DR. B E LINGWOOD (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-8143-2707)

Article type : Symposium Paper

Title: Supporting Preterm Cardiovascular Function

Barbara E Lingwood<sup>1</sup> Yvonne A Eiby<sup>1</sup> S Tracey Bjorkman<sup>1</sup> Stephanie M Miller<sup>1</sup> Ian M R Wright<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> UQ Centre for Clinical Research and Perinatal Research Centre, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

<sup>2</sup> Illawarra Health and Medical Research Institute, University of Wollongong, Wollongong, Australia.

Short Title: Supporting Preterm Cardiovascular Function

Author for Correspondence Dr Barbara Lingwood UQ Centre for Clinical Research Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital Herston, QLD 4029, Australia

Email: b.lingwood@uq.edu.au Phone: +61 7 3346 6016 Fax: +61 7 3346 5594

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1111/1440-1681.13044

Present address Prof Ian Wright: Illawarra Health and Medical Research Institute University of Wollongong Wollongong, NSW 2522, Australia

No authors have any conflict of interest to declare.

## Abstract

Preterm infants are at higher risk of adverse neurodevelopmental outcomes. Inadequate cerebral oxygen delivery resulting from poor cardiovascular function is likely to be a significant contributor to preterm brain injury. In this context, improved support of cardiovascular function is integral to improving preterm outcomes. Many of the treatments used to support preterm cardiovascular function are based on adult physiology and may not be appropriate for the unique physiology of the preterm infant. The preterm heart is structurally immature with reduced contractility and low cardiac output. However, there is limited evidence that inotropic support with dopamine and/or dobutamine is effective in preterm babies. Hypovolemia may also contribute to poor preterm cardiovascular function: there is evidence that capillary leakage results in considerable loss of plasma from the circulation of newborn preterm babies. In addition, the vasoconstrictor response to acute stimuli does not develop until quite late in gestation and is limited in the preterm infant. This may lead to inappropriate vasodilatation adding to functional hypovolemia. The first line treatment for hypotension in preterm infants is volume expansion with crystalloid solutions but this has limited efficacy in the preterm infant. More effective methods of volume expansion are required. Effective support of preterm cardiovascular function requires better understanding of preterm cardiovascular physiology so that treatments can target mechanisms that are sufficiently mature to respond.

## Key words

Infant, Extremely Premature

Hypotension

Hypovolemia

Vasodilatation

Among survivors of extreme preterm birth (before 28 weeks) or extremely low birthweight (<1000g), 10-15% develop cerebral palsy and 40-60% have some form of motor disability, a third of which is severe (1, 2). Cognitive impairments and learning disabilities are present in 50% of extremely preterm infants, and there is an increased risk of attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder and autism (3). There is an association between low systemic blood flow and adverse neurodevelopmental outcome (4) suggesting that low cerebral blood flow and inadequate cerebral oxygen delivery contribute to high preterm disability rates.

Very low birthweight infants have a resting cerebral blood flow (corrected for body weight) that is approximately half that at term and one-quarter of adult values (5, 6). This may reflect a lower cerebral oxygen requirement, but observations of increased cerebral oxygen extraction, and lower cerebral venous oxygen saturation suggest that, in some preterm infants, cerebral blood flow is near a critical lower limit and may even be lower than that required for normal oxygen delivery (5, 7, 8). In many very preterm infants cerebral tissue oxygenation is below the normal range for stable very preterm infants during the first days of life (9) supporting the hypothesis that poor cerebral tissue oxygenation contributes to disability.

In neonatal intensive care, treatments are focussed on increasing blood pressure and/or cardiac output to maintain cerebral oxygen delivery. This approach is based on the assumption that cerebral autoregulation is not fully developed in the preterm infant (10) and so increasing blood pressure and/or cardiac output will improve cerebral blood flow and oxygen delivery. Standard treatments are volume expansion with saline and inotropic support, usually with dopamine or dobutamine. Although some interventions produce increases in blood pressure and/or cardiac output in very preterm infants, almost half of the infants treated fail to respond (11-13). No treatments have improved long term neurodevelopmental outcome (11, 14, 15). The use of these treatments is based on the assumption that they will act in the preterm cardiovascular system in the same way that they do in the adult. However, there are some unique aspects of the preterm circulation that need to be considered.

# The preterm heart

Studies in preterm animals indicate that the myocytes of the preterm heart are smaller than those in the term heart (16, 17). In addition, there are low numbers of binucleated myocytes, high numbers of proliferating cells and low numbers undergoing apoptosis compared to the term heart, indicating that preterm myocytes have not yet reached maturity (16, 17). Myocyte maturation is accelerated by glucocorticoid exposure and by stress including anaemia (16-18). Transverse tubules are absent in early gestation and the sarcoplasmic reticulum is poorly developed (19). The preterm heart also has a lower the rate of calcium uptake by the sarcoplasmic reticulum (20). Preterm myocytes contain less contractile material and the contractile filaments are less well organised (19). The expression of troponin C and troponin I are lower in the preterm heart and this is associated with a lower maximum Ca<sup>2+</sup>-activated force (21). Mitochondria are scattered throughout the cytoplasm rather than aligned in rows between the myofibrils (19). The extracellular matrix is also less developed in younger fetuses (17). Trying to make this immature heart work harder by administering inotropes may not be helpful.

Furthermore, the expression of  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors in the preterm heart is half of that in the term heart, so there are fewer  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors for adrenergic inotropes to act upon (22). In the preterm piglet, both dopamine and dobutamine treatment resulted in smaller increases in contractility and arterial blood pressure compared with the term piglet (23). Cardiac output and cerebral blood flow in preterm piglets was approximately half that in term piglets and was not increased by either dopamine or dobutamine infusion (23, 24). Thus, it is not surprising that in preterm infants there is no clear benefit from any of the commonly used inotropic medications, as discussed in a recent review (25).

This structural immaturity limits the pressure range over which the preterm heart is capable of optimal function. The preterm piglet heart lacks the ability to maintain cardiac output when afterload rises above 45mmHg (26), supporting the view that large increases in mean arterial pressure are not beneficial, and may indeed be harmful. The preterm piglet heart also functions poorly at low preloads, but does have significant preload reserve. This means that significant increases in cardiac output may be gained by increasing preload (26). These observations suggest that treatments to improve preterm cardiac function should ideally target increases in preload without excessive increases in afterload.

#### The preterm vascular system

The preterm vascular system may also play a role in the aetiology of preterm cardiovascular compromise. The preterm infant is adapted for the *in utero* environment and not *ex utero* life. *In utero* it is protected from low temperatures by the mother, so there is little need for thermoregulatory vasoconstriction. The fetus is also protected from external threats and there is minimal requirement for acute redistribution of cardiac output for 'fight-or-flight' reactions. On the other hand, a predisposition to vasodilatation in the fetus would provide for maximal nutrient delivery to all tissues to sustain a rapid proportional growth rate that will not be matched at any subsequent time in life. For the fetus therefore, it is beneficial to be predisposed toward vasodilatation.

In preterm fetal sheep there is a reduced vasoconstrictor response to cord occlusion and reduced ability to maintain peripheral vasoconstriction compared with the near term fetus (27). In the fetal sheep there is also reduced vascular responsiveness to adrenergic and peptidergic vasoconstrictors, and increased responsiveness to cholinergic vasodilator stimulation (28), although it is possible that these reduced responses may reflect the lower oxygen requirements of the fetus (29). However, these effects are also apparent postnatally when preterm piglets are exposed to a mild hypoxic stimulus. Endogenous catecholamine levels are similar in preterm and term piglets, and increase more than 20-fold following hypoxia in both groups (30). Term piglets respond with reductions in skin blood flow indicating an effective vasoconstrictor response, but peripheral blood flow is not reduced in preterm piglets, suggesting an inability to respond to these high levels of endogenous catecholamines (30). Preterm human infants also have high levels of endogenous catecholamines on the first day of life, equivalent to or higher than term infants (31, 32), but these high levels of catecholamines do not lead to higher blood pressure or systemic blood flow.

Clinical studies have confirmed that this relatively vasodilated state persists for several days after birth in preterm infants. There is a significant inverse relationship between skin microvascular flow at 24h after birth and gestational age in infants born at 24-36 weeks gestation; that is, the more premature the infant, the higher their microvascular flow (33). Similarly Wu et al (1980) observed that skin and muscle blood flow on the first 7 days after birth is much higher in preterm infants than in term infants (34). That study also noted that flow decreased with postnatal age, but most dramatically in the most premature infants. There was a direct correlation between gestational age and peripheral vascular resistance in both skin and muscle. Vascular resistance in preterm infants (27-34w) compared with term infants was also observed by Kidd et al (35). In very low birthweight infants an increase in skin and subcutaneous blood flow is thought to be due to vasodilatation in the transitional period (36). Vasodilatory capacity in response to local warming is significantly greater in infants born at 24-28 weeks gestation than those born at 29-36 weeks (33). This is strong evidence that the preterm infant is thus predisposed toward vasodilatation.

As the fetus approaches term and in the immediate postnatal period, there is maturation of both cardiac and vascular receptors, and sympathetic pathways, in preparation for the different cardiovascular and thermoregulatory needs of life after birth. Over the first month of life the sympathetic nervous system of the pig becomes more functional with a decreasing threshold and increasing magnitude of response to electrical stimulation of renal and lumbar nerves (37). The expression of  $\beta_1$ -adrenoceptors in the heart increases two-fold between 91d gestation and term (115d) in the piglet (22). The density of vasoconstrictor  $\alpha_1$ -adrenoceptors in aortic smooth muscle is much lower in fetal sheep (125-140d) than in the ewe (38). In both the heart and the peripheral vascular system there are changes in the gasotransmitters responsible for vasodilatation, with evidence of interactions between nitric oxide, carbon

monoxide and hydrogen sulphide production in the preterm infant (39). These changes act to shift the vasoconstriction/vasodilatation balance away from vessel relaxation as term approaches (40). In the renin-angiotensin system the number of vasoconstrictor  $AT_1$  receptors in the major blood vessels increases while the number of vasodilator AT<sub>2</sub> receptors decreases (41). However, premature delivery before this maturation occurs leaves the preterm neonate at risk of inappropriate vasodilatation. If the well-adapted preterm fetus suddenly becomes a preterm neonate, then the dominant state of vasodilatation is disadvantageous. Excessive vasodilatation will lead to reduced preload and a significant reduction in cardiac output (26). Higher microvascular flows in preterm infants are associated with lower mean arterial pressures, and there is a significant inverse correlation between microvascular flow and mean arterial blood pressure (42). There is also a positive relationship between microvascular flow and illness severity. Infants who died soon after birth were more likely to have had higher microvascular flow suggesting that inappropriate peripheral vasodilatation contributes to cardiovascular compromise (42). There are also sex differences in this vasodilatory state. More severe vasodilatation is seen in male infants, those who also have greater risk of adverse outcomes (33, 43, 44).

#### **Blood volume in the preterm infant**

Lack of an adequate blood volume may contribute to compromised preterm cardiovascular function. It is sometimes assumed that hypovolemia does not occur in the preterm neonate. This assumption is based on the observation that volume expansion with saline is ineffective for improving outcomes (13). There is also evidence that preterm infants have a higher % total body water than term infants (45). However, several factors may contribute to early hypovolemia in preterm infants.

As the pulmonary circulation opens with expansion of the lungs, the capacity of the vascular compartment is increased. High levels of circulating catecholamines at birth (31, 32) may assist the term neonate to successfully adapt to this increased capacity by increasing systemic vasculature resistance. However, as discussed above, the preterm neonate is less responsive to catecholamines (23, 30). As a result, the preterm infant may not compensate for this increased vascular capacity leading to a functional hypovolemia. In addition to these vascular factors, early loss of fluid from the vascular compartment due to excessive leakage from capillaries results in a significant loss of intravascular volume. The rapid loss of labelled albumin from the circulation coupled with early increases in haemoglobin concentration suggest whole plasma is lost from the circulation of the preterm infant (46, 47). Loss of protein from the circulation will exacerbate leakage and hypovolemia.

Hypovolemia in preterm neonates may be very detrimental. In the preterm piglet, cerebral blood flow in preterm animals is about half of that in term piglets (23, 48). When blood volume is reduced, the term piglet adapts by increasing cerebral vascular conductance and maintaining cerebral blood flow. This adaptation is not seen in preterm piglets leading to extremely low cerebral blood flow that is likely below that required to meet oxygen delivery requirements (48).

There is insufficient evidence to support the use of saline for volume expansion in preterm infants and there is no improvement in outcome (13). In adults, saline rapidly leaves the vascular system and also causes vasodilatation (49, 50). It is not surprising then that there is little benefit in the preterm neonate where capillaries are leaky and excessive vasodilatation is already present. In addition, saline distributes throughout the extracellular space – plasma and interstitial fluid. In the fetus and neonate, the plasma:interstitial volume ratio is decreased, thus decreasing the proportion that would remain in the plasma (51, 52). There is in fact some

evidence that saline may be harmful. In the adult, in addition to vasodilatation, saline infusion leads to acidosis (53, 54). In preterm piglets, saline infusion of 10-30 ml/kg does not improve mean arterial pressure and is associated with increased acidosis and a more negative arterial base excess (Fig 1). It is critical to develop more effective methods of volume expansion in the preterm neonate. Volume expansion with whole blood or packed red cells may, in theory, be more effective than saline. Red blood cells will remain within the circulation and will have the added benefit of increasing the oxygen carrying capacity of the blood. Beneficial effects of delayed cord clamping and placental transfusion support the hypothesis that volume expansion with blood may be more effective than saline (55).

### **Developing New Treatments**

The first step in the development of new treatments to support preterm cardiovascular function is a better understanding of the aetiology of preterm cardiovascular compromise. Is compromised function due to incomplete cardiac maturation, poor control of the peripheral circulation or hypovolemia? It is likely that a combination of these will be present and that factors may differ between individuals. This highlights the need for improved methods to monitor cardiac function, preload, peripheral vascular function and blood volume. Our data in preterm piglets illustrate the futility of using an inappropriate treatment. If the piglet is hypovolemic, treatment with inotropes does not address the real problem. Dopamine and dobutamine have limited effectiveness for increasing mean arterial pressure or cardiac contractility in preterm piglets, but are even less effective when blood volume is reduced (Fig 2). Thus, inotropes cannot restore function that is reduced due to hypovolemia. Perhaps many preterm babies have undetected hypovolemia and this is why their response to inotropes is so poor.

When the aetiology of compromised preterm cardiovascular function is understood, it is critical to apply treatments that target the specific issues. Treatments that promote improved control of the peripheral circulation are essential. Venoconstriction may reduce functional hypovolemia resulting from increased vascular capacity. Preventing hypovolemia will harness the significant preload reserve of the preterm heart and increase cardiac output without inducing excessive afterload. Effective volume expansion may also lead to improved cardiac function through increased preload, and improve outcomes. Treatments must target the unique preterm physiology and not simply assume that the preterm physiology and treatment response is the same as adults, or even older children.

### Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the contribution of Nicole Shrimpton to the collection of data presented in Fig 2.

# References

1. Doyle LW. Evaluation of neonatal intensive care for extremely low birth weight infants in Victoria over two decades: II. Efficiency. Pediatrics. 2004;113(3 Pt 1):510-4.

Moore T, Hennessy EM, Myles J, Johnson SJ, Draper ES, Costeloe KL, et al.
 Neurological and developmental outcome in extremely preterm children born in England in
 1995 and 2006: the EPICure studies. BMJ. 2012;345:e7961.

3. Johnson S, Hennessy E, Smith R, Trikic R, Wolke D, Marlow N. Academic attainment and special educational needs in extremely preterm children at 11 years of age: the EPICure study. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed. 2009;94(4):F283-9.

4. Osborn DA, Evans N, Kluckow M, Bowen JR, Rieger I. Low superior vena cava flow and effect of inotropes on neurodevelopment to 3 years in preterm infants. Pediatrics. 2007;120(2):372-80.

5. Greisen G, Borch K. White matter injury in the preterm neonate: the role of perfusion. Dev Neurosci. 2001;23(3):209-12.

6. Munro MJ, Walker AM, Barfield CP. Hypotensive extremely low birth weight infants have reduced cerebral blood flow. Pediatrics. 2004;114(6):1591-6.

7. Andersen CC, Stark MJ. Haemoglobin transfusion threshold in very preterm newborns: a theoretical framework derived from prevailing oxygen physiology. Med Hypotheses. 2012;78(1):71-4.

 Balegar KK, Stark MJ, Briggs N, Andersen CC. Early cerebral oxygen extraction and the risk of death or sonographic brain injury in very preterm infants. J Pediatr.
 2014;164(3):475-80.e1.

9. Hyttel-Sorensen S, Pellicer A, Alderliesten T, Austin T, van Bel F, Benders M, et al. Cerebral near infrared spectroscopy oximetry in extremely preterm infants: phase II randomised clinical trial. BMJ. 2015;350:g7635.

10. Fyfe KL, Yiallourou SR, Wong FY, Horne RS. The development of cardiovascular and cerebral vascular control in preterm infants. Sleep Med Rev. 2014;18(4):299-310.

11. Batton B, Li L, Newman NS, Das A, Watterberg KL, Yoder BA, et al. Early blood pressure, antihypotensive therapy and outcomes at 18-22 months' corrected age in extremely preterm infants. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed. 2015.

12. Valverde E, Pellicer A, Madero R, Elorza D, Quero J, Cabanas F. Dopamine versus epinephrine for cardiovascular support in low birth weight infants: Analysis of systemic effects and neonatal clinical outcomes. Pediatrics. 2006;117(6):E1213-E22.

13. Osborn DA, Evans N. Early volume expansion for prevention of morbidity and mortality in very preterm infants. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2004;2:CD002055.

14. Osborn DA, Paradisis M, Evans N. The effect of inotropes on morbidity and mortality in preterm infants with low systemic or organ blood flow Cochrane Db Syst Rev.2010;CD005090.

Pellicer A, Bravo MD, Madero R, Salas S, Quero J, Cabanas F. Early Systemic
 Hypotension and Vasopressor Support in Low Birth Weight Infants: Impact on
 Neurodevelopment. Pediatrics. 2009;123(5):1369-76.

16. Kim MY, Eiby YE, Lumbers ER, Wright L, L, Gibson KJ, Barnett AC, et al. Effects of glucocorticoid exposure on growth and structural maturation of the heart of the preterm piglet PLoS One. 2014;Mar 27;9(3):e93407.

17. Burrell JH, Boyn AM, Kumarasamy V, Hsieh A, Head SI, Lumbers ER. Growth and maturation of cardiac myocytes in fetal sheep in the second half of gestation. Anat Rec A Discov Mol Cell Evol Biol. 2003;274(2):952-61.

18. Jonker SS, Giraud MK, Giraud GD, Chattergoon NN, Louey S, Davis LE, et al. Cardiomyocyte enlargement, proliferation and maturation during chronic fetal anaemia in sheep. Exp Physiol. 2010;95(1):131-9.

19. Smolich JJ. Ultrastructural and functional features of the developing mammalian heart: a brief overview. Reprod Fertil Dev. 1995;7(3):451-61.

20. Spencer TN, Botting KJ, Morrison JL, Posterino GS. Contractile and Ca2+-handling properties of the right ventricular papillary muscle in the late-gestation sheep fetus. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2006;101(3):728-33.

21. Posterino GS, Dunn SL, Botting KJ, Wang W, Gentili S, Morrison JL. Changes in cardiac troponins with gestational age explain changes in cardiac muscle contractility in the sheep fetus. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2011;111(1):236-43.

22. Kim MY, Finch AM, Lumbers ER, Boyce AC, Gibson KJ, Eiby YA, et al. Expression of adrenoceptor subtypes in preterm piglet heart is different to term heart. PLoS One. 2014;9(3):e92167.

23. Eiby YA, Shrimpton NY, Wright IM, Lumbers ER, Colditz PB, Duncombe GJ, et al. Inotropes do not increase cardiac output or cerebral blood flow in preterm piglets. Pediatr Res. 2016;80(6):870-9.

24. Ferrara JJ, Dyess DL, Peeples GL, Christenberry DP, Roberts WS, Tacchi EJ, et al. Effects of dopamine and dobutamine on regional blood flow distribution in the neonatal piglet. Ann Surg. 1995;221(5):531-42.

25. Joynt C, Cheung PY. Treating Hypotension in Preterm Neonates With Vasoactive Medications. Front Pediatr. 2018;6:86.

26. Eiby YA, Lumbers ER, Headrick JP, Lingwood BE. Left ventricular output and aortic blood flow in response to changes in preload and afterload in the preterm piglet heart. Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol. 2012;303(7):R769-77.

27. Wassink G, Bennet L, Booth LC, Jensen EC, Wibbens B, Dean JM, et al. The ontogeny of hemodynamic responses to prolonged umbilical cord occlusion in fetal sheep. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2007;103(4):1311-7.

28. Fletcher AJ, Gardner DS, Edwards CM, Fowden AL, Giussani DA. Development of the ovine fetal cardiovascular defense to hypoxemia towards full term. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol. 2006;291(6):H3023-34.

29. Bennet L. Sex, drugs and rock and roll: tales from preterm fetal life. J Physiol.2017;595(6):1865-81.

30. Eiby YA, Lumbers ER, Staunton MP, Wright LL, Colditz PB, Wright IM, et al. Endogenous angiotensins and catecholamines do not reduce skin blood flow or prevent hypotension in preterm piglets. Physiol Rep. 2014;2(12).

response at birth in preterm newborns. Biol Neonate. 1993;64(2-3):82-8. 32. Newnham JP, Marshall CL, Padbury JF, Lam RW, Hobel CJ, Fisher DA. Fetal catecholamine release with preterm delivery. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 1984;149(8):888-93. 33. Stark MJ, Clifton VL, Wright IM. Sex-specific differences in peripheral microvascular blood flow in preterm infants. Pediatr Res. 2008;63(4):415-9. 34. Wu PY, Wong WH, Guerra G, Miranda R, Godoy RR, Preston B, et al. Peripheral blood flow in the neonate; 1. Changes in total, skin, and muscle blood flow with gestational and postnatal age. Pediatr Res. 1980;14(12):1374-8. 35. Kidd L, Levison H, Gemmel P, Aharon A, Swyer PR. Limb blood flow in the normal and sick newborn. A plethysmographic study. Am J Dis Child. 1966;112(5):402-7. 36. Ishiguro A, Sekine T, Suzuki K, Kurishima C, Ezaki S, Kunikata T, et al. Changes in skin and subcutaneous perfusion in very-low-birth-weight infants during the transitional period. Neonatology. 2011;100(2):162-8.

31.

37. Buckley NM, Brazeau P, Gootman PM. Maturation of circulatory responses to adrenergic stimuli. Fed Proc. 1983;42(6):1643-7.

38. Shaul PW, Magness RR, Muntz KH, DeBeltz D, Buja LM. Alpha 1-adrenergic receptors in pulmonary and systemic vascular smooth muscle. Alterations with development and pregnancy. Circ Res. 1990;67(5):1193-200.

Mehandru PL, Assel BG, Nuamah IF, Fanaroff AA, Kalhan SC. Catecholamine

39. Dyson RM, Palliser HK, Latter JL, Kelly MA, Chwatko G, Glowacki R, et al. Interactions of the gasotransmitters contribute to microvascular tone (dys)regulation in the preterm neonate. PLoS One. 2015;10(3):e0121621.

40. Dyson RM, Palliser HK, Latter JL, Chwatko G, Glowacki R, Wright IM. A role for H2S in the microcirculation of newborns: the major metabolite of H2S (thiosulphate) is increased in preterm infants. PLoS One. 2014;9(8):e105085.

41. Burrell JH, Hegarty BD, McMullen JR, Lumbers ER. Effects of gestation on ovine fetal and maternal angiotensin receptor subtypes in the heart and major blood vessels. Exp Physiol. 2001;86(1):71-82.

42. Stark MJ, Clifton VL, Wright IM. Microvascular flow, clinical illness severity and cardiovascular function in the preterm infant. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed. 2008;93(4):F271-4.

43. Kent AL, Wright IM, Abdel-Latif ME. Mortality and adverse neurologic outcomes are greater in preterm male infants. Pediatrics. 2012;129(1):124-31.

44. Dyson RM, Palliser HK, Lakkundi A, de Waal K, Latter JL, Clifton VL, et al. Early microvascular changes in the preterm neonate: a comparative study of the human and guinea pig. Physiol Rep. 2014;2(9).

45. Ziegler EE, O'Donnell AM, Nelson SE, Fomon SJ. Body composition of the reference fetus. Growth. 1976;40(4):329-41.

46. Clark AC, Gairdner D. Postnatal plasma shift in premature infants. Arch Dis Child.1960;35:352-4.

47. Steele MW. Plasma volume changes in the neonate. Am J Dis Child. 1962;103:10-8.
48. Eiby YA, Shrimpton NY, Wright IMR, Lumbers ER, Colditz PB, Duncombe GJ, et
al. Reduced blood volume decreases cerebral blood flow in preterm piglets. J Physiol.
2018;Epub ahead of print Jun 19.

49. Martini WZ, Cortez DS, Dubick MA. Comparisons of normal saline and lactated Ringer's resuscitation on hemodynamics, metabolic responses, and coagulation in pigs after severe hemorrhagic shock. Scand J Trauma Resusc Emerg Med. 2013;21:86.

50. Phillips CR, Vinecore K, Hagg DS, Sawai RS, Differding JA, Watters JM, et al. Resuscitation of haemorrhagic shock with normal saline vs. lactated Ringer's: effects on oxygenation, extravascular lung water and haemodynamics. Crit Care. 2009;13(2):R30.

51. Gibson KJ, Lumbers ER. Extracellular volume and blood volume in chronically catheterized fetal sheep. J Physiol. 1995;485 (Pt 3):835-44.

52. Bauer K, Bovermann G, Roithmaier A, Gotz M, Proiss A, Versmold HT. Body composition, nutrition, and fluid balance during the first two weeks of life in preterm neonates weighing less than 1500 grams. J Pediatr. 1991;118(4 Pt 1):615-20.

53. Reddi BA. Why is saline so acidic (and does it really matter?). Int J Med Sci.2013;10(6):747-50.

54. Ross SW, Christmas AB, Fischer PE, Holway H, Walters AL, Seymour R, et al. Impact of common crystalloid solutions on resuscitation markers following Class I hemorrhage: A randomized control trial. J Trauma Acute Care Surg. 2015;79(5):732-40.

55. Backes CH, Rivera BK, Haque U, Bridge JA, Smith CV, Hutchon DJ, et al. Placental transfusion strategies in very preterm neonates: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Obstet Gynecol. 2014;124(1):47-56.

#### **Figure Legends**

Figure 1: Mean arterial pressure (MAP), arterial pH and base excess (ABE) in untreated (n=3) and saline infused (n=4) preterm piglets on the first day of life at 97d gestation (equivalent to approximately 27 human weeks, piglet term is 115d). All piglets had mean arterial pressure <27mmHg at baseline. Saline treated piglets received three infusions of 10 ml/kg of 0.9% saline over a total of 3h following baseline measurements. All measurements were repeated 4 hours after baseline. At 4 hours, MAP (Student's t test, P=0.024), pH and ABE (arterial base excess) (both Mann-Whitney U test, P=0.034) were significantly lower in saline treated piglets than in untreated piglets. \* indicates significant difference between untreated and saline treated piglets (P<0.05).

Figure 2: Mean arterial pressure and cardiac contractility in term (115d) and preterm (97d) piglets during baseline, low dose ( $10\mu g/kg/min$ ) and high dose ( $20\mu g/kg/min$ ) dopamine or dobutamine treatment and in the presence of normovolemia and hypovolemia. N = 6-10 piglets per group at each data point. Inotropes have minimal effects in normovolemic preterm piglets but are less effective when preterm piglets are hypovolemic. In the presence of hypovolemia, inotropic treatment is less likely to lead to normal function than inotropic treatment in the presence of normovolemia. \* indicates a significant difference between normovolemia and hypovolemia conditions at a given dose (P<0.05).



