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Analgesia para o parto vaginal: análise secundária do Estudo Multi-países da Organização Mundial de Saúde sobre Saúde Materna e Neonatal

Analgesia for vaginal birth: secondary analysis from the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS)

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Tese de Doutorado apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Tocoginecologia, da Faculdade de Ciências Médicas da Universidade Estadual de Campinas como parte dos requisitos para obtenção do Título de Doutor em Ciências da Saúde, Área de concentração em Saúde Materna e Perinatal.

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à minha esposa Elisete, minha amada, companheira,
incansável incentivadora, à você devo este desafio
e este grande sonho.

“ O valor das coisas não está no tempo que elas duram, mas na
intensidade com que acontecem. Por isso existem momentos
inesquecíveis, coisas inexplicáveis e pessoas incomparáveis”

Fernando Sabino

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RESUMO

Introdução: Trabalho de parto e parto são fenômenos fisiológicos, extremamente dolorosos para a maioria das mulheres, sendo a intensidade da dor influenciada por características individuais e socioculturais. Há diferenças no uso e na disponibilidade de métodos de alívio da dor entre os países de baixa, média e alta renda, com menor uso de analgesia nos países de baixa renda, devido à influência cultural, custos, restrições de recursos e escassez de anesthesiologistas. Além disso, existem novos desafios para a realização de anestesia/analgesia, com as mudanças nas características da população, incluindo taxas crescentes de obesidade materna, idade materna avançada e complexidade de doenças pré-existentes. **Objetivos:** Avaliar, em diferentes países e regiões do mundo, o uso de qualquer forma de analgesia para partos vaginais, seus fatores associados e resultados maternos e perinatais, em casos com e sem morbidade materna grave. **Métodos:** análise secundária do estudo: *World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS)*. Este estudo foi um corte transversal empreendido pela Organização Mundial da Saúde entre 01 de maio de 2010 e 31 de dezembro de 2011, incluindo 357 unidades de saúde em 29 países (África, Ásia, América Latina e Oriente Médio). O principal objetivo do WHO-MCS foi caracterizar a morbidade materna, perinatal e neonatal grave a partir da vigilância em uma rede mundial de unidades de saúde. Para o estudo atual foram incluídas todas as mulheres que tiveram parto vaginal com idade gestacional superior a 22 semanas e com peso do recém nascido superior a 500 gramas. Foram excluídas as mulheres com diagnóstico de óbito fetal tardio/macerado. Foram realizadas 2 análises, a primeira para descrição do uso de analgesia nos diversos países do estudo e segundo Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano (IDH), com descrição geral de resultados maternos e perinatais de casos com e sem analgesia e avaliação de fatores associados à realização do procedimento anestésico. A segunda análise visou a avaliação do uso de analgesia dentre os casos de morbidade materna grave. **Resultados:** Das 314.623 mulheres incluídas, 220.951 tiveram partos vaginais e, dessas, apenas 4% foram submetidas à analgesia de parto, sendo a maioria originária de países com IDH mais elevados. Os fatores associados de maneira independente a maior realização de analgesia foram: nuliparidade, maior escolaridade, cesárea prévia, baixo peso ao nascer e prematuridade. Na análise de mulheres com morbidade materna grave e

parto vaginal, o uso da analgesia não se mostrou como fator preditor ou associado à pior resultado materno (Nearmiss materno-NMM e morte materna-MM), no entanto, mulheres com morbidade grave tiveram significativamente mais analgesia para parto vaginal. **Conclusões:** Este trabalho permite uma avaliação geral da analgesia para parto vaginal, em diversos cenários, podendo ser a base para estudos futuros e para políticas públicas para melhorar a saúde materna e a experiência durante o trabalho de parto.

Palavras chave: analgesia, parto vaginal, anestesia, morbidade materna.

ABSTRACT

Background: Labor and delivery are physiological phenomena, extremely painful for most women. However, pain intensity is influenced by individual and sociocultural characteristics. There are marked differences in the use and availability of pain relief methods among low-, middle-, and high-income countries, with much lower analgesia use in low-income countries due to cultural influence, costs and human resource constraints in many of these nations. In addition, there are new challenges for analgesia, with changes in population characteristics, including increasing rates of maternal obesity, advanced maternal age, and increased complexity of pre-existing medical conditions. **Aim:** To evaluate, in different countries and regions of the world, the use of any form of analgesia for vaginal deliveries, their associated factors and maternal and perinatal outcomes, in cases with and without severe maternal morbidity. **Methods:** secondary analysis of World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS). This was a cross-sectional study undertaken by the World Health Organization between May 1, 2010 and December 31, 2011, including 357 health units in 29 countries (Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East). The main objective of the WHO-MCS was to characterize maternal, perinatal and neonatal morbidity with prospective surveillance in a worldwide network of health units. For the current study we included all women who had vaginal delivery with gestational age greater than 22 weeks and newborn weighing more than 500 grams. Women who had late / macerated fetal death diagnosis were excluded. Two analyzes were carried out, the first one to describe the use of analgesia in the different countries of the study and according to Human Development Index (HDI), describing maternal and perinatal outcomes of cases with and without analgesia. Factors associated with performing the anesthetic procedure were also considered. The second analysis aimed at assessing the use of analgesia among cases of severe maternal morbidity. **Results:** Of the 314,623 women included in our secondary analysis of the WHO-MCS; 220,951 had vaginal deliveries, of which only 4% were submitted to labor analgesia, the majority from countries with higher HDI. The factors independently associated with increased analgesia were: nulliparity, higher schooling, previous cesarean section, low birth weight and prematurity. Among women with severe morbidity, the use of analgesia was not a predictor or associated with worse maternal outcome (Maternal Near Miss-NMM and Maternal Death- MD). However,

cases of severe maternal morbidity had significantly more analgesia for vaginal delivery. **Conclusions:** This study allows an overall evaluation of analgesia for vaginal delivery, in several scenarios, and may be the basis for future studies and public health policies to improve maternal health and labor experience.

Keywords: analgesia, vaginal delivery, anesthesia, maternal morbidity

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

- CID** – Classificação Internacional de Doenças
- CPAV** – Condições Potencialmente Ameaçadoras de Vida
- EUA** – Estados Unidos da América
- HDI** – *Human Development Index*
- HIV** – Human Immunodeficiency Virus
- IDH** – Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano
- ICU** – Intensive Care Unit
- IM** - intramuscular
- IMC** – Índice de Massa Corporal
- IV** – intravenosa
- MCS** – Multicountry Survey
- MD** – Maternal Death
- Min** – minuto(s)
- MM** – Morte Materna
- MNM** – Maternal Nearmiss
- NMM** – Nearmiss Materno
- N2O** – Óxido Nitroso
- O2** – Oxigênio
- ODM** – Objetivos de Desenvolvimento do Milênio
- OMS** – Organização Mundial da Saúde
- PCA** – Patient Controlled Analgesia
- PTLC** – *Potentially Life-Threatning Condition*
- RCP** – Reanimação Cardiopulmonar
- RMM** – Razão de Mortalidade Materna
- RN** – Recém Nascido
- SC** – Subcutânea
- SMM** – *Severe Maternal Morbidity*
- SMO** – *Severe Maternal Outcome*

UNICAMP – Universidade Estadual de Campinas

VBAC- *Vaginal Birth After Cesarean*

WHO – *World Health Organization*

SUMÁRIO

1. INTRODUÇÃO	14
2. OBJETIVOS	24
2.1. Objetivo Geral.....	24
2.2. Objetivos Específicos.....	25
3. MÉTODO	25
3.1. <i>World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS)</i>	25
3.2. Método – Objetivo específico 1	26
3.2.1. Critérios de Inclusão	26
3.2.2. Critérios de Exclusão.....	26
3.2.3. Identificação de Sujeitos.....	27
3.2.4. Variáveis	27
3.2.5. Processamento e Análise dos Dados.....	27
3.3 Método – Objetivo específico 2.....	28
3.3.1. Critérios de Inclusão	28
3.3.2. Critérios de Exclusão.....	28
3.3.3. Identificação de Sujeitos.....	28
3.3.4. Variáveis e Conceitos	28
3.3.5. Processamento e Análise dos Dados.....	29
4. RESULTADOS	30
4.1. Artigo 1	31
4.2. Artigo 2.....	46
5. DISCUSSÃO GERAL	63
6. CONCLUSÕES	68
7. REFERÊNCIAS	69
8. ANEXOS	73
ANEXO 1- Aprovação Ética.....	73
ANEXO 2 – Ficha de Coleta de Dados	74

1. INTRODUÇÃO

O controle da dor faz parte da assistência ao parto, visando uma experiência positiva da mulher durante o período de trabalho de parto e nascimento (1). O presente estudo irá abordar a utilização da analgesia (método farmacológico de controle da dor) para parto vaginal.

1.1. Histórico: Analgesia de parto

Desde a Idade Média há relatos de tentativas para minimizar as dores do trabalho de parto. Em 1847, o obstetra escocês James Simpson utilizou a inalação de éter para reduzir a dor do parto, iniciando uma nova modalidade de assistência. Alguns anos depois, em meados de 1853, John Snow foi chamado para administrar anestesia (clorofórmio) à rainha Vitória e diminuir seu sofrimento durante o nascimento do seu oitavo filho (2).

O obstetra suíço James Oscar Kreiss foi o primeiro, em 1900, a registrar a administração de uma anestesia espinhal durante o trabalho de parto. Relatou o uso de cocaína intraespinhal, um anestésico local apresentado por August Bier em 1898, para aliviar a dor do trabalho de parto em seis parturientes com dilatação cervical total. Nesta ocasião ocorreram efeitos colaterais que incluíam a alta incidência de dor de cabeça pós-punção lombar e vômitos (2). Dois anos após, Hopkins, nos Estados Unidos, realizou a primeira cesariana sob anestesia espinhal. Desde então, a busca por novos métodos de analgesia para trabalho de parto com maior segurança e menores efeitos colaterais tem sido incessante: anestesia espinhal, bloqueio pudendo, paracervical, caudal, anestesia epidural (3).

A analgesia de parto surgiu após a descoberta dos anestésicos locais e dos bloqueios espinhais. As complicações eram muitas e mesmo a taxa de mortalidade materna aumentou na primeira metade do século XX, fazendo com que a técnica praticamente fosse abandonada. Anestésicos locais menos alergênicos, tipo amida, surgem, as complicações diminuem, e com isso volta-se a utilizar o bloqueio espinhal para a analgesia de parto, para diminuir a dor durante o trabalho de parto (4, 5).

A flexibilização do tempo de analgesia e o menor bloqueio motor proporcionados pelo advento dos anestésicos com melhores qualidades (tipo amidas) e do uso de cateteres peridurais contribuíram sobremaneira para a inclusão definitiva, na prática obstétrica, da analgesia de parto. Na década de 70 a descoberta de receptores espinhais de opióides estimulou ainda mais a utilização da analgesia durante o trabalho de parto e o parto, com pouco bloqueio motor e analgesia eficaz (5).

A anestesia peridural contínua com anestésicos tipo amida associada à opióides lipossolúveis passa a ser a técnica-padrão para analgesia de parto na década de 80 (4, 6, 7)

Apesar de ser um fenômeno fisiológico, o trabalho de parto e o parto, são geralmente considerados muito dolorosos para a maioria das mulheres (8), com importantes influências de características sócio-culturais, crenças religiosas, além de aspectos biológicos e psicológicos individuais (9-11). A dor deve ser considerada e minimizada, para que a mulher tenha uma experiência positiva do trabalho de parto e parto, e toda equipe envolvida no cuidado deve ter este foco (11).

A dor provocada pelas contrações e dilatação do colo uterino, associada à ansiedade, causam efeitos deletérios tanto para a mãe, quanto para o feto, acarretando hiperventilação materna, aumento do consumo de oxigênio, aumento nas concentrações de catecolaminas circulantes, do cortisol e do hormônio adrenocorticotrópico. Hiperventilação materna leva à hipocarbia, vasoconstricção útero-placentária e desvio da curva de dissociação da hemoglobina materna para a esquerda. Estes efeitos, associados ao aumento do consumo de oxigênio materno, podem diminuir a oferta de oxigênio ao feto.

As catecolaminas circulantes aumentadas contribuem para vasoconstricção dos vasos uterinos, aumento do consumo de oxigênio e do lactato sanguíneo. Quando ocorre o alívio da dor do trabalho de parto a ventilação-minuto, o consumo de oxigênio, as catecolaminas circulantes e o lactato sanguíneo diminuem. A analgesia peridural pode melhorar a perfusão placentária e diminuir a concentração de substâncias liberadas pelo estresse, como as beta-endorfinas e o cortisol (9).

Abordagens farmacológicas e não farmacológicas tem sido preconizadas para o alívio da dor do parto e principalmente as não farmacológicas, cada vez mais estimuladas. Os métodos não farmacológicos são muito populares, quando enfatizam a abordagem holística do indivíduo, privilegiando a interação entre corpo, mente, espírito e o ambiente. Entre as técnicas não farmacológicas para alívio da dor, podemos citar o suporte contínuo durante o parto (presença de acompanhante), livre movimentação, uso de bolas, banho, massagens, musicoterapia, hipnose e acupuntura (12, 13). Dentre os métodos farmacológicos para controle da dor, o principal é a analgesia.

1.2. Tipos de analgesia para alívio da dor no trabalho de parto e parto e diferenças conforme Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano (IDH)

A dor do parto é transmitida através das raízes do nervo torácico, lombar e sacral inferior que são passíveis de bloqueios. A analgesia peridural é conseguida através da colocação de um cateter no espaço peridural lombar. As soluções de anestésicos locais, opioides ou ambas podem ser administradas como doses intermitentes ou como infusão contínua (4).

A técnica alternativa de analgesia combinada raqui-peridural ganhou popularidade recentemente. Com esta técnica, um único bolus de um opióide, às vezes em combinação com anestésico local, é injetado no espaço subaracnóideo, além da colocação de um cateter no espaço peridural. O uso de um bolus subaracnóideo de opioides resulta no início rápido de alívio da dor sem praticamente nenhum bloqueio motor. Em contraste com a anestesia peridural, os opioides espinhais não causam comprometimento motor, dando à mulher parturiente a opção de continuar a deambulação (5, 12). A deambulação está relacionada com maior preservação da função motora, diminuição de partos instrumentais e maior satisfação materna (14).

A analgesia combinada raqui-peridural está associada a maior grau de satisfação entre mulheres parturientes quando comparadas com a anestesia peridural, embora ainda haja discussão sobre risco aumentado de parto cesárea por alteração na frequência cardíaca fetal (4, 13).

Os analgésicos sistêmicos são úteis para pacientes que preferem técnicas

menos invasivas, ou nas quais as técnicas regionais são contra-indicadas ou não estão disponíveis. Eles não são tão efetivos e frequentemente tem efeitos colaterais como sedação e depressão respiratória. Os mais populares são os opióides ou agonistas-antagonistas opioides mistos. Agentes não opioides de uso parenteral e óxido nitroso (N₂O) inalado são usados como coadjuvantes da analgesia com opioides ou em circunstâncias clínicas específicas (15). Os opioides tem facilidade de administração, ampla disponibilidade, menor custo e são menos invasivos que as técnicas neuroaxiais, embora o alívio da dor geralmente não seja alcançado. Uma revisão sistemática de 2010 indicou que opioides parenterais (intramusculares ou intravenosos, incluindo analgesia controlada pelo paciente – PCA) usados durante o trabalho de parto proporcionaram algum alívio da dor e moderada satisfação com analgesia. Os opioides foram associados a náuseas maternas, vômitos e sonolência (15). Uma pequena porção do opioide também atravessa a placenta, causando variabilidade da frequência cardíaca fetal e no recém-nascido por depressão respiratória e alterações neuro-comportamentais (16).

A modalidade PCA (analgesia controlada pelo paciente) utiliza uma bomba de infusão que permite que a paciente se auto administre por via venosa uma dose programada de medicação com intervalos mínimos entre as doses. Esta é uma opção para a parturiente em que a analgesia neuroaxial é contra-indicada, não desejada ou não disponível. Em geral os opioides de ação mais curta são os preferidos, como o remifentanil e o fentanil (17, 18).

Os opioides também podem ser usados sistemicamente através da técnica de bolus intermitente, por via subcutânea (SC), intramuscular (IM) ou intravenosa (IV), quando a técnica neuroaxial ou PCA venosa não estão disponíveis devido à falta de pessoal qualificado, de equipamento ou de recursos financeiros. As vias IM ou SC são relativamente seguras e simples de usar, mas envolvem injeção dolorosas, atraso no início de ação e absorção variável, levando à níveis plasmáticos imprevisíveis. A via IV tem início mais rápido, com menor variabilidade das concentrações de pico e, portanto, capacidade de titulação de doses. A nalbufina é o opioide de escolha para a técnica de bolus intermitente, já que tem um efeito de limite de dose em relação à depressão respiratória em contraste com opioides de ação mais prolongada, como a morfina (15). Estes opioides estão associados aos efeitos colaterais na mãe e no feto.

A disforia materna pode ser desconcertante.

A utilização da analgesia por inalação é feita com óxido nitroso (N₂O), geralmente numa mistura de 50 % de N₂O e 50 % de oxigênio (O₂) há décadas na Grã Bretanha, Escandinávia, Austrália, Nova Zelândia, Canadá e outros países, mas menos comumente nos EUA. É usado sob máscara facial, eliminado rapidamente, não se acumula na mãe ou feto/RN ou causa depressão respiratória no recém-nascido. No entanto, os efeitos da exposição do cérebro neonatal ao N₂O e os efeitos da baixa exposição ambiental do pessoal da área hospitalar não são conhecidos (15).

A falta de acesso à anestesia obstétrica ocorre principalmente em países de baixa renda, como consequência da falta de infraestrutura mínima (instalações precárias, lapsos de energia elétrica, escasses de água), de equipamentos (falta de oxímetros de pulso, cardioscópios), de suprimentos (anestésicos adequados) e principalmente de pessoal treinado. Nestes países há urgência em expandir o interesse pela anestesiologia, hoje realizada em muitos destes locais por pessoas leigas. Nestes países observa-se que o número de cesarianas é inferior ao preconizado pela OMS e quando realizadas, são sob anestesia geral, utilizando a cetamina, um agente de baixo custo e disponível, devido à falta de suprimentos para o bloqueio neuroaxial e também de médico anestesiológico capacitado (19).

Existe uma clara diferença entre uso e disponibilidade de métodos de alívio da dor durante o trabalho de parto entre os países de alta renda e países de baixa renda (20-22).

Uma maneira de comparar países, com a finalidade de medir o grau de desenvolvimento econômico e a qualidade de vida oferecida à população é a utilização do Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano (IDH). O IDH é calculado com base em dados econômicos e sociais. Atualmente os três pilares considerados são: Saúde, Educação e Renda; sendo medidos da seguinte forma:

- Saúde: vida longa e saudável, medida por expectativa de vida, longevidade.
- Educação: anos médios de estudo.
- Renda: medida pela Renda Nacional Bruta (RNB) per capita.

A quantificação do IDH consiste numa escala de 0,000 até 1,0 e quanto mais próximo do número 1,0; mais desenvolvida é a nação. Países com índice superior à 0,800 possuem um IDH alto. Entre 0,500 e 0,799 são considerados com IDH mediano. De 0 (zero) até 0,499, o IDH é baixo (23).

Existem diversos estudos mostrando associação entre baixo IDH e piores resultados maternos e perinatais (24-27). É fundamental determinar diretrizes de prática adequadas para melhorar a qualidade e segurança do atendimento obstétrico e anestésico para mulheres durante o trabalho de parto, permitindo aumentar sua satisfação (15), em todos os cenários.

A tecnologia e a humanização não são excludentes. Existem várias maneiras de garantir o conforto e suporte durante o trabalho de parto e parto no ambiente hospitalar. A presença de um acompanhante durante o trabalho de parto, que pode ser da escolha da mulher, visa a prestação de apoio e encorajamento constantes, o que proporciona maior segurança e conforto durante o trabalho de parto. Estudos comprovam que o apoio contínuo também contribui para a redução das taxas de cesariana, da duração do trabalho de parto e incentiva o aleitamento. A presença contínua do acompanhante durante o trabalho de parto e nascimento, no Brasil, ainda é pouco estimulada, apesar de se associar à redução das intervenções médicas como por exemplo: uso rotineiro de cateter endovenoso, dieta zero, posição de litotomia, uso rotineiro de ocitócitos, amniotomia, manobra de Kristeller e partos fórcepe. Métodos não farmacológicos (MNF) para o alívio da dor como o uso de banheira, chuveiro, bola, massagem, banquinho de cócoras, cavalinho, trazem mais satisfação à mulher e são mais utilizados quando da presença do acompanhante, atendendo recomendações da OMS (1, 28).

Existem outros desafios para a realização de analgesia, com as mudanças nas características da população, incluindo taxas crescentes de obesidade materna, idade materna avançada e complexidade de doenças médicas pré-existentes (29, 30).

A obesidade associada a gestação representa um desafio para o profissional de saúde com uma estimativa de que um terço das mulheres em idade fértil são obesas e 8% dessas mulheres são extremamente obesas (31). A obesidade aumenta as chances de complicações durante a gravidez, como Diabetes Mellitus, Hipertensão Gestacional, Pré-Eclâmpsia, obtenção de acesso venoso, dificuldade de intubação

traqueal, aumento da sensibilidade respiratória aos opiáceos, possibilidade de aspiração de conteúdo gástrico, dificuldade aumentada para a descompressão aortocava pelo útero gravídico. A obesidade dificulta a execução dos procedimentos técnicos, como a instalação de monitores, e a própria realização do bloqueio neuroaxial (falhas na locação de cateteres no espaço peridural). O sucesso da punção lombar apresenta correlação inversa com o IMC (32).

Além disso, gestações em mulheres com idade materna avançada e outras comorbidades podem também influenciar e dificultar a realização de analgesia (29).

1.3. Analgesia e morbidade materna

Desde a década de 1990, o mundo tem sofrido uma redução significativa na mortalidade materna, no entanto esse progresso é insuficiente para garantir melhora da saúde materna (33).

As principais ameaças ao bem estar materno no período periparto não estão relacionadas à anestesia, mas sim às complicações por causas obstétricas diretas e às doenças maternas pré-existentes. De 2011 a 2013, as complicações anestésicas foram responsáveis por 0,2 % das mortes relacionadas à gestação nos EUA. As causas de morte materna, no cenário norte-americano, foram: cardiovasculares, cardiomiopatias, embolia pulmonar trombótica, distúrbios hipertensivos, acidente vascular encefálico e embolia por líquido amniótico. Independente da etiologia, o anestesiológico é solicitado para participar da solução dos problemas (34).

Nos países de alta renda, a razão de mortalidade materna (RMM) está ao redor de 10 óbitos maternos por 100 mil nascidos vivos; entretanto, nos países de baixa renda, essa razão pode chegar à 1.000 mortes maternas ou mais por 100 mil nascidos vivos (35).

Os Objetivos de Desenvolvimento do Milênio (ODM) que terminaram em 2015, tiveram como seu 5º objetivo (ODM-5) diminuir em 70 % a Razão de Mortalidade Materna (RMM) desde 1990 até 2015 (33). A maioria dos países do mundo não cumpriu a meta, incluindo o Brasil que reduziu a RMM em 50 %. No Brasil, durante o período de 2000 à 2015, a mortalidade materna manteve-se em patamares considerados elevados, independentemente da metodologia utilizada para se calcular

o indicador de Razão de Mortalidade Materna, quase sempre oscilando em torno de 50 óbitos maternos para 100 mil nascidos vivos (36).

Desde o início dos anos 2000, a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS) trabalha num projeto de pesquisa que estabelece uma rede global de atenção à saúde materna e perinatal ao redor do mundo.

O primeiro grande estudo foi implementado entre 2004 e 2008, chamado Global Survey, um projeto envolvendo a participação de 373 unidades de saúde, em 24 países nas regiões da América, África, Sudeste Asiático e Pacífico Ocidental, com o foco entre o modo de parto e o resultado materno e perinatal, com quase 300 mil casos (37).

Entre maio de 2010 e dezembro de 2011, a OMS, dando continuidade à atenção da saúde materna e perinatal, realizou o Multicountry Survey (WHO-MCS), um estudo de corte transversal que incluiu 357 instituições de saúde em 29 países da África, Ásia, América Latina e Oriente Médio, o qual analisou o resultado de mais de 300 mil (314.692) partos, incluindo a caracterização de casos de Morbidade Materna Grave (38, 39).

Morbidade Materna Grave foi definida segundo critérios estabelecidos pela OMS (40). A Morte Materna, segundo a 10ª revisão da Classificação Internacional de Doenças (CID-10), é a “ morte de uma mulher durante a gestação ou até 42 dias após o término da gestação, independente da duração ou da localização da gravidez, devida à qualquer causa relacionada ou agravada pela gravidez ou por medidas em relação à ela, porém não devida a causas acidentais ou incidentais”. Quando esta morte é resultante de complicações obstétricas ocorridas na gravidez, parto ou puerpério, é classificada como morte obstétrica direta (pré-eclâmpsia, eclâmpsia, aborto, hemorragia, infecção de foco uterino) e, quando é resultante de doenças pré-gestacionais ou que se desenvolveram durante a gestação, não devido a causas obstétricas diretas, mas que foram agravadas pelos efeitos fisiológicos da gravidez, é classificada como morte obstétrica indireta (como: infecção de foco não uterino, hipertensão pré-existente à gestação, cardiopatia). Hemorragia grave, distúrbios hipertensivos da gravidez, infecções, complicações no parto e abortamento inseguro

são as principais causas de morte materna e representam cerca de 75% do total de óbitos maternos no mundo (39).

Na última década, os estudos avançaram para além da mortalidade, com foco em morbidade materna grave, uma vez que essa abordagem permite amplo conhecimento a respeito da saúde materna, com estudo de eventos mais frequentes do que a morte e igualmente importantes pela repercussão a curto e longo prazo, em saúde materna e perinatal. Segundo a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS), é importante caracterizar de maneira sistemática os casos de morbidade materna grave, Condições Potencialmente Ameaçadoras de Vida (CPAV) e Near Miss Materno (NMM) (40). CPAV ocorrem na presença de complicações maternas, incluindo distúrbios hemorrágicos e hipertensivos, além de indicadores de manejo de gravidade e outras complicações (Fig 1).

COMPLICAÇÕES HEMORRÁGICAS	
Descolamento prematuro de placenta Placenta Prévia / acreta / increta / percreta Gravidez Ectópica Rotura uterina Hemorragia grave por aborto	Hemorragia pós-parto a) Atonia b) Retenção placentária c) Lacerações de Trajeto d) Coagulopatia
COMPLICAÇÕES HIPERTENSIVAS	
Pré-eclâmpsia grave Eclâmpsia	Hipertensão grave HELLP Síndrome
OUTRAS COMPLICAÇÕES	
Edema pulmonar Concussões Sepsis grave a) Endometrite pós-parto b) Endometrite pós-aborto c) Foco urinário d) Foco pulmonar Trombocitopenia < 100mil Crise Tireotóxica Choque	Insuficiência Respiratória Aguda Acidose Cardiopatias Acidente Vascular Cerebral Distúrbio de coagulação Tromboembolismo Cetoacidose Diabética Icterícia / Disfunção Hepática Meningite Insuficiência Renal Aguda
INDICADORES DE MANEJO DE GRAVIDADE	
Transfusão de hemoderivados Acesso venoso central Admissão em UTI Hospitalização Prolongada (>7dias)	Intubação não relacionada à anestesia Retorno à sala cirúrgica Intervenção cirúrgica maior (histerectomia, laparotomia) Uso de Sulfato de Magnésio

Figura 1. Condições Potencialmente Ameaçadoras da Vida

Já Near Miss Materno (NMM) foi definido como “uma mulher que quase morreu, mas que sobreviveu a uma complicação grave durante o período gestacional até 42 dias após o término da gestação”, com pelo menos um dos critérios clínicos, laboratoriais ou de manejo (40) (Fig 2)

CRITÉRIOS CLÍNICOS	
Cianose aguda Gaspíng Frequência respiratória >40 ou <6 irpm Choque Oligúria não resposiva a fluidos ou diuréticos Distúrbio de coagulação	Perda de consciência durante 12h ou mais Ausência de consciência e pulso/batimento cardíaco Acidente vascular cerebral Convulsão não controlada / paralisia total Icterícia na presença de pré-eclâmpsia
CRITÉRIOS LABORATORIAIS	
Saturação de Oxigênio <90% por mais de 60min PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ <200 Creatinina > 300mmol/l ou >3,5 mg/dl Bilirrubina > 100 mmol/l ou > 6,0 mg/dl	pH <7,1 Lactato > 5 Trombocitopenia aguda (<50.000 plaquetas) Ausência de consciência e presença de glicose e cetoacidose na urina
CRITÉRIOS DE MANEJO	
Uso de droga vasoativa contínua Histerectomia puerperal por infecção ou hemorragia Transfusão de ≥5 unidades de concentrado de hemácias	Intubação e ventilação por tempo ≥60 min, não relacionada com anestesia Diálise para insuficiência renal aguda Reanimação cardio-pulmonar (RCP)

Figura 2. Critérios de Near Miss Materno.

O papel da anestesia/analgesia no cuidado à gestante em trabalho de parto, em diferentes contextos e sua associação com morbidade materna ainda são pouco explorados na literatura. Compreender as práticas atuais é o primeiro passo para identificar lacunas que possam precisar de mais atenção e investimento no uso de procedimentos de analgesia para o trabalho de parto e o parto, visando cuidados obstétricos mais seguros e mais humanos para todas as mulheres, especialmente em países de baixa e média rendas.

Portanto realizamos a análise da base de dados da OMS - *Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health* (WHO-MCS, 2010-2011) para avaliar esses aspectos da analgesia para parto vaginal.

2. OBJETIVOS

2.1. Objetivo Geral

Avaliar, em diferentes países e regiões do mundo (WHO-MCS), o uso de qualquer forma de analgesia para partos vaginais, seus fatores associados e resultados maternos e perinatais, em mulheres com e sem morbidade materna grave.

2.2. Objetivos Específicos

1. Avaliar o uso de analgesia para parto vaginal: fatores sócio demográficos, características clínicas e obstétricas associadas a este uso e comparação de resultados maternos e perinatais entre mulheres com e sem analgesia;
2. Avaliar o uso de analgesia para parto vaginal em mulheres com e sem morbidade (CPAV, NMM e MM) e descrever fatores sócio demográficos, características clínicas e obstétricas e resultados maternos e perinatais associadas a este uso, em casos com morbidade grave.

3. MÉTODO

Cada um dos objetivos específicos previamente estabelecidos, representam uma análise secundária do estudo Multi-países da OMS, chamado: *World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health* (WHO-MCS).

3.1. *World Health Organization Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS)*

Este estudo foi um corte transversal empreendido pela Organização Mundial da Saúde entre 01 de maio de 2010 e 31 de dezembro de 2011 e envolveu 357 unidades de saúde em 29 países (África, Ásia, América Latina e Oriente Médio). O principal objetivo do WHO-MCS foi caracterizar a morbidade materna, perinatal e neonatal grave a partir da vigilância em uma rede mundial de unidades de saúde. Sua metodologia e principais resultados já estão publicados (38, 39).

Para a inclusão de um centro na rede da WHO-MCS, estabeleceu-se que as unidades de saúde elegíveis deveriam ter pelo menos 1000 partos anuais e a capacidade para a realização de partos cesáreos. Foram incluídas todas as mulheres que tiveram parto naquele serviço, além de todas aquelas que foram internadas em decorrência de morbidade materna grave. Foi definido como morbidade materna grave a ocorrência de condição potencialmente ameaçadora da vida (CPAV), near miss materno (NMM) ou morte, conforme critérios previamente estabelecidos pela

OMS (40) em até 7 dias após o parto ou após um aborto, independentemente da idade gestacional.

Para identificação e inclusão dos casos, os pesquisadores realizaram visitas diárias às enfermarias obstétricas ou pós-parto, unidades de atendimento ginecológico, salas de parto, unidades de emergência ou terapia intensiva para identificar mulheres elegíveis. A coleta de dados durou cerca de 3 meses. A coleta de dados foi pré-testada, assim como os formulários utilizados. As informações foram coletadas a partir da revisão dos prontuários médicos, obtendo-se dados sócio demográficos, características obstétricas, informações sobre o parto, complicações, intervenções relacionadas à assistência e gravidade e também resultados perinatais. Os dados foram armazenados em um banco de dados online, coordenado pelo Centro Rosarino de Estudios Perinatales (Rosário, Argentina).

A obtenção de termo de consentimento individual de cada participante incluída foi dispensado após a avaliação de diversas instâncias éticas. Este estudo teve a aprovação ética do Comitê de Ética da OMS, além da aprovação nos comitês de cada uma das instituições envolvidas (Anexo 1).

3.2. Método – Objetivo específico 1

3.2.1. Critérios de Inclusão

Para esta análise secundária do WHO-MCS, foram incluídas todas as mulheres que tiveram parto vaginal com idade gestacional superior a 22 semanas e com peso do recém nascido superior a 500 gramas.

3.2.2. Critérios de Exclusão

Foram excluídas as mulheres que tiveram diagnóstico de óbito fetal tardio/macerado.

3.2.3. Identificação de Sujeitos

As mulheres identificadas pelos critérios de inclusão/exclusão foram divididas em 2 grupos, segundo realização ou não de qualquer tipo de analgesia (peridural, espinal ou geral) para o parto. Estes dois grupos foram comparados com relação a características sócio demográficas, obstétricas, antecedentes clínicos, resultados maternos e perinatais.

3.2.4. Variáveis

As variáveis avaliadas no WHO-MCS estão listadas no formulário de coleta de dados (Anexo 2).

Para a primeira análise específica descrita, as variáveis dependentes foram uso ou não de qualquer forma de analgesia (o termo analgesia foi empregado para contemplar todas as formas de analgesia e anestesia: peridural, espinal e geral).

As variáveis independentes avaliadas foram:

- Sócio demográficas e obstétricas: país considerado e seu IDH, idade materna, estado marital, escolaridade, número de gestações e partos anteriores, número de cesáreas prévias, complicações clínicas ou obstétricas na gravidez
- Resultado materno e perinatal: idade gestacional no parto; gestação múltipla, condição de nascimento, Apgar de 5 minutos, peso ao nascer, complicação neonatal, mal formação congênita, resultado perinatal adverso, near miss neonatal, critérios de CPAV ou NMM.

3.2.5. Processamento e Análise dos Dados

Inicialmente foram descritas as frequências de analgesia por país, segundo IDH; seguido pelo tipo de analgesia considerada (geral, epidural, espinal). Foram comparados os grupos com e sem analgesia, com relação a fatores sócio demográficos e obstétricos associados com o procedimento anestésico. Entre os grupos com e sem analgesia, avaliaram-se também resultados maternos e perinatais;

com posterior análise múltipla para investigar os fatores associados de maneira independente à realização de analgesia.

3.3 Método – Objetivo específico 2

3.3.1. Critérios de Inclusão

Para esta análise secundária do WHO-MCS, foram incluídas todas as mulheres que tiveram parto vaginal com idade gestacional superior a 22 semanas e com peso do recém nascido superior a 500 gramas e morbidade materna grave (CPAV, MNM e MM), segundo os critérios da OMS (40).

3.3.2. Critérios de Exclusão

Foram excluídas as mulheres com diagnóstico de óbito tardio/macerado.

3.3.3. Identificação de Sujeitos

As mulheres com morbidade materna grave e parto vaginal, identificadas pelos critérios de inclusão/exclusão foram divididas em 2 grupos, segundo realização ou não de qualquer tipo de analgesia ou anestesia para o parto. Estes dois grupos foram comparados com relação a características sócio demográficas, obstétricas, antecedentes clínicos, resultados maternos e perinatais.

3.3.4. Variáveis e Conceitos

Para a segunda análise específica descrita, as variáveis dependentes foram: uso ou não de qualquer forma de analgesia nos casos de parto vaginal com morbidade materna grave. A morbidade grave foi definida conforme descrição abaixo, pelos critérios da OMS (40):

- Condições potencialmente ameaçadoras da vida (CPAV) ocorrem na presença de complicações maternas, incluindo distúrbios hemorrágicos,

hipertensivos, além de indicadores de manejo de gravidade e outras complicações.

- Near Miss Materno (NMM) foi definido como “uma mulher que quase morreu, mas que sobreviveu a uma complicação grave durante o período gestacional até 42 dias após o término da gestação”, com pelo menos um dos critérios clínicos, laboratoriais ou de manejo (40).
- Morte materna (MM) é definida como: “óbito de uma mulher durante a gestação ou no período de 42 dias após o término de gestação, independente da duração ou da localização da gravidez, devido a qualquer causa relacionada ou agravada pela condição gestacional ou ainda por medidas relativas à esta, porém não devida à causas acidentais ou incidentais”.

As demais variáveis utilizadas, para caracterização sócio demográfica, obstétrica, resultados maternos e perinatais são as mesmas descritas anteriormente para o primeiro objetivo específico.

3.3.5. Processamento e Análise dos Dados

Inicialmente, foi realizada descrição da amostra, com comparação entre realização de analgesia entre casos de parto vaginal, com e sem morbidade materna grave. Em seguida, utilizando apenas os casos de morbidade grave, foi realizada uma comparação entre aquelas mulheres que receberam analgesia com aquelas que não receberam, considerando características sócio demográficas (idade materna, estado marital, grau de instrução), obstétricas (número de nascimentos anteriores, cesáreas prévias), resultados maternos (idade gestacional, presença de gemelares, apresentação fetal, profilaxia para hemorragia pós-parto) e perinatais (Apgar após 5 min, peso ao nascer, óbito fetal tardio, complicação neonatal, mal formação congênita, resultado perinatal adverso, near miss neonatal, peso adequado à idade gestacional, morte perinatal).

Foram também avaliados os critérios definidores de CPAV e NMM, para casos com e sem analgesia. Finalmente, uma análise multivariada foi realizada, a fim de avaliar os fatores associados de maneira independente ao pior desfecho materno (NMM e MM), incluindo o uso de analgesia como preditor.

4. RESULTADOS

Os resultados deste estudo serão apresentados em forma de artigos científicos. Cada artigo refere-se a um objetivo específico.

Artigo 1 - Analgesia for vaginal birth: Secondary analysis from the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health

Marcio Antonio de Souza; Jose Guilherme Cecatti; Jose Paulo Siqueira Guida; João Paulo Souza; Ahmet Metin Gulmezoglu; Ana Pilar Betran; Maria Regina Torloni; Joshua P Vogel; Maria Laura Costa; for the WHO-MCS study group

Artigo 2 - Analgesia for vaginal birth among women with and without severe maternal morbidity: secondary analysis from the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health

Marcio Antonio de Souza; Jose Paulo Siqueira Guida; Jose Guilherme Cecatti; João Paulo Souza; Ahmet Metin Gulmezoglu; Ana Pilar Betran; Maria Regina Torloni; Joshua P Vogel; Maria Laura Costa; for the WHO-MCS study group

4.1. Artigo 1

Analgesia for vaginal birth: Secondary analysis from the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health

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Running Title: Analgesia for vaginal birth

Abstract

Objective: To evaluate, in different countries and regions of the world, the use of any form of analgesia during labour in women who had a vaginal birth and the associated factors. **Methods:** secondary analysis of World Health Organization Multi-Country Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS). This was a cross-sectional, facility-based survey, including 357 health facilities in 29 countries. In this secondary analysis, we included all women who had a vaginal delivery. The prevalence of analgesia use amongst women in different countries of the study is reported according to Human Development Index (HDI), socio-demographic and obstetric characteristics. Prevalence rates are compared across countries, HDI groups, and regions using design-based Chi-square test; $p \leq 0.05$ was considered significant. Maternal and perinatal outcomes associated with analgesia use are analysed; prevalence ratio with 95% confidence intervals are presented. A multivariate analysis using Poisson regression to assess factors independently associated to having analgesia was also performed. **Results:** Out of the 221,345 women who had a vaginal birth, only 4% had labour analgesia, mainly epidural. The prevalence of women having analgesia was significantly higher in countries with higher HDI. The factors independently associated with increased use of analgesia were: nulliparity, higher maternal schooling, previous caesarean section, low birth weight and preterm birth. **Conclusion:** Analgesia for labour and delivery of women who deliver vaginally was very low, especially in low-HDI countries. The use of analgesia for vaginal delivery was positively associated with maternal education and nulliparity, previous caesarean section and preterm birth. Whether low use reflect women's desire or unmet need for pain relief warrants further research.

Introduction

Although labour and birth are physiological phenomena, most women experience substantial pain during them (1, 2). Pain or fear of pain is one of the most frequent reasons for women requesting a caesarean section (3). Labour pain is influenced by individual characteristics, including socio-cultural aspects (4-6). Modern and safe obstetric analgesia has transformed the experience of childbirth (7). However, new challenges arise, with the changes in population characteristics, even in low and middle-income settings, including increasing rates of maternal obesity, advanced maternal age (8).

Furthermore, there are large differences between countries in the use and availability of pain relief methods during labour, with limited availability of analgesia in many low-resource settings (9). This is often attributed to cultural norms, costs, human resources constraints, and a paucity of anaesthesiologists in many countries (9), along with the lack of adequate drug supplies, infrastructure and equipment (10).

In this context, it is important to investigate what are the practices regarding analgesia during labour and childbirth. Therefore, we used the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS, 2010-2011) database to assess analgesia practices for vaginal delivery in the countries included in this survey. We aimed at investigating factors associated with the use of analgesia and anaesthesia and to compare maternal and perinatal outcomes in women who delivered vaginally with or without these procedures.

Methods

This is a secondary analysis of the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO MCS, 2010-2011). This cross-sectional study was undertaken by the World Health Organization between May 1, 2010 and December 31, 2011, and involved 357 health facilities in 29 countries (in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East). The main objective of the WHO-MCS was to characterize maternal, perinatal and neonatal morbidity through the surveillance in a worldwide network of health units. Its methodology and main results have been published previously (11, 12).

Briefly, for the inclusion of a facility in the WHO-MCS, it should have at least 1000 births per year and the capacity to perform caesarean deliveries. A random, stratified, multi-stage cluster sampling strategy was applied to select participating facilities. All women who delivered at the

selected facilities during the data collection period (around 3 months) at each facility were included (13), in addition to all those hospitalized due to severe maternal morbidity, according to the WHO standard definition of potentially life threatening condition (PLTC) and maternal near miss (MNM) (14). Data collected from the review of medical records included demographic data, reproductive characteristics, clinical and obstetric history, care-related interventions and severity, and maternal and perinatal outcomes. Data were entered into a paper form, before being uploaded to an online database.

The protocol of the survey was approved by the Research Project Review Panel at the UNDP/UNFPA/UNICEF/WHO/World Bank Special Programme of Research, Development and Research Training in Human Reproduction and by the WHO Ethical Review Committee as well as the relevant ethical clearance bodies in participating countries and facilities.

For this analysis, we included only women who had a vaginal birth with gestational age above 22 weeks and birthweight greater than 500 grams. Women who had a caesarean section, ectopic pregnancy, abortion, or a macerated stillbirth were not included in the analysis but women who had an assisted vaginal birth or multiple pregnancy by vaginal birth were included. We assessed prevalence rates of analgesia used during labour and/or delivery (i.e general, epidural or spinal anaesthesia) by country, and stratified according to the Human Development Index (HDI) - very high, high, medium, or low HDI - and Region (15). We compared prevalence rates across countries, different HDI groups, within each HDI category and also across regions, using design-based Chi-square test. P values $p \leq 0.05$ were considered significant.

To explore associated factors, we compared the sociodemographic, clinical and obstetric characteristics of women who received versus those who did not analgesia during labour/delivery. Furthermore, we compared maternal and perinatal outcomes between women who had vaginal births with and without analgesia, including gestational age at delivery, multiple pregnancy, stillbirth, Apgar score, birthweight, neonatal complications and fetal malformation. We analysed the following perinatal composite outcomes: neonatal near miss (birthweight < 1750 g and/or 5 min Apgar <7 and/or gestational age < 33 weeks) and also “any severe neonatal complication” (5 min Apgar <7, and/or Intensive Care Unit admission, and/or early neonatal death). Data was processed and analysed using SPSS 16.0 software. Prevalence of the conditions in both groups were obtained and compared using the prevalence ratio and its 95% confidence interval.

We also conducted a multivariate analysis using Poisson regression to assess factors independently associated with having analgesia among women who delivered vaginally.

Results:

From 314,623 women in the WHOMCS, 220,951 had vaginal deliveries and were included for this analysis from 29 countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East. Only 4% (8861) of these women had analgesia (general, epidural or spinal anaesthesia) during labour or childbirth (Figure 1). The prevalence of analgesia varied significantly across countries and HDI levels (Table 1 and Figure 2) ranging from no women giving birth with analgesia in Niger and Nigeria to 34.5% of the women having analgesia in Lebanon. The prevalence of analgesia was higher in very high and high HDI settings (mostly epidural analgesia) than in low HDI countries. The use of analgesia by region ranged from 0.1% in Africa to 3.2% in Asia and 12.4% in Latin America (Table 1).

Overall, there were significant differences in the prevalence of analgesia between countries, HDI regions and within countries of each HDI category. The only exception was in low HDI countries, where the rates of analgesia were very low (Table 1).

Table 2 describes sociodemographic and obstetric characteristics of women with and without analgesia. Education was significantly associated to increased use of analgesia so that more educated women were more likely to have analgesia. Nulliparous women were also at significant increased likelihood of receiving analgesia and also those with previous caesarean section. The Poisson multiple regression analysis was used to assess factors independently associated to analgesia and anaesthesia and confirmed the association with education, nulliparity and previous caesarean section (Table 3). In addition, foetal malformations and preterm births were associated with the use of analgesia (Tables 2 and 3- PR_{adj}).

When comparing women with and without analgesia, for vaginal birth, the composite outcome: neonatal near miss (PR 1.39; 95% CI 0.88–2.22) and also “any severe neonatal complication” (PR 1.12; 95% CI 0.59–2.14) did not present any significant difference among groups. However, there were significantly less 5-min Apgar score < 7 (PR 0.43; 95% CI 0.26–0.75), fresh stillbirths (PR 0.50; 95% CI 0.32–0.78), neonatal deaths (PR 0.54; 95% CI 0.31–0.93) and perinatal deaths (PR 0.50; 95% CI 0.34–0.73) among women who received analgesia (Table 3).

Discussion

Using this large database, with information from 357 health facilities in 29 countries in five WHO regions, we estimated that the use of analgesia during labour and vaginal birth was very low overall (4%). This is true especially among women giving birth in facilities in low-income settings where use of analgesia was virtually non-existent (less than 0.5%). Epidural analgesia is the most common form of pain relief across countries with only six countries reporting some cases of general analgesia. Our data identified higher education, nulliparity and previous caesarean section as factors associated with higher use of analgesia during labour or vaginal birth.

Our findings raise an interesting question: what is the ideal prevalence of analgesia for vaginal birth? There are reports with frequencies ranging from almost none to over 60% in different settings (16-19), however such question does not have a clear answer, considering the broad spectrum of factors influencing the experience of pain during childbirth (20). WHO recommends the use of epidural analgesia for women requesting pain relief during labour, depending on the woman's preferences (21). According to this concept, the ideal prevalence of analgesia is that which allows all women who want pain relief during labour to get it. This ideal prevalence will likely vary between settings, as women have different experiences/expectations of pain and cultural norms in different contexts (5). However, the extremely low prevalence of use found in this survey, particularly in low-income countries, is likely to reflect the unmet need of analgesia in these settings and warrants further research.

One of our study inclusion criterion was that all participating facilities had the capacity to perform surgical interventions during childbirth, which not necessarily entails the presence of anaesthesiologists as part of the medical staff. Nevertheless, this does not assure full availability of analgesia for labour 24 hours 7 days a week. The lack of personnel or infrastructure in low resourced environments has been a major limitation in the provision of analgesia and reflects our findings according to HDI settings (6).

The WHO-MCS did not aim to investigate analgesia specifically, and no information was captured on doses, medication used, timing of the procedure or potentially severe adverse effects of analgesia or other pain relief options. Neither data on women's request or satisfaction towards birth experience, nor the use of non-pharmacological interventions for pain control during labour was available. In addition, we included only women who had a vaginal delivery and cannot analyse complications leading to caesarean section, for instance. In the WHO-MCS

database, the total prevalence of caesarean sections was 28.6% (89,515 cases), with 51,442 of these surgeries (57.5%) being done in women who were in labour (11). These women were not included in our study.

This study has several strengths. The WHO MCS is a large, multi-country survey with participation of all regions (Africa, Asia, Latin America and Middle-East). It used data collected using a standardized, prospective approach. To our knowledge this is the single largest multi-country analysis on the use of and factors and outcomes associated with labour and birth analgesia in women who had a vaginal delivery. Our findings can help to identify factors associated with the procedure. In most cases, analgesia was by epidural. There is a known gap between the desire for labour analgesia and its availability and also poor knowledge about epidural analgesia among women and this can also lead to its low utilization during labour (22).

We identified an association between maternal education and the use of anaesthesia during labour or vaginal birth. Educational is closely associated with economic and social conditions, and this could account for such a finding. Women of minority groups are less likely to have neuroaxial labour analgesia (23). However, other investigators have reported opposite findings, with no association between use of epidural and education level (16). It is important to counsel women about the possibilities of pain and pain control during labour and birth during antenatal care (24).

There has always been concern about the use of analgesia and the risk of increased caesarean section. However, recent studies and systematic reviews have shown that this concern is not evidence-based (25). Furthermore, implementing labour epidural analgesia can increase vaginal birth rates as this intervention reduces women's fear of labour pain (3) and is safe for both the mother and baby (25, 26). This is particularly relevant because of the public health concern and debate over the worldwide increase in caesarean sections which is reflected in the caesarean sections rates of this survey (27, 28).

Nulliparity was also associated with increased use of analgesia. This could be due to the known longer labour progression pattern in nulliparous women (29). A history of C-section was also positively associated with increased analgesia during labour or birth; previous reports also indicate that epidural analgesia during a trial of labour after caesarean can be a significant adjunct to successful vaginal birth after caesarean (VBAC) (30, 31).

Our results on perinatal outcomes in the bivariate analysis suggests better outcomes among cases of analgesia. Nevertheless, due to the cross-sectional study design, one cannot assume causality and we acknowledge the possibility of residual confounding. A previous Cochrane systematic review reported that labour analgesia does not appear to have an effect on immediate neonatal outcomes (25).

The results of our study draw attention to the overall low use of analgesia for vaginal delivery and the disparities among countries. Interventions are needed to increase pain control during labour and to promote a better experience during childbirth (21).

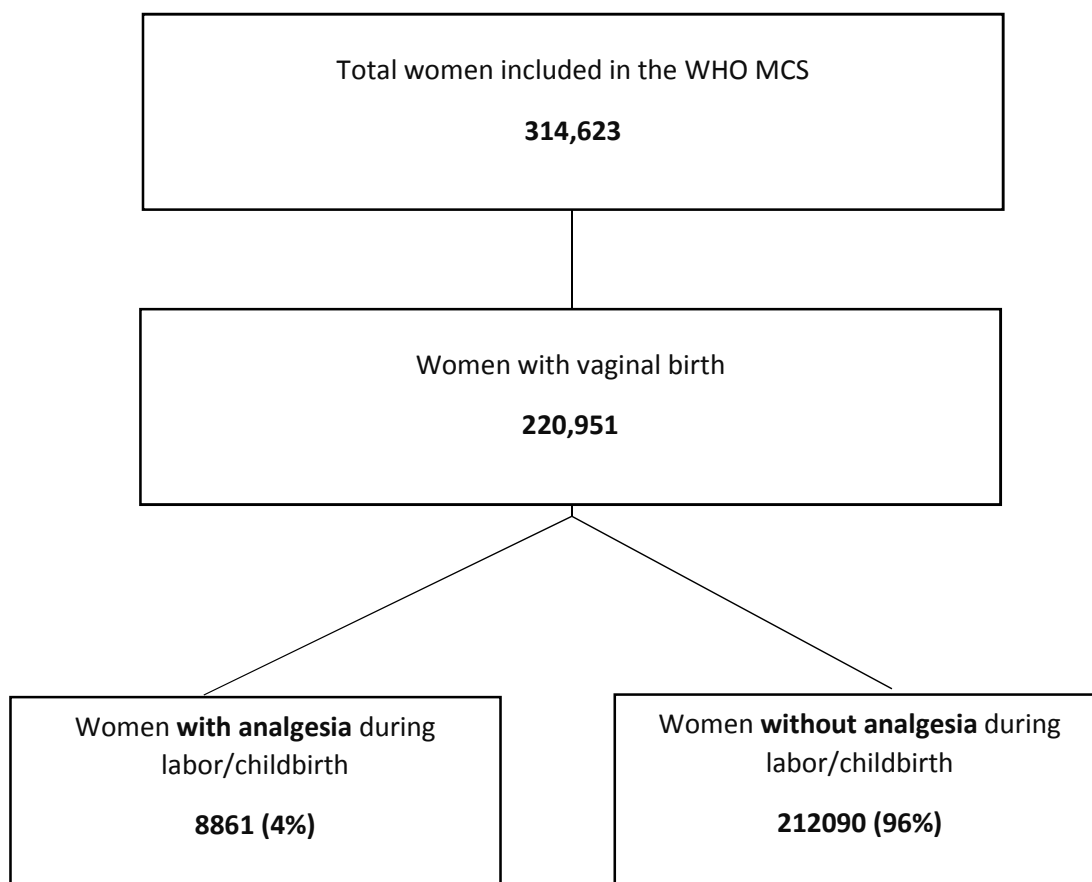
Conclusion:

Analgesia use for labour and vaginal birth was very low, particularly in low-HDI countries. Higher maternal education, nulliparity, a previous caesarean section and preterm delivery are factors that increase the likelihood of analgesia in women having a vaginal delivery.

Acknowledgements

This article represents the views of the named authors only, and does not represent the views of the World Health Organization.

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Figure 1. Flowchart of included women.**Table 1.** Use of analgesia/anesthesia during labor and delivery of women having vaginal births in 29 countries according to Human Development Index (HDI) and regions.

HDI and country	Analgesia				p
Very high HDI	No Analgesia n (%)	General n (%)	Epidural n (%)	Spinal n (%)	0.001*
Argentina (5,961)	4,950 (83.0)	5 (0.1)	942 (15.8)	64 (1.1)	
Japan (2,874)	2,472 (86.0)	0 (0)	391 (13.6)	11 (0.4)	
Qatar (3,052)	2,505 (82.1)	0 (0)	535 (17.5)	12 (0.4)	
High HDI					
Brazil (3,735)	3,071 (82.2)	0 (0)	511 (13.7)	153 (4.1)	
Ecuador (5,539)	5058 (91.3)	63 (1.1)	89 (1.6)	329 (5.9)	
Lebanon (2,426)	1,588 (65.5)	0 (0)	815 (33.6)	23 (0.9)	
Mexico (6,958)	4,921 (70.7)	10 (0.1)	2,019 (29.0)	8 (0.1)	
Peru (8,857)	8,690 (98.1)	0 (0)	167 (1.9)	0 (0)	
Sri Lanka (11,887)	11,719 (98.6)	0 (0)	140 (1.2)	28 (0.2)	
Medium HDI					
Cambodia (3,617)	3,602 (99.6)	0 (0)	3 (0.1)	12 (0.3)	
China (6,926)	6,480 (93.6)	54 (0.8)	387 (5.6)	5 (0.1)	
India (24,743)	24,704 (99.8)	0 (0)	4 (0)	35 (0.1)	
Jordan (783)	776 (99.1)	0 (0)	7 (0.9)	0 (0)	
Mongolia (5,405)	5,260 (97.3)	0 (0)	1 (0)	144 (2.7)	
Nicaragua (3,632)	3,618 (99.6)	4 (0.1)	8 (0.2)	2 (0.1)	
Occupied Palestinian Territories (716)	674 (94.1)	0 (0)	42 (5.9)	0 (0)	
Paraguay (1,915)	1,711 (89.3)	0 (0)	157 (8.2)	47 (2.5)	
Philippines (7,973)	7,931 (99.5)	0 (0)	27 (0.3)	15 (0.2)	
Thailand (5,401)	5,386 (99.7)	0 (0)	1 (0)	14 (0.3)	
Vietnam (8,950)	7,665 (85.6)	0 (0)	1,185 (13.2)	100 (1.1)	
Low HDI					
Afghanistan (23,667)	23,654 (99.9)	0 (0)	0 (0)	13 (0.1)	
Angola (9,038)	9,028 (99.9)	0 (0)	2 (0)	8 (0.1)	
DR Congo (6,793)	6,770 (99.7)	0 (0)	14 (0.2)	9 (0.1)	
Kenya (15,222)	15,196 (99.8)	0 (0)	23 (0.2)	3 (0)	
Nepal (8,371)	8,318 (99.4)	0 (0)	2 (0)	51 (0.6)	
Niger (9,756)	9,753 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (0)	
Nigeria (9,710)	9,709 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0)	
Pakistan (8,408)	8,266 (98.3)	14 (0.2)	11 (0.1)	117 (1.4)	
Uganda (8,636)	8,615 (99.8)	0 (0)	2 (0)	19 (0.2)	
Region					<0.001**
Africa (59,155)	59,071 (99.9)	0 (0)	41 (0.1)	43 (0.1)	
Asia (122,325)	121,000 (96.6)	68 (0.1)	3,551 (2.8)	580 (0.5)	
Latin America (36,597)	32,019 (87.5)	82 (0.2)	3,893 (10.6)	603 (1.6)	

* Qatar, Jordan and OPT were grouped in one stratum

Design-based Chi-square=3,43 (**p<0,001**)

** Design-based Chi-square=15,27 (**p<0,001**)

Comparison among HDI groups- Design-based Chi-square=13,09 (**p<0,001**)

Comparison among countries within each HDI- for very high HDI- not possible. For high HDI- Design-based Chi-square=4,70 (**p<0,001**); for Medium HDI- Design-based Chi-square=2,74 (**p=0,007**); for Low HDI- Design-based Chi-square=0,23 (**p=0,950**)

Figure 2- Vaginal deliveries with and without analgesia during labour/childbirth among different countries

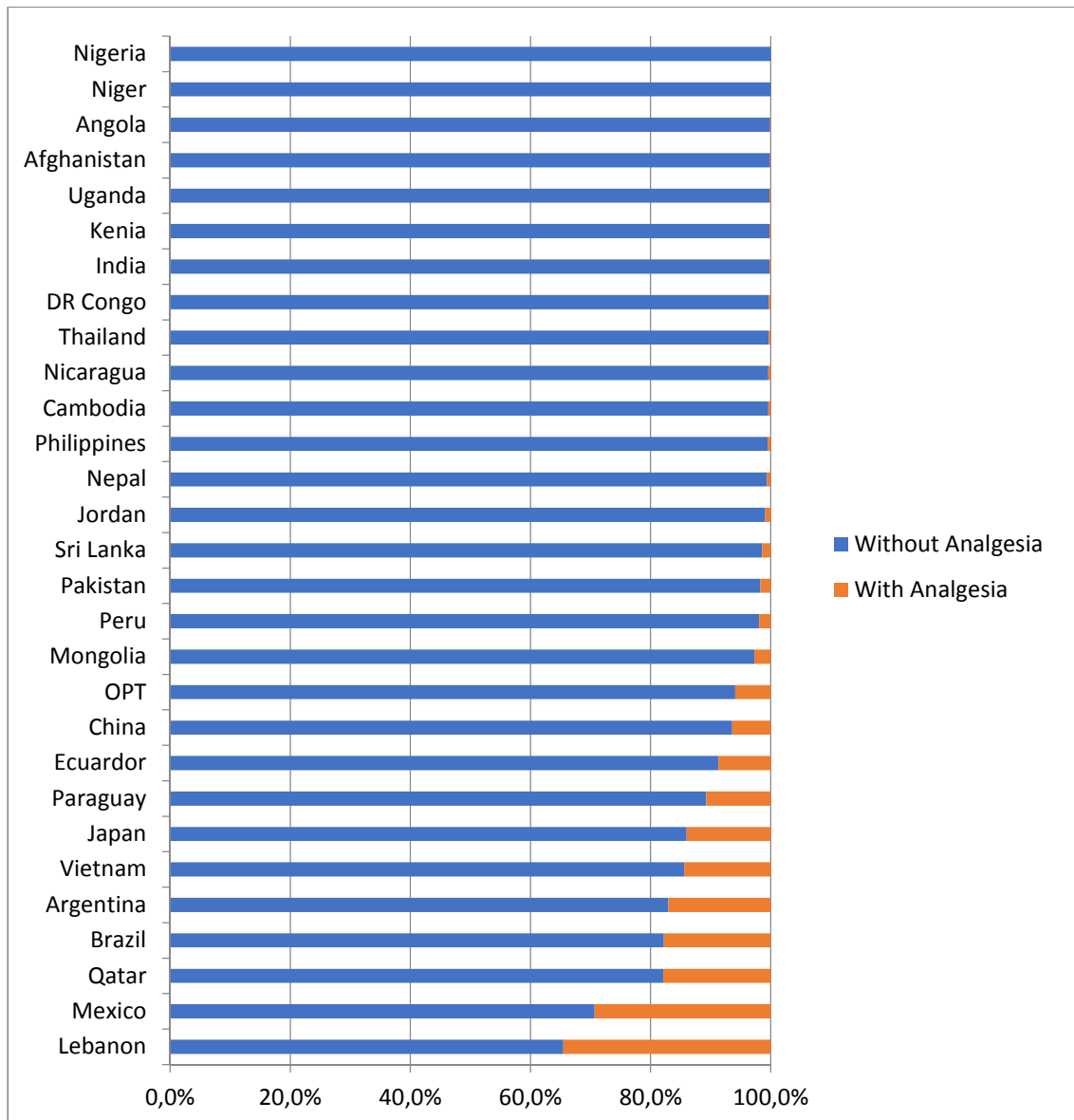


Table 2. Sociodemographic and obstetric characteristics among vaginal deliveries with and without analgesia during labour/childbirth.

Characteristics	Analgesia		Crude PR (95% CI)	PR* _{adj}
	With n (%)	Without n (%)		
Maternal Age (y)				
<20	921 (3,7 %)	23779 (96,3%)	1.00	
20-34	6782 (3,9 %)	165090 (96,1%)	1.06 (0.71-1.55)	
≥35	1137 (4,8 %)	22489(95,2 %)	1.29 (0.77-2.16)	
Marital status n (%)^a				
With partner	7851(4.0%)	187150(96 %)	1.04 (0.62-1.75)	
Without partner	964 (4,2 %)	21970(95,8%)	1.00	
Education (years)^b				
<5	251(0,5 %)	47469(99,5 %)	1.00	
5-8	1068(2,2 %)	47590(97,8 %)	4.17 (2.83-6.16)	
9-11	2171 (4,3 %)	48057(95,7 %)	8.22 (5.16-13.09)	3.96 (2.43-6.44)[#]
>11	4396 (7,9 %)	51040(92,1 %)	15.08 (8.06-26.44)	
Number of previous births^c				
0	4838 (5,5 %)	83854(94,5%)	1.00	
1-2	3472 (3,8 %)	87516(96,2 %)	0.7 (0.61-0.8)	0.5 (0.41-0.61)[#]
>2	540 (1,3 %)	40286 (98,7%)	0.24 (0.15-0.38)	
Previous C-sections^d				
0	8212 (3,9 %)	202282(96,1%)	1.00	
1	484 (7,6 %)	5899 (92,4 %)	1.94 (1.38-2.73)	2.63 (1.92-3.59)[#]
>1	48 (11 %)	387 (89 %)	2.83 (1.76-4.53)	
Pre-existing disease^e				
	8673 (4%)	207998 (96%)	1.1 (0.65-1.85)	

Missing information: a=3016; b=18909; c=445; d=3639; e=394

e=pre-existing disease: includes any condition:HIV, anemia, malaria, embolic disease, cancer, heart disease, lung disease, renal disease, hepatic disease or coincidental conditions

*Variables independently associated with performing analgesia by Multiple Poisson regression analysis - considering the cluster design (center); [#] **p<0,001**

Table 3. Childbirth and perinatal outcomes in women with vaginal birth with and without analgesia during labour.

	With Analgesia	Without Analgesia	Crude PR (95% CI)	PR* _{adj}
N	8,861	212,090		

Gestational Age at Delivery ^a

<37 weeks	597 (6.7)	14,064 (6.7)	0.91 (0.68 – 1.21)	1.27 (1.01-1.59)[#]
≥37 weeks	8,293 (93.3)	196,790 (93.3)	1.00	
Twin Pregnancy ^b	98 (1.1)	3,918 (1.8)	0.60 (0.37 – 0.97)	
Foetal Presentation ^c				
Cephalic	8,754 (98.4)	209,510 (98.2)	1.00	
Breech	105 (1.2)	3,580 (1.7)	1.00 (0.99 – 1.01)	
Other	33 (0.4)	275 (0.1)		
Postpartum Haemorrhage	233 (35.5)	2,474 (25.3)	1.40 (0.93 – 2.11)	
5-min Apgar Score <7 ^d	268 (3.0)	14,407 (6.9)	0.43 (0.26 – 0.75)	
Birthweight < 2,500g ^e	703 (7.9)	22,681 (10.6)	0.74 (0.58 – 0.96)	0.69 (0.55-0.88)^{##}
Fresh Stillbirth	63 (0.7)	3,051 (1.4)	0.50 (0.32 – 0.78)	
Any Severe Neonatal Complication ^f	472 (5.3)	10,017 (4.8)	1.12 (0.59 – 2.14)	
ICU admission ^g	627 (7.1)	10,068 (4.8)	1.48 (0.93 – 2.37)	
Neonatal death ^h	40 (0.5)	1,772 (0.8)	0.54 (0.31 – 0.93)	
Congenital malformationⁱ	104 (1.2)	1,008 (0.5)	2.48 (1.63 – 3.77)	1.79 (1.39-2.30)^{###}
Any Adverse Perinatal Outcomes^j	743 (8.4)	16,147 (7.6)	1.10 (0.73 – 1.66)	
Neonatal near miss^k	679 (7.7)	11,599 (5.5)	1.39 (0.88 – 2.22)	
Small weight for gestational age^l	1,637 (18.4)	58,563 (27.9)	0.66 (0.55 – 0.80)	
Perinatal death^m	99 (1.1)	4,783 (2.2)	0.50 (0.34 – 0.73)	

*Variables independently associated with performing analgesia by Multiple Poisson regression analysis - considering the cluster design (center); [#]**p=0.042**; ^{##}**p=0.002**; ^{###}**p<0.001**

Missing information: a=3306; b=467; c=793; d=4622; e=1107; f=3646; g=3650; h=3734; i=401; j=1596; k=3642; l=4572; m=690

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4.2. Artigo 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Analgesia for vaginal birth among women with and without severe maternal morbidity: secondary analysis from the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health

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Abstract

Aim: To evaluate the use of analgesia for vaginal birth, in women with and without severe maternal morbidity (SMM) and to describe socio-demographic, clinical, obstetric characteristics and maternal and perinatal outcomes associated with labor analgesia. **Methods:** secondary analysis of the WHO Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS), a global cross-sectional study performed between May 2010 to December 2011 in 29 countries. In this analysis, women who delivered vaginally and had an SMM were selected and, were then divided into two groups: those who received and those who did not receive analgesia for labor/delivery. We further compared maternal characteristics and maternal and perinatal outcomes between these two groups. **Results:** from 314,623 women originally included in WHO-MCS, 9,788 had SMM and vaginal delivery and were then divided in two groups: with (601- 6.1%) and without analgesia (9,187- 93.9%). Women with SMM received more analgesia than those who did not experience SMM. Global distribution of SMM was similar; however, in Africa women were less likely to receive analgesia. Higher maternal education, previous cesarean section, and nulliparity were factors associated with analgesia use. Analgesia was not an independent factor associated to an increase of severe maternal outcome (Maternal Near Miss + Maternal Death). **Conclusions:** analgesia is scarcely used overall worldwide for vaginal delivery, however, women with SMM are more likely to have labor analgesia. Social conditions are closely linked with the chance of having analgesia during delivery and such a procedure is not associated with increased adverse maternal outcomes. Expanding the availability of analgesia in different levels of care should be a concern worldwide.

Keywords: Vaginal birth; Maternal Near Miss; Maternal Mortality; Maternal Morbidity; Analgesia

Introduction

Severe maternal morbidity (SMM) affects millions of women every year all over the world during pregnancy, childbirth or postpartum period (1). The continuum of severity has been established by the World Health Organization (WHO) (2) and its criteria have already been validated (3). SMM comprises Potentially Life-Threatening Conditions (PLTC), Maternal Near Miss (MNM) and Maternal Death (MD) (2, 4). The study of maternal morbidity and factors associated with worse outcomes can enable future interventions towards the improvement of maternal health and the identification of such conditions are key to ascertain adequate and timely care during childbirth.

Many physical, psychological and cultural factors are involved with individual experience during childbirth (5, 6), and physical pain during labor can be very intense for many women. According to the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, pharmacological analgesia is a safe intervention that can relieve pain and physical discomfort and it is unacceptable that this intervention is not provided for a women after her request, unless a medical contraindication to the procedure exists (7), or even due a lack of personnel or infrastructure in low resourced environments. The availability of such intervention shows great variations among different settings (8, 9), and there are initiatives to qualify nurses to participate in the labor pain relief management in order to expand its availability (10).

Pharmacological analgesia during delivery is associated with higher satisfaction rates during labor and it also increases the desire for induction of labor in subsequent pregnancies (11). However, with the current trends of changes in population characteristics, such as advanced maternal age at first pregnancy, obesity, and complexity of other medical comorbidities, offering analgesia for labor and delivery may be challenging (12).

Women with such background are at increased risk of maternal morbidity. SMM cases have increased rates of cesarean sections (13), however, when induction is possible or if there is spontaneous labor, analgesia can be an important intervention, to enable a better experience for the woman and a better clinical control of vital signs. The use of analgesia among SMM has not been explored previously.

The aim of this study is to evaluate the use of analgesia among women with and without severe maternal morbidity and analyze maternal and perinatal outcomes among morbidity cases that delivered vaginally, comparing results between those who had and those who did not have analgesia during labor.

Methods

This is a secondary analysis of the World Health Organization (WHO) Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health (WHO-MCS), whose methodological details have been previously published (14, 15). Briefly, it was a global cross-sectional study performed between May 1st, 2010 until Dec 31st, 2011 and including 359 facilities in 29 countries in Latin America, Africa, Asia, and Middle East. Data were obtained from medical records by trained researchers and it was stored in a web-based data management system. For the WHO-MCS, all women who delivered in the selected centers during data collection period were considered, and also women who had severe maternal morbidity or maternal death up to seven days after delivery or abortion were included and had their medical records reviewed. Data of fetal and newborn's conditions were also retrieved. Ethical approval for this study was provided by the WHO Ethics Review Committee, and also by the relevant local ethical boards of the countries and facilities included (14).

In the original study, a total of 314,623 women were included, with a prevalence of 7.3% (23,015) of PLTC, 0.81% (2,538) of MNM and 0.15% (486) of MD reported, with a rate of Severe Maternal Outcome (SMO) of around 1% (14).

For the current analysis, only women who delivered vaginally were selected from the WHO-MCS. Women who had a cesarean section, abortion or ectopic pregnancies, deliveries before arrival at the health facility, macerated stillbirths, gestational age below 22 weeks or fetal birthweight of less than 500 grams were excluded.

We further selected women who had SMM among those who delivered vaginally. To assess maternal morbidity, we applied the WHO criteria for SMM (2), classifying each case according to its severity as PLTC and MNM and related with clinical conditions of specific diseases, intervention-based criteria or due to organ system dysfunction. Women with the most severe conditions, MNM and MD, are grouped as Severe Maternal Outcome (SMO).

To assess the impact of analgesia for pain relief during childbirth, we divided women who delivered vaginally and experienced SMM into two groups, according to the use of analgesia. We considered any kind of analgesia (general, epidural or spinal). However, the study did not capture all other forms of pain relief during childbirth. A flowchart of women included in this analysis is provided in Figure 1. We first evaluated the prevalence of SMM in different geographic regions of the world, among vaginal deliveries. Countries included in this analysis were divided into three groups, according to geographic distribution in continents:

Latin America, Asia, and Africa. Then we compared the prevalence of analgesia among SMM cases.

We further assessed data on sociodemographic and obstetric characteristics, such as age, marital status, education, parity, the occurrence of a previous cesarean delivery and previous clinical conditions. We also evaluated data of perinatal outcomes: time and type of delivery, fetal presentation, the occurrence of postpartum hemorrhage, newborn wellbeing at delivery, weight, neonatal complication and admission to intensive care unit (ICU). In addition, we also assessed data on Neonatal Near Miss (birthweight < 1750g and/or 5th min Apgar <7 and/or GA < 33 weeks) and neonatal death. We further categorized the maternal near-miss criteria according to the specific organic system dysfunction present and we assessed the criteria for potentially life-threatening conditions during delivery or childbirth.

Data were processed and analyzed using SPSS 16.0 software. Prevalence of the conditions in both groups was obtained and they were compared using the prevalence ratio and its 95% confidence interval. A multivariate analysis using Poisson regression to assess factors independently associated with SMO among women with SMM was also performed. In the model considered, maternal age, marital status, education, number of previous births, number of previous cesarean-sections, previous maternal comorbidities, preterm delivery, multiple pregnancy, fetal presentation, low birth weight, and congenital malformation were considered as predictor variables. In this specific analysis considering SMO as the outcome, the occurrence of analgesia was evaluated as a predictor in such a model. Results were presented in accordance with the STROBE statement (16).

Results

A total of 314,623 women were included in the WHO-MCS, and 220,951 (70.2%) of them had a vaginal birth. Of those, 9,788 (4.4%) were diagnosed with SMM and were then included in this analysis. Among those women, 601 (6.1%) had analgesia for pain relief during childbirth and 9,187 (93.9%) did not receive that intervention, while among those without SMM, only 3.9% had analgesia (p-value < 0.01). Figure 1 shows the flowchart for inclusion in the current analysis and also presents the occurrence of PTLC and MNM+MD.

SMM rates were broadly similar in the three regions, with a prevalence ranging from 4.2% in Asia and Africa and reaching 5.5% in Latin America (Table 1). Data on analgesia for women with SMM is shown in Table 2. Africa was the region with less analgesia among SMM cases with vaginal birth, only 0.3%. Latin America was the region of the world that used more

analgesia for pain relief among the evaluated regions, with 12.5% of women receiving this procedure.

We further compared socio-demographic, obstetric and clinical characteristics within SMM cases with and without analgesia, in order to understand the factors associated with this intervention (Table 3 and Table 5). Majority of women were 20 – 34 years old, and age distribution between the two groups was similar. Most were married and receiving or not analgesia did not differ according to marital status. Multiparous were significantly less likely to receive analgesia, while cases with a history of previous cesarean section were associated with increased analgesia for vaginal birth. The conditions preterm birth, multiple pregnancies, fetal presentation, and low birth weight were not associated with the use of analgesia while delivering a baby with a congenital malformation was associated with the use of analgesia. Years of schooling were associated with increased analgesia among women with SMM, and women who had 12 or more years of education were over 7 times more likely to receive analgesia.

Considering Severe Maternal Outcome (SMO) cases (MNM+MD) that had a vaginal birth, and looking into the criteria of organ dysfunction, comparing cases with and without analgesia; most systems presented a similar prevalence of dysfunction in both groups. Coagulation and uterine-related dysfunctions were significantly more prevalent in the analgesia group, and women with those complications were 2.15 and 5.66 times more likely to receive analgesia, respectively. There was no significant difference in the prevalence of MD between cases with and without analgesia. Data is shown in table 4.

When considering the criteria for PLTC, among women who received analgesia, 233 (38.8%) had postpartum hemorrhage, and this frequency was similar in the other group (26.9%). Another frequent condition observed was preeclampsia, that affected 145 (24.1%) women who received analgesia and 2,385 (26.0%) of those who did not receive it. Women with heart or lung diseases were significantly more likely to receive analgesia (prevalence ratio of 1.88 and 1.74, respectively), while, on the other hand, women with HIV infection or eclampsia were less likely to have analgesia for vaginal birth (prevalence ratio of 0.08 and 0.32, respectively) (Table 5).

Perinatal outcomes in the studied population were similar in both groups for a low 5-minute Apgar score, neonatal complications, admission to neonatal ICU, neonatal death until the 7th day after birth, the occurrence of any adverse perinatal outcome and neonatal near miss.

However, the occurrence of fresh stillbirth and perinatal death were significantly lower among women who received analgesia (prevalence ratio of 0.37 and 0.45, respectively), and also the occurrence of small for gestational age babies (prevalence ratio of 0.64).

In the multivariate analysis, we aimed to assess which factors were independently associated with SMO (MNM and MD), among all those who had SMM. Our model tested 13 variables, as previously explained. Of those, education (more than 8 years) was a protective factor (prevalence ratio of 0.43) for worst outcomes, while multiple pregnancies, preterm birth, low birthweight, and multiparity were associated with a higher occurrence of MNM and MD. Data is shown in table 6.

Discussion

Our study assessed data available on analgesia for pain relief in vaginal birth among women who experienced SMM using a large WHO database (Multicountry Survey on Maternal and Newborn Health). SMM occurrence was similar in the different world regions evaluated, however, African women received less analgesia than those from Asia and Latin America. Women with higher education levels, previous cesarean section and with malformed fetus were more likely to have analgesia, while those with previous births received less analgesia. Coagulation and uterine-related diseases were the main causes of MNM and also more associated with analgesia use. Among causes of PTLC, HIV and eclampsia reduced the risk of having analgesia, while cardiac or lung disease increased it, probably due to the increased likelihood of instrumental delivery in women with those conditions.

SMM is a relatively new concept that has been widespread due to the efforts of the WHO to assess this phenomenon in different settings and countries (17, 18). A list of potentially life-threatening conditions and maternal near-miss criteria can be assessed by any obstetrician to classify a case under its care as a severe maternal morbidity case to receive the most adequate interventions recommended for avoiding the worst outcome: maternal death (19). The role of analgesia in such cases is still not clear, with uncertainties regarding possible increased complications and challenges. Among cases of SMM, there is an increased risk of cesarean section, with rates as high as 70% (13); however, if there are maternal and fetal conditions to enable induction or if spontaneous labor, analgesia is an intervention that can improve the women's positive experience during childbirth and potentially increase surveillance of clinical parameters.

Epidural analgesia is considered a safe and effective intervention for labor pain management (20) and it has been included in the 2018 “World Health Organization Recommendations: intrapartum care for a positive childbirth experience”, however, our data show that only a minority of women included in our study received this intervention, at least by the time the data collection occurred. All settings included in our study had the capacity to provide surgical care for women during childbirth (as an inclusion criterion), with at least an attending anesthesiologist.

The low prevalence of women receiving analgesia during childbirth might suggest that best practices during childbirth are not applied worldwide, however, this may not be the only explanation. Although labor pain is a physical condition and it has been long recognized as one of the most intense types of pain that can be experienced (21-23), the painful perception is strongly affected by individual, biological and psychological characteristics, as also by socio-cultural and religious beliefs of women and their communities (24).

There is a lack of information regarding the prevalence of use of labor analgesia around the world, with frequencies ranging from 1.4 – 60% in different settings (25, 26), and, again, this may be related to differences regarding choices during childbirth and it is probably determined by non-medical and biological conditions affecting this phenomenon. Assessing the prevalence of use of labor analgesia worldwide is an important issue that should be routinely collected and shared with health providers and policymakers, in order to better understand the impact of such a procedure.

Our study showed that provision of labor analgesia for women with SMM was very low in less resourced regions of the world (Africa, Asia, and Latin America), however, our data could not assess the reasons for that, possibly not only related with the availability of resources but also to personal and community beliefs regarding childbirth. Anesthetic complications are always a concern, however, a rare cause of maternal death and its importance in the overall causes of maternal mortality has been decreasing in the last decades (27).

Perinatal outcomes were similar; among SMM with and without analgesia, however, not having analgesia was more associated with the occurrence of fresh stillbirth and perinatal deaths. We cannot ascertain causality with this study design and most likely such results reflect residual confounding, since poorly equipped facilities cannot offer pain relief to all cases, and are unable to provide adequate resources to women with SMM, hence pain relief use is low, and perinatal outcomes are worse.

An interesting finding in our study was that women who had higher educational levels received more analgesia during childbirth. There are no doubts that educational levels are intimately associated with economic conditions and ethnic backgrounds, and previous studies and reviews reported that analgesia was mostly provided for women with better socioeconomic conditions (28, 29). Our study did not assess ethnic conditions of women included in the study since this data was not recorded, however, considering previous reports (30), probably women of ethnic minorities had less access to analgesia. This kind of inequality needs to be addressed by health workers and policymakers and the first step to do so is to recognize the problem.

Higher educational levels protected women of severe maternal outcomes (maternal death or maternal near miss) in the multivariate analysis we performed, while multiple pregnancies, preterm deliveries, low birthweight, and multiparity were related with worse outcomes. In the same analysis, analgesia was neither a protective nor a risk factor for the occurrence of severe maternal outcomes. Our data support that analgesia may be offered even for women with severe maternal morbidity, and it will not put them at higher risk for severe maternal outcomes as death or maternal near miss.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to specifically address analgesia among women with SMM. The majority of studies assesses different types of analgesia, and no significant differences in perinatal outcomes were previously reported (31). Among our results, we showed that women who received analgesia were less likely to have a fresh stillbirth and perinatal deaths. However, this data should be considered with caution, since this study cannot ascertain a clear cause-effect relationship among such variables.

Our study has several limitations. One of them is that we obtained data of a cross-sectional study, and we can only infer associations, but no causal relationships can be drawn. Another limitation is that we only assessed women who delivered vaginally but excluded those who were submitted to a cesarean section due to maternal or fetal conditions. However, the strength of this study is the number of cases, with a multicounty approach, enabling an overview of analgesia among cases with severe maternal morbidity.

Conclusions

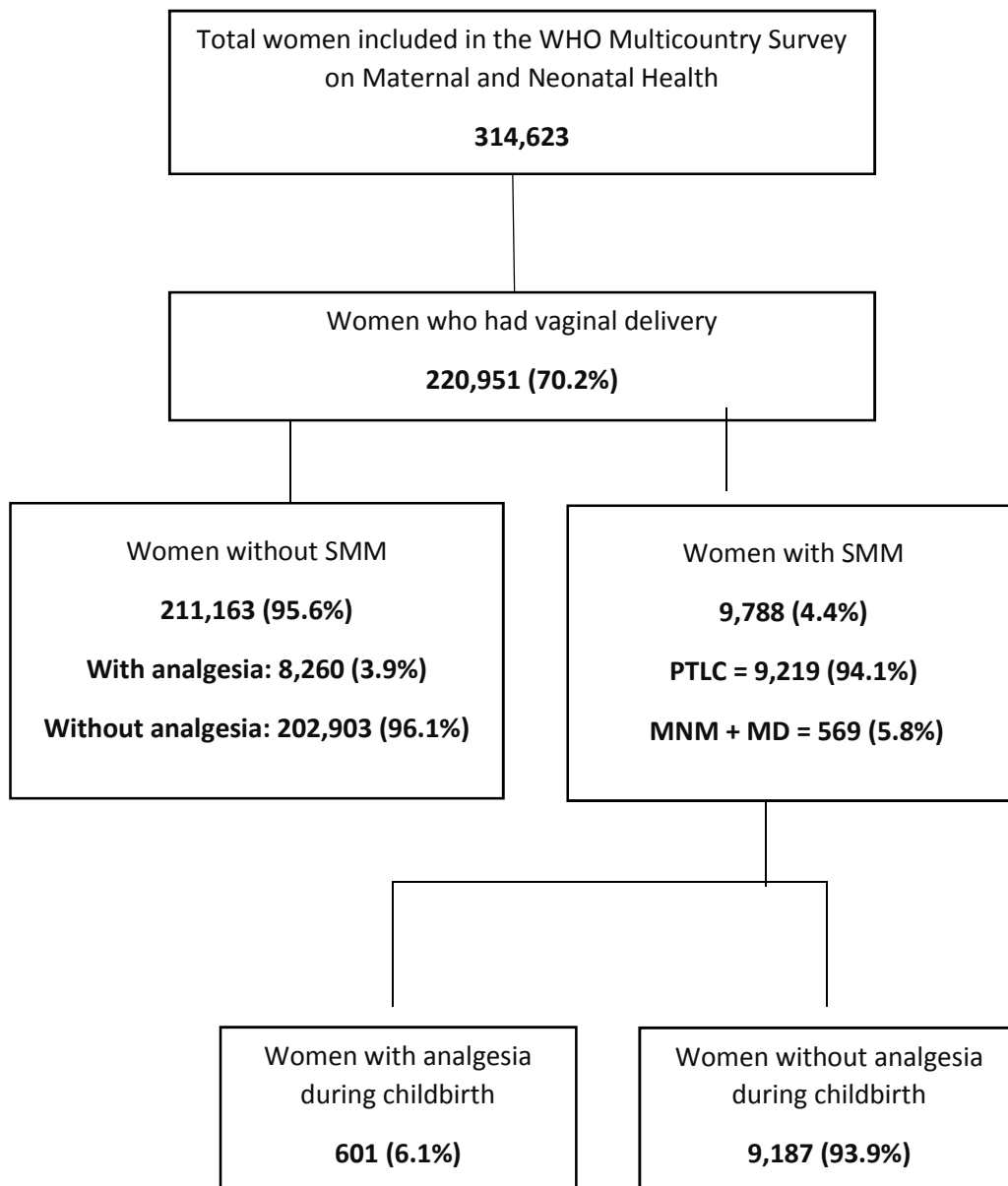
Analgesia was scarcely used overall for vaginal birth, and also among SMM cases. There was a significant difference in the use of analgesia comparing cases with and without SMM and the

procedure was not associated with increased severity (SMO). Analgesia for childbirth was intimately associated with social conditions. An effort to expand the availability of labor analgesia in different levels of care should be a concern worldwide.

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PLTC: Potentially life-threatening conditions. **MNM:** maternal near miss. **MD:** Maternal death.

Figure 1. Flowchart showing the inclusion of women in this analysis

Table 1. Global occurrence of Severe Maternal Morbidity (SMM) in women who delivered vaginally, the prevalence in different geographic regions of the world and prevalence ratio

World Region	SMM	Non-SMM	PR (CI)
Asia (125,199)	5,314 (4.2)	119,885 (95.8)	1
Africa (59,155)	2,479 (4.2)	56,676 (95.8)	0.99 [0.83 – 1.19]
Latin America (36,597)	1,995 (5.5)	34,602 (94.5)	1.22 [0.90 – 1.65]
World (221,345)	9,788 (4.4)	211,557 (95.6)	-

Table 2. Global performance of analgesia for women with Severe Maternal morbidity, the prevalence in different geographic regions of the world and prevalence ratio

World Region (n)	SMM with Analgesia	SMM without Analgesia	PR (CI)
Asia (5,314)	343 (6.5)	4,971 (93.5)	1
Africa (2,479)	8 (0.3)	2,471 (99.7)	0.07 (0.02 – 0.24)
Latin America (1,995)	250 (12.5)	1,745 (87.5)	1.62 (0.91 – 2.90)
World (9,788)	601 (6.1)	9,187 (93.9)	-

*Statistical test: Chi-square with Yates' correction.

Table 3. Sociodemographic and obstetric characteristics of women with SMM according to the performance of analgesia during labor and childbirth

	With Analgesia	Without Analgesia	Prevalence Ratio (95% CI)
N	601	9,187	
Age (years)¹			
<20	74 (12.3)	1,085 (11.8)	1
20 – 34	421 (70.0)	6,742 (73.5)	0.92 (0.54 – 1.58)
≥ 35	106 (17.6)	1,343 (14.6)	1.15 (0.43 – 3.02)
Marital Status²			
Single	50 (8.3)	954 (10.6)	0.78 (0.44 – 1.36)
Married	551 (91.7)	8,044 (89.4)	1
Education (years)³			
<5	26 (5.1)	1,902 (22.6)	1
5 – 8	83 (16.1)	2,137 (25.4)	2.77 (1.46 – 5.27)
9 – 11	136 (26.5)	2,007 (23.9)	4.56 (2.58 – 8.04)
≥12	269 (52.3)	2,357 (28.0)	7.60 (4.28 – 13.48)
Previous birth⁴			
0	343 (57.1)	3840 (41.8)	1
1 - 2	207 (34.4)	3480 (37.9)	0.68 (0.57 – 0.83)
≥ 3	51 (8.5)	1861 (20.3)	0.33 (0.18 – 0.60)
Previous C-section⁵			
0	549 (91.8)	8,681 (96.5)	1
1	44 (7.4)	296 (3.3)	2.18 (1.41 – 3.35)
≥2	5 (0.8)	23 (0.3)	3.0 (1.49 – 6.03)

Missing: 1 – 17; 2 – 189; 3 – 871; 4 – 6; 5 – 190.

Table 4. Prevalence of maternal near miss criteria (organ dysfunction) and maternal death in women with SMM according to the performance of analgesia during labor and childbirth

Maternal outcome	With Analgesia	Without Analgesia	Prevalence Ratio* (95% CI)
	601 (%)	9187 (%)	
Maternal near miss criteria according to system dysfunction			
Cardiovascular ¹	16 (2.7)	269 (2.9)	0.93 (0.41 – 2.12)
Respiratory ²	7 (1.2)	155 (1.7)	0.70 (0.30 – 1.67)
Renal ³	1 (0.2)	53 (0.6)	0.29 (0.04 – 2.39)
Coagulation ⁴	21 (3.6)	152 (1.7)	2.15 (1.24 – 3.72)
Hepatic ⁵	2 (0.3)	57 (0.6)	0.55 (0.11 – 2.62)
Neurologic ⁶	2 (0.3)	75 (0.8)	0.42 (0.10 – 1.78)
Uterine ⁷	12 (2.0)	33 (0.4)	5.66 (2.72 – 11.78)
Maternal Death	2 (0.3)	104 (1.1)	0.29 (0.07 – 1.25)

*: Reference for all these comparisons was not receiving analgesia.

Missing: 1 – 58; 2 – 55; 3 – 52; 4 – 51; 5 – 50; 6 – 48; 7 – 48.

Table 5. Potentially life-threatening conditions (PTLC) associated with analgesia during childbirth in women with severe maternal morbidity and vaginal delivery

PLTC	With	Without	Prevalence Ratio (95% CI)
	Analgesia	Analgesia	
	601 (%)	9187 (%)	
Hemorrhage			
Uterine Rupture	6 (1.0)	42 (0.5)	2.18 (0.9 – 5.31)
Postpartum haemorrhage (PPH)	233 (38.8)	2474 (26.9)	1.44 (0.98 – 2.12)
Infection			
Puerperal endometritis	8 (1.3)	130 (1.4)	0.94 (0.37 – 2.37)
Pyelonephritis	7 (1.2)	202 (2.2)	0.53 (0.21 – 1.34)
Influenza	3 (0.5)	88 (1.0)	0.52 (0.15 – 1.87)
Other infections	26 (4.3)	465 (5.1)	0.85 (0.35 – 2.11)
Hypertension			
Chronic	29 (4.8)	452 (4.9)	0.98 (0.66 – 1.46)
Preeclampsia	145 (24.1)	2385 (26.0)	0.93 (0.74 – 1.71)
Eclampsia	7 (1.2)	339 (3.7)	0.32 (0.13 – 0.74)
Other conditions			
HIV	4 (0.7)	786 (8.6)	0.08 (0.03 – 0.23)
Anaemia	90 (15.0)	2030 (22.1)	0.68 (0.39 – 1.19)
Malaria / Dengue	4 (0.7)	160 (1.7)	0.38 (0.07 – 1.96)
Embolic diseases	1 (0.2)	21 (0.2)	0.73 (0.09 – 5.77)
Cancer	1 (0.2)	16 (0.2)	0.96 (0.12 – 7.42)
Heart disease	25 (4.2)	203 (2.2)	1.88 (1.01 – 3.52)
Lung disease	17 (2.8)	149 (1.6)	1.74 (1.02 – 2.99)
Renal disease	7 (1.2)	92 (1.0)	1.16 (0.47 – 2.90)
Hepatic disease	10 (1.7)	198 (2.2)	0.77 (0.42 – 1.43)
Coincidental disease	12 (2.0)	242 (2.6)	0.76 (0.14 – 4.03)
Interventions / Management			
Oxytocin to PPH	197 (32.4)	2136 (23.3)	1.41 (0.93 – 2.13)
Other uterotonics to PPH	32 (5.3)	293 (3.2)	1.67 (0.79 – 3.55)
Magnesium Sulphate	49 (8.2)	1368 (14.9)	0.55 (0.36 – 0.84)
Other anticonvulsivant	21 (3.5)	345 (3.8)	0.93 (0.46 – 1.90)
Antibiotics	84 (14.0)	1609 (17.5)	0.80 (0.49 – 1.30)
Blood products	78 (12.6)	1471 (16.0)	0.79 (0.55 – 1.14)
Laparotomy	10 (1.7)	56 (0.8)	2.73 (1.33 – 5.60)
Admission to ICU	31 (5.2)	392 (4.3)	1.21 (0.58 – 2.51)

Table 6. Perinatal outcomes in women with severe maternal morbidity and vaginal delivery, according to the performance of analgesia

Perinatal Outcomes	With Analgesia	Without Analgesia	Prevalence Ratio (CI)
	601 (%)	9187 (%)	
5-min Apgar Score ≤ 7	51 (8.6)	1023 (11.9)	0.72 (0.42 – 1.23)
Small for gestational age	115 (18.9)	2647 (29.4)	0.64 (0.49 – 0.85)
Fresh stillbirth	16 (2.6)	670 (7.2)	0.37 (0.19 – 0.71)
Neonatal complications	100 (16.8)	1208 (13.9)	1.21 (0.75 – 1.95)
Admission to neonatal ICU	92 (15.5)	1314 (15.1)	1.02 (0.68 – 1.55)
Early Neonatal death	12 (2.0)	266 (3.1)	0.66 (0.28 – 1.55)
Any adverse perinatal outcome	119 (19.5)	2204 (23.8)	0.82 (0.57 – 1.19)
Neonatal near miss*	128 (21.5)	1447 (16.7)	1.29 (0.91 – 1.85)
Perinatal death	27 (4.4)	925 (9.9)	0.45 (0.25 – 0.81)
Preterm Delivery	107 (17.6)	1,767 (19.3)	0.91 (0.99 – 1.01)
Multiple pregnancy	20 (3.3)	422 (4.5)	0.73 (0.43 – 1.24)
Fetal presentation			
Cephalic	585 (96.2)	9,015 (96.6)	1
Breech	23 (3.7)	320 (3.4)	1 (0.98 – 1.01)
Low birth weight (<2500g)	115 (18.9)	2,145 (23.2)	0.81 (0.62 – 1.07)
Congenital malformation	16 (2.6)	86 (0.9)	2.86 (1.57 – 5.24)

*NNM (birthweight < 1750g and/or 5th min Apgar <7 and/or GA < 33 weeks)

Table 7. Multivariate analysis by Poisson's Regression of independent factors associated with SMO (MNM + MD) among women with SMM who delivered vaginally

Characteristics	Prevalence Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	p-value
Education >8 years	0.43	0.32 – 0.58	<0.001
Multiple pregnancy	1.92	1.30 – 2.83	<0.002
Preterm delivery	1.45	1.16 – 1.81	<0.002
Low birthweight <2500g	1.32	1.03 – 1.69	0.029
Multiparous woman	1.19	1.01 – 1.41	0.039

Other variables tested in this model with no statistical significance: maternal age, marital status, number of previous cesarean-sections, previous maternal comorbidities, performance of analgesia, fetal presentation, low birthweight, and congenital malformation.

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5. DISCUSSÃO GERAL

Condições adequadas de atenção profissional e institucional ao parto, são capazes de diminuir a ocorrência da morbidade materna grave e de mortes maternas. Resultados de ensaios controlados randomizados sobre intervenções capazes de reduzir as complicações e a mortalidade materna durante a atenção ao parto já mostraram ser benéficas e deveriam ser adotadas universalmente nos manuais e guias de conduta obstétrica para diferentes realidades e populações. Nos países de baixo IDH, entre outras causas, a falta de anesthesiologistas durante o parto vaginal e principalmente nos casos de partos cesárea, contribuem para o aumento de morbimortalidade materna (19, 28).

A morbidade materna está intimamente associada à mortalidade materna e a antecede. Intervenções que reduzam a morbidade, teoricamente e indiretamente devem ser capazes de reduzir a mortalidade materna (76). A utilização de profissionais capacitados e treinados para a atenção a partos normais e complicados já demonstrou correlação inversa com a ocorrência de morbidade e mortalidade materna (19).

A qualidade na anestesia sempre será desejada e no caso da anestesia obstétrica este anseio tem uma maior transcendência, já que é a anestesia obstétrica uma das especialidades na anesthesiologia, que por suas características próprias e pela repercussão social que tem, impacta diretamente no bem-estar social. Seu campo de ação é precisamente durante a gestação e o período perinatal, etapa da vida do ser humano no qual a morte é mais susceptível de ocorrer e também complicações graves, podendo deixar sequelas limitantes para o recém-nascido.

Por muito tempo existiu grande preocupação com relação ao uso de analgesia, devido a resultados de estudos observacionais mais antigos, associando seu uso a um risco aumentado de parto cesárea e alterações do parâmetro de batimentos cardíacos fetais pós punção (mais desacelerações). No entanto, a evidência atual suporta a conclusão de que o uso de analgesia durante o trabalho de parto não tem um efeito significativo nas taxas de cesárea (4, 7). Além disso, o tempo de trabalho de parto também foi muito contestado, associando-se prolongamento do primeiro e segundo períodos do parto ao uso de analgesia. Uma extensiva revisão sistemática- *Cochrane*, recentemente demonstrou que não há influência no tempo de progressão

do primeiro período, independente do momento da analgesia; e aumento médio de 15 minutos durante o segundo período (expulsivo). O significado clínico de tal prolongamento é discutível (7, 77).

A realização de analgesia também está associada a maior risco de parto instrumental (fórcipe), talvez pelo efeito de agentes anestésicos inibindo puxo expulsivo e possível efeito sobre rotação interna da apresentação fetal (77). É preciso ressaltar também o cuidado necessário pela possibilidade de hipotensão pós analgesia. As intervenções de deslocamento uterino, administração de fluidos e o tratamento com vasopressores podem ser necessários para evitar gravidade (4).

Nas últimas décadas houve progresso significativo no estabelecimento da segurança e eficácia da analgesia neuroaxial para o trabalho de parto e parto. Atualmente, a analgesia peridural contínua é o modo mais utilizado de controle da dor no trabalho de parto e parto, sendo considerada segura e eficaz. A analgesia espinhal-peridural combinada, é igualmente segura, e está ganhando popularidade por fornecer analgesia rápida com o benefício potencial de encurtar o trabalho de parto (77-79).

Sabendo que o processo da parturição produz desconforto e dor para a maioria das gestantes, é de responsabilidade da equipe atendente, particularmente do médico obstetra, encontrar recursos que modifiquem esta situação. A analgesia obstétrica ideal não só deve reduzir ao máximo a dor provocada pelas contrações e dilatação do colo uterino, mas permitir, ao mesmo tempo, que a mulher participe ativamente da experiência de dar à luz. De modo igual, deve ter efeitos mínimos sobre o feto e não interferir com a evolução fisiológica do trabalho de parto. A dor, embora seja um dos mais importantes sinais de início do trabalho de parto, quando já acompanhada pela regularidade das contrações uterinas, pode e deve ser aliviada, porque apresenta uma série de efeitos indesejáveis para a mãe e o feto (7).

As respostas corticais à dor e a ansiedade durante o trabalho de parto são complexas e podem ser influenciadas pela expectativa da mãe em relação a experiência do parto, sua preparação, por meio da educação, presença do apoio emocional, idade e outros fatores. As respostas fisiológicas maternas à dor podem influenciar o bem-estar materno e fetal e o progresso do trabalho de parto (4).

Hiperventilação pode induzir hipocarbúria. Um aumento na taxa metabólica aumenta o consumo de oxigênio. Aumentos no débito cardíaco e resistência vascular podem aumentar a pressão arterial materna. A dor, o estresse e a ansiedade causam a liberação de cortisol e de beta endorfinas. A resposta do sistema nervoso simpático resulta em um aumento acentuado nas catecolaminas circulantes, como a noradrenalina e a epinefrina, que podem afetar adversamente a atividade uterina e o fluxo sanguíneo útero-placentário. A analgesia efetiva atenua ou elimina essas respostas.

A dor do trabalho de parto, para a maioria das mulheres, é semelhante àquela causada por uma amputação de dedo ou por síndromes complexas de dor regional. Na ausência de uma contraindicação médica, a solicitação materna é uma indicação médica o suficiente para o alívio da dor durante o trabalho de parto, declaram o Colégio Americano dos Obstetras e Ginecologistas e a Sociedade Americana dos Anestesiologistas (ASA) (4).

A redução significativa da ocorrência da morbimortalidade materna e neonatal depende da atenção profissional e institucional ao parto, e dessa responsabilidade os profissionais da saúde não devem eximir-se. Neste contexto encontra-se o anestesiolegista. Em países de recursos limitados as causas da escassez de anestesiolegistas envolvem desde a inadequada infraestrutura, falta de equipamentos, suprimentos, e principalmente a falta de incentivo para a busca da especialidade. Aumento de programas de educação continuada seguramente contribuiriam para motivar o interesse nesta área.

Estudar aspectos relacionados a realização de anestesia, em diversas regiões do mundo pode colaborar para discussão e implementação do uso da analgesia durante o trabalho de parto e parto.

Das 314.623 mulheres incluídas no estudo *Multicountry Survey* da OMS, 221.345 tiveram partos vaginais e dessas, apenas 4% foram submetidas à analgesia de parto, sendo a maioria originária de países com IDH mais elevados. Os fatores associados, de maneira independente a maior realização de analgesia foram: nuliparidade, maior escolaridade, cesárea prévia, baixo peso ao nascer e prematuridade.

A falta de preparo prévio, de experiências anteriores, do medo exacerbado da dor, do desconhecido e também o conhecimento de que partos em nulíparas possam ser mais prolongados, faz com que essas mulheres sejam mais submetidas a analgesias de parto, conforme mostram os resultados da nossa análise. Mulheres com histórico anterior de cesáreas também foram submetidas com maior frequência a analgesia peridural, comprovando relatos anteriores, onde analgesia peridural em mulheres em trabalho de parto, com cesárea anterior, podem evoluir satisfatoriamente para parto vaginal (52).

É fundamental considerar algumas limitações do nosso estudo. O WHO-MCS não objetivou investigar especificamente a analgesia, e nenhuma informação foi obtida sobre doses, medicações utilizadas, tempo do procedimento ou efeitos adversos potencialmente graves da analgesia ou sobre outras opções de alívio da dor. Os dados sobre a solicitação de analgesia ou satisfação das mulheres em relação à experiência de parto, também não foram considerados. Além disso, incluímos apenas mulheres que tiveram um parto vaginal e portanto, não foi possível analisar os casos de analgesia que evoluíram para parto cesárea. Na base de dados WHO-MCS, a prevalência total de cesarianas foi de 28,6% (89.515 casos), sendo que 51.442 dessas cirurgias (57,5%) foram realizadas em mulheres em trabalho de parto (39). Essas mulheres não foram incluídas em nosso estudo.

Outra limitação é a impossibilidade de determinar causalidade na avaliação do uso de analgesia, devido ao desenho do estudo transversal. Avaliando os desfechos perinatais através da análise binária, constatamos melhores resultados entre os casos com analgesia, no entanto, reconhecemos a possibilidade de viés nesta análise e sabemos que novos estudos seriam necessários para determinar o impacto da analgesia sobre os diferentes resultados maternos e perinatais considerados.

Na nossa análise, o uso da analgesia foi muito baixo para o parto vaginal, havendo disparidade entre os países. Medidas devem ser adotadas para aumentar a utilização da analgesia durante os partos vaginais e talvez a inclusão, durante as consultas pré-natais, de orientações mais amplas sobre anestesia obstétrica, direitos das gestantes e benefícios devessem ser divulgados e com isso o procedimento, com certeza teria um incremento.

Na avaliação de casos de morbidade materna grave, o uso da analgesia não se mostrou como fator preditor ou associado à pior resultado materno (NMM, MM) e no entanto, mulheres com morbidade grave tiveram significativamente mais analgesia para parto vaginal. Dentre os casos de morbidade grave, a via de parto mais prevalente é a cesárea (80), no entanto, se evolução para parto vaginal, certamente que o suporte da anestesia pode colaborar para o manejo clínico destas mulheres.

Alguns achados interessantes foram os seguintes: casos de HIV e eclampsia, apresentaram significativamente menor realização de analgesia para parto vaginal. Possivelmente os maiores números de casos de HIV venham de países com IDH muito baixos, local onde existem poucos recursos institucionais e profissionais. Sem dúvida que a eclampsia necessita de um atendimento multidisciplinar, e talvez estes casos se refiram à eclampsia pós-parto. Notadamente foram poucos casos em ambas as condições (pois na época de coleta de dados do MCS-WHO o protocolo na maior parte dos países era cesárea para paciente com retrovírose e por que, os casos de eclampsia denotam gravidade e na maior parte das vezes associados a parto cesárea).

Mulheres com doenças cardíacas e pulmonares tiveram a frequência aumentada no uso de analgesia provavelmente devido à necessidade de um maior cuidado com estas gestantes, preservando-as de outras complicações.

A análise multivariada teve o objetivo de avaliar quais fatores estavam independentemente associados ao pior desfecho materno: SMO (MNM e MD), no intuito de incluir a analgesia como preditor. Nesta avaliação, a analgesia não se mostrou associada à gravidade de morbidade materna. Este resultado é interessante e corrobora com revisões recentes que atestam para a segurança do uso da analgesia (77).

O papel da analgesia de parto não está claro nos casos de CPAV, MNM e MD, mas seguramente contribuiria para a diminuição destes eventos, visto que, mais um profissional estaria com atenção voltado para estas pacientes.

A força do estudo é o grande número de casos, com coleta de dados prospectiva e padronizada, em diversas regiões do mundo, permitindo uma ampla visão da analgesia entre os casos com e sem morbidade materna. Nossos resultados podem ajudar a identificar fatores associados ao uso de analgesia para parto vaginal.

Existe uma lacuna de conhecimento entre o desejo de analgesia de parto e sua disponibilidade e também pouca informação às mulheres/gestantes sobre a analgesia peridural, o que também pode levar à sua baixa utilização durante o trabalho de parto.

Esperamos que este trabalho possa ser a base para estudos futuros e para políticas públicas para melhorar a saúde materna e a experiência durante o trabalho de parto.

6. CONCLUSÕES

- 1) Analgesia foi realizada em apenas 4% do total de casos de parto vaginal; mais em países de maior IDH, sendo a realização do procedimento associada a nuliparidade, maior escolaridade, antecedente de uma ou mais cesáreas, prematuridade, baixo peso ao nascimento e presença de malformações fetais.
- 2) Em mulheres com morbidade materna grave, que evoluíram para parto vaginal, houve maior realização de analgesia, em comparação com casos sem morbidade, embora ainda com prevalência baixa (ao redor de 6%), especialmente no continente Africano. Nuliparidade, antecedente de cesárea, maior escolaridade, presença de malformações e patologias prévias (pulmonares e cardíacas) foram fatores associados à realização do procedimento. Analgesia não se mostrou como um dos fatores associados a pior desfecho materno (NMM e MM) na análise múltipla.

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8. ANEXOS

ANEXO 1- Aprovação Ética

 World Health Organization	Research Ethics Review Committee (WHO ERC)
20, AVENUE APPIA - CH-1211 GENEVA 27 - SWITZERLAND - HTTP://INTRANET.WHO.INT/HOMES/RPC/ERC - HTTP://WWW.WHO.INT/RPC/RESEARCH_ETHICS	
Review Summary	
A65097	
Dear Meriardi, M.	
Attached please find the review summary of the Protocol "WHO Multicentre Study for the Development of Growth Standards from Fetal life to Childhood: the Fetal Component"	
This Review Summary is organized in three sections: <i>Sections 1 and 2 consist of issues which must be addressed to the satisfaction of the ERC before approval is granted. Section 3 consists of suggestions from the ERC for your consideration and do not constitute a condition for approval.</i>	
Section 1 - <u>Amendments</u> - (Response and change required)	
This section includes queries and comments on your protocol, study instruments or the informed consent form for which the ERC requires your response and where relevant, appropriate amendments to the protocol, study instruments or the informed consent.	
Section 2- <u>Clarifications</u> - (Response required but change may not be required)	
This section includes queries on your protocol, study instruments or the informed consent form for which the ERC requires a clarification, and it may not be mandatory for you to make changes to your protocol. Please consider the comments of the ERC and determine if you believe change is needed. If no change is made, the ERC will consider the response. If the judgement of the ERC is that a change should occur, the ERC will promptly notify you.	
Section 3 - <u>Suggestions</u>	
This section consists of suggestions for alternative scientific or technical approaches or methods for conducting the research but which do not raise critical, ethical issues. These are meant to be helpful to investigators and are presented as suggestions for you to consider incorporating into a revised protocol. No response from you is required for any comment in this section. If, however, you do make changes to the protocol as a result of these suggestions, please submit the revised protocol to the ERC.	
<p>Response to Review Summaries:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In a cover memo, please address your response to each of the queries in sections 1 and 2 POINT BY POINT; 2. Submit a revised amended protocol incorporating all the requested amendments. All changes should be marked either in bold or highlighted or they should be in the track changes <p>Upon approval from ERC: Please submit a final protocol without track changes or highlighting</p>	
<p>Please remember that</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Any changes to the proposal or to the attachments (informed consent/ questionnaires etc.) should be approved by ERC before being implemented. ○ The approval for this proposal is valid for a period of one year only. Please resubmit this proposal for a Continuing Review at least 2 months before the next re-approval period. 	

ANEXO 2 – Ficha de Coleta de Dados

 WHO MULTICOUNTRY SURVEY ON MATERNAL AND NEWBORN HEALTH		INDIVIDUAL FORM																																																		
World Health Organization HRP A65661 03/11/2009		Page 1/2																																																		
Instructions This form is composed of sections. The target population of each section is specified in the section title. Sections may be skipped considering the individual participant. If information unknown, not available or not applicable, fill with 9s. Question 36 and 37 are crucial for this study. In case of doubt, CONSULT the attending physician. If multiple births, use supplementary forms answering questions 1 and 19 to 31.																																																				
		Study population - eligibility criteria All women giving birth Maternal deaths up to the seventh postpartum day Women with organ dysfunction related to pregnancy (including abortion and ectopic pregnancy)																																																		
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About the use of interventions, please specify whether the woman received any of the following: (1=No 2=Yes)</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>a) Oxytocin for prevention of postpartum haemorrhage</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>b) Other uterotonics for prevention of postpartum haemorrhage</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>c) Prophylactic antibiotic for caesarean section</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>d) General anaesthesia</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>e) Epidural anaesthesia/analgesia</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>f) Spinal anaesthesia/analgesia</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> </table> </td> <td style="width: 50%; vertical-align: top;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td>18. Total number of fetuses</td> <td><input type="checkbox"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>19. 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30. Any congenital malformation diagnosed before hospital discharge?	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
31. If Q30=2, specify whether the malformation is related to:	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
a) Neural tube / Central Nervous System	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
b) Lip / Cleft / Palate	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
c) Cardiac	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
d) Renal	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
e) Limb	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
f) Chromosomal syndrome (e.g. Down Syndrome)	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
g) Minor abnormalities	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			
h) Other	<input type="checkbox"/>																																																			

	WHO MULTICOUNTRY SURVEY ON MATERNAL AND NEWBORN HEALTH	INDIVIDUAL FORM
World Health Organization	HRP A65661	03/11/2009
		Page 2/2

<p>D Women with preterm delivery (Q16-37 weeks)</p> <p>32. During the current hospital stay, specify whether any of the following conditions was observed: (1=No 2=Yes)</p> <p>a) Delivery at arrival or during the first 3 hours of stay in the facility <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Corticosteroids for fetal lung maturation <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>c) As treatment for preterm labour:</p> <p>c1) Betamimetics (e.g. terbutaline, ritodrine) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c2) NSAIDS / Cox-inhibitors (e.g. indometacine) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c3) Calcium-channel blockers (e.g. nifedipine) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c4) Oxytocin-antagonist (e.g. atosiban) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c5) Magnesium sulphate <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c6) Bed rest or hydration <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c7) No labour or no treatment for preterm labour <input type="checkbox"/></p>
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<p>E Women with complications (Q10-2) and maternal deaths (Q11-2)</p> <p>33. Was any of the following conditions identified? (1=No 2=Yes)</p> <p>a) Haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a1) Abortion related haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a2) Ectopic pregnancy <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a3) Placenta praevia <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a4) Accreta/increta/percreta placenta <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a5) Abruptio placenta <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a6) Ruptured uterus <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a7) Postpartum haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a8) Other obstetric haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Infection <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b1) Abortion related infection <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b2) Puerperal endometritis <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b3) Pyelonephritis <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b4) Influenza-like illness <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b5) Other systemic infections / sepsis <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c) Hypertension <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c1) Chronic hypertension <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c2) Pre-eclampsia (excludes eclampsia) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c3) Eclampsia <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d) Other conditions <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d1) HIV + / AIDS / HIV wasting syndrome <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d2) Anaemia <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d3) Malaria / dengue <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d4) Embolic disease (thrombo/embolism/air embolism) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d5) Cancer <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d6) Heart disease <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d7) Lung disease <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d8) Renal disease <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d9) Hepatic disease <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d10) Coincidental conditions <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>34. About the use of interventions or health services, please specify whether the woman used any of the following: (1=No 2=Yes)</p> <p>a) Oxytocin for treatment of postpartum haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Other uterotonic for treatment of postpartum haemorrhage <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c) Magnesium sulphate as anticonvulsant <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d) Other anticonvulsant <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>e) Therapeutic, intravenous antibiotics (excludes prophylaxis in caesarean section) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>f) Blood products <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>g) Laparotomy (includes hysterectomy, excludes caesarean section) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>h) Admission to Intensive Care Unit <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>35. If the woman died while pregnant or was discharged to continue the pregnancy, specify the gestational age at discharge or death (in completed weeks) <input type="checkbox"/></p>	<p>36. In case of maternal deaths and women surviving complications, specify whether any of the following conditions was identified: (1=No 2=Yes)</p> <p>Cardiovascular dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>a) Shock <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Cardiac Arrest <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>c) Severe hypoperfusion (lactate >5 mmol/L or >45mg/dL) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>d) Severe acidosis (pH<7.1) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>e) Use of continuous vasoactive drugs <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>f) Cardio-pulmonary resuscitation <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Respiratory dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>g) Acute cyanosis <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>h) Gasping <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>i) Severe tachypnea (respiratory rate>40 bpm) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>j) Severe bradypnea (respiratory rate<6 bpm) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>k) Severe hypoxemia (O2 saturation <90% for ≥60min or PAO2/FiO2<200) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>l) Intubation and ventilation not related to anaesthesia <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Renal dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>m) Oliguria non responsive to fluids or diuretics <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>n) Severe acute azotemia (Creatinine >300umol/ml or >3.5mg/dL) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>o) Dialysis for acute renal failure <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Coagulation dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>p) Failure to form clots <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>q) Severe acute thrombocytopenia (<50,000 platelets/ml) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>r) Massive transfusion of blood or rbc cells (≥ 5 units) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Hepatic dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>s) Jaundice in the presence of pre-eclampsia <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>t) Severe acute hyperbilirubinemia (Bilirubin>100umol/L or >6.0mg/dL) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Neurologic dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>u) Prolonged unconsciousness or coma (lasting >12 hours) <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>v) Stroke <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>w) Uncontrollable fit / status epilepticus <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>x) Global paralysis <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Uterine dysfunction <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>y) Uterine infection or haemorrhage leading to hysterectomy <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>37. About the status at hospital arrival, please specify: (1=No 2=Yes)</p> <p>a) Any of the conditions listed in Q35 present at hospital arrival or during the first 24 hours of hospital stay <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Maternal death at hospital arrival or during the first 24 hours of hospital stay <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>38. About the referral status, please specify:</p> <p>a) Woman referred from other health facility <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>b) Woman referred to any higher complexity hospital <input type="checkbox"/></p>
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DATA COLLECTOR INFORMATION																		
Date of data collection	Data Collector Name	Signature																
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