

Hyperemesis Gravidarum

Strategies to Improve Outcomes

Kimber Wakefield MacGibbon, BSN, RN

ABSTRACT

Hyperemesis gravidarum (HG) is a debilitating and potentially life-threatening pregnancy disease marked by weight loss, malnutrition, and dehydration attributed to unrelenting nausea and/or vomiting; HG increases the risk of adverse outcomes for the mother and child(ren). The complexity of HG affects every aspect of a woman's life during and after pregnancy. Without methodical intervention by knowledgeable and proactive clinicians, life-threatening complications may develop. Effectively managing HG requires an understanding of both physical and psychosocial stressors, recognition of potential risks and complications, and proactive assessment and treatment strategies using innovative clinical tools.

Key words: antiemetic, enteral nutrition, genetics, granisetron, HELP score, hyperemesis gravidarum, intravenous, malnutrition, nausea, neurodevelopmental disorder, ondansetron, parenteral nutrition, pregnancy, premature delivery, total parenteral nutrition, vomiting, vomiting center, Wernicke's encephalopathy, Zofran

Nausea and vomiting of pregnancy (NVP) affects at least 70% of women globally, whereas severe NVP, or hyperemesis gravidarum (HG), reportedly affects 0.5% to 14% of women across all ethnicities and socioeconomic levels.¹⁻³ Because of inconsistent diagnostic criteria, the actual incidence is unknown yet significant, given that 18% of women take antiemetics for NVP.^{1,4} In addition, some women choose therapeutic termination before being diagnosed or hospitalized.⁵ HG is the leading cause of hospitalization in early pregnancy and second only to premature labor as the most common cause of hospitalization throughout all of pregnancy.⁶

The onset of HG typically occurs between 4 and 6 weeks, peaks around 10 and 13 weeks, and resolves by

midpregnancy in half of women; however, HG persists until delivery in nearly 22%.⁷⁻⁹ Nausea lasts all day in most women and causes debility and malnutrition because of its severity and poor response to medications. Emesis may be episodic and triggered by stimuli such as motion, smells, or the thought of food.⁸⁻¹⁰ Unlike emesis attributed to food poisoning, emesis because of HG rarely brings relief, and the emetic impulse may be so forceful and continuous that oral intake is impossible. Some women lose consciousness and bladder function. Severe cases may experience extensive dental damage, organ damage, encephalopathy, esophageal rupture, pneumomediastinum, and retinal hemorrhage.¹¹⁻¹⁴ Poor intake causes debility and profound fatigue, which impairs self-care that often continues postpartum.^{8,10,14}

About 80% of women lose weight, use medications, and have HG every pregnancy, whereas 67% receive intravenous (IV) treatment and only 39% are hospitalized.¹⁵ Recurrence rates exceed 70%, although women proactively manage symptoms to avoid the traumatic experience of hospitalization.¹⁶⁻²⁰ About 30% of women report that their symptoms in future pregnancies are the same, 26% say symptoms are worse, and 44% report better pregnancies.¹⁵ Maternal quality of life is severely altered by HG; thus, proactive and compassionate intervention is imperative.^{10,21,22}

Author Affiliation: *Hyperemesis Education and Research Foundation, Clackamas, Oregon.*

Kimber Wakefield MacGibbon, BSN, RN, is the executive director and cofounder of the *Hyperemesis Education and Research (HER) Foundation*. For 20 years, she has consulted on hyperemesis gravidarum cases, developed clinical tools and educational materials for clinicians and families, and coauthored more than 24 peer-reviewed research studies with leading universities.

The author of this article has no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Supplemental digital content is available for this article. Direct URL citations appear in the printed text, and links to the digital files are provided in the HTML text of this article on the journal's website (<http://journals.lww.com/journalofinfusionnursing>).

Corresponding Author: Kimber MacGibbon, BSN, RN, 10117 SE Sunnyside Road, Suite F8, Clackamas, OR 97015 (kimber@hyperemesis.org).

DOI: 10.1097/NAN.0000000000000363

CLINICAL CHARACTERISTICS

NVP is a spectrum from mild or morning sickness, to severe, or HG. In between are women suffering with symptoms not

requiring hospitalization or nutritional intervention. They continue some daily activities and maintain marginal intake and hydration, so they are often dismissed until symptoms are severe. Objective signs and symptoms of moderate NVP are challenging to distinguish, yet aggressive intervention may help prevent progression (Figure 1).

HG typically presents with nausea, vomiting, retching, weight loss, hyperolfaction, ptyalism, abdominal pain, debility, gastroesophageal reflux, gastroparesis, electrolyte deficiency, malnutrition, and dehydration.^{23,24} About 25% of women lose 15% or more of their preconception weight and are much more likely to have prolonged symptoms, gallbladder and liver dysfunction, and retinal hemorrhage.⁸ Although significant weight loss and ketonuria are common, they are not reliable diagnostic criteria for HG.²⁵ Proactive antiemetics may reduce weight loss and patient distress.

DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS

When a patient presents with NVP, determining possible causes requires consideration of the timing. Nausea and vomiting beginning after 9 weeks' gestation or refractory to medications requires an in-depth workup. Other conditions such as infections, hepatic and renal dysfunction, intestinal obstruction, peptic ulcers, gastroenteritis, thyrotoxicosis, gallbladder disease, and intracranial lesions should be evaluated.^{23,26} Careful history-taking is paramount, because HG has a multifactorial etiology. In addition, some disorders may develop secondary to dehydration and medications, worsening symptomatology, so close monitoring is crucial until symptoms resolve (Table 1).^{27,28}

RISK FACTORS

The risk factors for HG include multiple gestation, younger age, first pregnancy, extreme high or low body weight, history of motion sickness, allergies, premenstrual syndrome,

TABLE 1

Differential Diagnosis

Gastrointestinal Gastroenteritis Gastroparesis Intestinal obstruction Peptic ulcer disease <i>Helicobacter pylori</i> Pancreatitis Appendicitis	Genitourinary Pyelonephritis Uremia Ovarian torsion Kidney stones Uterine leiomyoma	Metabolic and Endocrine Diabetic ketoacidosis Porphyria Addison's disease Thyroid disease
Miscellaneous Drug toxicity Infection	Neurologic Pseudotumor cerebri Migraines CNS tumor	PG Complications Acute fatty liver Preeclampsia

Abbreviations: CNS, central nervous system; PG, pregnancy.

migraines, thyroid disease, high-fat diet, vegetarian/lactose-free diet, and gastrointestinal (GI) disorders.^{7,14,26,29-33} Incidence increases slightly if mothers are carrying a child that is female or has Down syndrome.³⁰ However, the predominant risk factor is a previous HG pregnancy or a family member with HG. A woman has a 17-fold increased risk if her sister has HG and a 27-fold risk if her mother had it with both daughters.³⁴ Some studies find HG risk decreases in those with higher body mass index (BMI), advanced age, and in those who smoke tobacco, which could be attributed to reduced olfactory sensation or decreased expression of placental proteins.^{29,35-37} Newer research finds genetic evidence that overexpression of the GDF15 risk allele is linked to recurrent HG.¹⁶

Multiple studies confirm that HG is not associated with pre-existing psychiatric diagnoses, including anxiety, depression, bipolar disorder, or eating disorders.^{17,38-41} Rather, psychological sequelae are the result of prolonged symptoms, malnutrition, medications, and/or hospitalization and may improve dramatically with resolution of HG. Psychological support may lessen psychological sequelae, but a clinician's focus should be on alleviating the misery of NVP.

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

HG is complicated by secondary factors that may worsen symptoms but alone are not the cause of HG. For example, gallbladder dysfunction may worsen HG, but a cholecystectomy does not cure HG. *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*), present in about half of the world's population, may be more prevalent in HG, possibly activated by changes in gut motility and gastric emptying, poor nutrition, and the hormonal and immunological changes of pregnancy.^{28,42-44} However, positive *H. pylori* tests do not reliably predict the occurrence and severity of HG, its complications, or outcomes, and treating *H. pylori* may not resolve NVP.^{43,45-47}

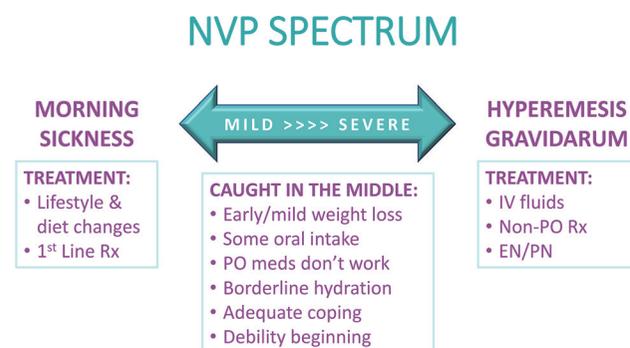


Figure 1 NVP spectrum. Abbreviations: EN, enteral nutrition; IV, intravenous; PN, parenteral nutrition; PO, oral or by mouth; Rx, prescription medication.

Sensory sensitivity increases symptoms and reduces quality of life and intake.^{48,49} The scent of cleaning products, toiletries, high-odor foods (eg, garlic, fermented products, fish), and even normal body smells can trigger nausea and vomiting. Dysgeusia develops in response to hormones, inadequate dental hygiene, acid irritation to tongue, low protein intake, vitamin deficiencies, and dysosmia.^{50,51} Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), repetitive emesis, and gastroparesis further alter taste and smell sensations.⁴⁸ The senses are so dysfunctional and hypersensitive during HG that nausea and food aversions to usually appealing foods cause significant weight loss. Consequently, women often have a limited diet with frequently changing food tolerances, predisposing them to significant nutritional deficiencies, which may worsen symptoms.⁵² These women necessarily avoid social situations and isolate themselves to cope with overwhelming stimuli. Identification and effective management of these contributing factors are important to reducing morbidity and improving treatment response (Table 2).

HISTORY OF HG

For centuries, toxemia, neurosis, and hormones were presumed to be the etiology of HG.⁵³ Theories focused on hormones such as β -chorionic gonadotropin, thyroid-stimulating hormone, progesterone, and estradiol, which change during pregnancy.^{25,26,32,54-57} However, research does not find consistent support for these theories.

Around 1900, when Freudian theory dominated, female disorders without a known cause were assumed to be psychological. Thus, the presumed etiology of HG was changed from a toxemia of pregnancy to one of maternal role conflict, frigidity, hysteria, and attention-seeking behaviors.^{23,41,58} HG was a leading cause of maternal death until the introduction of IV therapy in the 1940s, and women were often treated poorly and intentionally given painful subcutaneous hydration to discourage their behavior.⁵³

Although psychological etiologies have been disproved, the myths persist, and women are still admitted involuntarily

to psychiatric wards, refused treatment, and told it is in their heads.^{59,60} Research studies with problematic methodology continue to perpetuate this myth by evaluating the psychiatric health of women currently suffering from severe NVP and concluding that they have mental illness, despite other studies finding a return to previous mental health when symptoms resolve.^{41,60,61} These erroneous beliefs delay and disrupt the institution of appropriate care for HG.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

The etiology of HG is evolving with the understanding of emetic physiology and discoveries of genetic factors, inflammatory markers, and hormonal abnormalities associated with HG. Emetic pathways with physiological triggers of the vomiting center in the medulla oblongata have been identified, and familiarity with how the brain receives these stimuli is useful in determining appropriate treatment for HG.⁶² The chemoreceptor trigger zone in the medulla oblongata is located outside of the blood-brain barrier, so it is highly sensitive to signals from its many receptors that predominantly interact with dopamine, serotonin, and histamine. Triggers to the vomiting center come from peripheral nerve pathways, vestibular stimulation, the vagus nerve, enterochromaffin cells in the GI tract, and other mechanoreceptors and chemoreceptors in the gut, stomach, and liver.⁶³ Interestingly, enterochromaffin cells also produce more than 90% of the body's serotonin and have been suggested to affect a variety of pathophysiological states common to HG, such as GI dysmotility, nausea, and visceral hypersensitivity.⁶⁴⁻⁶⁷

Newer genetic studies link HG to cyclic vomiting syndrome because of an association with the ryanodine receptor gene, *RYR2*, which is expressed in the vomiting center and involved in thyroid function.^{68,69} Also associated are the placental genes *IGFBP7* and *GDF15*.^{16,70-72} Serum protein concentrations of these genes are significantly elevated at 12 weeks' gestation in women hospitalized for HG compared with women reporting normal NVP. Women with high levels of *IGFBP7* are more likely to have prolonged HG symptoms, possibly because *IGFBP7* causes aversions to normally attractive food, even during starvation.⁷⁰ *GDF15* is a hormone that regulates weight and appetite, and abnormal overproduction of *GDF15* in cancer is the key driver of cachexia, a major cause of death among patients with cancer.⁷³ So if a woman with HG says she feels like she is dying, she probably does. Development of genetic testing for these genes may offer valuable screening tools to identify HG patients most in need of proactive care.

IMPACT OF HG

Psychosocial

More than 82% of women with HG report at least 1 negative psychosocial or economic consequence related to HG.²² Because of symptoms, women are often isolated, causing anxiety, depression, and significant relational strain.¹⁰ Trauma

TABLE 2
Contributing Factors Worsening HG

Stress/fatigue	Gastroparesis
Prenatal vitamins/iron	Heightened gag reflex
Excessive salivation	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>
Vestibular sensitivity	Dysgeusia
Gall bladder dysfunction	Dysosmia
Hormone sensitivity	Malnutrition
GERD	Dehydration

Abbreviations: GERD, gastroesophageal reflux disease, HG, hyperemesis gravidarum.

HOSPITAL UTILIZATION

2006-2016

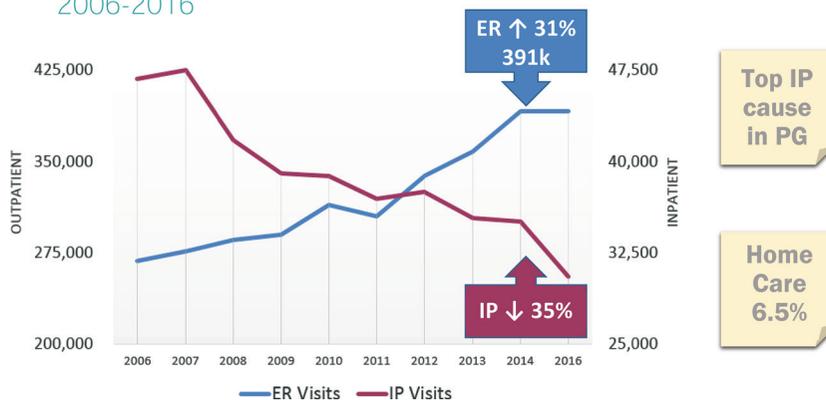


Figure 2 Hospital utilization. Abbreviations: ER, emergency room; IP, inpatient; PG, pregnancy.

symptoms develop after repeated episodes of continuous and forceful emesis that provoke feelings of suffocation and may cause fainting. This trauma is worsened by painful invasive procedures, fear of death, feelings of helplessness, hospitalizations, and difficult deliveries because of debility. Traumatic stress symptoms are common after HG pregnancies and are associated with an inability to breastfeed, marital problems, financial problems, and self-care difficulties, whereas full criteria posttraumatic stress disorder occurs in about 20%.^{74,75} Consequently, 76% reduce the number of pregnancies or forego future pregnancies entirely.^{22,76}

According to Lacroix et al,⁹ NVP is comparable in severity to the nausea and vomiting associated with moderate cancer chemotherapy, which greatly diminishes quality of life. In fact, many patients with cancer consider delaying or stopping treatment because of nausea and vomiting, although it may reduce their life expectancy. Thus, it is not surprising that about 75% of women consider termination, and around 15% will seek therapeutic termination to end their suffering.^{5,76,77} Of those, 66.7% report terminating because of an inability to care for family or self, 40.0% because of an inability to work, and 51.0% because they fear death.⁵ Women reporting that their clinician was uncaring or unaware of their symptom severity were nearly twice as likely to report these psychological sequelae and 3 times more likely to terminate.⁵

Financial

The financial stress of HG is great, as women may miss weeks to months of employment. Most women are unable to work most or all of their pregnancies and may lose their job or be unable to return.^{74,77} Beyond the potential income loss by mothers, their partners may also miss work. Additionally, there are expenses for child care and household help, as well as medical care during and after pregnancy.

There are more than 400 000 emergency department and inpatient visits for patients with HG annually in the United States, yet more than half of women with HG are not hospitalized.^{15,78} Thus, including terminated and/or

undiagnosed pregnancies, the actual number of patients with HG could be a half million women annually.

Use of hospital care is changing for patients with HG. The number of emergency care visits is steadily increasing, whereas inpatient visits are declining as patients are moved toward outpatient management. Specifically, inpatient visits since 2006 have dropped 35%, emergency visits increased by 31%, and home health visits increased nearly 5%. Inpatient and emergency costs are estimated to be more than \$500,000,000 per year and exclude costs for outpatient visits, home health, pharmaceuticals, and other services. Early aggressive care may help reduce severe symptoms and costly interventions (Figure 2).

Maternal Complications

HG has serious adverse effects on nearly every aspect of a woman's life. When women's symptoms are dismissed, more severe symptoms can develop, and women may be reluctant to seek treatment. This is counterproductive, because delayed treatment may lead to refractory symptoms and an increased risk of complications.⁷ Women with severe HG may experience retinal damage, pneumothorax, liver and gallbladder dysfunction, esophageal tears, organ rupture or failure, sepsis, and many complications of poor nutrition, including cardiac and neurologic damage.^{8,79,80}

Mortality still occurs because of malnutrition, esophageal rupture, sepsis, and suicide. Women with prolonged symptoms are more likely to experience hematemesis, fainting, depression, GERD, anxiety, and excessive saliva.^{7,80} They are also more likely to report postpartum issues, such as trauma, motion sickness, muscle weakness, and anxiety.¹⁴ Prolonged immobility may result in severe muscle atrophy, depression, and thrombosis, in addition to sensory processing disorder in the child.^{81,82} Thromboembolism risk is also increased because of pregnancy-related changes and use of IV catheters.⁸³

There is a misperception that HG affects women only during pregnancy, yet women may experience psychological sequelae, GI dysfunction, and food aversions long after

delivery.^{7,14,84-86} Because of malnutrition, acid erosion, immune changes, dry mouth, and other physiological changes, many women have severe dental damage requiring numerous root canals or even dentures.⁵¹ Other research suggests a link to future immune disorders, including rheumatoid arthritis and thyroid cancer, a risk that increases with subsequent hyperemetic pregnancies.^{7,8,15,25,87-90}

Fetal and Child Complications

Offspring are not immune from the impact of HG. Contrary to longstanding assumptions, infants do not get adequate nutrition and many have restricted growth or low birth weights.⁹¹ About 1 in 3 HG pregnancies do not result in a live birth.^{5,92} Babies have a 3- to 4-fold increased risk of preterm birth, neurodevelopmental delay, immune disorders (eg, allergies, chronic infections), autism, and emotional/behavioral disorders.^{8,91,93,94} Fejzo et al^{8,13} found the risk of neurodevelopmental disorders increased to 9.3% in those with weight loss exceeding 15.0% of their preconception weight.

In addition, children born to mothers with prolonged symptoms and/or excessive weight loss (>15%) were significantly more likely to experience premature birth, low birth weight, intrauterine growth restriction, irritability or severe colic, neurodevelopmental disorders, autism, sensory processing disorders, sleep difficulties, and social delays.^{7,8,94,95} Fetal damage can occur from early deficiencies, such as vitamin K deficiency, which may result in facial and limb anomalies, or intracranial hemorrhage even when maternal coagulation is normal.^{96,97} Research also finds that female children born after early prenatal malnutrition are more likely to deliver children with low birth weights (Table 3).⁹⁵

Thus, in pregnancies with severe or persistent symptoms, it is critical that IV vitamins are administered. Vitamin-deficient mothers who breastfeed increase the risk of serious complications in their newborns.⁹⁸ These offspring may also experience long-term adverse health conditions, such as metabolic syndrome, obesity, coronary disease, breast cancer, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and neurobehavioral and psychiatric disorders.^{13,22,91,93,94,99-101}

Autism	Premature birth
Intrauterine growth restriction	Fetal/neonatal death
Immune dysfunction	Neurodevelopmental disorders
Irritability/severe colic	Behavioral disorders
Sleep difficulties	Low birth weight
Delayed social development	Delayed speech/language development
Adult cardiac/metabolic disorders	Sensory processing disorders

The totality of the social, emotional, and financial costs of managing these complications cannot be measured (Figure 3).¹⁰² Proactive care to aggressively prevent excessive weight loss may improve maternal and fetal outcomes.

ASSESSMENT TOOLS

HG is difficult to assess because of the subjective nature of many symptoms, such as nausea. It is important to not only look at symptoms but also the impact of NVP. Women's tolerance and coping capacity vary. Thus, determining the need for treatment may be unclear, leading to delayed intervention. Accurate assessment is key but has been limited by the available tools.

HYPEREMESIS EDUCATION AND RESEARCH FOUNDATION RESOURCES

The Hyperemesis Education and Research (HER) Foundation (www.hyperemesis.org/tools) is a 501(c)3 nonprofit based in Clackamas, Oregon. Founded in 2003, HER has collaborated with the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) and the University of Southern California on dozens of research studies, including the first genetic studies on HG. HER has created numerous resources for clinicians, including HG treatment protocols, standardized assessment tools, educational brochures, a treatment algorithm, and an HG care app.

The HER Foundation assessment packet includes HG-specific prenatal and visit assessment intake forms with a clinician care planning checklist (Figure S1, Supplemental Digital Content; <http://links.lww.com/JIN/A97>) and a severity screening tool called the HyperE-mesis Level Prediction Score (HELP Score; Figure 4). The HELP Score quantifies severity with more complex symptomology. Using patient-friendly language, the HELP Score evaluates the severity of nausea, vomiting, and retching, plus 5 key clinical indicators, hydration, treatment effectiveness and tolerance, psychosocial functioning, oral intake, and overall progress. The HELP Score includes 10 questions plus 2 data points scored from 0 (normal) to 5 (severe). All questions except weight loss are based on the previous 24 hours. Once totaled, the score can be trended to monitor treatment response and symptom severity.

HG CARE APP

In addition to these assessment tools, the HER Foundation designed an HG app that was codeveloped with UCLA (Figure 5). The HG Care app not only allows tracking of symptoms and treatments (eg, medications, dressing changes) but also alerts patients when abnormal changes are entered, such as low urine output. The app calculates the HELP Score and trends data into meaningful reports that can be shared with clinicians to improve communication about

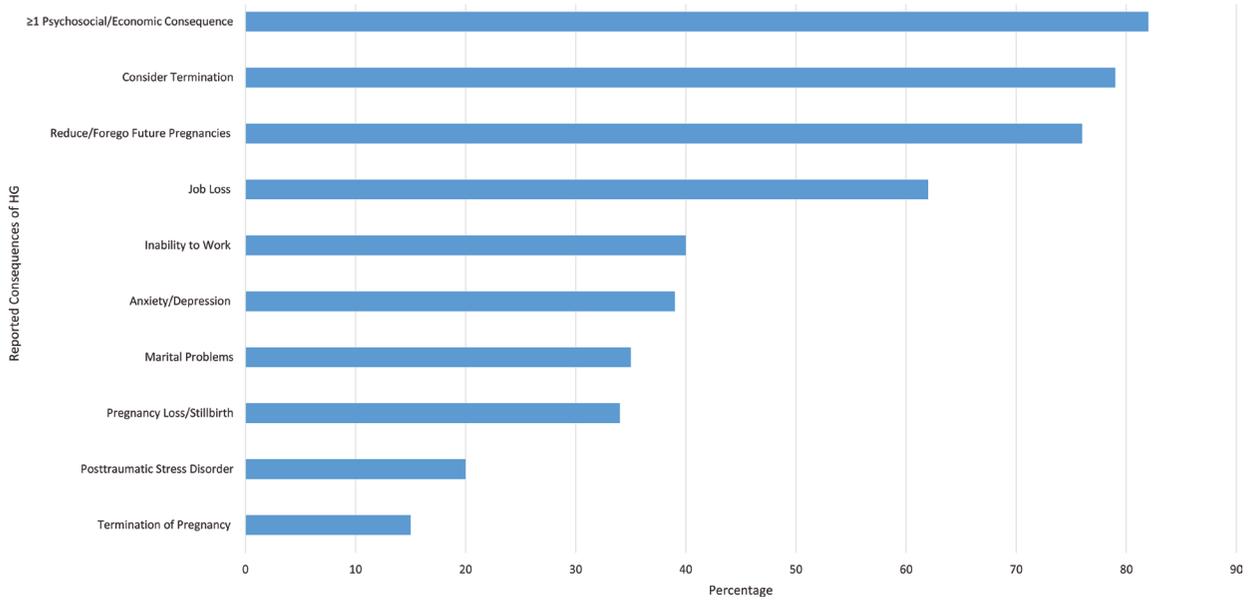


Figure 3 Psychosocial impact of hyperemesis gravidarum. ^aData from Poursharif et al,⁵ Tan et al,⁴¹ Christodoulou-Smith et al,⁷⁴ and Power et al.¹⁰²

HELP (HyperEmesis Level Prediction) SCORE

Name: _____ Date: _____ Gestational Age: _____ SCORE: _____

TODAY'S Weight: _____ LAST WEEK'S Weight: _____ Change: _____% PREVIOUS SCORE: _____

Meds: Ondansetron Granisetron Diclegis Promethazine Metoclopramide _____

Mark ONE box in EACH ROW that most accurately describes your experience over the last: _____ day(s).

My nausea level most of the time:	0	1 (Mild)	2	3 (Moderate)	4	5 (Severe)
I average ___ vomiting episodes/day:	0	1-2	3-5	6-8	9-12	13 or more
I retch/dry heave ___ episodes daily:	0	1-2	3-5	6-8	9-12	13 or more
I am urinating/voiding:	Same	More often, IV fluids; light or dark color	Slightly less often, and normal color	Once every 8 hours; slightly dark yellow	Less than every 8 hours or darker	Rarely; dark, blood; foul smell
Nausea/vomiting severity 1 hour after meals OR after food/drink if no meds:	0 or No Meds	1 (Mild)	2	3 (Moderate)	4	5 (Severe)
Average number of hours I'm unable to work adequately at my job and/or at home due to being sick has been:	0	1-2 (hours are slightly less)	3-4 (can work part time)	5-7 (can only do a little work)	8-10 (can't care for family)	11+ (can't care for myself)
I have been coping with the nausea, vomiting and retching:	Normal	Tired but mood is ok	Slightly less than normal	It's tolerable but difficult	Struggling; moody, emotional	Poorly; irritable depressed
Total amount I have been able to eat/drink AND keep it down: Medium water bottle/large cup = 2 cups/500mL.	Same; no weight loss	Total of about 3 meals & 6+ cups fluid	Total of about 2 meals & some fluid	1 meal & few cups fluid; only fluid or only food	Very little, <1 meal/minimal fluids; frequent IV	Nothing goes or stays down, or daily IV/TPN/NG
My anti-nausea/vomiting meds stay down/are tolerated:	No meds	Always	Nearly always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never/IV/SQ (subQ pump)
My symptoms compared to last week:	Great	Better	About Same	Worse	Much Worse	So Much Worse!!!
Weight loss over last 7 days: ___ %	0%	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%
Number of Rx's for nausea/vomiting*	0	1	2	3	4	5+
	0 pts	1 pt/answer	2 pts/answer	3 pts/answer	4 pts/answer	5 pts/answer
TOTAL each column = (#answers in column) x (# points for each answer)	0	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
TOTAL for ALL columns: _____	None/Mild ≤ 19		Moderate 20-32		Severe 33-60	

© 2016 Kimber W. MacGibbon, RN

Weight Loss % = (Amount lost + Pre-pregnancy weight) x 100
(Weight loss calculation optional for home use)

* Number of Rx's = Number of Rx medications for HG (not doses)

Figure 4 HELP Score. ©The HER Foundation. Reprinted with permission. *Abbreviations: HELP, HyperEmesis Level Prediction Score; IV, intravenous; Pt, point; Rx, prescription medication; SQ/Subcutaneous, subcutaneous; TPN, total parenteral nutrition.*

HG CARE iOS APP

By HER Foundation & UCLA mHealth

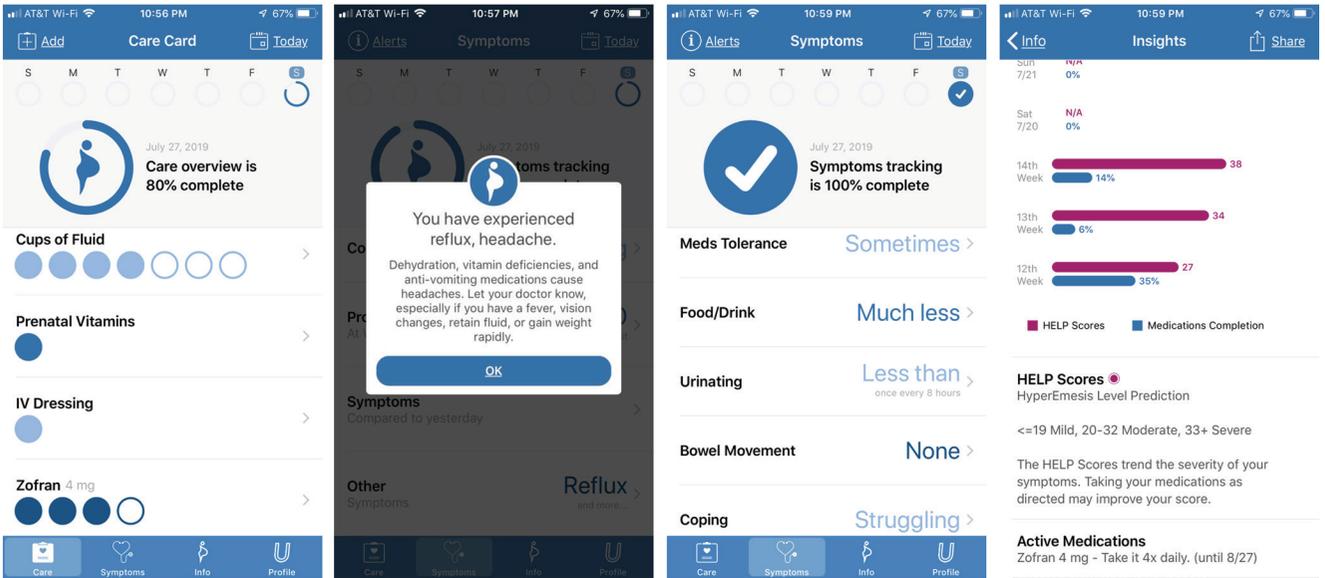


Figure 5 HG Care App. ©The HER Foundation. Reprinted with permission. *Abbreviations: HG, hyperemesis gravidarum; IV, intravenous; N/A, not applicable.*

symptoms and treatment. In a pilot study, symptom severity was found to be accurately scored by the app, and patient-provider communication was improved by use of the app.¹⁰³

TREATMENT

Treatment of HG requires a combination of medical interventions, lifestyle changes, dietary changes, adjunctive care, and patient education, which should be used early, because NVP is more difficult and costly to manage over time.¹⁰⁴ Proactive treatment may reduce symptom severity, thus treatment should begin at the onset of symptoms, limiting food and/or fluid intake.

The primary management goals are to reduce symptoms to improve maternal health and well-being, optimize maternal/fetal outcomes, and reduce costs. This requires a focus on maintaining hydration and nutrition but also mobility. Infusion nurses are key advocates for achieving these goals (Table 4).

Medication Strategy

When planning treatment, the sequence of antiemetic administration is frequently from best-studied fetal safety and least invasive to less-documented fetal safety and more invasive. Most clinicians begin with oral medications; then when symptoms are refractory or severe, they temporarily change to intravenous therapy or injections. A more effective strategy is moving to nonoral routes, such as transdermal, subcutaneous, or rectal, at the onset of oral medication intolerance, then progressing to infusion therapy if necessary. Figure 6 shows the HER Foundation algorithm for treatment guidelines.

Other alternatives to oral medications include compounding medications into topical products and suppositories.¹⁰⁵ Intramuscular injections are avoided because of decreased pain tolerance and reduced muscle mass. Compassionate care should be central to all clinical decision making. Infusion nurses play an important role in ensuring that patients not only receive hydration but also transition to non-oral medications when needed (Table 5).

Subcutaneous Medication and Fluid Administration

A few medications come in transdermal form, such as granisetron. However, when these are ineffective, infusion therapy is necessary. Before beginning home infusion therapy, a trial of continuous subcutaneous medications (eg, ondansetron, metoclopramide) may be beneficial. Subcutaneous medications are less invasive and restrictive than IV medications, eliminate the peaks and troughs of

TABLE 4

Keys to Preventing HG Complications

1. Intervene early if the patient has a history of HG or if symptom onset is early and rapid.
2. Address and prevent worsening psychosocial stress (eg, take leave of absence).
3. Increase mobility to prevent DVT, atrophy, depression, and fetal sensory processing disorder.
4. Educate that medication risks may be significantly less than risks of severe symptoms.

Abbreviations: DVT, deep vein thrombosis; HG, hyperemesis gravidarum.

ALGORITHM FOR TREATMENT OF NVP

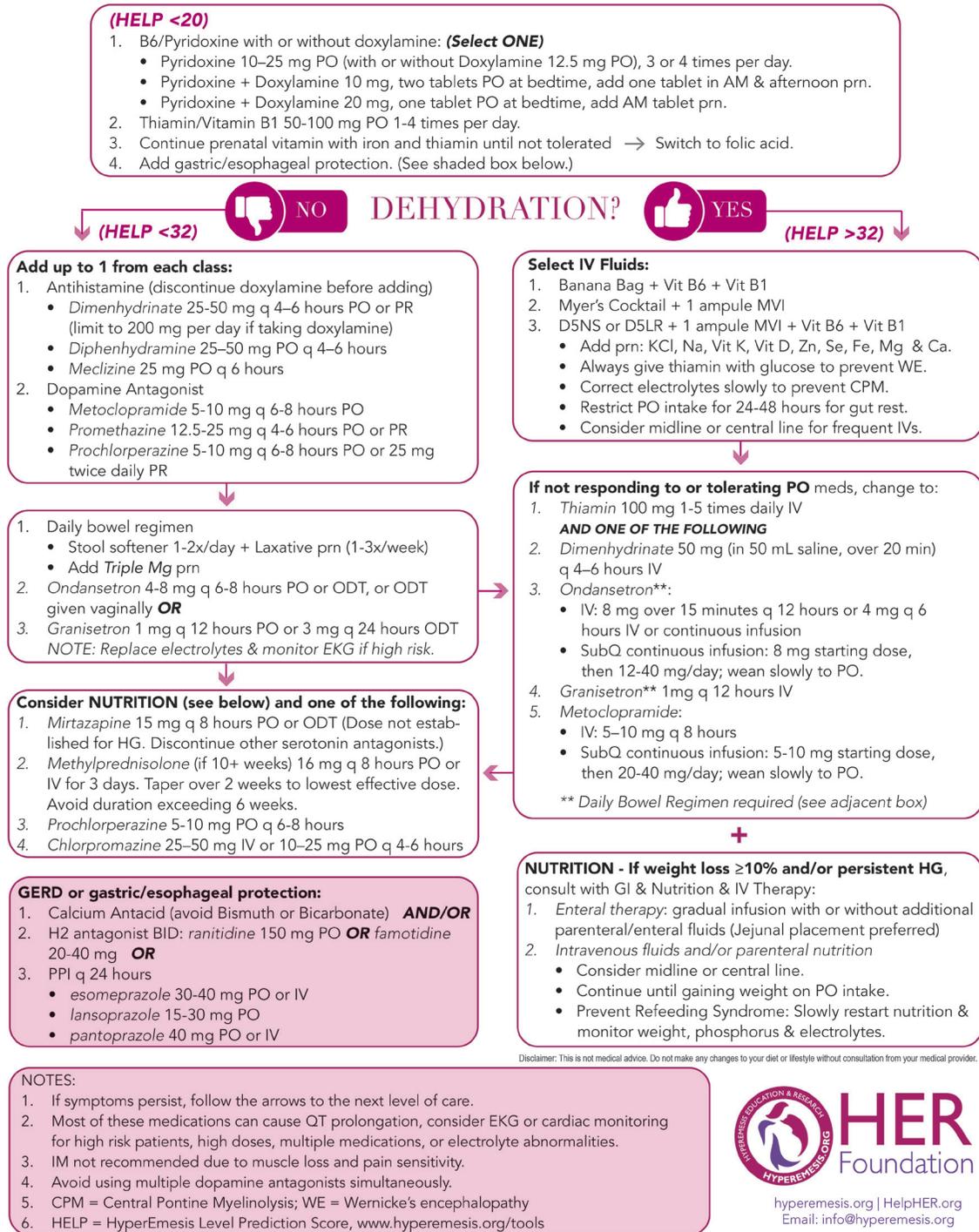


Figure 6 Algorithm for treatment of NVP. ©The HER Foundation. Reprinted with permission. *Abbreviations: AM, morning; BID, twice per day; Ca, calcium; CPM, central pontine myelinolysis; D5LR, 5% dextrose with lactated Ringer's; D5NS, 5% dextrose with 0.9% sodium chloride; EKG, electrocardiogram; Fe, iron; GI, gastrointestinal; H2, histamine H2 receptor; IM, intramuscular; IV, intravenous; KCl, potassium chloride; Min, minutes; Mg, magnesium; MVI, multivitamin infusion; Na, sodium; NVP, nausea vomiting of pregnancy; ODT, oral dissolving tablet; PO, oral/by mouth; PPI, proton pump inhibitor; PR, rectal; prn, as needed; q, every; QT, QT interval; Se, selenium; Vit D, vitamin D; Vit K, vitamin K; Vit, vitamin; Zn, zinc.*

oral therapy, circumvent inconsistent oral tolerance, and provide consistent bioavailability. Subcutaneous antiemetics may be effective in reducing symptoms within a few days and decreasing hospital stays.¹⁰⁶ Slow transition from

subcutaneous to oral medications can be attempted after a few weeks of stabilization and improvement in symptoms. Additional therapies such as IV fluids and acid-reducing medications may still be needed.

TABLE 5

Compassionate Care

1. Listen to the patient with compassion and empathy.
2. Take her complaints seriously and help her cope.
3. Provide warmed blankets and a quiet, odor-free room.
4. Warm IV fluids to avoid discomfort and shivering.
5. Use local anesthesia for catheter insertion and utilize skilled personnel.
6. Avoid IM injections due to atrophy and pain sensitivity.
7. Order a PT consult to minimize atrophy and increase mobility.

Abbreviations: IM, intramuscular; IV, intravenous; PT, physical therapy.

IV Hydration

Dehydration is a nearly universal challenge for patients with HG. IV fluids are one of the most effective treatments for HG, and patients report improved medication effectiveness and intake after rehydration.⁹¹ Typical hydration includes 0.9% sodium chloride or 5% dextrose with electrolytes, folic acid, multivitamins, and extra B vitamins. Patients requiring hydration more than weekly should be evaluated for non-oral medications and home infusion therapy.

Deciding the best option for rehydration requires an evaluation of the patient's history, current medical condition, and severity of symptoms. In first-trimester patients with a history of prolonged HG in a previous pregnancy, begin scheduled or home infusion therapy at the onset of dehydration. Patients further along in pregnancy with intermittent dehydration may benefit from more aggressive medications, such as steroids, in addition to IV fluids.

Longer dwelling catheters are considered when weight loss exceeds 10% or a patient requires repeated hydration, total parenteral nutrition (PN), or IV antiemetic therapy. Patients with HG reporting severe vein scarring, distress over repeated insertions, and avoidance of needed IV therapy because of pain and lack of compassionate care will likely benefit. The American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology recommends enteral feedings before placing central vascular access devices (CVADs) because of reported complication rates up to 66% in patients with HG.¹⁰⁴ Usage of expert clinicians, extra comfort measures, and practical selection of vascular access devices are important for the best outcomes in this population. Device options include a midline catheter, peripherally inserted central catheter (PICC), or a CVAD. Midline catheters are appropriate for patients with expected infusion therapy duration of a few weeks to a month and allow IV medication administration. Midline catheters pose less risk of sepsis and are useful for fluid and vitamin administration in the home; however, total complication rates may not be lower, and dwell time is less than CVADs.¹⁰⁷ A PICC offers more options, such as nutritional therapy and extended dwell time. CVADs are reserved for those with expected infusion therapy lasting months or those with difficult IV access.

Advocating for patients can avoid the dehydration–rehydration cycle by encouraging aggressive medications and home or scheduled IV therapy. In addition, although

laboratory results may show normal electrolytes because of a hemoconcentrated state, electrolyte replenishment should be considered for all patients with emesis and limited intake, especially those receiving antiemetics and/or those at risk of cardiac arrhythmias.

Electrolyte levels, like sodium, also influence uptake of important nutrients like thiamin. Patients with short-term memory loss, confusion, neuropathy, muscle weakness, spasms, seizures, cardiac symptoms, and decreased consciousness should be closely evaluated for electrolyte deficiencies.¹⁰⁸ Severe deficiencies can cause brain swelling, life-threatening arrhythmias, and other complications. Methodical replacement and rehydration are imperative to avoid development of osmotic demyelination syndromes, such as central pontine myelinolysis.^{79,109-112}

Nutritional Interventions

Optimizing medical therapy to allow adequate oral intake is the goal; however, that is not always achievable in patients with HG. The risks of enteral and PN may be less than those of chronic malnutrition and dehydration, especially in women with severe or prolonged symptoms. Once weight loss exceeds 8% to 10%, less in underweight patients, nutritional intervention should be strongly considered. At a minimum, IV hydration with added vitamins should be administered on a schedule while symptoms are refractory.

Nutritional intervention must begin gradually with adequate electrolytes, vitamins, micronutrients, and careful fluid resuscitation to avoid refeeding syndrome (RS).¹¹³ Poor nutritional intake for more than 10 days, weight loss >15%, electrolyte loss, and low serum magnesium levels, all common in HG, are highly predictive of RS risk.¹¹⁴ RS results from severe electrolyte and fluid shifts that occur after reinstatement of nutrition to patients who are malnourished or metabolically stressed, particularly if there is more than 10% weight loss over 2 months.¹¹⁵ Symptoms of RS may not appear for a week or more and include arrhythmias, confusion, seizures, weakness, vital sign changes, and rapid weight changes. Daily monitoring of laboratory results, such as phosphorus, magnesium, sodium, calcium, glucose, and potassium, are important over the first week of refeeding.

To avoid RS, gradual introduction starting at 25% of needed nutrition and slowly increasing to goal as tolerated at a controlled rate is imperative.¹¹⁴ Once patients tolerate goal flow rates, they are discharged from the hospital. Additional IV hydration, antiemetic medication, electrolytes, and vitamin supplementation are often needed, even with maximum feeding rates. Nutritional therapy is continued until oral tolerance surpasses 1000 calories daily and symptoms do not impair intake. Simultaneous use of peripheral PN via a midline catheter or central PN via a CVAD may be beneficial until adequate flow rates are tolerated.

Enteral Nutrition

If a patient has a history of prolonged HG, is early in pregnancy, malnourished, underweight, and/or losing weight

rapidly, enteral nutrition (EN) should be considered. EN is beneficial for preventing mucosal atrophy and permeability, but absorption in patients with severe vomiting and gastric erosion is unknown. Generally, EN is contraindicated during intractable vomiting, thus antiemetics must effectively control symptoms before beginning treatment. Failure to tolerate EN for 7 days indicates the need for PN.

Research on EN success in HG is limited to smaller cohorts, making results difficult to generalize. EN is associated with longer hospital stays and similar outcomes to other nutritional interventions.¹¹⁶ Nasogastric tubes are poorly tolerated by many patients because of nasal and esophageal discomfort and repeated insertions. Small bore tubes and a slow rate are preferred but still may worsen reflux and increase aspiration risk. Duodenal placement is problematic, because tubes may coil in the stomach and formula may flow back to the stomach.^{117,118} Placing a nasojejunal tube may reduce the frequency of tube placements and may decrease aspiration risk. It is indicated if a patient is on bedrest or experiencing severe emesis, GERD, or gastroparesis.^{119,120} Use of an infusion pump is required because of physiological response of postpyloric feeding. Start slow, increase the rate gradually as tolerated, and monitor for dehydration regularly.

For patients still experiencing emesis and expected to need nutritional therapy for more than 1 month, a gastrostomy or jejunostomy tube is more appropriate. They require surgical placement but are more likely tolerated than nasal tubes, because they bypass the hypersensitive gag reflex, minimize nasal irritation and patient discomfort, and avoid replacement for occlusion and expulsion by vomiting.¹²¹ They may remain in place for months, and, in limited studies, appear to achieve term deliveries and weight gain.¹²²

Parenteral Nutrition

PN and CVADs present challenges from risk of sepsis, pneumothorax, arterial puncture, and thrombosis to drug shortages and cost.¹²³⁻¹²⁶ Infection and thrombosis are the 2 most frequent complications and likely attributed to pregnancy-associated hypercoagulability and immune suppression. Although some studies find high complication rates, other studies report reduced rates with new protocols, outpatient use, and new technology, and some report few if any infection rates.^{125,127-132} Catheter type, placement techniques, and location were all significant determinants of adverse outcomes, with CVADs having more complications.^{132,133} Strict adherence to aseptic protocols, using new techniques (ie, new protocols, new insertion devices, etc), frequent laboratory monitoring (eg, electrolytes, glucose), and using well-trained staff can greatly reduce complications. For patients with HG, especially those with small children, having home infusion care is less stressful than arranging scheduled IV therapy in a clinic. Successful intervention requires the family receive detailed education and an understanding of when to call for help. Specific information on the critical importance of careful maintenance is imperative.

For pregnant women, the risks of malnutrition on the fetus must also be considered. Less than 20% of women receive central PN, yet about 26% lose more than 15% of their body weight and report adverse maternal and fetal outcomes.^{8,134,135} To provide nutrition and gut rest in malnourished patients, peripheral PN (PPN) or central PN are options. PPN can be given for up to 2 weeks (or less if given via a midline catheter), whereas central PN can be administered indefinitely via central lines.¹²⁰ Early central PN should be considered in patients with rapid weight loss, a low BMI, or a history of severe or prolonged HG. In obese patients with rapid weight loss, nutritional therapy, particularly micronutrient repletion, is essential, or the risk of infant mortality and growth restriction increases.¹³⁶ When nothing alleviates intractable NVP, the benefits of PN outweigh the risks of starvation. Importantly, antiemetics and supportive care are still required with PN.

COMMON MEDICATIONS

Studies find IV hydration, serotonin inhibitors, corticosteroids, and PN provide the most relief for HG symptoms, with effectiveness rates as high as 80% compared with less than 50% for other common medications, such as promethazine and metoclopramide.^{92,135} To decrease risks, monitoring and correction of electrolyte and fluid imbalances are necessary.

Administering multiple medications means simultaneous action on key receptor sites triggering the vomiting center in the brain and improving symptom severity. Common medication combinations include acid reducers, antihistamines, serotonin antagonists, and dopaminergic medications, such as metoclopramide or promethazine. If a multigravida does not respond to first-line therapies, rapidly advance treatment to what was effective in the previous pregnancy to prevent the development of severe or refractory symptoms (Table 6).

First-Line Medications

Antihistamines are generally considered first-line medications for HG, but only about 20% of patients with HG find them to be effective.⁹¹ A study by Fejzo et al⁹¹ found that antihistamines were taken by almost 50% of patients with an adverse outcome.

TABLE 6

HG Management Strategy

1. Assess current symptoms and treatment ⇒ adjust dose/frequency/route of Rx ⇒ add Rx ⇒ change Rx.
2. If NVP persists, review comorbid conditions (eg, GERD, h-pylori) and other potential causes, especially if symptoms increase after 12 weeks.
3. If NVP persists, add IV fluids on schedule/home ⇒ enteral nutrition ⇒ parenteral nutrition.

Abbreviations: GERD, gastroesophageal reflux disease; HG, hyperemesis gravidarum; h-pylori, *Helicobacter pylori*; IV, intravenous; NVP, nausea vomiting of pregnancy; Rx, prescription medication.

H2 blockers like ranitidine and famotidine may reduce nausea and help protect the gastric and esophageal mucosa. While commonly given before meals, this impairs nutrient absorption; thus, administration 2 hours after meals may be beneficial. If using twice-daily dosing, give after breakfast and at bedtime. Cimetidine is not generally given during pregnancy because of possible androgenic effects.¹³⁷

Second-Line Medications

5HT₃ antagonists (eg, ondansetron, granisetron, dolasetron, mirtazapine) are highly effective for treating NVP and can be administered as a tablet, oral dissolving tablet or film, injection, compounded preparation, transdermal patch (eg, Sancuso), subcutaneous infusion, or IV infusion. Oral dissolving tablets are sometimes given vaginally. These medications act on 5HT₃ receptors triggering emetic impulses to the vomiting center in the brain and influence gut motility and peristalsis in the enteric nervous system. Serotonin medications are dose dependent, so increasing dosage can significantly reduce symptoms.¹³⁸ Monitoring should be considered when coadministering with antihistamines in patients at high risk for cardiac arrhythmias, because both medications can prolong the QT interval.¹³⁹ Serotonin syndrome is also of concern in patients given multiple serotonin agonists simultaneously. Severe constipation is common, necessitating a daily bowel regimen, such as a stool softener, 1 to 2 times daily, with periodic laxatives and triple magnesium supplement.

Phenothiazines and phenothiazine derivatives (eg, prochlorperazine, chlorpromazine, promethazine, and metoclopramide) are commonly used for nausea and vomiting, but effectiveness for NVP varies greatly, with only 30% to 37% of women finding benefit.¹³⁵ Usually given in either tablet or rectal form, these may also be compounded into a gel.¹⁴⁰ Prescribing multiple dopaminergics simultaneously should be avoided, and duration should be limited to prevent tardive dyskinesia.^{141,142}

Promethazine, commonly prescribed for emesis, possesses antihistamine, sedative, antimotion sickness, and antiemetic effects; however, the side effects of sedation and anxiety can prevent usage. Antihistamines given concomitantly may reduce anxiety. Avoid IV infusions, because the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) warns that promethazine injections may cause severe tissue damage.¹⁴³

Metoclopramide may be used for HG to improve symptoms of gastroparesis due to its prokinetic effects. However, the side effects of depression, anxiety, and extrapyramidal effects often prevent usage. Prescribing smaller doses more frequently may increase tolerance. Metoclopramide is available as an injection, tablets, and oral dissolving tablets. Injectable forms can be used for continuous subcutaneous infusion but are significantly less tolerated and less effective than subcutaneous ondansetron.¹⁰⁶ Domperidone was previously used for

gastroparesis, but possible cardiac effects resulted in the FDA withdrawing approval.^{144,145}

Proton pump inhibitors given orally or intravenously will reduce gastric acid levels dramatically, protect mucosal integrity, decrease tooth erosion, and reduce the risk of esophageal damage.¹⁴⁶⁻¹⁴⁸ These medications are especially helpful with GERD and HG persisting beyond the first trimester.

Third-Line Medications

Corticosteroid (eg, methylprednisolone) usage is limited to severe cases and, when effective, may prevent the need for infusion therapy. Response is extremely varied, but symptom improvement is usually noted within 24 to 48 hours. Corticosteroids are usually given in a burst dose followed by slow tapering over 2 to 3 weeks. A low dose may be beneficial for an extended duration in those with refractory symptoms. Often corticosteroids are more effective when combined with serotonin medications. Studies on corticosteroid teratogenicity are inconsistent and underpowered, so use is limited until 9 weeks' gestation because of the small risk of orofacial clefts.¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹ Continued use later in pregnancy is associated with intrauterine growth restriction and smaller neonatal head circumference.¹⁵² Prenatal steroids may affect long-term fetal health, including cognitive function, anxiety, and hypothalamic pituitary adrenal function.¹⁵² Some studies find fewer side effects with methylprednisolone versus promethazine and lower rehospitalization rates in those receiving steroids.^{153,154} Anticholinergics (eg, scopolamine patch) may be helpful in those with motion sickness or excessive salivation.¹⁵⁵ Chlorpromazine is not recommended in early pregnancy because of possible fetal malformations and should be reserved for severe, refractory cases of HG.

Experimental Medications

Other medications being trialed for HG include clonidine and gabapentin, but the safety and risks are unproven.^{156,157} Mirtazapine has many properties, including anxiolytic, sedative, appetite-stimulating, and antiemetic, that are beneficial for HG.^{23,158} The droperidol/diphenhydramine combination protocol was introduced years ago for HG; however, it caused severe anxiety and inconsistent benefit, so it is rarely used.^{135,159} Marijuana, although sometimes effective for NVP, contains tetrahydrocannabinol, which does cross the placenta. Dose and timing may impact adverse outcomes reported with prenatal use, including impaired fetal growth, low birth weight, memory, attention, and behavioral problems.¹⁶⁰⁻¹⁶³

Antidepressants are sometimes prescribed because of the significant psychological impact of isolation and debility, but tolerance and response vary greatly. Usage with serotonin antagonists should be avoided because of the risk of serotonin syndrome. These medications may increase risks of preterm birth, respiratory disorders, low birth weight, and neonatal adaptation syndrome, as well as future depression, anxiety, and behavioral disorders in the offspring.¹⁶⁴⁻¹⁶⁷

TABLE 7

The I's of Immediate Intervention

IMMEDIATELY INTERVENE IF:

1. Inability to tolerate antiemetics
2. Intake of ≤ 1 meal per day
3. Inadequate UOP/ketonuria
4. Increasing weight loss (>1 lb/week)
5. Inability to cope or function
6. Increasing HELP Score

Abbreviations: HELP, HyperEmesis Level Prediction; lb, pound; UOP, urine output.

Weaning

It is a mistake to immediately or abruptly discontinue medication when a patient has a few “good days,” because relapse often follows. When a patient has been stable with minimal symptoms for 2 weeks, a slow reduction in frequency or dose of each medication can be trialed. The general rule for weaning, as recommended by the HER Foundation’s Rule of 2’s, is to wean medications over 2 weeks each, during or after the second trimester, and 2 weeks or more without symptoms.

PATIENT EDUCATION

Women are often reluctant to try medications because of the perceived risk of fetal malformations. It is important to inform patients of the known risks of stress, malnutrition, and dehydration versus the small risk of medications. In addition, teaching patients the impact of HG and how to manage improves coping and communication.

Set realistic goals with the patient, such as keeping weight loss below 10% and planning a return to work and normal intake after midpregnancy. Also clarify treatment expectations. Misperceptions about medication effects mean women often report that medications are ineffective because they expected relief from nausea, not just vomiting. Also explain alternatives to oral administration, so patients understand that there are other options.

Because HG is multifactorial, symptoms and treatment response may vary with each pregnancy. Timing and

effectiveness of treatment strongly influence symptom severity. If there is a history of HG, early or rapid symptom onset, high levels of psychosocial stress, and/or debility, early and aggressive intervention is crucial (Table 7). Pre-emptive antiemetics started at the onset of symptoms may reduce symptom severity and duration (Table 8).¹⁶⁸

Lifestyle Changes

Lifestyle changes are beneficial for HG but are not a replacement for antiemetic therapy. Most importantly, women need additional rest and relief from stress, which worsen HG and pose risks to the health of her unborn child(ren).^{169,170} Proactive care may also reduce the duration and, thus, the cost of medications as well. Each woman has differing thresholds for stimuli, so avoidance of triggers is an important intervention, and all family members should be educated to proactively assist in trigger avoidance as treatment (eg, stuffy rooms, odors, heat, noise, and visual or physical motion, normal body smells, cleaning chemicals).

Dietary Changes

Reduced food and fluid intake is a universal challenge with HG; however, minimizing weight loss reduces the risk of maternal complications and adverse fetal outcomes.^{8,171} With the unusual, severe, and persistent food aversions, in addition to lack of appetite,⁷⁰ any calorie is a good calorie. A woman may have very specific taste and texture requests that change frequently and rapidly, so the goal is to fulfill any craving immediately. Nutritional consultation may be helpful in expanding food choices and monitoring nutritional deficiencies. As symptoms resolve, reinstatement of prenatal vitamins and additional, balanced nutritional supplementation are important to overall health and recovery (Table 9).

In 2008, Goodwin et al¹³⁵ reported that an astonishing 67% of women with HG in the United States and as many as 90% of women with HG in the United Kingdom were not prescribed vitamins such as pyridoxine and thiamine during the critical period of fetal development when HG presents. Because prenatal multivitamins rarely are tolerated when NVP is present, women are susceptible to numerous

TABLE 8

Patient Education: Medications

- Medications may not give immediate or total relief.
- Treatment may be needed by SQ/TD/IV routes.
- Most medications don’t significantly improve nausea.
- Adjustments will be needed as symptoms change.
- Symptoms may worsen so benefits may be unclear.
- Multiple medications may be required for relief.
- Medications may be needed until delivery.
- Risk is not necessarily greater in higher doses.
- Abrupt discontinuance may lead to relapse.

Abbreviations: IV, intravenous; SQ, subcutaneous; TD, transdermal.

TABLE 9

Patient Education: Intake Strategies

Cold, low-odor foods	⇒ Reduce olfactory triggers
Decrease fats	⇒ Reduce gastroparesis
Frequent small amounts of food/fluid	⇒ Avoid distention
Alternate liquids/solids	⇒ Prevent fullness
High protein meals	⇒ Improve gastric emptying
Cold, clear, carbonated, and/or sour fluids	⇒ Increase palatability

vitamin deficiencies. Taking prenatal multivitamins with a snack at bedtime may increase tolerance in less-severe NVP. Sometimes an iron-free prenatal formula or a single nutrient like vitamins B6 and B1 is better tolerated. Alternate forms such as transdermal or sublingual may be available; however, absorption is unknown, although promising, in B vitamins.¹⁷²

Alternative/Adjunctive Care

Alternative medical treatments are ineffective alone as treatment of HG; however, some may improve associated symptoms or augment antiemetics.¹⁷³ Therapies might include homeopathic remedies like *Cocculus Indicus* for motion sickness, acupressure/acupuncture, hypnosis, and osteopathic manipulation, which may be helpful in realigning ribs displaced by emesis and impinging on the vagus nerve.^{174,175}

NUTRITIONAL DEFICIENCIES

Adequate nutrition is a universal challenge in women with HG, and early supplementation is uncommon, although it reduces NVP.¹⁷⁶ Although it is well-established that mother and child suffer from malnutrition, few patients with HG receive nutritional therapy.^{78,91,135,177} In one study of prolonged hyperemesis, only 10% of women received PN and reported higher rates of numerous symptoms, including low blood pressure, muscle weakness, and psychological distress.⁷

Regardless of BMI, clinicians must replace water-soluble vitamins such as thiamin within 2 weeks of restricted intake to avoid potentially life-threatening complications. Some vitamin deficiencies mimic HG, which may explain why symptoms improve significantly with nutritional intervention.

Key Nutrients

Nutrients specifically recommended for patients with HG include vitamin K, iron, folic acid, pyridoxine, and thiamin. If these are not tolerated orally because of severe or prolonged symptoms, IV replacement is critical until oral intake is adequate. Many deficiencies, including zinc and vitamin D, contribute to preterm birth and abnormal fetal growth and development.¹²⁰

Vitamin K deficiency manifests as maternal peritoneal or mucocutaneous bleeding or epistaxis.^{178,179} Foods high in vitamin K, like leafy greens and fermented foods, are poorly tolerated during HG. Replacement with IV or subcutaneous vitamin K is recommended.¹⁸⁰

Iron deficiency is common and increases the risk of intrauterine growth restriction and prematurity.¹⁸¹ Anemia may become severe and persist in patients with HG who are intolerant of oral supplementation, thus necessitating iron infusions.¹⁸² Important B vitamins include folic acid, which is most critical during conception and early pregnancy, and pyridoxine, which may improve nausea (Table 10).

TABLE 10

Best Practices for HG Management

1. Encourage healthy preconception BMI.
2. Prescribe early PO and/or IV vitamins.
3. Proactively treat even mild symptoms.
4. Rehydrate before severely dehydrated.
5. Treat marginal electrolyte deficiency.
6. Give antiemetics on schedule vs prn.
7. Offer non-oral antiemetics before severe.
8. Prevent medication side effects.
9. Monitor laboratory results (eg, thyroid, h-pylori, CMP).
10. Begin nutrition for weight loss >10%.
11. Wean antiemetics very slowly.
12. Watch for complications or relapse.
13. Screen postpartum (PTSD/PPD).
14. Utilize technology (HG Care app).
15. Refer for support (hyperemesis.org).

Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index; CMP, comprehensive metabolic panel; HG, hyperemesis gravidarum; h-pylori, *Helicobacter pylori*; IV, intravenous; PO, oral/by mouth; PPD, postpartum depression; prn, as needed; PTSD, posttraumatic stress disorder.

Thiamin

Thiamin, or vitamin B1, is predominantly sourced from food and supplements and critical to glucose metabolism. In women with limited diets and high carbohydrate intake, thiamin deficiency (TD) occurs within 2 weeks. Malnutrition then reduces thiamin absorption by about 70%.¹⁸³ TD may be exacerbated by medications such as IV glucose, diuretics, antacids, or antibiotics, as well as nutrient and electrolyte deficiencies, including hypomagnesemia, hyponatremia, protein malnutrition, and anemia.⁷⁹

TD exacerbates HG symptoms such as depression, irritability, weakness, headache, dizziness, insomnia, myalgia, atrophy, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, weight loss, muscle wasting, constipation, memory loss, pain sensitivity, and mood lability.¹⁸⁴ As it progresses, a patient may experience confusion, memory loss, peripheral neuropathy, and cardiac symptoms, which signal the need for aggressive intervention to prevent heart failure and death. TD increases preeclampsia risk and affects the infant by increasing the risk of fetal loss, impaired brain development, neuromotor immaturity, cranial malformations, and growth restriction. If a mother with TD breastfeeds, her baby has an increased risk of sudden infant death syndrome, behavioral changes, autism, delayed language development, and decreased visual alertness.^{79,98}

TD prevention includes daily oral doses of 50 mg of thiamin if tolerated and/or 100 mg IV.¹⁸⁵ Because of poor absorption in HG and the unique metabolism of thiamin, administer multiple doses per day, and give intravenously for rapid correction.⁷⁹ Although anaphylaxis is rare, IV

thiamin should be infused over 30 minutes.¹⁸³ Laboratory analysis is often unavailable and unreliable.⁷⁹ If deficiency is suspected, treat for 6 weeks with 50 mg orally 1 to 5 times per day, but preferably with 100 mg IV daily. Minimum doses of 250 mg are crucial for patients with prolonged HG, especially in late pregnancy, when fetal brain growth is rapid. Obstetrical texts in the 1940s emphasized the need for thiamin with glucose in patients with HG, yet it is still not consistently implemented.^{53,185} Vitamin B1 is nontoxic and should be given proactively to all patients with HG.

Wernicke's Encephalopathy

Wernicke's encephalopathy (WE) is an acute neurologic condition that is usually caused by TD and can be life-threatening or permanently disabling if not aggressively treated. WE may occur as early as 4 weeks gestation after just 2 weeks of vomiting.¹⁸⁶

The gradual or episodic onset characteristic of WE attributed to HG manifests with nonspecific symptoms such as headaches; anorexia; irritability; abdominal discomfort; weakness; changes in speech, vision, or gait; and confabulation.⁷⁹ Nearly all patients with WE have mental status changes like dizziness, drowsiness, apathy, and cognitive impairment.¹⁸⁷ This can be difficult to recognize in dehydrated patients receiving sedating antiemetics.

WE then progresses to neuromuscular signs like myoclonus and seizures, elevated liver function tests, and MRI findings of brain lesions.¹⁸⁴ Without immediate and aggressive intervention, WE may progress to cardiac and respiratory failure and will lead to death in about 20% of diagnosed patients. Survivors may develop Korsakoff's psychosis, which manifests as severe short-term memory loss, disorientation, and confabulation. Fetal loss (50%) and persistent cognitive impairment (65%) are common, and only about one quarter of patients have resolution of WE symptoms.^{185,188} If WE is suspected, immediate IV thiamin up to 1500 mg per day is critical, especially if neurologic or cardiac sequelae is present.¹⁸⁵ Improvement may be noted within 24 hours; HG protocols should recommend infusing thiamin 100 to 500 mg/d for up to 6 weeks to replenish stores.⁷⁹

CONCLUSION

Proactive, knowledgeable, and compassionate care can alleviate suffering and reduce complications for patients with HG. Treating both the symptoms and the underlying nutritional deficiencies exacerbating HG will improve both treatment response and outcomes. Using standardized management tools (www.hyperemesis.org/tools), the HG Care app, and the HELP Score to monitor severity and progress will improve recognition of changes impacting treatment and outcomes. Improved understanding of HG means that infusion nurses are better able to provide effective treatments, guidance, and support. Excellence in caring for these patients offers an opportunity to impact the future health of both mother and child(ren).

REFERENCES

1. Piwko C, Koren G, Babashov V, Vicente C, Einarson TR. Economic burden of nausea and vomiting of pregnancy in the USA. *J Popul Ther Clin Pharmacol*. 2013;20:e149-e160.
2. Zhang J, Cai WW. Severe vomiting during pregnancy: antenatal correlates and fetal outcomes. *Epidemiology*. 1991;2(6):454-457.
3. Verberg MFG, Gillott DJ, Al-Fardan N, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum, a literature review. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2005;11(5):527-539. doi:10.1093/humupd/dmi021.
4. Trovik J, Vikanes Å. Hyperemesis Gravidarum is associated with substantial economic burden in addition to severe physical and psychological suffering. *Isr J Health Policy Res*. 2016;5(1):1-5. doi:10.1186/s13584-016-0099-y.
5. Poursharif B, Korst LM, MacGibbon KW, et al. Elective pregnancy termination in a large cohort of women with hyperemesis gravidarum. *Contraception*. 2007;76(6):451-455. doi:10.1016/j.contraception.2007.08.009.
6. Gazmararian J, Petersen R, Jamieson D, et al. Hospitalizations during pregnancy among managed care enrollees. *Obs Gynecol*. 2002;100(1):94-100.
7. Mullin PM, Ching C, Schoenberg F, et al. Risk factors, treatments, and outcomes associated with prolonged hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2012;25(6):632-636. doi:10.3109/14767058.2011.598588.
8. Fejzo MS, Poursharif B, Korst LM, et al. Symptoms and pregnancy outcomes associated with extreme weight loss among women with hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Women's Heal*. 2009;18(12):1981-1988. doi:10.1089/jwh.2009.1431.
9. Lacroix R, Eason E, Melzack R. Nausea and vomiting during pregnancy: a prospective study of its frequency, intensity, and patterns of change. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2000;182(4):931-937. doi:10.1016/S0002-9378(00)70349-8.
10. Munch S, Korst L, Hernandez G, et al. Health-related quality of life in women with nausea and vomiting of pregnancy: the importance of psychosocial context. *J Perinatol*. 2010;31(10):10-20. doi:10.1038/jp.2010.54.
11. Ramskold LAH, Asaria RH. Valsalva retinopathy secondary to hyperemesis gravidarum. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2012;162(1):118-119. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2012.02.003.
12. Chen X, Yang X, Cheng W. Diaphragmatic tear in pregnancy induced by intractable vomiting: a case report and review of the literature. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2012;25(9):1822-1824. doi:10.3109/14767058.2011.640371.
13. Fejzo MS, Magtira A, Schoenberg FP, et al. Neurodevelopmental delay in children exposed in utero to hyperemesis gravidarum. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2015;189:79-84. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2015.03.028.
14. Tian R, MacGibbon K, Martin B, et al. Analysis of pre- and post-pregnancy issues in women with hyperemesis gravidarum. *Auton Neurosci Basic Clin*. 2017;202(January):73-78. doi:10.1016/j.autneu.2016.07.005.
15. Fejzo MS, Macgibbon KW, Romero R, et al. Recurrence risk of hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Midwifery Womens Heal*. 2011;56(2):132-136. doi:10.1111/j.1542-2011.2010.00019.x.
16. Fejzo MS, Arzy D, Tian R, et al. Evidence GDF15 plays a role in familial and recurrent hyperemesis gravidarum. *Geburtshilfe Frauenheilkd*. 2018;78(9):866-870. doi:10.1055/a-0661-0287.
17. Magtira A, Schoenberg F, MacGibbon K, et al. Psychiatric factors do not affect recurrence risk of hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res*. 2015;41(4):512-516. doi:10.1111/jog.12592.
18. Vikanes A, Skjaerven R, Grijbovski AM, et al. Recurrence of hyperemesis gravidarum across generations: population based cohort study. *BMJ*. 2010;340(April):c2050. doi:10.1136/bmj.c2050.
19. Fejzo MS, Ching C, Schoenberg FP, et al. Change in paternity and recurrence of hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Matern Neonatal Med*. 2012;25(8):1241-1245. doi:10.3109/14767058.2011.632039.

20. Colodro-Conde L, Jern P, Johansson A, et al. Nausea and vomiting during pregnancy is highly heritable. *Behav Genet.* 2016;46(4):481-491. doi:10.1007/s10519-016-9781-7.
21. Bai G, Korfage IJ, Groen EH, et al. Associations between nausea, vomiting, fatigue and health-related quality of life of women in early pregnancy: the generation R study. Pawluski J, ed. *PLoS One.* 2016;11(11):e0166133. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0166133.
22. Poursharif B, Korst L, Fejzo M, et al. The psychosocial burden of hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Perinatol.* 2008;28(December 2007):176-181. doi:10.1038/sj.jp.7211906.
23. London V, Grube S, Sherer DM, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum: a review of recent literature. *Pharmacology.* 2017;100(3-4):161-171. doi:10.1159/000477853.
24. Godsey RK, Newman RB. Hyperemesis gravidarum: a comparison of single and multiple admissions. *J Reprod Med.* 1991;36(4):287-290.
25. Niemeijer MN, Grooten IJ, Vos N, et al. Diagnostic markers for hyperemesis gravidarum: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2014;211(2):150. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2014.02.012.
26. Sun S, Qiu X, Zhou J. Clinical analysis of 65 cases of hyperemesis gravidarum with gestational transient thyrotoxicosis. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res.* 2014;40(6):1567-1572. doi:10.1111/jog.12372.
27. Matsubara S, Kamozaawa C, Tamada K. Biliary sludge during hyperemesis gravidarum and later occurrence of gallstones. *J Obstet Gynaecol Res.* 2013;39(2):617. doi:10.1111/j.1447-0756.2012.02013.x.
28. Shaban MM, Kandil HO, Elshafei AH. Helicobacter pylori seropositivity in patients with hyperemesis gravidarum. *Am J Med Sci.* 2014;347(2):101-105. doi:10.1097/MAJ.0b013e31827bef91.
29. Fell DB, Dodds L, Joseph KS, et al. Risk factors for hyperemesis gravidarum requiring hospital admission during pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2006;107(2 Pt 1):277-284. doi:10.1097/01.AOG.0000195059.82029.74.
30. Gabra A. Risk factors of hyperemesis gravidarum: review article. *Heal Sci J.* 2019;12(6):1-5. doi:10.21767/1791-809x.1000603.
31. Kosus A, Eser A, Kosus N, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum and its relation with maternal body fat composition. *J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2016;36(6):822-826. doi:10.3109/01443615.2016.1157153.
32. Ioannidou P, Papanikolaou D, Mikos T, et al. Predictive factors of hyperemesis gravidarum: a systematic review. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2019;238:178-187. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2019.04.043.
33. Annagür BB, Kerimoğlu ÖS, Gündüz Ş, et al. Are there any differences in psychiatric symptoms and eating attitudes between pregnant women with hyperemesis gravidarum and healthy pregnant women? *J Obstet Gynaecol Res.* 2014;40(4):1009-1014. doi:10.1111/jog.12274.
34. Zhang Y, Cantor RM, MacGibbon K, et al. Familial aggregation of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2011;204(3):230.e1-230.e7. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2010.09.018.
35. Vikanes Å, Grijbovski AM, Vangen S, et al. Maternal body composition, smoking, and hyperemesis gravidarum. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2010;20(8):592-598. doi:10.1016/j.annepidem.2010.05.009.
36. Brown QL, Sarvet AL, Shmulewitz D, et al. Trends in marijuana use among pregnant and nonpregnant reproductive-aged women, 2002-2014. *JAMA.* 2016;72(12):1235-1242. doi:10.1001/jama.2016.17383.
37. Jenabi E, Fereidooni B. The association between maternal smoking and hyperemesis gravidarum: a meta-analysis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2017;30(6):693-697. doi:10.1080/14767058.2016.1183194.
38. Mullin PM, Bray A, Vu V, et al. No increased risk of psychological/behavioral disorders in siblings of women with hyperemesis gravidarum (HG) unless their mother had HG. *J Dev Orig Health Dis.* 2012;3(5):375-379. doi:10.1017/S2040174412000220.
39. Munch S. Women's Experiences with a pregnancy complication. *Soc Work Health Care.* 2002;36(1):59-75. doi:10.1300/J010v36n01_05.
40. Buckwalter JG, Simpson SW. Psychological factors in the etiology and treatment of severe nausea and vomiting in pregnancy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2002;186(5 Suppl):S210-S214.
41. Tan PC, Zaidi SN, Azmi N, et al. Depression, anxiety, stress and hyperemesis gravidarum: temporal and case controlled correlates. *PLoS One.* 2014;9(3):e92036. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0092036.
42. Li L, Li L, Zhou X, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection is associated with an increased risk of hyperemesis gravidarum: a meta-analysis. *Gastroenterol Res Pract.* 2015;2015:278905. doi:10.1155/2015/278905.
43. Grooten IJ, Den Hollander WJ, Roseboom TJ, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection: a predictor of vomiting severity in pregnancy and adverse birth outcome. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2017;216(5):512.e1-512.e9. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2017.01.042.
44. Cardaropoli S, Rolfo A, Todros T. Helicobacter pylori and pregnancy-related disorders. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2014;20(3):654. doi:10.3748/wjg.v20.i3.654.
45. Mansour GM, Nashaat EH. Role of Helicobacter pylori in the pathogenesis of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Arch Gynecol Obstet.* 2011;284(4):843-847. doi:10.1007/s00404-010-1759-8.
46. Nashaat EH, Mansour GM. Helicobacter pylori and anemia with pregnancy. *Arch Gynecol Obstet.* 2014;289(6):1197-1202. doi:10.1007/s00404-013-3138-8.
47. Ahmed M, Elsayed A, Soliman A-Z. Role of helicobacter pylori eradication in pregnant women with hyperemesis gravidarum. *Evid Based Women's Heal J.* 2017;7(1):1-6. doi:10.21608/ebwhj.2017.3218.
48. Kabadi A, Saadi M, Schey R, et al. Taste and smell disturbances in patients with gastroparesis and gastroesophageal reflux disease. *J Neurogastroenterol Motil.* 2017;23(3):370-377. doi:10.5056/jnm16132.
49. Malaty J, Malaty IAC. Smell and taste disorders in primary care. *Am Fam Physician.* 2013;88(12):852-859.
50. Sipiora ML, Murtaugh MA, Gregoire MB, et al. Bitter taste perception and severe vomiting in pregnancy. *Physiol Behav.* 2000;69(3):259-267.
51. Sonbul H, Ashi H, Aljahdali E, et al. The influence of pregnancy on sweet taste perception and plaque acidogenicity. *Matern Child Health J.* 2017;21(5):1037-1046. doi:10.1007/s10995-016-2199-2.
52. Parkman HP, Yates KP, Hasler WL, et al. Dietary intake and nutritional deficiencies in patients with diabetic or idiopathic gastroparesis. *Gastroenterology.* 2011;141(2):486-498. doi:10.1053/j.gastro.2011.04.045.
53. Beck AC. *Obstetrical Practice.* 4th ed. Baltimore, MD: Williams & Wilkins; 1947:379-394.
54. Helseth R, Ravlo M, Carlsen SM, et al. Androgens and hyperemesis gravidarum: a case-control study. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2014;175(1):167-171. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2014.01.007.
55. Tan PC, Tan NC, Omar SZ. Effect of high levels of human chorionic gonadotropin and estradiol on the severity of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Clin Chem Lab Med.* 2009;47(2):165-171. doi:10.1515/CCLM.2009.041
56. Shikha D, Singla M, Bajracharya B, et al. A case of gestational thyrotoxicosis associated with wernicke's encephalopathy. *Endocr Pract.* 2014;20(12):e237-e240. doi:10.4158/EP14213.CR.
57. Taşkın S, Taşkın EA, Seval MM, et al. Serum levels of adenosine deaminase and pregnancy-related hormones in hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Perinat Med.* 2009;37(1):32-35. doi:10.1515/JPM.2009.013.
58. Daniels J. Hyperemesis gravidarum: past hysteria and present needs. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2017;124(1):31. doi:10.1111/1471-0528.14268.
59. Mitchell-Jones N, Gallos I, Farren J, et al. Psychological morbidity associated with hyperemesis gravidarum: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2017;124(1):20-30. doi:10.1111/1471-0528.14180.
60. Fejzo MS, MacGibbon K. Hyperemesis gravidarum: it is time to put an end to the misguided theory of a psychiatric etiology. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry.* 2012;34(6):699-700. doi:10.1016/j.genhosppsych.2012.06.019.
61. Uguz F, Gezgin K, Kayhan F, et al. Is hyperemesis gravidarum associated with mood, anxiety and personality disorders: a case-control study. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry.* 2012;34(4):398-402. doi:10.1016/j.genhosppsych.2012.03.021.

62. Babic T, Browning KN. The role of vagal neurocircuits in the regulation of nausea and vomiting. *Eur J Pharmacol.* 2014;722(1):38-47. doi:10.1016/j.ejphar.2013.08.047.
63. Janelins MC, Tejani MA, Kamen C, et al. Current pharmacotherapy for chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting in cancer patients. *Expert Opin Pharmacother.* 2013;14(6):757-766. doi:10.1517/14656566.2013.776541.
64. Bellono NW, Bayrer JR, Leitch DB, et al. Enterochromaffin cells are gut chemosensors that couple to sensory neural pathways. *Cell.* 2017;170(1):185-198.e16. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.05.034.
65. Browning KN. Role of central vagal 5-HT₃ receptors in gastrointestinal physiology and pathophysiology. *Front Neurosci.* 2015;9(OCT):1-10. doi:10.3389/fnins.2015.00413.
66. Gershon MD. 5-Hydroxytryptamine (serotonin) in the gastrointestinal tract. *Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes.* 2013;20(1):14-21. doi:10.1097/MED.0b013e32835bc703.
67. Mawe GM, Hoffman JM. Serotonin signalling in the gut—functions, dysfunctions and therapeutic targets. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol.* 2013;10(8):473-486. doi:10.1038/nrgastro.2013.105.
68. Mullin P, MacGibbon K, Reddy P, et al. Exome sequencing in hyperemesis gravidarum reveals association with stress-induced calcium channel (RYR2). *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2016;214(1 suppl 1):S402. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2015.10.817.
69. Fejzo MS, Myhre R, Colodro-Conde L, et al. Genetic analysis of hyperemesis gravidarum reveals association with intracellular calcium release channel (RYR2). *Mol Cell Endocrinol.* 2017;439:308-316. doi:10.1016/j.mce.2016.09.017.
70. Fejzo MS, Sazonova OV, Sathirapongsasuti JF, et al. Placenta and appetite genes GDF15 and IGFBP7 are associated with hyperemesis gravidarum. *Nat Commun.* 2018;9(1):1178. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-03258-0.
71. Petry CJ, Ong KK, Burling KA, et al. Associations of vomiting and antiemetic use in pregnancy with levels of circulating GDF15 early in the second trimester: a nested case-control study. *Wellcome Open Res.* Published 2018 Sep 21. doi:10.12688/wellcomeopenres.14818.1.
72. Fejzo MS, Fasching PA, Schneider MO, et al. Analysis of GDF15 and IGFBP7 in hyperemesis gravidarum support causality. *Geburtshilfe Frauenheilkd.* 2019;79(4):382-388. doi:10.1055/a-0830-1346.
73. Tsai VW-W, Brown DA, Breit SN. Targeting the divergent TGFβ superfamily cytokine MIC-1/GDF15 for therapy of anorexia/cachexia syndromes. *Curr Opin Support Palliat Care.* 2018;12(4):404-409. doi:10.1097/SPC.0000000000000384.
74. Christodoulou-Smith J, Gold JJ, Romero R, et al. Posttraumatic stress symptoms following pregnancy complicated by hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2011;24(11):1307-1311. doi:10.3109/14767058.2011.582904.
75. Kjeldgaard HK, Vikanes Å, Benth JS, Junge C, Garthus-Niegel S, Eberhard-Gran M. The association between the degree of nausea in pregnancy and subsequent posttraumatic stress. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2019;22(4):493-501. doi:10.1007/s00737-018-0909-z.
76. Heitmann K, Nordeng H, Havnen GC, et al. The burden of nausea and vomiting during pregnancy: severe impacts on quality of life, daily life functioning and willingness to become pregnant again: results from a cross-sectional study. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2017;17(1):1-12. doi:10.1186/s12884-017-1249-0.
77. Havnen GC, Truong MB-T, Do M-LH, et al. Women's perspectives on the management and consequences of hyperemesis gravidarum - a descriptive interview study. *Scand J Prim Health Care.* 2019;37(1):30-40. doi:10.1080/02813432.2019.1569424.
78. US Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality. HCUP Databases. Healthcare Cost and Utilization Project (HCUP). 2006-2016. www.hcup-us.ahrq.gov/databases.jsp. Accessed March 30, 2019.
79. MacGibbon KW, Fejzo MS, Mullin PM. Mortality secondary to hyperemesis gravidarum: a case report. *Women's Heal Gynecol.* 2015;1(2):1-7.
80. Dayangan Sayan C. A case of prolonged hyperemesis resulting in hepatorenal failure, foetal distress and neonatal mortality. *J Obstet Gynaecol (Lahore).* 2018;38(4):573-575. doi:10.1080/01443615.2017.1378874.
81. Fabian MS, Widera EE, Kazek B, et al. The prenatal and perinatal risk variables of the sensory processing disorder. *Clin Mother Child Heal.* 2018;15(1):1-5. doi:10.4172/2090-7214.1000286.
82. Maloni JA. Antepartum bed rest for pregnancy complications: efficacy and safety for preventing preterm birth. *Biol Res Nurs.* 2010;12(2):106-124. doi:10.1177/1099800410375978.
83. Virkus RA, Løkkegaard E, Lidegaard Ø, et al. Risk factors for venous thromboembolism in 1.3 million pregnancies: a nationwide prospective cohort. *PLoS One.* 2014;9(5):e96495. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0096495.
84. Furtado M, Chow CHT, Owais S, et al. Risk factors of new onset anxiety and anxiety exacerbation in the perinatal period: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Affect Disord.* 2018;238:626-635. doi:10.1016/j.jad.2018.05.073.
85. Kjeldgaard HK, Eberhard-Gran M, Benth JS, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum and the risk of emotional distress during and after pregnancy. *Arch Womens Ment Health.* 2017;20(6):747-756. doi:10.1007/s00737-017-0770-5.
86. Iliadis SI, Axfors C, Johansson S, et al. Women with prolonged nausea in pregnancy have increased risk for depressive symptoms postpartum. *Sci Rep.* 2018;8(1):1-9. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-33197-1.
87. Kaplan PB, Gücer F, Sayin NC, et al. Maternal serum cytokine levels in women with hyperemesis gravidarum in the first trimester of pregnancy. *Fertil Steril.* 2003;79(3):498-502.
88. Vandraas KF, Grijbovski AM, Støer NC, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum and maternal cancer risk, a scandinavian nested case-control study. *Int J Cancer.* 2015;137(5):1209-1216. doi:10.1002/ijc.29475.
89. Dypvik J, Pereira AL, Tanbo TG, et al. Maternal human chorionic gonadotrophin concentrations in very early pregnancy and risk of hyperemesis gravidarum: a retrospective cohort study of 4372 pregnancies after in vitro fertilization. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2018;221:12-16. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2017.12.015.
90. Jørgensen KT, Pedersen BV, Jacobsen S, et al. National cohort study of reproductive risk factors for rheumatoid arthritis in Denmark: a role for hyperemesis, gestational hypertension and pre-eclampsia? *Ann Rheum Dis.* 2010;69(2):358-363. doi:10.1136/ard.2008.099945.
91. Fejzo MS, Magtira A, Schoenberg FP, et al. Antihistamines and other prognostic factors for adverse outcome in hyperemesis gravidarum. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2013;170(1):71-76. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2013.04.017.
92. Almond D, Edlund L, Joffe M. Economics and human biology an adaptive significance of morning sickness? *Trivers-Willard Hyperemesis Gravidarum.* 2016;21:167-171.
93. Dodds L, Fell DB, Joseph KS, et al. Outcomes of pregnancies complicated by hyperemesis gravidarum. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2006;107(2, Part 1):285-292. doi:10.1097/01.AOG.0000195060.22832.cd.
94. Fejzo M, Kam A, Laguna A, et al. Analysis of neurodevelopmental delay in children exposed in utero to hyperemesis gravidarum reveals increased reporting of autism spectrum disorder. *Reprod Toxicol.* 2019;84(December 2018):59-64. doi:10.1016/j.reprotox.2018.12.009.
95. Lumey LH, Stein AD. Offspring birth weights after maternal intrauterine undernutrition: a comparison within sibships. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2012;146(10):810-819. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.aje.a009198.
96. Eventov-Friedman S, Klinger G, Shinwell ES. Third trimester fetal intracranial hemorrhage owing to vitamin K deficiency associated with hyperemesis gravidarum. *J Pediatr Hematol Oncol.* 2009;31(12):985-988. doi:10.1097/MPH.0b013e3181c3a8bc.
97. Lane AS, Stallworth JL, Eichelberger KY, et al. Vitamin K deficiency embryopathy from hyperemesis gravidarum. *Case Rep Obstet Gynecol.* 2015;2015(Figure 1):1-3. doi:10.1155/2015/324173.
98. Lonsdale D. Sudden infant death syndrome and abnormal metabolism of thiamin. *Med Hypotheses.* 2015;85(6):922-926. doi:10.1016/j.mehy.2015.09.009.
99. Ayyavoo A, Derraik JGB, Hofman PL, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum and long-term health of the offspring. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2014;210(6):521-525. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2013.11.035.

100. Bailit JL. Hyperemesis gravidarum: epidemiologic findings from a large cohort. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2005;193(3):811-814. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2005.02.132.
101. Veenendaal MVE, Van Abeelen AFM, Painter RC, et al. Consequences of hyperemesis gravidarum for offspring: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2011;118(11):1302-1313. doi:10.1111/j.1471-0528.2011.03023.x.
102. Power Z, Thomson AM, Waterman H. Understanding the stigma of hyperemesis gravidarum: qualitative findings from an action research study. *Birth.* 2010;37(3):237-244. doi:10.1111/j.1523-536X.2010.00411.x.
103. Korouri E, Macgibbon K, Chan M, et al. Performance of iPhone hyperemesis gravidarum care app. *J Clin Case Reports Case Stud.* 2019;2(1):53-59.
104. Committee on Practice Bulletins-Obstetrics. ACOG Practice Bulletin No. 189: nausea and vomiting of pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2018;133(1):e15-e30. doi:10.1097/AOG.0000000000002456.
105. Zur E. Nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a review of the pathology and compounding opportunities. *Int J Pharm Compd.* 2013;17(2):113-123.
106. Klausner CK, Fox NS, Istwan N, et al. Treatment of severe nausea and vomiting of pregnancy with subcutaneous medications. 2011;28(9):715-721. doi:10.1055/s-0031-1280594.
107. Xu T, Kingsley L, DiNucci S, et al. Safety and utilization of peripherally inserted central catheters versus midline catheters at a large academic medical center. *Am J Infect Control.* 2016;44(12):1458-1461. doi:10.1016/j.ajic.2016.09.010.
108. Espay AJ. Neurologic complications of electrolyte disturbances and acid-base balance. In: *Handbook of Clinical Neurology.* Vol 119. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier Ltd; 2014. doi:10.1016/B978-0-7020-4086-3.00023-0.
109. Arrowsmith L, Tolar C. Central Pontine Myelinolysis. *Australas J Neurosci.* 2015;25(1):15-19. doi:10.21307/ajon-2017-108.
110. Ruiz-Sandoval JL, Chiquete E, Álvarez-Palazuelos LE, et al. Atypical forms of the osmotic demyelination syndrome. *Acta Neurol Belg.* 2013;113(1):19-23. doi:10.1007/s13760-012-0110-5.
111. Patel SV, Parish DC, Patel RM, et al. Resolution of MRI findings in central pontine myelinolysis associated with hypokalemia. *Am J Med Sci.* 2007;334(6):490-492. doi:10.1097/MAJ.0b013e318068b224.
112. Nagler EV, Vanmassenhove J, van der Veer SN, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of hyponatremia: a systematic review of clinical practice guidelines and consensus statements. *BMC Med.* 2014;12:231. doi:10.1186/s12916-014-0231-1.
113. Boateng AA, Sriram K, Meguid MM, et al. Refeeding syndrome: treatment considerations based on collective analysis of literature case reports. *Nutrition.* 2010;26(2):156-167. doi:10.1016/j.nut.2009.11.017.
114. Rio A, Whelan K, Goff L, et al. Occurrence of refeeding syndrome in adults started on artificial nutrition support: prospective cohort study. *BMJ Open.* 2013;3(1):e002173-. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2012-002173.
115. Crook MA, Hally V, Panteli JV. The importance of the refeeding syndrome. *Nutrition.* 2001;17(7-8):632-637. doi:10.1016/S0899-9007(01)00542-1.
116. Stokke G, Gjelsvik BL, Flaatten KT, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum, nutritional treatment by nasogastric tube feeding: a 10-year retrospective cohort study. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2015;94(4):359-367. doi:10.1111/aogs.12578.
117. Grooten IJ, Mol BW, van der Post JAM, et al. Early nasogastric tube feeding in optimising treatment for hyperemesis gravidarum: the MOTHER randomised controlled trial (Maternal and Offspring outcomes after Treatment of HyperEmesis by Refeeding). *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth.* 2016;16:22. doi:10.1186/s12884-016-0815-1.
118. Niv E, Fireman Z, Vaisman N. Post-pyloric feeding. *World J Gastroenterol.* 2009;15(11):1281-1288. doi:10.3748/wjg.15.1281.
119. Löser C, Aschl G, Hébuterne X, et al. ESPEN guidelines on artificial enteral nutrition-percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (PEG). *Clin Nutr.* 2005;24(5):848-861. doi:10.1016/j.clnu.2005.06.013.
120. Mueller C. *The A.S.P.E.N. Nutrition Support Core Curriculum.* 3rd ed. Silver Spring, MD: American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition; 2017:215-223,253-262,287,290-293,399-413.
121. Vanek VW. Ins and outs of enteral access: part 2—long term access—esophagostomy and gastrostomy. *Nutr Clin Pract.* 2003;18(1):50-74.
122. Saha S, Loranger D, Pricolo V, et al. Feeding jejunostomy for the treatment of severe hyperemesis gravidarum: a case series. *J Parenter Enter Nutr.* 2009;33(5):529-534. doi:10.1177/0148607109333000.
123. Grau D, Clarivet B, Lotthé A, et al. Complications with peripherally inserted central catheters (PICCs) used in hospitalized patients and outpatients: a prospective cohort study. *Antimicrob Resist Infect Control.* 2017;6(1):1-8. doi:10.1186/s13756-016-0161-0.
124. US Food and Drug Administration. FDA drug shortages. [https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/drugshortages/dsp_ActiveIngredientDetails.cfm?AI=Multi-VitaminInfusion \(Adult and Pediatric\)&st=c&tab=tabs-1](https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/scripts/drugshortages/dsp_ActiveIngredientDetails.cfm?AI=Multi-VitaminInfusion%20(Adult%20and%20Pediatric)&st=c&tab=tabs-1). Accessed July 28, 2019.
125. Holmgren C, Aagaard-Tillery KM, Silver RM, et al. Hyperemesis in pregnancy: an evaluation of treatment strategies with maternal and neonatal outcomes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2008;198(1):56.e1-56.e4. doi:10.1016/J.AJOG.2007.06.004.
126. Antunes BF, Machado AM, Miziara RA, et al. Late neurological deficit after attempted PICC insertion in the arm. *J Vasc Access.* 2019;20(2):226-228. doi:10.1177/1129729818790404.
127. Cape AV, Mogensen KM, Robinson M, et al. Peripherally inserted central catheter (PICC) complications during pregnancy. *J Parenter Enter Nutr.* 2014;38(5):595-601. doi:10.1177/0148607113489994.
128. Krein SL, Kuhn L, Ratz D, et al. Use of designated nurse PICC teams and CLABSI prevention practices among US hospitals. *J Patient Saf.* 2019;15(4):293-295. doi: 10.1097/PTS.0000000000000246.
129. Baxi SM, Shuman EK, Scipione CA, et al. Impact of postplacement adjustment of peripherally inserted central catheters on the risk of bloodstream infection and venous thrombus formation. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2013;34(8):785-792. doi:10.1086/671266.
130. Harnage S. Seven years of zero central-line-associated bloodstream infections. *Br J Nurs.* 2012;21(suppl 21):S6-S12. doi:10.12968/bjon.2012.21.Sup21.S6.
131. Nuthalapaty FS, Beck MM, Mabie WC. Complications of central venous catheters during pregnancy and postpartum: a case series. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2009;201(3):311.e1-311.e5. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2009.06.020.
132. Russo-Stieglitz KE, Levine AB, Wagner BA, et al. Pregnancy outcome in patients requiring parenteral nutrition. *J Matern Fetal Med.* 1999;8(4):164-167.
133. Ratz D, Hofer T, Flanders SA, et al. Limiting the number of lumens in peripherally inserted central catheters to improve outcomes and reduce cost: a simulation study. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol.* 2016;37(7):811-817. doi:10.1017/ice.2016.55.
134. Fejzo MS, Ingles SA, Wilson M, et al. High prevalence of severe nausea and vomiting of pregnancy and hyperemesis gravidarum among relatives of affected individuals. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol.* 2008;141(1):13-17. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2008.07.003.
135. Goodwin TM, Poursharif B, Korst LM, et al. Secular trends in the treatment of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Am J Perinatol.* 2008;25(3):141-147. doi:10.1055/s-2008-1040344.
136. Bodnar LM, Siminerio LL, Himes KP, et al. Maternal obesity and gestational weight gain are risk factors for infant death. *Obesity (Silver Spring).* 2016;24(2):490-498. doi:10.1002/oby.21335
137. Peden NR, Boyd EJS, Browning MCK, et al. Effects of two histamine H2-receptor blocking drugs on basal levels of gonadotrophins, prolactin, testosterone and oestradiol-17 β during treatment of duodenal ulcer in male patients. *Acta Endocrinol (Copenh).* 1981;96(4):564-568. doi:10.1530/acta.0.0960564.
138. Tramer MR, Reynolds DJM, Moore RA, et al. Efficacy, dose-response, and safety of ondansetron in prevention of postoperative nausea and vomiting. *Anesthesiology.* 1997;87(6):1277-1289. doi:10.1097/0000542-199712000-00004.

139. Schlit A-F, Delaunoy A, Colomar A, et al. Risk of QT prolongation and torsade de pointes associated with exposure to hydroxyzine: re-evaluation of an established drug. *Pharmacol Res Perspect*. 2017;5(3):e00309. doi:10.1002/prp2.309.
140. Neeraj N, Radha S, Niranjana N. Gastrointestinal diseases in pregnancy; diagnosis and management. *Gastro Med Res*. 2019;2(4). doi:10.31031/GMR.2019.02.000544.
141. Cornett EM, Novitch M, Kaye AMAD, et al. Medication-induced tardive dyskinesia: a review and update. *Ochsner J*. 2017;17(2):162-174.
142. US Food and Drug Administration. Metoclopramide information. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/postmarket-drug-safety-information-patients-and-providers/metoclopramide-information>. Accessed July 19, 2019.
143. Rebelo K. FDA adds boxed warning to injectable promethazine. <https://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/709055>. Accessed July 26, 2019.
144. Leelakanok N, Holcombe A, Schweizer ML. Domperidone and risk of ventricular arrhythmia and cardiac death: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Drug Investig*. 2016;36(2):97-107. doi:10.1007/s40261-015-0360-0.
145. Heckert J, Parkman HP. Therapeutic response to domperidone in gastroparesis: a prospective study using the GCSI-daily diary. *Neurogastroenterol Motil*. 2018;30(1):e13246. doi:10.1111/nmo.13246.
146. Gyawali CP. Proton pump inhibitors in gastroesophageal reflux disease: friend or foe. *Curr Gastroenterol Rep*. 2017;19(9):46. doi:10.1007/s11894-017-0586-5.
147. Odiase E, Schwartz A, Souza RF, et al. New eosinophilic esophagitis concepts call for change in proton pump inhibitor management before diagnostic endoscopy. *Gastroenterology*. 2018;154(5):1217-1221.e3. doi:10.1053/j.gastro.2018.03.003.
148. Wilder-Smith CH, Materna A, Martig L, et al. Longitudinal study of gastroesophageal reflux and erosive tooth wear. *BMC Gastroenterol*. 2017;17(1):113. doi:10.1186/s12876-017-0670-1.
149. Bandoli G, Palmsten K, Forbess Smith CJ, et al. A review of systemic corticosteroid use in pregnancy and the risk of select pregnancy and birth outcomes. *Rheum Dis Clin North Am*. 2017;43(3):489-502. doi:10.1016/j.rdc.2017.04.013.
150. Grooten IJ, Vinke ME, Roseboom TJ, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of the utility of corticosteroids in the treatment of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Nutr Metab Insights*. 2015;8(suppl 1):23-32. doi:10.4137/NMI.S29532.
151. Skuladottir H, Wilcox AJ, Ma C, et al. Corticosteroid use and risk of orofacial clefts. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol*. 2014;100(6):499-506. doi:10.1002/bdra.23248.
152. Painter RC, Roseboom TJ, de Rooij SR. Long-term effects of prenatal stress and glucocorticoid exposure. *Birth Defects Res Part C Embryo Today Rev*. 2012;96(4):315-324. doi:10.1002/bdrc.21021.
153. Safari HR, Alsulyman OM, Gherman RB, et al. Experience with oral methylprednisolone in the treatment of refractory hyperemesis gravidarum. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1998;178(5):1054-1058. doi:10.1016/S0002-9378(98)70547-2.
154. Ziaei S, Hosseiney FS, Faghihzadeh S. The efficacy low dose of prednisolone in the treatment of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand*. 2004;83(3):272-275.
155. Güvenç IA. Sialorrhea: a guide to etiology, assessment, and management. In: *Salivary Glands—New Approaches in Diagnostics and Treatment*. London, United Kingdom: IntechOpen; 2019. doi:10.5772/intechopen.82619.
156. Maina A, Arrotta M, Cicogna L, et al. Transdermal clonidine in the treatment of severe hyperemesis. a pilot randomised control trial: CLONEMESI. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2014;121(12):1556-1562. doi:10.1111/1471-0528.12757.
157. Guttuso T, Shaman M, Thornburg LL. Potential maternal symptomatic benefit of gabapentin and review of its safety in pregnancy. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2014;181:280-283. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2014.08.013.
158. Schwarzer V, Heep A, Gembruch U, et al. Treatment resistant hyperemesis gravidarum in a patient with type 1 diabetes mellitus: neonatal withdrawal symptoms after successful antiemetic therapy with mirtazapine. *Arch Gynecol Obstet*. 2008;277(1):67-69. doi:10.1007/s00404-007-0406-5.
159. Nageotte MP, Briggs GG, Towers CV, et al. Droperidol and diphenhydramine in the management of hyperemesis gravidarum. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1996;174(6):1801-1806. doi:10.1016/s0002-9378(96)70213-2.
160. Bailey JR, Cunny HC, Paule MG, et al. Fetal disposition of delta 9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) during late pregnancy in the rhesus monkey. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol*. 1987;90(2):315-321.
161. Gunn JKL, Rosales CB, Center KE, et al. Prenatal exposure to cannabis and maternal and child health outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ Open*. 2016;6(4):1-8. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2015-009986.
162. Committee on Obstetric Practice. Committee Opinion No. 722: marijuana use during pregnancy and lactation. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2017;130(4):e205-e209.
163. Metz TD, Allshouse AA, Hogue CJ, et al. Maternal marijuana use, adverse pregnancy outcomes, and neonatal morbidity. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2017;217(4):478.e1-478.e8. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2017.05.050.
164. Nörby U, Forsberg L, Wide K, et al. Neonatal morbidity after maternal use of antidepressant drugs during pregnancy. *Pediatrics*. 2016;138(5):e20160181. doi:10.1542/peds.2016-0181.
165. Eke A, Saccone G, Berghella V. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) use during pregnancy and risk of preterm birth: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2016;123(12):1900-1907. doi:10.1111/1471-0528.14144.
166. Hermansen TK, Melinder A. Prenatal SSRi exposure: effects on later child development. *Child Neuropsychol*. 2015;21(5):543-569. doi:10.1080/09297049.2014.942727.
167. Osborne L. Antidepressants and pregnancy: tips from an expert. *Johns Hopkins Medicine*. <https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/health/wellness-and-prevention/antidepressants-and-pregnancy-tips-from-an-expert>. Accessed July 18, 2019.
168. Maltepe C, Koren G. Preemptive treatment of nausea and vomiting of pregnancy: results of a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol Int*. 2013;5:809787. doi:10.1155/2013/809787.
169. Huizink AC, Robles de Medina PG, Mulder EIJ, et al. Psychological measures of prenatal stress as predictors of infant temperament. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2002;41(9):1078-1085. doi:10.1097/00004583-200209000-00008.
170. Grizenko N, Rajabieh Shayan Y, Polotskaia A, et al. Relation of maternal stress during pregnancy to symptom severity and response to treatment in children with ADHD. *J Psychiatry Neurosci*. 2008;33(1):10-16.
171. Wu G, Imhoff-Kunsch B, Girard AW. Biological mechanisms for nutritional regulation of maternal health and fetal development. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2012;26(suppl 1):4-26. doi:10.1111/j.1365-3016.2012.01291.x.
172. Yazaki Y, Chow G, Mattie M. A single-center, double-blinded, randomized controlled study to evaluate the relative efficacy of sublingual and oral vitamin B-complex administration in reducing total serum homocysteine levels. *J Altern Complement Med*. 2006;12(9):881-885. doi:10.1089/acm.2006.12.881.
173. Boelig RC, Barton SJ, Saccone G, et al. Interventions for treating hyperemesis gravidarum. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2016;5:CD010607. doi:10.1002/14651858.CD010607.pub2.
174. Markelz KA, Blumer JU. Osteopathic manipulative treatment for patient with severe nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: a case study. *AAO J*. 2015;25(1):13-24.
175. Van den Heuvel E, Goossens M, Vanderhaegen H, et al. Effect of acustimulation on nausea and vomiting and on hyperemesis in pregnancy: a systematic review of Western and Chinese literature. *BMC Complement Altern Med*. 2015;16(1):13. doi:10.1186/s12906-016-0985-4.

176. Emelianova S, Mazzotta P, Einarson A, et al. Prevalence and severity of nausea and vomiting of pregnancy and effect of vitamin supplementation. *Clin Invest Med*. 1999;22(3):106-110.
177. Mullin P, Bray A, Schoenberg F, et al. Prenatal exposure to hyperemesis gravidarum linked to increased risk of psychological and behavioral disorders in adulthood. *J Dev Orig Health Dis*. 2011;2(04):200-204. doi:10.1017/S2040174411000249.
178. Devignes J, Grare M, Raft J, et al. Un cas d'hémorragie cutanéomuqueuse secondaire à un déficit d'apport en vitamine K dans le syndrome d'hyperemesis gravidarum. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim*. 2009;28(7-8):697-700. doi:10.1016/j.annfar.2009.05.016.
179. Baba Y, Morisawa H, Saito K, et al. Intraperitoneal hemorrhage in a pregnant woman with hyperemesis gravidarum: vitamin K deficiency as a possible cause. *Case Rep Obstet Gynecol*. 2016;2016:1-3. doi:10.1155/2016/5384943.
180. Shahrook S, Ota E, Hanada N, et al. Vitamin K supplementation during pregnancy for improving outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sci Rep*. 2018;8(1):11459. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-29616-y.
181. Breymann C. Iron deficiency anemia in pregnancy. *Expert Rev Obstet Gynecol*. 2013;8(6):587-596. doi:10.1586/17474108.2013.842683.
182. Achebe MM, Gafter-Gvili A. How I treat anemia in pregnancy: iron, cobalamin, and folate. *Blood*. 2017;129(8):940-949. doi:10.1182/blood-2016-08-672246.
183. Frank LL. Thiamin in clinical practice. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr*. 2015;39(5):503-520. doi:10.1177/0148607114565245.
184. Dhir S, Tarasenko M, Napoli E, et al. Neurological, psychiatric, and biochemical aspects of thiamine deficiency in children and adults. *Front Psychiatry*. 2019;10(April):1-15. doi:10.3389/fpsy.2019.00207.
185. Oudman E, Wijnia JW, Oey M, et al. Wernicke's encephalopathy in hyperemesis gravidarum: a systematic review. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2019;236:84-93. doi:10.1016/j.ejogrb.2019.03.006.
186. Selitsky T, Chandra P, Schiavello HJ. Wernicke's encephalopathy with hyperemesis and ketoacidosis. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;107(suppl):486-490. doi:10.1097/01.AOG.0000172373.41828.8a.
187. Scalzo SJ, Bowden SC, Ambrose ML, et al. Wernicke-Korsakoff syndrome not related to alcohol use: a systematic review. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2015;86(12):1362-1368. doi:10.1136/jnnp-2014-309598.
188. Chiossi G, Neri I, Cavazzuti M, et al. Hyperemesis gravidarum complicated by Wernicke encephalopathy: background, case report, and review of the literature. *Obstet Gynecol Surv*. 2006;61(4):255-268. doi:10.1097/01.ogx.0000206336.08794.65.