. Herrera S, Comerota AJ, Thakur S, et al. Managing iliofemoral deep venous thrombosis of pregnancy with a strategy of thrombus removal is safe and avoids post-thrombotic morbidity. *J Vasc Surg* 2014; 59:456.
92. Funakoshi Y, Kato M, Kuratani T, et al. Successful treatment of massive pulmonary embolism in the 38th week of pregnancy. *Ann Thorac Surg* 2004; 77:694.
93. Blondon M, Casini A, Hoppe KK, Boehlen F, Righini M, Smith NL. Risks of venous thromboembolism after cesarean sections: a meta analysis. *Chest* 2016; 150: 572-96.