

Ectopic pregnancy

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An ectopic pregnancy refers to a pregnancy that grows outside of the uterine cavity, most commonly within the fallopian tube. - To facilitate management of an ectopic pregnancy it is important to be able to describe the location of the pregnancy as accurately as possible. The newly agreed terminology broadly divides ectopic pregnancies into uterine (defined by evidence of trophoblast invasion beyond the endometrial-myometrial junction, but not outside the uterine visceral/broad ligament peritoneum) and extrauterine ectopic pregnancies (Table 87.1). They are further described as being complete (solely confined to the myometrium) or partial (involving both the myometrium and the uterine cavity). Additional variations include rudimentary horn pregnancies. These are rare, with a reported incidence of 1 in 75 000- 150 000 pregnancies. They are able to develop into the second trimester if not diagnosed early through the identification of a single interstitial portion of the fallopian tube attached to the main unicornuate uterine body, with products of conception completely surrounded by myometrium, presenting with severe pain and uterine rupture. A residual ectopic pregnancy refers to an ectopic pregnancy that remains visible on ultrasound scan 3 months after a negative urinary pregnancy test and serum beta-human chorionic gonadotropin (β HCG) level of <20 IU/L. As the ectopic pregnancy grows, the placental tissue can infiltrate the blood vessels surrounding the fallopian tube, leading to bleeding within the tube and into the peritoneal cavity. Further growth of the ectopic pregnancy can rupture the fallopian tube, causing significant intraperitoneal blood loss. This constitutes a gynaecological emergency. An ectopic pregnancy occurs in 11 per 1000 pregnancies, and there is a maternal mortality rate of 0.2 per 1000 estimated ectopic pregnancies. The major risk factors for an ectopic pregnancy are shown in Summary box 87.1. Summary box 87.1 Risk factors for an ectopic pregnancy An ectopic pregnancy may be suspected on clinical grounds, but making the diagnosis can be difficult (Table 87.2). Christian Johann Doppler, 1803-1853, Professor of Experimental Physics, Vienna, Austria, enunciated the 'Doppler principle' in 1842.

pregnancies. Uterine ectopic

pregnancies Extrauterine ectopic

pregnancies Cervical (the

gestational Tubal (Figure 87.4)
(further sac is present below the
divided into interstitial level of the
internal os with [Figure 87.5],
isthmic and absence of the 'sliding
sign' ampullary) and evidence of
blood /f_l ow Ovarian (colour
Doppler around the gestational sac
can help identify an area using
colour Doppler) of increased
vascularity within the ovary that
Caesarean scar (the is
representative of gestational sac is
located peritrophoblastic blood /f_l
ow low in the uterus, close
separate from that of the to the

internal os with corpus luteum) (Figure 87.6 trophoblast invading into the anterior myometrium)

Abdominal (commonly the (Figure 87.3) broad ligament, pouch of Douglas, uterovesical pouch

Intramural (located above and surfaces of the tubes the level of the internal os) and uterus)

Previous pelvic inflammatory disease (PID) Smoking History of infertility Use of an intrauterine contraceptive device (IUCD)

Previous ectopic pregnancy

Previous abdominal/pelvic surgery, e.g. myomectomy, hysteroscopic

resection Previous tubal surgery,
e.g. sterilisation, salpingostomy,
tuboplasty Endometriosis

TABLE
87.2 Symptoms and signs of an
ectopic pregnancy. Symptoms

Signs Abdominal or pelvic pain

Pelvic, abdominal and/

Amenorrhoea or missed or adnexal
tenderness or fullness period Signs

of peritonism Vaginal bleeding

Pallor Breast tenderness

Gastrointestinal symptoms

Abdominal distension Dizziness,
fainting, syncope Cervical motion

tenderness Shoulder tip pain (pain
on moving the cervix) Rectal

pressure or pain on Enlarged
uterus defecation Tachycardia,
hypotension Asymptomatic Shock,
collapse Orthostatic hypotension)
Figure 87.3 Ultrasound image of a
caesarean scar ectopic pregnancy.
Figure 87.4 Ultrasound image of a
tubal ectopic pregnancy. (a) (b)
Figure 87.5 (a, b) Ultrasound
images of an interstitial ectopic
preg

nancy.

The presentation of an ectopic pregnancy is variable and the differential diagnoses include: /uni25CF miscarriage; /uni25CF urinary tract infection; /uni25CF ovarian cyst accident; /uni25CF appendicitis. A transvaginal ultrasound scan should be performed if the diagnosis is suspected (see Table 87.1 for the defining ultrasound characteristics of uterine and extrauterine ectopic pregnancies). The complete absence of an intrauterine gestational sac with a positive pregnancy test increases the probability of an ectopic pregnancy unless the pregnancy is not sufficiently advanced for the sac to be seen on ultrasound scan. An ectopic pregnancy is more likely if free fluid is seen in the pouch of Douglas or an adnexal mass is identified on ultrasound scan. In equivocal cases, serial measurements of serum levels, 48 hours apart, can help to establish the diagnosis. A rise in the β HCG level by at least 63% is more indicative of a viable intrauterine pregnancy and an ultrasound scan should be offered between 7 and 14 days. Levels that halve when taken 48 hours apart are more suggestive of a failing pregnancy and a urinary pregnancy

test should be repeated after 14 days. Levels that remain static or show a suboptimal increase or decrease over a 48-hour period are more likely to be representative of an ectopic pregnancy. Furthermore, a single level above approximately 1500 IU/L, in association with an empty uterus on ultrasound scan, in the absence of a heavy bleed, is suggestive of an ectopic pregnancy. Laparoscopy can also be used as a diagnostic tool (Figure 87.7); occasionally, however, a false-negative diagnosis is obtained when the pregnancy is not sufficiently advanced and is, therefore, too small to be seen within the fallopian tube. Management of an ectopic pregnancy can be divided into expectant, medical (methotrexate) or surgical treatment. The choice of treatment is dependent on: the haemodynamic stability of the patient; ultrasound features of the ectopic pregnancy (presence of free fluid, presence or absence of fetal cardiac activity); serum β HCG level; and the patient's understanding of the diagnosis, commitment to follow-up and choice. Expectant management and medical management in the form of methotrexate can be offered to women who are clinically stable and pain free, who have a serum β HCG level <1500 IU/L for expectant management and between 1500 and <5000 IU/L for medical management, who are committed to the follow-up protocol and where the ectopic pregnancy is not alive and measures <35 mm. In these circumstances, repeat serum β HCG levels are recommended on days 4 and 7. A fall of $\geq 15\%$ is considered reassuring and should be repeated weekly thereafter until <20 IU/L. If the levels deviate from this, then the patient should be reviewed further to plan ongoing management. Women should be advised of the risk of rupture and the need for additional/alternative treatment if the situation should change. Methotrexate is a folic acid antagonist that interferes with β HCG DNA synthesis. Significant side effects include hepatotoxicity. Further pregnancies should be avoided for a minimum of 3 months following treatment with methotrexate. Careful patient selection is vital. Furthermore, some patients fail to respond to this medication and will require surgical management. Surgical management should be offered to women who prefer to have surgery or those who are unable to commit to follow-up as well as those with significant pain, those who have a rising serum β HCG level of ≥ 5000 IU/L and/or those in whom the ectopic pregnancy is considered to be live and measures ≥ 35 mm. Surgical options include a salpingectomy (removal of the fallopian tube) or salpingostomy (opening of the fallopian tube and extraction of the pregnancy tissue) (Figure 87.8). This is ideally performed laparoscopically in a stable patient as it - -

Figure 87.6 Ultrasound image of an ovarian ectopic pregnancy. Figure 87.7 Laparoscopic image of a tubal ectopic pregnancy. Figure 87.8 Laparoscopic salpingostomy.

is associated with shorter operative times, less intraoperative blood loss, shorter hospital stays and similar subsequent intra uterine pregnancy rates. A laparotomy may be required if the woman is haemodynamically unstable. A salpingectomy is the preferred technique in the presence of a contralateral healthy fallopian tube. A salpingostomy is associated with an 8% risk of persistent trophoblastic tissue, intra-abdominal bleeding and an increased risk of a repeat ectopic pregnancy. These patients are subsequently followed up with serial serum β HCG levels until a negative result is obtained to exclude the presence of residual trophoblastic tissue. If a further ectopic pregnancy occurs within the same fallopian tube, then a salpingectomy is recommended regardless of the condition of the contralateral fallopian tube. The management of non-tubal ectopic pregnancies (e.g. interstitial ectopic pregnancies [Figure 87.9], caesarean section scar ectopic pregnancies) can be complex and associated with more significant complications, such as bleeding, leading to an increased risk of a hysterectomy. These cases are managed in tertiary centres. The management

plan will be guided by the haemodynamic stability of the patient and the location of the ectopic pregnancy , including the expertise of the clinician managing the case. These patients should be counselled regarding their increased risk of further ectopic pregnancies in subsequent conceptions. In view of this, they are encouraged to present as early as possible in any subsequent pregnancy to establish its location. Anti-D immunoglobulin should be administered to non-sensitised rhesus (Rh)-negative women.

Figure 87.9 Laparoscopy of an interstitial ectopic pregnancy.

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