

## Labouring on decelerations: The fetal peripheral chemoreflex wins

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1 Recordings of fetal heart rate provide the clinician with the only non-invasive tool to  
2 continuously monitor fetal wellbeing during labour. By far, the most debated component of  
3 fetal heart rate monitoring during labour is the significance of fetal heart rate decelerations,  
4 which almost invariably occur in association with uterine contractions. Over the years,  
5 proposed possible triggers for these reductions in fetal heart rate have included fetal head  
6 compression, baroreflexes, chemoreflexes, Bezold-Jarisch reflexes and/or myocardial  
7 depression. In this issue of the *Journal of Physiology*, Lear and colleagues (2016) propose  
8 that a unified understanding of the physiology underlying intrapartum fetal heart  
9 decelerations is critical to improve their interpretation. The review reminds us that normal  
10 labour is associated with intermittent interruptions of uteroplacental gas exchange, such that  
11 "technically" all babies experience some sort of asphyxia to a certain extent during labour.  
12 Although intrapartum fetal asphyxia is a term that is often avoided clinically, as it conjures  
13 thoughts of injury, it is a biochemical reality and it useful for clinicians to understand the  
14 parameters underlying it. Reviewing and evaluating the available literature, Lear and  
15 colleagues (2016) suggest that, on balance, typical intrapartum decelerations are most likely  
16 the result of transient episodes of fetal hypoxia or fetal asphyxia and the consequent  
17 activation of the fetal peripheral chemoreflex response

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19 Historical experiments on the regulation of heart rate responses under hypoxic conditions in  
20 the adult individual, reported more than half a century ago, may shed additional light on the  
21 control of fetal heart rate during labour. In the early 1960's, Daly and Scott performed

22 classical experiments on anaesthetised dogs, which revealed an important interaction between  
23 ventilatory and cardiovascular responses mediated by the peripheral chemoreceptors. In very  
24 simple terms, they induced a chemoreflex by isolating both carotid bifurcation regions and  
25 perfusing them with hypoxic blood in dogs that were either mechanically ventilated or  
26 allowed to breathe spontaneously. Importantly, the carotid sinus pressure, measured with a  
27 mercury manometer, was maintained constant (De Burgh Daly & Scott, 1962). They reported  
28 that provided the rate and depth of breathing were maintained, stimulation of the carotid body  
29 chemoreceptors by hypoxic blood caused bradycardia and peripheral vasoconstriction.  
30 However, in contrast to the cardiovascular responses observed in the dogs with controlled  
31 ventilation, stimulation of the carotid bodies in spontaneously breathing animals that were  
32 allowed to hyperventilate led to the opposite responses: tachycardia and peripheral  
33 vasodilatation. Daly and Scott concluded that hypoxia elicits a primary cardiovascular carotid  
34 chemoreflex composed of a fall in heart rate and an increase in peripheral vascular resistance  
35 which becomes modified by hyperventilation and switches to a secondary cardiovascular  
36 carotid chemoreflex, yielding an increase in heart rate and a decrease in peripheral vascular  
37 resistance. During hyperventilation protective stretch receptors in the lungs increase their  
38 afferent discharge to the brainstem. This influences the cardiac and vasomotor centres, which  
39 respond by inhibiting both vagal discharge to the heart and sympathetic outflow to the  
40 peripheral circulations (De Burgh Daly *et al.* 1967). Thus, when oxygen availability can be  
41 increased by hyperventilation, vasodilatation and increased heart rate occur to promote  
42 systemic perfusion. Conversely, if oxygen availability is finite, the primary chemoreflex  
43 response of bradycardia and peripheral vasoconstriction persists to decrease oxygen  
44 consumption and/or make best use of the available oxygen supply.

46 The fetal cardiovascular responses to acute moderate fetal hypoxia or deep but brief episodes  
47 of fetal asphyxia include a vagally mediated fall in fetal heart rate and a fetal brain-sparing  
48 circulatory reflex, diverting blood flow away from less essential vascular beds secondary to  
49 peripheral vasoconstriction (Giussani, et al 1993; Bennet *et al.* 1999). The falls in fetal heart  
50 rate during intrapartum fetal hypoxia or fetal asphyxia therefore likely represent examples of  
51 this hard-wired cardiovascular strategic response to oxygen deprivation depending on the  
52 ability to expand our lungs or not. This teleological perspective strengthens Lear and  
53 colleagues' assertion that the principal mechanism mediating the rapid falls in fetal heart rate  
54 during labour is an increase in peripheral chemoreflex activation in response to transient fetal  
55 hypoxia or fetal asphyxia, rather than increased vagal outflow in response to either head  
56 compression and/or mechanoreflexes, such as the arterial baroreflex or the Bezold-Jarisch  
57 reflex. The review also raises the point that there are many fundamental questions about fetal  
58 physiology remaining. For instance, within peripheral chemoreflex activation, the carotid  
59 rather than the aortic chemoreceptors seem to play a more prominent role in response to acute  
60 moderate fetal hypoxia (Giussani et al. 1993; Giussani, 2015). What about during severe  
61 and/or repeated fetal asphyxia? Is there greater recruitment of aortic chemoreceptor afferent  
62 fibre discharge during acute fetal asphyxia? Are there other receptors that have yet to be  
63 identified?

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65 Unlike acute episodes of moderate fetal hypoxia, severe fetal asphyxia can cause fetal death  
66 or injury, particularly if sufficiently prolonged. Despite this risk, an important point to  
67 underline is that healthy fetuses being carried by mothers with normal uteroplacental  
68 perfusion can successfully adapt to the typical repeated but brief periods of asphyxia without  
69 injury, thanks to these robust, highly reliably peripheral chemoreflex responses (for reviews,  
70 see Gunn *et al.* 2001; Giussani, 2015). Lear and colleagues cutting edge review (2016)

71 elegantly illustrates to the reader that these fetal compensatory responses are physiological  
72 and not pathophysiological, and that it the clinician's challenge to be able to identify when  
73 this changes and the fetus becomes decompensated. Lear and colleagues also encourage us to  
74 embrace the real nature of the fetal physiological responses to labour. This will help doctors  
75 and patients understand the limited predictive value of the fine detail analysis of FHR  
76 patterns that is still used in variable ways in different countries. More importantly, such  
77 understanding will help support the development of a more effective evidence base for  
78 successful clinical practice.

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