Fetal oxygen and glucose consumption in human pregnancy complicated by fetal growth

restriction

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1 Abstract

2 In healthy pregnancy, glucose and oxygen availability are essential for fetal growth and wellbeing. 3 However, how substrate delivery and fetal uptake are affected in human pregnancy complicated 4 by fetal growth restriction (FGR) is still unknown. Here we show that the human FGR fetus has a 5 strikingly reduced umbilical uptake of both oxygen and glucose. In 30 healthy term and 32 FGR 6 human pregnancies umbilical volume flow (Qumb) and parallel umbilical vein (uv) and artery (ua) 7 blood samples were obtained at elective Caesarean section to calculate fetal glucose and oxygen 8 uptake as Qumb • Δ (uv-ua) differences. Umbilical blood flow was significantly lower in FGR 9 pregnancy (-63%, P<0.001) but not when normalized for fetal body weight. FGR pregnancy had 10 significantly lower umbilical oxygen delivery and uptake, both as absolute values (delivery: -78%; 11 uptake: -78%) and normalized (delivery: -50%; uptake: -48%) for fetal body weight (all P<0.001). 12 Umbilical glucose absolute delivery and uptake were significantly reduced (delivery: -68%; 13 uptake: -72%) but only glucose uptake was decreased when normalized for fetal body weight (-14 30%, P<0.05). The glucose/oxygen quotient was significantly increased (+100%, P<0.05) while 15 glucose clearance was significantly decreased (71%, P<0.001) in FGR pregnancy (both P<0.05). 16 The human fetus in FGR pregnancy triggers compensatory mechanisms to reduce its metabolic 17 rate, matching the proportion of substrate consumption relative to oxygen delivery as a survival 18 strategy during complicated pregnancy.

Key words: fetus, oxygen consumption, glucose consumption, oxygen delivery, glucose delivery,
FGR

21 Introduction

22 Fetal growth restriction (FGR) is associated with poor placentation and incomplete remodeling of 23 the uteroplacental spiral arteries (1). This implies reduction of utero-placental blood flow, thereby 24 impairing oxygen and substrate delivery to the fetus and slowing its growth trajectory (2). 25 Progressive severity of FGR based on increased utero-placental vascular resistance and fetal heart 26 rate trace abnormalities is associated with increasing fetal hypoxia and potential fetal brain 27 damage (3,4). Individuals who are born following FGR are known to be at increased risk of 28 cardiovascular diseases (5). This is likely due to fetal metabolic adaptations essential to allow fetal 29 survival within the adverse intrauterine environment, but also increases the risk of pathology in 30 the offspring in later life. However, the nature of these fetal compensatory metabolic adaptations 31 in FGR pregnancy remains very unclear, particularly for the human fetus.

32 Fetal conversion of energy into mass can most easily be determined by measurement of the rate of 33 fetal oxygen uptake (6). Since there is no long-term storage of oxygen, its uptake and utilization 34 are almost identical over short periods of time. Over the years, the chronically catheterized 35 pregnant sheep model has permitted the estimation of fetal oxygen consumption by measuring the 36 rate of umbilical blood flow together with the umbilical venous-arterial difference in oxygen 37 content (7). Similarly, glucose uptakes have been measured in the pregnant sheep model (7) and 38 recently in human pregnancy (8). Glucose represents the most important fetal nutrient and in 39 human pregnancies the glucose/oxygen quotient has revealed that the utilization of glucose 40 accounts for approximately 80% of oxygen uptake (9).

More recently, the technical improvement in the accuracy of measurement of umbilical venous blood flow in the human fetus from the second half of gestation (10; 11) has made it possible to estimate the fetal uptake of oxygen in human pregnancy (12). However, for human pregnancy, any information on fetal oxygen consumption in complicated pregnancy is still very limited compared with measurements in normal pregnancies at term. Further, no information exists for theconsumption of glucose in the human fetus.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine changes in the umbilical uptake of both
oxygen and glucose in human fetuses of FGR compared to healthy term pregnancy. The study
tested the hypothesis that the human fetus in FGR pregnancy reduces its metabolic rate, changing
the proportion of substrate consumption relative to oxygen.

51 Methods

52 The study was performed at the Department of Mother and Child of the Luigi Sacco Hospital and 53 at the Department of Mother, Child and Neonate "L. Mangiagalli". The protocol of the study was 54 approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Milan. Informed consent was 55 obtained from all pregnant women prior to inclusion in the study.

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author uponreasonable request.

Study population. Thirty healthy control pregnancies (Controls) and thirty-two pregnancies complicated by fetal FGR were studied at the time of elective Caesarean section. Gestational age was calculated from the last menstrual period and confirmed by routine ultrasonography performed between 11 and 13 weeks. Exclusion criteria were maternal chronic diseases, gestational diabetes, alcohol abuse, drug addiction, any maternal therapy interfering with fetal growth, labour, abnormal fetal karyotype, and fetal malformations or infections. All pregnancies were singleton and none of the women smoked during pregnancy.

Controls: Normal healthy pregnancies were studied at term (37-41 weeks of gestation). All
patients had a normal pre gravid Body Mass Index (Table 1) and none had medical or obstetric

pathologies. Indications for Caesarean section were breech presentation (n = 9), maternal request
(n = 11) and repeat Caesarean section (n = 10). None of the babies showed signs of distress at
delivery. Neonatal weight was appropriate for gestational age according to Italian standards for
birth weight and gestational age (13).

71 FGR: Fetuses with FGR were identified by ultrasound through repeated longitudinal measurements 72 that demonstrated a reduction in fetal growth velocity. FGR was defined by measurements of abdominal circumferences below the 10th percentile of reference values for fetuses of similar ages 73 74 (14), together with a shift in the growth curve by greater than 40 centiles (14). This definition is 75 now also included in a recent consensus document (15). None of the fetuses were affected with 76 abnormal karyotype, genetic syndromes, viral infection or major malformations. FGR was 77 confirmed at birth by neonatal weight below the 10th percentile according to Italian standards for 78 birth weight and gestational age (16).

FGR pregnancies were further classified into three groups, according to increasing severity, which were defined by Doppler velocimetry of the umbilical artery and by fetal heart rate tracings (FHR), as previously described (3). Type 1 FGR showed both normal pulsatility index (PI) and FHR (n = 14); Type 2 FGR showed abnormal PI and normal FHR (n = 7). Type 3 FGR showed both abnormal PI and abnormal FHR (n = 11). All pregnancies complicated by FGR underwent a Caesarean section in the interest of the mother and the fetus, according to our clinical protocol, and none were in labour.

Study protocol. On the day of study, umbilical blood flow measurements were taken by ultrasound before the induction of anaesthesia, as previously described (12). All patients underwent spinal anaesthesia and none had any secondary effects, such as maternal hypotension. We previously reported no significant differences in mean umbilical venous blood flow measured before and after 90 the induction of anaesthesia in control pregnancies (12). Umbilical arterial and venous blood
91 samples were withdrawn from a doubly clamped segment of the cord. Placentas were cleaned from
92 excess blood and weighed after removing fetal membranes and the umbilical cord.

93 **Umbilical blood flow measurement**. All ultrasound exams were performed using a 5 MHz convex 94 probe (Voluson 730 Expert-GE Medical Systems), as previously described (17). Briefly, cross-95 sectional area (cm²) of the umbilical vein was determined on a free-loop of the umbilical cord by 96 tracing the inner circumference of the vessel (17). The time-averaged peak velocity was measured 97 positioning the Doppler sample volume in the maximum velocity spot on a longitudinal vessel view. 98 Umbilical vein mean velocity was calculated as (time-averaged maximum velocity) • 0.5, assuming 99 a parabolic velocity profile (17). The average of three consecutive measurements of the above 100 variables was calculated. Umbilical venous blood flow (Q_{umb}) was calculated as: Q_{umb} (ml.min⁻¹) = 101 mean velocity (cm.sec⁻¹) • vessel area (cm²) • 60 (17).

Oxygenation and metabolic data. Both umbilical venous (uv) and arterial (ua) blood were immediately sampled from a doubly clamped segment of the cord. All samples were collected in heparinized syringes that were sealed and stored on ice. Blood gases (pO_2 and pCO_2), pH, haemoglobin concentration and O_2 saturation, lactate and glucose concentrations were measured using a GEM Premier 3000 portable system (Instrumentation Laboratory). Oxygen (O_2) Content was calculated as: Oxygen (O_2) Content (mmol/l) = Haemoglobin (g/l) • O_2 saturation (%) • 0.05982.

109 **Calculations**. Umbilical O₂ uptake was calculated according to the Fick principle:

110 Umbilical O₂ Uptake (μ mol·min⁻¹) = Q_{umb} (ml·min⁻¹) • D (uv-ua) O₂ Content (mmol·l⁻¹)

111 Q_{umb} adjusted to individual neonatal weights (Q_{umb} ·Kg⁻¹) was also calculated (μ mol·min⁻¹·Kg⁻¹).

112 Fetal O₂ delivery and the coefficient of fetal O₂ extraction were respectively calculated as:

113 Fetal O₂ delivery (mmol·min⁻¹) = Q_{umb} (ml·min⁻¹) • uv O₂ Content (mmol·l⁻¹)/1000

114 Fetal O_2 extraction (%) = [D (uv-ua)/uv] O_2 Content • 100

- 115 Glucose/O₂ metabolic quotient was calculated as:
- 116 [D (uv-ua) glucose concentration (mmol·l⁻¹) / D (uv-ua) O₂ Content (mmol·l⁻¹)] 6
- 117 Umbilical Glucose delivery and Uptake were calculated as for oxygen.
- 118 Fetal glucose clearance (ml·min⁻¹) = Umbilical Glucose Uptake (μmol·min⁻¹) / umbilical arterial
- 119 glucose concentration (mmol·l⁻¹).

120 Statistical analysis

121 Data are presented as mean ± standard error (SE). The coefficient of variation for mean umbilical 122 venous volume flow was 8.1%, as previously reported (17). Differences between groups were 123 assessed using the Student's t test for independent-samples, with applied correction when equality 124 of variances assumption was violated (Levene's test). Differences among variables, according to 125 severity of FGR, were compared by One-way ANOVA, with an appropriate *post-hoc* test. 126 Correlations describing the strength and direction of the relationships between two variables were 127 assessed using the Pearson Product-Moment correlation. Linear regression analyses were 128 performed by the least squares method. Umbilical blood flow, O_2 and glucose utilization were also 129 compared statistically using a General Linear Model (GLM) test with repeated measures when 130 appropriate. For all comparisons, a p value < 0.05 was considered significant. All tests were 131 performed using the statistical package SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics, v. 21.00, Armonk, NY).

132

133 Results

Maternal and fetal characteristics for Control and FGR are presented in Table 1. Maternal age, BMI
and the fetal sex ratio were not significantly different between groups. Gestational age, neonatal
and placental weight and the feto/placental weight ratio were significantly lower in the FGR group.

When the weight of fetuses of Control pregnancy was estimated at the corresponding mean gestational age at delivery for FGR fetuses (32.7 weeks) (Est FW ^{32.7wks}), fetuses of FGR pregnancy remained significantly lighter (Est FW ^{32.7wks}, Control: 2083.2 ± 69.8 g vs. FGR: 1313.3 ± 90.2 g, p<0.001). When considering the severity of FGR, no significant differences were found for maternal characteristics between FGR 1, FGR 2 and FGR 3 (data not shown).

Gestational age, and fetal and placental weight were significantly lower in FGR 2 and 3 compared
to FGR 1 (Table S1 in the online-only Data Supplement). However, no significant differences in fetal
characteristics were found between FGR 2 and FGR 3 (data not shown). Therefore, for further
analysis, severity groups for FGR 2 and 3 were combined.

Umbilical oxygenation and blood lactate levels. Umbilical venous and arterial values for pH, pO₂, pCO₂, SatO₂, Hb, O₂ Content, glucose and lactate concentrations are presented in Table S2 in the online-only Data Supplement. Compared to Controls, fetuses of human FGR pregnancy showed lower values for umbilical vein and artery pH, pO₂, SatO₂, O₂ Content and uv glucose concentration, as well as higher values for umbilical vein and artery pCO₂, lactate and ua Hb. Significant differences were observed between FGR 1 and FGR 2+3 for umbilical artery pH and lactate, and umbilical vein lactate concentration (Table S3).

153 **Umbilical blood flow measurements.** Both mean umbilical venous cross-sectional area and mean 154 umbilical blood flow velocity were significantly lower in fetuses of FGR compared to Control 155 pregnancy. Therefore, calculated mean umbilical blood flow was also significantly lower for fetuses 156 of FGR relative to Control pregnancy (Table 2) and with increasing FGR severity (Table S4). 157 However, when umbilical blood flow was normalized for fetal weight, there were no differences 158 between Control and FGR and no differences were found according to the severity of FGR (Table 2 159 and S4). Umbilical blood flow was positively related to gestational age, placental weight and fetal 160 weight in all groups, showing FGR 2+3 fetuses to the left of the relationship, FGR 1 in the middle

and Control fetuses to the right of the relationship (Figure 1 A-C).

162 Umbilical O₂ delivery, uptake and extraction. Fetal O₂ delivery resulted significantly lower in
 163 FGR compared to Control pregnancy, also when normalized for fetal body weight (Table 2).

164 Since the mean values of umbilical veno-arterial O₂ Content decreased in FGR, **umbilical O₂ uptake**

165 was significantly lower in FGR compared to Control, either when expressed as absolute values or

166 when normalized for fetal body weight. Assuming constant umbilical oxygen consumption/kg, the

167 calculated umbilical O₂ uptake/kg at 32.7 weeks (FW ^{32.7wks}) for fetuses of Control pregnancy was

168 398.8 \pm 38.4 compared to 126.5 \pm 18.3 μ mol·min⁻¹·kg⁻¹ in the FGR group, reflecting a reduction of

169 ca. 68% in FGR pregnancy.

Values for oxygen delivery and uptake per kg body weight were also significantly lower when
FGR 1 and FGR 2+3 fetuses were separately compared to Controls, with no significant difference
between the two FGR groups (Figure 2 A-B).

The average coefficient of **fetal O₂ extraction** was similar in fetuses of Control and FGR pregnancy
(Table 2) and there was no significant relationship between fetal O₂ extraction and delivery in
fetuses of Control or FGR pregnancy (Figure 3A).

176 However, for both Control and FGR pregnancies, a significant negative correlation between fetal O_2 177 extraction and umbilical artery pO_2 was found, meaning fetuses with lower pO_2 values in the 178 umbilical artery extracted more O_2 (Figure 3B).

179 No significant difference was observed for any of the above parameters in relation to fetal sex.

Umbilical glucose delivery, uptake, clearance and metabolic quotient. Glucose concentration in the umbilical vein, fetal glucose delivery and mean umbilical veno-arterial glucose concentration difference were significantly lower in fetuses of FGR compared to Control pregnancy (Table 2 and Table S2 in the on line-only Data Supplement). When FGR fetuses were evaluated according to severity, significant differences persisted for glucose concentration in the umbilical 185 vein and for fetal glucose delivery (Table S3 and S4). Fetal glucose delivery per kg body weight was 186 not significantly different in FGR compared to Controls (Table 2) nor when different severity 187 groups of FGR were considered (Table S4). Umbilical **glucose uptake** was significantly lower in 188 fetuses of FGR compared to Control pregnancy, either when expressed as absolute values or when 189 normalized for fetal body weight (Table 2). When evaluated according to FGR severity, umbilical 190 glucose uptake was significantly different among the 3 groups but this difference was not 191 significant when normalized for fetal weight (Table S4). Fetal glucose clearance was also 192 significantly decreased in fetuses of FGR pregnancy compared to Controls (Table 2). When 193 evaluated according to severity, FGR 1 and FGR 2+3 had significantly lower fetal glucose clearance 194 compared with Controls but the difference was not significant between the two groups of FGR 195 (Table S4). The **glucose/O**₂ **metabolic quotient** was significantly increased in fetuses of FGR 196 compared to Controls (Table 2). When analyzed according to FGR severity, one-way ANOVA 197 comparisons revealed no significant difference between FGR groups (Table S4). Significant positive 198 relationships occurred between umbilical glucose uptake and umbilical oxygen uptake normalized 199 for fetal body weight (Figure 4A), and between umbilical glucose uptake and umbilical oxygen 200 delivery (Figure 4B) in all fetuses, independent of Control or FGR pregnancy, with no significant 201 differences between the two groups.

202 No significant difference was observed for any of the above parameters in relation to fetal sex.

203 Discussion

In the present study, we found significantly lower umbilical venous and umbilical veno-arterial pO₂
 differences, with O₂ delivery and utilization decreased by 50% in growth-restricted human fetuses.
 We also report significantly lower umbilical venous and umbilical veno-arterial glucose differences,

207 together with a significant reduction of approximately 1/3 in umbilical glucose uptake in FGR 208 compared with healthy term pregnancy. These novel data support the hypothesis tested in this 209 study that the human fetus in FGR pregnancy triggers compensatory mechanisms to reduce its 210 metabolic rate, decreasing the proportion of substrate consumption relative to oxygen delivery as 211 a survival strategy.

Oxygen delivery and consumption. Since fetal growth is accompanied by a progressive increase in both the fetal demand and the placental supply of nutrients with advancing gestation, it is striking that fetal oxygen consumption is significantly reduced on a per kg body weight basis in human FGR compared to fetuses of Control pregnancy, in spite of very low oxygen delivery rates,

and increased levels of mitochondrial content in placenta and cord blood (18,19).

217 These data are novel for human pregnancy and are in good agreement with data obtained from 218 experimental animal models of FGR. In an ovine hyperthermic pregnancy model of FGR, Regnault 219 et al. (20) reported a 25% reduction in fetal oxygen uptake and also suggested that placental 220 oxygen utilization may represent a limiting step in fetal growth restriction, restricting oxygen 221 delivery to the fetus (20). Similarly, we have previously reported an increase in the uterine-222 umbilical oxygen gradient in human FGR pregnancy (21), together with increased placental 223 mitochondrial DNA content and changes in the mitochondrial function of cytotrophoblast and 224 mesenchymal stromal cells in FGR pregnancy (18;22), confirming that placental oxygen 225 consumption may have a limiting role in the delivery of oxygen to the fetus.

Although growth restriction will likely limit long term survival, it seems to provide opportunities for metabolic compensations, which increase hypoxia tolerance (23). This is similar to what happens in small immature neonates that are able to reduce their oxygen demand in response to impaired supply, a condition known as "hypoxic hypometabolism" (24).

230 The present data and results reported by Regnault *et al.* (20) are different from data reported by

231 Zamudio *et al.* (25) in a comprehensive study of human pregnancy at high altitude. They reported 232 that human fetuses during high altitude pregnancy were able to extract sufficient oxygen to result 233 in similar fetal oxygen delivery and consumption rates. In an experimental study (26), growth 234 restricted ovine fetuses obtained by reduction in uterine blood flow were normoxic and 235 normoglycemic, i.e. showing an adaptive response to the reduced uterine blood flow. These data 236 illustrate differential fetal strategies to withstand reductions in oxygenation of varying magnitude. 237 The chronic fetal hypoxia at high altitude is likely much milder compared to the significant chronic 238 fetal hypoxia associated with severe FGR. Therefore, the capacity of the human fetus to extract 239 oxygen to maintain oxygen delivery as an adequate compensatory response may have a threshold 240 set by the severity of impaired oxygenation, beyond which it must also recruit reduced oxygen 241 consumption as a survival strategy to maintain viability.

242 Glucose consumption and metabolic quotient. Additional data in the present study show 243 reduced glucose consumption in the FGR human fetus, even when correcting for fetal body weight. 244 These data are also consistent with results from an ovine model of hyperthermic fetal growth 245 restriction, that reported a reduced substrate uptake as a consequence of decreased fetal oxidative 246 metabolism, and thereby lower fetal substrate demand (27). In human high altitude pregnancy, 247 Zamudio, Illsley and colleagues also reported that the preferential anaerobic placental 248 consumption of glucose spares oxygen but limits glucose availability for fetal growth (28). In a 249 recent paper, Michelsen et al employed a four-vessel sampling technique in term human 250 pregnancies and showed that uteroplacental glucose uptake correlates with placental glucose 251 consumption which modulates maternal to fetal glucose transfer and fetal glucose consumption 252 such that high placental use of glucose limits fetal glucose delivery and consumption (8).

Interestingly, in the present study, while umbilical glucose uptake corrected for fetal body weight
was significantly lower in FGR fetuses, the glucose/oxygen metabolic quotient was increased in

255 FGR pregnancy. This is consistent with human (29) and experimental animal data (30) in FGR 256 pregnancy that show a reduced glucose transport capacity proportionally lower than the rates of 257 placental and fetal glucose utilization (29, 30). These findings combined suggest that the utilization 258 of glucose also depends on the availability of oxygen, which is reduced in the FGR fetus. This is 259 confirmed in the present study by the significant positive relationship between fetal glucose 260 consumption and oxygen uptake per kg body weight, irrespective of healthy or complicated 261 pregnancy. In addition, in the present study, values for fetal glucose clearance, the rate at which 262 fetal metabolism clears glucose from the fetal circulation, was significantly reduced in fetuses from 263 FGR compared to those of control pregnancy. This would tend to increase the fetal maternal ratio 264 for glucose, possibly further contributing to impaired glucose placental transfer in human FGR 265 pregnancy.

266 Impact of decreased oxygen and glucose metabolism in the human FGR fetus. The human FGR 267 fetus is likely to be delivered much earlier than at term, when higher fetal metabolic rates are 268 expected due to the higher rates of protein synthesis when fetal growth demands are maximal (31). 269 In addition, the FGR fetus is likely to trigger a circulatory brain sparing effect, in relation to chronic 270 fetal hypoxia, preferentially redistributing oxygen and glucose delivery to the central nervous 271 system (32). However, considering that glucose is the main substrate utilized by the fetal brain, and 272 that the fetus is not able to increase its own blood glucose concentration by glucogenesis (33), the 273 fetal brain, with proportionally higher nutritional demands, may be particularly affected by these 274 reductions in oxygen and glucose availability.

Placental transfer of other relevant energy sources, such as amino acids and lipids, has also been
shown to be altered in FGR (2), further reducing fetal nutrient availability.

Study Limitations. Limitations are mostly inherent to the impossibility of complete
standardization of the experimental conditions in the human clinical situation. The first is related

279 to the estimation of umbilical blood flow by Doppler velocimetry. A second limitation is the 280 potential confounding effects of anesthesia on the maternal cardiovascular physiology. Finally, 281 differences in gestational age between Control and FGR human pregnancies could also limit the 282 interpretation of results. This potential bias is difficult to overcome in human pregnancy, since 283 preterm delivery of babies from compromised FGR pregnancy is needed to prevent potential severe 284 morbidity and/or intrauterine demise. Potential 'control' subjects delivered prematurely are not 285 likely to be "electively" delivered by cesarean section (in the absence of labor) and their clinical 286 condition would also introduce other confounding factors.

287 Experimental animal models suggest that fetal metabolism is higher in the preterm compared to 288 the term fetus, likely associated with accelerated rates of protein synthesis (34,35). In the present 289 study, although we did not find significant differences in umbilical oxygen or glucose consumption 290 in human FGR fetuses of different severity, we cannot exclude that differences may have been 291 masked by the differences in gestational age between FGR groups. However, if we were able to 292 correct for gestational age by using the mean flow value reported for 31 weeks in healthy 293 pregnancy (36), multiplied by the mean umbilical veno-arterial O₂ or glucose difference measured 294 in our term fetuses from Control pregnancy, the hypothetical, "corrected for gestational-age" values 295 would make the difference between fetuses of Control and FGR human pregnancy even more 296 striking. Therefore, the potential error in this study is likely in the under-estimation of differences 297 between human infants of Control and FGR pregnancy related to oxygen and glucose umbilical 298 uptake.

Perspective. We provide novel insight into the nature of fetal metabolic compensations in human pregnancy complicated by FGR. The human FGR fetus shows a strikingly reduced umbilical uptake of both oxygen and of glucose independent of fetal body weight. Therefore, the human fetus in FGR pregnancy triggers compensatory mechanisms to reduce its metabolic rate, matching glucose 303 consumption to glucose delivery in relation to oxygen availability.

304

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313 **Conflict of interest statement:**

314 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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317 Novelty and Significance

- 318 *1. What Is New*
- 319 the human FGR fetus has a strikingly reduced umbilical delivery of both oxygen and glucose

- umbilical oxygen and glucose delivery and uptake are reduced both as absolute values and normalized
for fetal body weight

- 322 The glucose/oxygen quotient is significantly increased while glucose clearance is significantly
 323 decreased in FGR pregnancies
- 324 2. What Is Relevant?

- this study highlights potential compensatory intrauterine mechanisms predisposing to metabolic
syndrome and hypertension in later life

327 *3. Summary*

- The human FGR fetus triggers compensatory mechanisms to reduce its metabolic rate, matching the proportion of substrate consumption relative to oxygen delivery as a survival strategy

Figure 1. Relationship between umbilical venous blood flow and gestational age (A), placental
weight (B) and fetal weight (C) in Control (white rhombuses) and FGR human pregnancy according
to severity (FGR1: grey squares; FGR 2+3: black triangles).

332 **Figure 2**. Fetal O₂ delivery/kg and umbilical O₂ uptake/kg in Control (white) and FGR human 333 pregnancy according to severity (FGR1, grey; FGR 2+3, black). (A) Fetal O_2 delivery/kg; (B) 334 umbilical O₂ uptake/kg. Bars represent mean ± SEM. p<0.001 for umbilical oxygen delivery per-335 kg: F (2, 57) = 7.9. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test: mean score for the Control 336 group $(0.35 \pm 0.03 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1})$ significantly different from both FGR 1 $(0.19 \pm 0.04 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$ 337 ¹·kg⁻¹) and FGR 2+3 (0.17 ± 0.04 mmol·min⁻¹·kg⁻¹). FGR 1 not significantly different from FGR 2+3. 338 p<0.001 for umbilical oxygen uptake per-kg: F (2, 55) = 8.5. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey 339 HSD test: mean score for the Control group (248.1 \pm 21.9 μ mol·min⁻¹·kg⁻¹) significantly different from both FGR 1 (138.3 ± 32.7 μ mol·min⁻¹·kg⁻¹) and FGR 2+3 (123.1 ± 20.5 μ mol·min⁻¹·kg⁻¹). FGR 340 341 1 not significantly different from FGR 2+3.

Figure 3. Relationship between umbilical O₂ extraction and fetal O₂ delivery (A) and between
umbilical O₂ extraction and umbilical artery pO₂ (B) in Controls (white) and FGR (black) human
pregnancy. Linear regression lines refer to controls (solid) and to FGR (broken). The slope and
intercept of regression lines for controls and FGR pregnancies are not significantly different.

Figure 4. (A) Relationships between umbilical glucose uptake/kg and umbilical O₂ uptake/kg and
(B) between umbilical glucose uptake/kg and fetal O₂ delivery in Controls (white) and FGR (black)
human pregnancy. The slope and intercept of regression lines for controls and FGR pregnancies are
not significantly different. Linear regression lines refer to the total population.

Variable	Controls (n=30)	FGR (n=32)	p value
Maternal age (years)	35.3 ± 0.7	35.3 ± 1.1	n.s.
Body mass index (Kg/m²)	21.1 ± 0.4	22.3± 0.8	n.s.
Gestational age at birth (weeks)	38.8± 0.1	32.7 ± 0.5	p<0.001
Neonatal weight (g)	3340.8 ± 52.9	1313.3 ± 90.2	p<0.001
Neonatal weight centile (°)	50.6 ± 3.0	7.3 ± 0.8	p<0.001
Placental weight (g)	520.0 ± 23.7	252.1 ± 20.1	p<0.001
Feto/placental ratio	6.6 ± 0.2	5.6 ± 0.3	p<0.01

 Table 1. Maternal and fetal characteristics for control and FGR pregnancies.

Fetal sex	17 / 13	17 / 15	n.s.
(female/male)			

Values are presented as mean ± SE

Independent-samples *t*-test: FGR vs controls: n.s. not significant

Table 2. Umbilical blood flow,	O ₂ and glucose utilization in	control and FGR fetuses.
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Variable	Controls (n=30)	FGR (n=32)	p value
uv flow (ml·min ^{·1})	263.3 ± 15.8	98.2 ± 10.9	p< 0.001
uv flow/Kg (ml·min ^{-1.} Kg ⁻¹)	78.4 ± 4.3	74.8 ± 5.6	n.s.
O₂ delivery (µmol∙min ⁻¹)	1182.5 ± 117.8	254.8 ± 45.3	p< 0.001
O₂ delivery/Kg (µmol∙min ⁻¹ ∙Kg ⁻¹)	354.9 ± 35.1	179.7 ± 26.1	p< 0.001
O2 cont D (uv-ua) (mmol·l ⁻¹)	3.1 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.2	p< 0.001

umb O2 uptake (µmol·min ⁻¹)	808.5 ± 70.6	181.9 ± 35.3	p< 0.001
umb O2 uptake/Kg (µmol·min ⁻¹ ·Kg ⁻¹)	243.1 ± 21.7	126.5 ± 18.3	p< 0.001
Fetal O2 extraction	71.0 ± 2.8	70.7 ± 4.2	ns
Glucose delivery (µmol∙min ⁻¹)	942.1 ± 70.6	305.8 ± 35.1	p< 0.001
Glucose delivery/kg (µmol·min ^{-1.} Kg ⁻¹)	281.6 ± 18.5	237.4 ± 20.7	ns
Glucose D (uv-ua) (mmol·l ⁻¹)	0.79 ± 0.06	0.61 ± 0.05	p<0.05

umb glucose uptake (µmol·min [.] ¹)	210.9 ± 23.4	58.6 ± 9.3	p<0.001
umb glucose uptake/kg (µmol·min ⁻¹ ·Kg ⁻¹)	63.2 ± 6.7	44.1 ± 4.9	p<0.05
Glucose clearance (ml·min ⁻¹)	81.84 ± 11.13	24.12 ± 3.71	p<0.001
glucose D (uv-ua) / O2 cont D (uv-ua)	0.27 ± 0.03	0.57 ± 0.11	p<0.05
Glucose/O2 metabolic quotient	1.65 ±0.18	3.45 ± 0.70	p<0.05

Values are presented as mean ± SE

Unpaired *t* test and GLM FGR *vs.* controls: n.s. not significant









