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AAP - Policy Statement Series

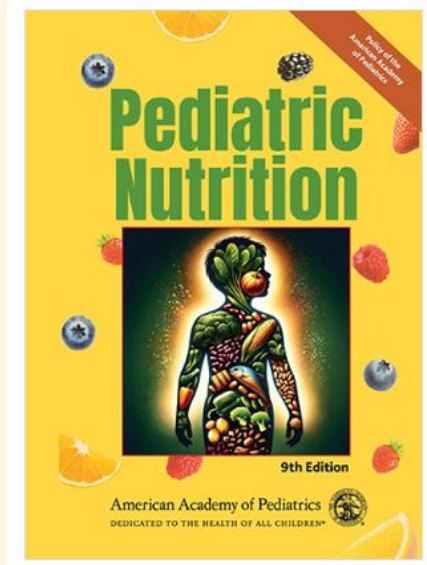


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AWHONN

Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses

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Practice Briefs

AWHONN practice briefs can be used as a quick-reference guide that can and should be incorporated into your clinical practice. Each brief provides a summary of the pertinent details of each technique and rationale for why it should be used in practice.

- Optimizing Maternal and Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients With Diabetes: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 21
- Decreased Fetal Movement: AWHONN Practice Brief #20
- Perinatal Care for People With a History of Metabolic and Bariatric Surgery: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 19
- (ACOG Practice Advisory) Updated Clinical Guidance for the Use of Progesterone Supplementation for the Prevention of Recurrent Preterm Birth
- Management of Newborns with Inutero Substance Exposure: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 18
- Intrapartum Pain Management for People on Medication-Assisted Therapy for Opioid Use Disorder Practice Brief: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 17
- Breastfeeding Recommendations for People who use Substances: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 16
- Provision of Human Milk in the Context of Gender Diversity: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 15
- Sustained Skin-to-Skin Contact for Healthy Late Preterm and Term Newborns After Birth: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 14
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- Guidelines for Active Management of the Third Stage of Labor using Oxytocin: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 12
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- Prevention of Newborn Falls/Drops in the Hospital: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 9 – Reaffirmed January 2025
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AWHONN Practice Brief #21

“Although diabetes is a common condition in the perinatal period, appropriate management and support can lead to positive maternal and neonatal outcomes. Multidisciplinary obstetric teams should establish standardized protocols for diabetic management to reduce unnecessary variation while individualizing patient needs to ensure safe, high-quality care.”

AWHONN PRACTICE BRIEF



Optimizing Maternal and Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients With Diabetes: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 21

Recommendations

- Pregnant patients with diabetes should be closely monitored during the intrapartum and immediate postpartum periods via a standardized protocol. This protocol should include an individualized, multidisciplinary approach to promote optimal maternal and neonatal outcomes.
- Nurses can optimize maternal and neonatal physical and psychological outcomes via effective strategies throughout the perinatal continuum of care.

Background

In the United States, diabetes mellitus (DM) is one of the most common complications of pregnancy (Dudek et al., 2020). Although most cases of diabetes in pregnant patients are gestational DM (GDM), the prevalence of GDM and pregestational DM (PGDM) is increasing (American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists [ACOG], 2018; Dudek et al., 2020). Pregnancy is associated with an increase in insulin resistance, which is greatest in the third trimester because of the effect of several placental hormones, including progesterone, prolactin, human chorionic somatomammotropin, placental growth hormone, and cortisol (ACOG, 2018). Diabetes mellitus leads to significantly increased maternal, fetal, and neonatal risks associated with the degree of hyperglycemia, chronic complications, and comorbidity of diabetes (American Diabetes Association [ADA], 2024).

Significant risks exist for pregnant patients with GDM or PGDM. Maternal risks during the perinatal period include preterm birth, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, cesarean birth, operative vaginal birth, (Cheng, Health and Science University [OHSU], 2019), spontaneous abortion (ADA, 2024), and polyhydramnios (Prest et al., 2022). The risk of hypertension and other comorbidities is as high or higher for those with Type 2 DM compared to those with Type 1 DM (ADA, 2024). Fetal and neonatal risks during the perinatal period may include congenital anomalies, fetal growth restriction, large-for-gestational age/macrosomia, birth injury, shoulder dystocia, NICU admission, polycythemia, hyperbilirubinemia, hypoglycemia (OHSU, 2019),

electrolyte disturbances, organomegaly, and respiratory distress syndrome (ACOG, 2018). In addition to risks during the perinatal period, DM may be associated with an increase in long-term maternal risks, including obesity, fatty liver disease, Type 2 DM, future pregnancy risks, cardiovascular disease, and increased morbidity and mortality (OHSU, 2019). Long-term risks for the newborn may include obesity, monochorionic fatty liver disease, metabolic syndrome, Type 2 DM, cardiovascular disease, and increased morbidity and mortality (OHSU, 2019).

Implications for Practice

Intrapartum Glycemic Control

Glycemic control before labor affects the insulin dose required during active labor. Those with poor glycemic control before labor commonly require a higher insulin dose during labor (OHSU, 2019). During latent labor, the metabolic demands are generally stable. Once active labor begins, the metabolic demands increase, and insulin requirements typically decrease. However, all procedures and states of physiologic stress, such as labor, induce a counterregulatory hormone release of glucagon, cortisol, and epinephrine. The release of these hormones leads to a more insulin-resistant state that increases the risk of ketosis and often requires more frequent monitoring of glucose levels and an additional insulin dose (OHSU, 2019).

- Blood glucose monitoring:** The target blood glucose range in pregnancy is 70 mg/dL to 100 mg/dL (ACOG, 2018; Dudek et al., 2020). For

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AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Intrapartum Glycemic Control

- **Blood glucose monitoring:** The target blood glucose range in pregnancy is 70 mg/dl to 100 mg/dl (ACOG, 2018; Dude et al., 2020). For blood glucose levels less than 70 mg/dl or greater than 100 mg/dl, follow the institution's protocol. Regardless of the type of diabetes, blood glucose
 - should be monitored every 2 hours when the patient is in early labor and not on an insulin drip.
 - should be monitored every hour when the patient is in active labor and on an insulin drip.
 - may be monitored less frequently for a patient with diet-controlled GDM, whose glucose values are within the normal range.
 - may be monitored more frequently when medications such as ephedrine, epinephrine, terbutaline, or betamethasone are administered, or in the case of intrauterine inflammation, or infection or both.

Personal continuous glucose monitors are not approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for inpatient use and should not be substituted for point of care testing or to guide management.

- **Insulin protocols:** Although agreement exists that maternal euglycemia should be maintained during the intrapartum period, standardized, universal protocols for the management of blood glucose levels for this time period have not been established. A standard insulin protocol for blood glucose results should be developed by the institution's obstetric service line.
- **Fetal monitoring:** Continuous fetal heart monitoring during labor for patients at risk of uteroplacental insufficiency or fetal acidemia, that is, those with uncontrolled diabetes, vascular disease, or hyperglycemia, is recommended. Limited evidence suggests that patients with GDM without other risk factors may be candidates for intermittent auscultation; however, more research is needed (Jabak & Hameed, 2022).

AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Postpartum Glycemic Control

During the postpartum period, insulin requirements vary widely; close monitoring and dosing adjustments may be needed.

- In obstetric patients with Type 1 DM, insulin resistance dramatically decreases after childbirth because of the loss of placental hormone influence. The required insulin dose is 30% to 50% less during the immediate postpartum period in comparison to the prepregnancy dose (Ringholm et al., 2020).
 - Stop insulin after the delivery of the placenta for patients with Type 2 DM (OHSU, 2019).
 - Individualize continuation of prepregnancy oral antihyperglycemic medications or insulin administration and include frequent glucose monitoring.
- Encourage breastfeeding and/or feeding expressed human milk to optimize short- and long-term maternal and neonatal outcomes (Ringholm et al., 2020).
 - Consider adjusting insulin for patients with Type 1 DM because of the increased risk of nocturnal hypoglycemia.

AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Special Considerations

- Glucocorticosteroid administration:
 - Assess for hyperglycemic effects that peak at 4 hours to 10 hours after injection. The effects may continue for 24 hours to 48 hours but may last as long as 3 days to 5 days after injection.
 - Monitor for higher rates of neonatal hypoglycemia and hyperbilirubinemia.
 - Consider that most patients may need significantly more than their current insulin requirements for adequate control because of the varying physiologic responses to corticosteroids.
- Avoid betamimetic tocolytics in patients with DM.
- Diabetic ketoacidosis (DKA):
 - Be aware that pregnant patients are at increased risk of developing DKA at lower blood glucose levels than nonpregnant patients.
 - Manage the plan of care via a collaborative and multidisciplinary approach.
 - Transfer patients to a critical care setting with co-management by obstetrics and critical care personnel.

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AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Insulin Safety

- Ensure all oral antihyperglycemics are stopped before initiation of insulin.
- Initiate and maintain dedicated intravenous (IV) lines for the prescribed mainline fluid and IV insulin.
 - Use 20 ml of the prescribed insulin solution to prime the IV tubing so the patient receives the full insulin dose (Dude et al., 2018).
- Discard the IV insulin after 48 hours or if exposed to temperatures that exceed 98.6 °F (37 °C; U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 2017).
- Obtain a second registered nurse-independent validation, because insulin is a high-alert medication, in the following scenarios:
 - starting insulin drip,
 - hanging a new insulin bag,
 - giving an IV insulin bolus (push),
 - changing shifts or handing off to another nurse, and
 - using downtime processes when electronic verification is not available.
- Monitor for signs and symptoms of hypoglycemia (e.g., pallor, diaphoresis, tachycardia, tremors, irritability, weakness, confusion, lethargy).
- Monitor for signs and symptoms of hyperglycemia (e.g., abdominal pain, nausea and vomiting, altered sensorium). Continuous fetal heart monitoring may show abnormal fetal heart rate patterns and should be managed with intrauterine resuscitation techniques.

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AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Education for Nurses and Other Health Care Professionals

- Screen all patients for mood and anxiety disorders during the prenatal period. Pregnant patients with diabetes are at higher risk of depression and anxiety because of the stressors of DM management (OHSU, 2019); therefore, increased psychosocial care may be needed during the perinatal continuum of care.
- Continue point-of-care testing glucose monitoring in the immediate postpartum period for patients with GDM because of the potential for continued glucose abnormalities (OHSU, 2019).
- Individualize continuation of prepregnancy oral antihyperglycemic medications or insulin administration and include frequent glucose monitoring in the postpartum period.
 - Consider reducing the insulin dosage during the first 1 month to 4 months after birth because insulin requirements remain approximately 21% lower than before pregnancy (Ringholm et al., 2020).
- Expect a physiologic decrease in hemoglobin A_{1C} during pregnancy. Because of blood loss at birth and during the postpartum period, hemoglobin A_{1C} may be low in the first 1 month to 2 months after birth (Ringholm et al., 2020) and should not be used to determine adequate glucose control.
- Assist in a seamless transition to follow-up care. Follow-up care should be a multidisciplinary collaboration in which the patient's risk factors and access to resources are taken into consideration (Choi et al., 2022).

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AWHONN Practice Brief #21

Optimizing Maternal & Neonatal Outcomes in Perinatal Patients with Diabetes

Postpartum Patient Education

In the postpartum period, educate patients with Type 1 DM and their families about the following:

- To maintain enough glucose for adequate milk production, maintain appropriate blood glucose levels, and avoid DKA, patients who breastfeed should consume a daily minimum of 210 g of carbohydrates (Ringholm et al., 2020).
 - Aim for glucose values of 72 mg/dl to 126 mg/dl before afternoon and evening meals and 72 mg/dl to 180 mg/dl at all other times (Ringholm et al., 2020)
- Aim to achieve prepregnancy weight within 3 months to 6 months after childbirth (Ringholm et al., 2020).

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AWHONN Practice Brief #10

Maternal & Newborn Safety During the Administration of Brexanolone

RETIRED

AWHONN PRACTICE BRIEF



Maternal and Newborn Safety During the Administration of Brexanolone: AWHONN Practice Brief Number 10

Recommendation

For the safety of the mother and newborn or infant should be administered at all facilities at which brexanolone is administered to treat postpartum depression (PPD).

Background

Postpartum depression is a mood disorder that can occur within the first 12 months after birth. It is most vulnerable in the first 4 weeks postpartum (Pittman et al., 2017). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2020) indicated that in the United States, 1 in 8 women report experiencing postpartum depression after giving birth, and 1 in 5 women were not asked about postpartum depression during a prenatal visit, and more than half of women with depression were not treated. The etiology of PPD is related to fluctuations in estrogen and a neuroendocrine metabolic of progesterone, allopregnanolone (Maguire, 2009). Levels of these hormones decline quickly after birth, and although most women are not adversely affected, this rapid shift can result in postpartum depression.

(2018), first line treatment of PPD is screening and identification of women who are at risk and those who would benefit from therapy. Pharmacologic management of PPD includes antidepressants, most commonly selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), can occur with or without concurrent psychotherapy and/or counseling with a mental health care provider. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) have been the first-line pharmacologic treatment of choice because they address the often-limited symptoms of depression and anxiety (Kline et al., 2018). However, the main drawback to SSRIs is that these approaches do not provide immediate relief of symptoms, which is a significant issue for women with the most severe symptoms of PPD. It can take 2 to 4 weeks for SSRIs to result in an improvement in mood (Kline et al., 2018).

Brexanolone is the only medication approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration specifically for the treatment of PPD. The intravenous (IV) route of administration allows for rapid improvement in mood, which can occur within 72 hours of initiating treatment (Leader et al., 2018).

Indications

- Brexanolone is indicated for the treatment of moderate to severe PPD.
- Women with previous histories of severe PPD or psychosis may benefit from treatment after subsequent births.

Administration

- Brexanolone is given by continuous IV infusion over the course of 60 hours, and the woman must stay in the facility for approximately 2.5 days.



468 | wjgcnrnl.org, doi: 10.5588/aj.2020.08.003

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- Advanced Practice Registered Nurse Position (NEW)
- Breast Cancer Screening
- Breastfeeding and the Use of Human Milk
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RETIRED

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AWHONN POSITION STATEMENT



Advanced Practice Registered Nurses

Official Position Statement of the Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses

AWHONN, 1800 M Street NW, Suite 740 S, Washington, DC 20006

Approved by the AWHONN Board of Directors, 1990, revised and reaffirmed, June 2005, Revised, edited, and approved June 2015. Revised, edited, and approved November 2022.

Position

The Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN) supports full practice authority for advanced practice registered nurses (APRNs) as independent providers of health care services for women and newborns. AWHONN supports a woman's right to choose and have access to a full range of providers and settings for pregnancy, birth, and women's health care. Women have a right to fair, reliable, and unbiased information about care options so they can make well-informed choices best suited to their individual and family needs. A woman's choice must be influenced by several factors, such as health status, personal circumstances and preferences, and family, religious, or cultural values. Clinicians should respect a woman's health care provider choices.

Background

The Role of APRNs

The APRN designation includes the following roles: certified nurse-midwife (CNM)/certified midwife, certified nurse practitioner (NP), certified registered nurse anesthetist (CRNA), and clinical nurse specialist (CNS). APRNs serve as patient care clinicians, in nursing leadership roles in health care delivery organizations, and as faculty in academic settings. The APRN consensus model core elements include licensure, accreditation, certification, and education to ensure uniformity across the United States. However, boards of nursing regulation can vary regarding licensure, practice authority, and prescriptive authority (APRN Consensus Work Group & National Council of State Boards of Nursing [NCSBN], 2008).

Throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, APRNs established themselves as critical health care team members, filling gaps regarding acute care and shortages of health care clinicians. However, the lack of certification examinations for specific designated APRN populations, the lack of standardization of licensure requirements, and differences in scope of practice and prescriptive authority make it difficult for APRNs to practice to their fullest capabilities and address the community's health care needs during the pandemic.

The Role of CNMs

Midwifery practice includes health care for women from adolescence through menopause. Midwives partner with women to provide evidence-based, individualized care that consists of the following: (American College of Nurse-Midwives [ACNM], 2021).

- primary care and gynecologic care
- family planning
- preconception care
- pregnancy, childbirth, and postpartum period care
- normal newborn care during the first 28 days of life
- treatment of partners for sexually transmitted infections

Midwifery practice facilitates natural processes with an emphasis on the holistic care of women for their families and communities. The midwife collaborates with and refers women and their newborns to qualified specialists, as needed, if complications arise beyond the midwife's scope of practice.

AWHONN supports the Essential Competencies for Midwifery Practice and Global Standards for Midwifery Education as defined by the International Confederation of Midwives (ICM, 2019, 2021), which have been endorsed by the ACNM (2014) and American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (2020) as the minimum requirements that should be recognized for practicing in the United States. The ICM defines a midwife as a person who has successfully completed a nationally recognized midwifery educational program that is consistent with the Essential Competencies and the Global Standards framework. Individuals must pass a nationally recognized midwifery certification examination offered by the American Midwifery Certification Board or the North American Registry of Midwives (NARM). Upon certification, individuals must be registered and legally licensed to practice midwifery, demonstrate competency in the practice of midwifery (ICM, 2017), and meet all requisite qualifications for the jurisdiction in which the midwife practices (ACNM, 2014).

It is important to distinguish the differences between a CNM/certified midwife and a certified

AWHONN POSITION STATEMENT



Expert Witnesses in Women's Health, Obstetric, and Neonatal Nursing

Official Position Statement of the Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses

Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN), 1800 M Street NW, Suite 740 S, Washington, DC 20006

Approved by the AWHONN Board of Directors, November 2014.

Position

The Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN) asserts that a nurse expert witness should be selected based on skills, knowledge, and experience in the relevant nursing specialty for which the nurse will offer an opinion or testimony. Nurses are not hired based on their affiliation with a specific facility or nursing professional organization unless the relationship is material to a witness's expertise. Expert opinions may differ between clinicians, but testimony should be based on recognized scientific evidence and best practice recommendations from peer-reviewed sources. Although nurses who are members of AWHONN may provide expert witness testimony, this does not represent AWHONN's endorsement. This position statement offers guidance for nurses providing expert testimony in legal proceedings involving women's health, obstetric, and neonatal nursing to comply with AWHONN's *Standards for Professional Nursing Practice in the Care of Women, Newborns, and People Across the Life Span* (2023) and the *American Nurses Association's* (2015) code of ethics for nurses.

Background

A nurse expert witness may be hired for various reasons and play an integral role in medical-legal case review and litigation. Women's health, obstetric, and neonatal nursing are the subject of litigation due to the inherently high levels of risk and dynamic nature of these specialties. It is necessary to make a clear distinction between medical malpractice and malpractice (American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 2007). Medical malpractice encompasses undesirable outcomes unrelated to the quality of care provided, whereas malpractice requires a demonstration of negligence. Nurses may also be called upon to offer opinion in criminal prosecutions regarding the accuracy or impact of care.

Nurses who serve as expert witnesses review case facts and identify applicable standards of care based on the clinical circumstances. A medical record review

should involve a comprehensive, impartial, and unbiased analysis of data elements and not exclude relevant information to create a view favoring either the plaintiff or the defendant. Once facts are determined, a nurse expert decides if the case has merit and provides an opinion within the scope of nursing practice on whether nurses involved with a patient's care acted within the standard of care.

Opinions and testimony shall reflect the state of nursing knowledge at the time of the event, not what a nurse expert would have done in their clinical practice. These views should be consistent with nationally accepted nomenclature and practice recommendations. Knowledge of community standards may also be required. It is recognized that opinions may change over time based on evolving evidence or best practice recommendations. For example, terms such as "fetal distress" or "reassuring nonreassuring fetal status" are not supported by the standardized, descriptive terms set forth in the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development consensus statement (MacLean et al., 2008).

With some nurses based on state law, the standard of care generally is defined as reasonable care that a nurse would provide in the same or similar circumstances. This is supported by the nursing process, professional guidelines, literature, knowledge, training, and experience. Opinions are based on facts and supported by literature. These opinions shall neither criticize performance that falls within generally accepted practice standards nor legitimate care that falls outside of these standards (NASEM, 2023). The nurse should not knowingly provide false or written testimony. Nurses should only offer causation testimony in jurisdictions where allowed based on testimony. The nurse expert assists the court in understanding complex, technical, or scientific issues. However, for purposes of court testimony, only a judge may determine whether a witness is qualified to provide expert testimony in accordance with applicable law. Qualifications of an expert witness are outlined by state or federal rules of civil procedure and

AWHONN POSITION STATEMENT



Nursing Safety on the Job: Workplace Violence and Personal Protection

Official Position Statement of the Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses

Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN), 1800 M Street NW, Suite 740 S, Washington, DC 20006

Approved by the AWHONN Board of Directors, September 10, 2014.

Position

The Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN) maintains that nurses have the right to work in safe and respectful environments free from workplace violence, including physical or verbal abuse, harassment, intimidation, bullying, or other disruptive behavior that occurs at the workplace. Furthermore, AWHONN strongly supports and encourages policy initiatives, safe staffing levels, training, and equipment needed to protect nurses on the job and their patients.

Background

Workplace violence prevalence in health care settings is a significant public health issue (International Association of Healthcare Security and Safety, n.d.). According to the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), approximately 75% of nearly 25,000 workplace assaults reported annually occurred in health care and social service settings, and workers in health care settings are four times more likely to be victimized than workers in other private industry (The Joint Commission [TJC], 2015). Workplace violence is any act or threat of physical violence, harassment, intimidation, bullying, or other threatening, disruptive behavior from patients, patients' family members, external individuals, and hospital personnel occurring in the work setting that creates an explicit or implicit challenge to safety, well-being, or health (American Nurses Association, n.d., 2015). National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), 2020). The most common type of violence in the health care setting is a physical or verbal assault against a health care worker by a patient or visitor (Phillips, 2016; TJC, 2015).

The acts of workplace violence against a nurse may exact a heavy physical and emotional toll. The consequences can range in intensity from minor to serious bodily injuries, from temporary to permanent disability, and from psychological trauma to death (NIOSH, 2020). The consequences for organizations and health care systems include harm to staff, loss of

team cohesiveness, decreased staff morale, lost productivity, absenteeism, job dissatisfaction, professional burnout, and increased employee turnover (Gates et al., 2011). Furthermore, workplace violence fosters medical errors and contributes to poor patient satisfaction and otherwise preventable adverse outcomes (NIOSH, 2020; TJC, 2008).

Health care settings and underlying health conditions can create an extreme level of stress for employees and their families, friends, and employees. Illness, fear, loneliness, and isolation are significant contributors to agitation and aggression from patients. Evidence suggests that the implementation of national and local workplace violence prevention policies, situational awareness, environmental assessment training, and building organizational trust reduces the incidence and effect of workplace violence.

The OSHA Act of 1970 requires that, in addition to compliance with hazard-specific standards, all employers provide a work environment for employees that is "free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical harm" (OSHA, n.d.). Employers have the responsibility, stated in the OSHA Act of 1970, to lessen the hazard. OSHA's five elements of an effective workplace violence prevention program are the following:

1. management commitment and employee involvement
 2. workplace analysis
 3. hazard prevention and control
 4. safety and health training
 5. recordkeeping and program evaluation
- It is important to note that these guidelines are not enforceable regulations. The guidelines are intended to help organizations implement effective workplace violence prevention programs. Training and education ensure that employees are aware of potential security hazards and behavioral triggers and how to protect themselves and their coworkers through established policy and procedures. Prompt, evidence-based training also can reduce the likelihood of being assaulted (NIOSH, 2020; Institutes

AWHONN POSITION STATEMENT



Nursing Workforce Diversity

Position

Diversification of the health care workforce aligns with the Association of Women's Health, Obstetric and Neonatal Nurses (AWHONN) strategic goal. In the 21st century, research supports the continuous efforts to attract, develop, and foster a diverse workforce. AWHONN maintains that developing a diverse nursing workforce is an essential component to attracting the largest possible pool of talent and achieving health equity for childbearing people, newborns, and individuals throughout their life span by increasing concordance in patient-nurse relationships. AWHONN opposes discrimination in the nursing workforce based on ability, age, generation, ethnicity, gender identity, national origin, race, religion, and sexual orientation. AWHONN acknowledges that as our knowledge of diversity continues to evolve, so will our definition of workforce diversity.

Background

The U.S. maternal mortality rates remain high. Adverse birth outcomes for Black women remain disproportionately high, with a rate that is 3 to 7 times that of White women (Howell, 2018; Hoyert, 2022). This disparity is second to women in the American Indian/Alaska Native community. Additionally, the disparity rate provided in the care of Black and American Indian/Alaska Native individuals and other people of color (BIPOC) will best decrease (Gutierrez, 2022). According to the Institute of Medicine, the demographic characteristics of the nursing workforce should more closely match the population at large to enhance interactions and communication (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine [NASEM], 2016). Therefore, an increase in the diverse nursing workforce is an essential component to achieving concordance in patient-nurse relationships (Hoyert, 2022).

Race and Ethnicity

Although the U.S. population is becoming increasingly diverse, the current nursing workforce does not reflect the nation's population. The U.S. Census Bureau (2021) indicated that 57% of the population identified as White in 2020; however, the population that identified as multiracial has increased by 270% over

the past decade. It is projected that the U.S. population may be majority non-White by 2050 (Veiga et al., 2020). The nursing workforce, though, is not keeping pace with the U.S. population diversity trends, as only 19% to 24% of registered nurses (RNs) self-reported as being non-White/Caucasian (National Council of State Boards of Nursing [NCSBN], 2021; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020).

While diversity in nursing has improved for the Asian community, which represents 6.1% of the total population and 9.1% of the total body of nurses, other ethnic groups, such as African American and Hispanic populations, have room for improvement. African Americans make up 12% of the population and represent only 4% of the nursing workforce. The disparity between the Hispanic population and the number of Hispanic nurses is even greater. Hispanic individuals represent 18.3% of the population; however, they represent only 7.4% of the nursing workforce (NASEM, 2016).

Schools of nursing and colleges of health sciences have an integral role in contributing to diversity in nursing. A prerequisite for diversification of the workforce begins with strategic recruitment and access to enter the field. Student recruitment strategies require purposeful efforts to be more representative of the population. Between 2010 and 2019, Black student enrollment increased by 10%, while Hispanic enrollment grew by 5.3% to 5.8% (Harrington et al., 2022). Black students are more likely to experience racism and other structural barriers such as attending schools with old or dated resources and competing financial obligations that impact academic performance. Modifications to admission criteria that include a more holistic approach, considering life experiences and the evaluation of written essays over interviews, can help eliminate this barrier for prospective students.

Changing admission criteria will increase the diversity of the nursing workforce, but work also needs to be done to support students through the program until graduation. Black students have expressed a lack of belonging as well as feelings of discrimination, difficulty in keeping pace with the curriculum, and financial challenges (National Commission to Address Racism in Nursing, 2022). Mentorship programs that focus on the development of basic skills such as math and writing inclusive of financial incentives have improved