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1 1 TITLE PAGE

2

3 2 **Monitoring fetal well-being in labor in late fetal growth restriction.**

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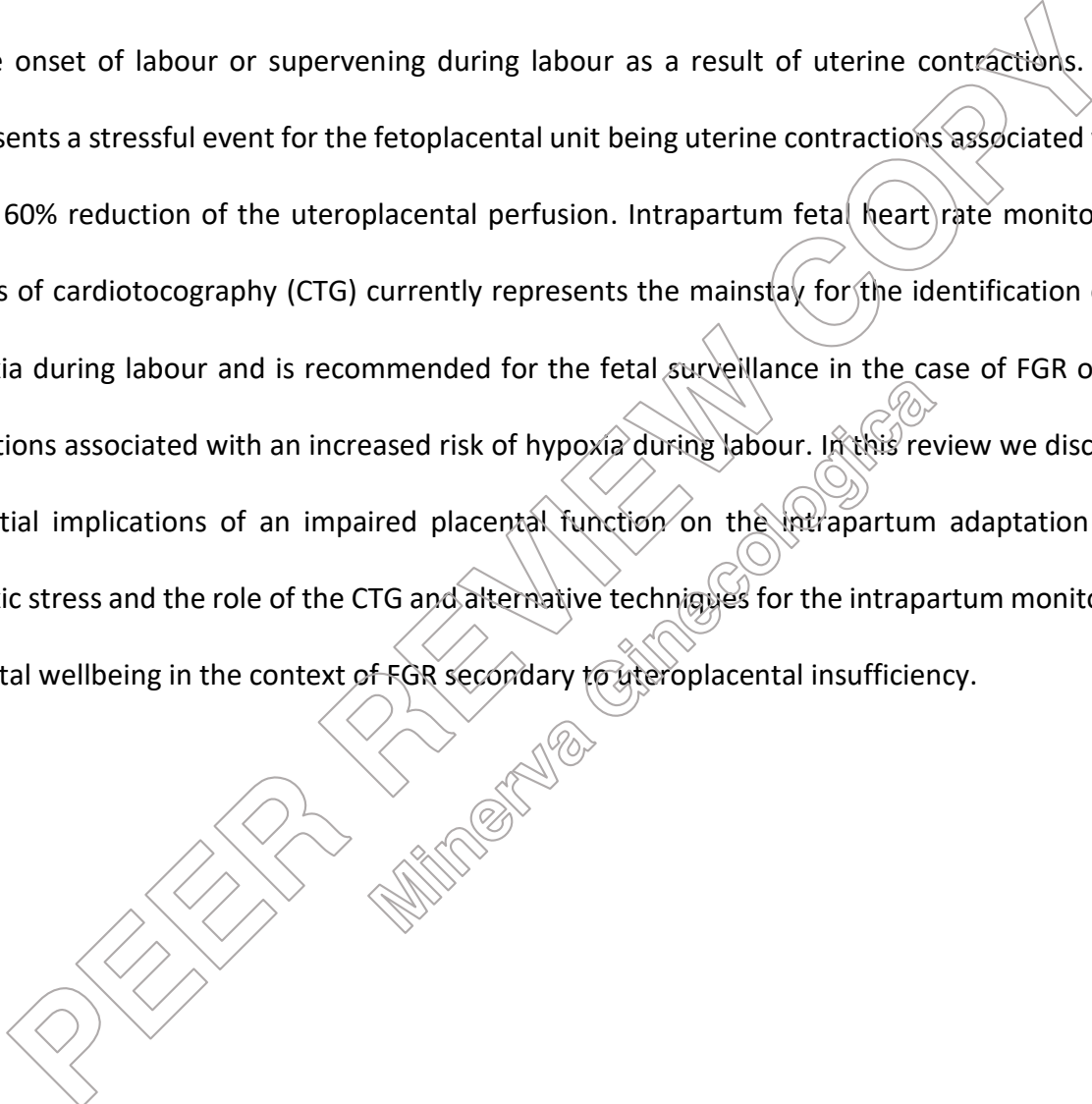
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1 18 **Abstract**

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19 Late-onset fetal growth restriction (FGR) accounts for approximately 70–80% of all cases of FGR
20 secondary to uteroplacental insufficiency and is associated with an increased risk of adverse
21 antepartum and perinatal events, which in most instances result from hypoxic insults either present
22 at the onset of labour or supervening during labour as a result of uterine contractions. Labour
23 represents a stressful event for the fetoplacental unit being uterine contractions associated with an
24 up-to 60% reduction of the uteroplacental perfusion. Intrapartum fetal heart rate monitoring by
25 means of cardiotocography (CTG) currently represents the mainstay for the identification of fetal
26 hypoxia during labour and is recommended for the fetal surveillance in the case of FGR or other
27 conditions associated with an increased risk of hypoxia during labour. In this review we discuss the
28 potential implications of an impaired placental function on the intrapartum adaptation to the
29 hypoxic stress and the role of the CTG and alternative techniques for the intrapartum monitoring of
30 the fetal wellbeing in the context of FGR secondary to uteroplacental insufficiency.



1 31 **Introduction**

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32 Fetal growth restriction (FGR) is a complex and multifactorial disorder characterized by pathological
33 smallness that is associated with an increased risk of adverse antepartum and perinatal events and
34 represents a risk factor for long-term neurodevelopmental, metabolic and cardiovascular disorders
35 [1-7]. Uteroplacental insufficiency, congenital infections, genetic syndromes and chromosomal
36 abnormalities are among the potential aetiologies, the former accounting for the vast majority of
37 FGR. The disease is subclassified into early-onset and late-onset FGR according to the gestational
38 age at diagnosis of the disease, with an arbitrary cut-off conventionally set at 32 weeks [8]. Late-
39 onset FGR accounts for approximately 70–80% of all cases of FGR of uteroplacental origin and differs
40 from its early-onset counterpart in terms of clinical manifestations, frequency of associated
41 hypertensive disorders of the pregnancy and patterns of fetal deterioration as a result of the lower
42 extent of impaired placental function [9].
43 Over decades multiple definitions of FGR have been suggested [10-13]. Recently, a consensus-based
44 definition of late-onset FGR reached through a Delphi procedure involving international Fetal
45 Medicine experts defined late-onset FGR as either estimated fetal weight (EFW) or abdominal
46 circumference (AC) below the 3rd centile or by the combination of at least two among AC or EFW
47 <10th centile, longitudinal reduction of the EFW or the AC growth of at least 2 quartiles on growth
48 centiles and cerebroplacental ratio (CPR) <5th centile or umbilical artery pulsatility index (PI) > 95th
49 centile [14].

50 According to the most recent and widely agreed definition fetal smallness is not a synonym of FGR.
51 Indeed, also fetuses sized above the 10th centile may be growth restricted as they may have slowed
52 their growth, hence failed to reach their growth potential. The concept that placental insufficiency
53 may affect also fetuses weighing above the 10th percentile is supported by several studies
54 investigating the role of the Doppler indicators of cerebral redistribution in appropriately grown
55

1 55 fetuses demonstrating an increased risk of intrapartum fetal distress and a higher frequency of
2
3 56 small-for-gestational age (SGA) neonates in cases showing Doppler features of fetal hypoxia [15-18].
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6 57 However, if we assume that fetal smallness is related to underlying placental insufficiency, then an
7
8 58 EFW <10th percentile has been shown to represent the best clinical surrogate of FGR in the third
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10 59 trimester [19].

11
12 60 Intrapartum fetal heart rate monitoring by means of cardiotocography (CTG) currently represents
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14
15 61 the mainstay for the identification of fetal hypoxia occurring during labour and is recommended for
16
17 62 the fetal surveillance during labour in the case of FGR or other conditions associated with an
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19 63 increased risk of hypoxia potentially leading to cerebral palsy and stillbirth [20-21]. The presence of
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21
22 64 FGR needs to be considered while interpreting the CTG trace. Labour represents a stressful event
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24 65 for the fetoplacental unit as uterine contractions have been associated with an up-to 60% reduction
25
26 66 of the uteroplacental perfusion. On this basis, labour may impact on the CTG findings of the fetuses
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28
29 67 with a pre-existing chronic hypoxia secondary to a reduced functional reserve of the placenta [22-
30
31 68 25]. In this review we discuss the potential implications of an impaired placental function on the
32
33 69 intrapartum adaptation to the hypoxic stress and the role of the CTG and of alternative techniques
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35 70 for the intrapartum monitoring of the fetal wellbeing in the context of FGR secondary to
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37
38 71 uteroplacental insufficiency.

1 72 **Pathophysiology of placental insufficiency and adaptation in fetal growth restriction of**
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3 73 **uteroplacental origin**
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5
6 74 Placental insufficiency is associated with an intrauterine hypoxic environment which leads to the
7
8 75 activation the mechanisms of adaptation to chronic hypoxia. These include the reduction of the
9
10 76 consumption of oxygen and the regulation of the flow through the shunts of the fetal circulation
11
12 77 such as the ductus venosus and arteriosus, leading to the diversion of the oxygenated blood towards
13
14
15 78 the tissues at highest risk of hypoxic-related injury [26-27]. In order to maintain the oxygenation of
16
17 79 the “central organs” – i.e. the brain and the heart – the fetus undergoes splanchnic and skin
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19 80 vasoconstriction, reduces the body temperature and abolishes non-essential activities such as
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21
22 81 movements and releases catecholamines, primarily adrenaline and noradrenaline. Such “basal”
23
24 82 increase of the catecholamines activity leads to the increase of the fetal heart rate and to the so-
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26 83 called “brain sparing effect”, which consists in the coexistence of a peripheral vasoconstriction and
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28
29 84 a cerebral vasodilatation and is responsible for the diversion of the blood flow from nonessential
30
31 85 peripheral organs to the brain and to the heart [27]. Such redistribution of the blood flow can be
32
33 86 documented by means of a reduced cerebroplacental ratio (CPR) or pulsatility index (PI) in the
34
35 87 middle cerebral artery indicating low blood flow resistance in the cerebral circulation [28-29]. The
36
37
38 88 adaptation of the autonomic nervous system in chronically hypoxic fetuses seems also to impact
39
40 89 the fetal heart rate variability, as demonstrated in a longitudinal study by Shaw et al. showing that
41
42 90 the exposure of fetal sheep to chronic hypoxia at advanced gestational age has the potential to alter
43
44
45 91 the development of the autonomic control of the FHR and reduce the fetal heart rate variability
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47 92 [30].
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49 93 Labour is a stressful event for the fetus as uterine contractions are associated with an up to 60%
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51 94 reduction in the utero-placental circulation, thus determining an intermittent reduction of the flow
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54 95 of oxygenated blood that reaches the fetus. On this ground, if we assume that FGR is secondary to
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196 placental insufficiency leading to chronic hypoxia, the onset of labor in FGR can be seen as a
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397 superimposed hypoxic stress which has the potential to exacerbate a condition chronically
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598 hypoxiemia. Based on available evidence, the “cerebral redistribution” characterizing antepartum
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7
899 chronic hypoxia is present also in the case of hypoxia occurring during labour [27].
9

1000 When labour hypoxic stress supervenes in a fetus with pre-existing chronic hypoxia, the fetus is
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12
131001 required to reduce further its oxygen consumption in order to keep a positive energy balance.
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1502 Available evidence suggests that the fetal exposure to chronic hypoxia before labour results in an
16
1703 attenuation of the defence mechanisms against hypoxic stress, which increases the susceptibility of
18

1904 the fetus to the hypoxic insults that may occur in labour [31-36]. On this basis, the mechanisms
20
21
22105 characterizing fetal adaptation to slowly evolving hypoxia may not follow the sequence of events
23

2406 which is known to occur in previously normoxemic fetuses. This can be determined by the fact that
25
2607 the adrenal glands are of small size in FGR fetuses, which determines a low reserve of
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28
29108 catecholamines, furthermore the storage of glycogen in the liver and in the myocardium is reduced
30
3109 in FGR fetuses exposed to a chronically hypoxic environment. Other factors potentially determining
32

33110 the different sequence of adaptive events in FGR fetuses are represented by the limited amount of
34
35
36111 Wharton’s jelly as well as the small size of the umbilical cord, which may determine a longer duration
37

38112 of the decelerations of the FHR by limiting the restoration of the umbilical cord blood flow following
39
4013 uterine contractions. Of note, it is important to point out that the fetuses exposed to long-standing
41

4214 hypoxia prior to labour may show a FHR pattern indicating a pre-existing injury affecting the fetal
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44
45115 nervous system. This is featured by a static FHR which cannot be modified by intrapartum
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4716 maneuvers. In such cases, the response to a “new onset” hypoxic event is characterized by
48
4917 decelerations that are typically shallow and low in amplitude.
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118 **Perinatal and labour complications associated with fetal growth restriction and placental**
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3 **insufficiency**
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620 At present no approach is available to reduce the impairment of the placental function and the only
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821 treatment option for FGR is delivery. However, available evidence has shown that the identification
9
1022 of fetal smallness per se is associated with improved perinatal outcomes as it allows the
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1223 implementation of antenatal management strategies including the serial assessment of the fetal
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1524 wellbeing and timed delivery [37].

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1725 FGR is an acknowledged risk factor for antepartum and intrapartum complications, whose incidence
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1926 increased with decreasing fetal size [9][38] and is associated with an increased incidence of labour
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2227 induction as well as of obstetric interventions including emergency caesarean section due to
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2428 intrapartum fetal compromise [39]. In a study including 5416 apparently uncomplicated term
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2629 pregnancies, Mendez- Figueroa et al [40] found an increased incidence of neonatal death in SGA
27
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2930 neonates, while another cohort study of 115,502 uncomplicated singleton term pregnancies
30
3131 showed an association between the postnatal diagnosis of SGA and composite hypoxic neonatal
32
3332 morbidity [41], whose risk was 40% higher in SGA compared to normally grown neonates.
34
3533 Consistently, a large case-control study including 493 babies born >35 weeks and subsequently
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37
3834 diagnosed with cerebral palsy found that severe smallness – as defined by birthweight below 2
39
4035 standard deviations for the given gestation – is associated with an almost five-fold higher risk of
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4236 cerebral palsy.
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44
4537 Consistently with the most recent and widely agreed definition of FGR, which supports the concept
46
4738 that also fetuses with an EFW > 10th centile may show the features of placental insufficiency, several
48
4939 observational studies have demonstrated an increased rate of adverse perinatal outcomes including
50
5140 NICU admission and perinatal death in appropriate-for-gestational age (AGA) fetuses not fulfilling
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5441 the criteria for FGR but showing decelerating growth [42] or cerebral redistribution at or close to
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142 delivery [18]. Such largely undetected subgroup of fetuses affected by subclinical placental
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343 insufficiency is likely to be accounted for the vast majority of the cases of stillbirth occurring in the
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644 third trimester and of adverse labor events recorded in AGA fetuses [37][43].
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145 **CTG features of the growth restricted fetus**

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5 146 The use of continuous intrapartum electronic fetal heart rate monitoring (EFM) by means of
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7 147 cardiotocography (CTG) has been introduced in the clinical practice developed with the aim to
8
9 148 identify fetal hypoxia and prevent asphyxia, thus improving perinatal outcomes [44]. Following its
10
11 149 implementation, CTG has been shown to yield a good sensitivity but a low positive predictive value
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13
14 150 for intrapartum hypoxia, being its overall specificity as low as 30% [44], and available evidence has
15
16 151 shown that the routine use of intrapartum CTG is associated with increased rates of obstetric
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18 152 interventions not accompanied by a decreased frequency of death, cerebral palsy and other labor
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20 153 complications [45].

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23 154 Fetal growth restriction is among the acknowledged risk factors for intrapartum hypoxia and is
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25 155 currently among the indications for continuous CTG monitoring during labor [20-21], however to
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27 156 date no evidence supports its role in improving labor outcomes of growth restricted fetuses.

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30 157 While the characteristics of the normal CTG are acknowledged and listed in the existing classification
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32 158 systems [20], the "baseline" CTG features of growth restricted fetuses may differ from those of
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34 159 appropriately grown fetuses. Placental insufficiency is known impact the CTG features primarily in
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36 160 terms of baseline FHR which increases in response to the catecholamines response secondary to
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39 161 chronic hypoxia.

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41 162 Studies evaluating the CTG features of growth restricted fetuses [47-50] reported a higher
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43 163 proportion of "lower amplitude" accelerations and a lower number of total accelerations [48]
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46 164 compared to normally grown fetuses. Furthermore, a higher baseline FHR and a reduced variability
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48 165 have been reported in FGR compared to normally grown fetuses [49-50]. Data from a retrospective
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50 166 cohort of over 5000 non-anomalous term gestations investigating the CTG pattern during the
51
52 167 second stage of labour demonstrated an increased frequency of decelerations and a lower rate of
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55 168 accelerations and fetal tachycardia in FGR compared to AGA fetuses during the 30 minutes prior to

169 delivery, with no difference in the FHR variability [47]. Consistently, a randomized controlled trial
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3
4 170 by Chauhan et al. found a reduced frequency of accelerations during the last hour of labor in growth
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6 171 restricted compare to normally grown fetuses. Furthermore, the rate of variable decelerations
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8 172 lasting greater than 60 seconds with depth greater than 60 beats per minute (bpm) or nadir less
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10 173 than 60 bpm were significantly more common in FGR fetuses, with no difference in terms of
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12 174 frequency of late and prolonged decelerations and fetal bradycardia. Of note, the trial could not
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15 175 demonstrate any difference in the rate of neonatal morbidity between FGR and AGA fetuses [51].
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176 **Alternative techniques for the intrapartum monitoring of the fetal wellbeing in fetal growth**
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3 **restriction**
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678 Computerized CTG (cCTG) has been developed in the 1990s with the aim to improve the recognition
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879 of abnormal FHR patterns by reducing the intra- and inter-observer variability. Such automated
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1080 analysis of CTG tracings can be performed by means of different algorithms [52][53] and requires
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1381 the processing of the uterine contraction signals, the long- and short-term variability, the estimation
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1582 of the FHR baseline, the presence accelerations and the detection and classification of
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1783 decelerations. Algorithms calculate these variables based on pre-programmed system-specific
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1984 criteria. While the role of cCTG in the antenatal monitoring and timing of delivery of early-onset FGR
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21
2285 in the antepartum period is supported by grade "A" evidence [54] to date no data supports the use
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2486 of cCTG for the intrapartum monitoring in the context of FGR

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2687 The use of ST-segment waveform analysis (STAN) of the fetal electrocardiogram (ECG) has been
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2988 implemented to detect the hypoxia in the central organs and improve the discrimination between
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3189 compensated and decompensating hypoxic stress occurring during labor. STAN analysis has been
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3390 available for the intrapartum fetal monitoring since 2000, and its features and contraindications
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3591 have been recently addressed in another review from our group [57]. Briefly, in the presence of an
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3892 acute hypoxic stress the STAN analysis can discriminate between the fetuses who can compensate
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4093 and maintain a good oxygenation of the myocardium from those where there is a switch to an
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4294 anaerobic metabolism in response to the hypoxic insult, which depends on the catecholamine-
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4595 mediated myocardial glycogenolysis. The use of fetal ECG analysis in labor has been restricted to
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4796 monitor an apparently healthy term fetuses, as in the preterm fetus the endocardial–epicardial
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4997 interphase may be underdeveloped and interfere with signal conduction leading to a decreased
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5198 sensitivity of this technique in heralding fetal acidaemia. Fetal growth restriction is among the other
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5499 limitations to the analysis of the ST segment of the fetal ECG as the chronically hypoxic environment
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1200 which features FGR is acknowledged to be associated with low myocardial reserves of glycogen and
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3201 with the limited availability of the enzymes deputed to glycogenolysis [57-58]. Furthermore, a
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5202 prerequisite for the STAN analysis is the absence of pre-existing CTG features indicating a hypoxic
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8203 or a non-hypoxic injury, which include the loss of variability or cycling, an unstable or abnormal FHR
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10204 baseline and prolonged decelerations. On this basis, the STAN technology is not indicated for the
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12
13205 monitoring fetal wellbeing in FGR fetuses [57] [59].

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15206 The computerized interpretation of the FHR is another technique proposed for the intrapartum
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17207 monitoring of the fetal wellbeing. Two large clinical trials have been conducted in order to evaluate
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19208 the impact of such strategy on labor outcomes, and their findings have been incorporated in a recent
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21209 systematic review and meta-analysis summarizing the existing evidence on the topic [60]. The
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23
24210 INFANT trial [61] included 47062 patients having continuous electronic fetal monitoring during
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26211 labor, among whom known FGR accounted for less than 4% of all cases, who were randomly
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28212 assigned to decision support with the INFANT computerized interpretation system versus no
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31213 decision support. Despite the large study cohort, the trial failed to demonstrate any role of the
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33214 computerized CTG interpretation in improving maternal or neonatal outcomes. In another trial with
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35215 a similar design over 8000 women were randomized in order to investigate the role of the Omniview
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38216 SisPorto decision support software in the identification of metabolic acidosis on umbilical cord gases
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40217 [62]. The Omniview SisPorto system combines the interpretation of the CTG signal and of the fetal
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42218 ECG (STAN) analysis and provides color-coded visual and auditory alerts notifying the operator when
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44219 the system detects an increased risk of fetal hypoxia. The results of the randomized clinical trial
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47220 showed a trend towards a lower rate of fetal metabolic acidosis in the group randomized to the
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49221 decision support system, with no improvement of other perinatal outcomes. Not surprisingly, a
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51222 recent systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials [60] confirmed the
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54223 absence of clinical benefits in terms of metabolic acidosis and obstetric intervention in women
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124 submitted to computerized analysis of the fetal CTG. On this ground, such approach cannot be
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4 225 recommended for the intrapartum monitoring of late onset FGR fetuses.
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Management and intrapartum monitoring of the fetal well-being in late FGR: state of the art.

Due to the lack of interventional randomized trials evaluating the role of CTG/cCTG, Doppler or other monitoring parameters, to date there is no international consensus on the timing of delivery in late FGR [63]. Furthermore, no grade “A” evidence exists as to how to identify the optimal route of delivery in late-onset FGR. The latest guidelines of the International Society of Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology [8] recommend in favour of elective caesarean section in the case of “critical” umbilical artery Doppler findings such as absent-or-reversed end-diastolic flow, while in other circumstances vaginal delivery and induction of labor may be undertaken. In such cases individualized management in terms of timing and modality of elective delivery is advised and should be based on the ultrasound and Doppler findings together with the gestational age, parity and cervical findings. In such context, the only randomized interventional trial on FGR at or close to term so far conducted [64] demonstrated that an induction-of-labor policy is not associated with an increased frequency of adverse neonatal or neurodevelopmental outcome, furthermore induction of labor did not impact on the rates of obstetric intervention. However, more recent data suggest that a risk stratification based on the severity of the fetal smallness and on the presence or absence of maternal or fetal Doppler abnormalities allows to identify those cases where induction of labor may prevent adverse perinatal outcomes with no increase in the rate of obstetric intervention [9][65-69].

With regards to the intrapartum monitoring of FGR, no evidence supports the use of CTG nor of alternative monitoring strategies for improving the perinatal outcomes in pregnancies complicated by FGR. However, the recently proposed pathophysiology interpretation of the FHR pattern may support in the identification of the cause underlying an unusual CTG pattern [70-71] and allow individualized management in the context of FGR.

1 249 From a pathophysiology perspective, prior to labour the baseline FHR is expected to be higher in
2
3 250 the event of placental insufficiency as a result of the dysregulation of the autonomic nervous system
4
5 251 which favours the sympathetic activity. In such context, it is important to bear in mind that the
6
7 252 reduced dimensions of the adrenal glands together with the dysregulation of the autonomic
8
9 253 nervous system in FGR fetuses may impact on the adaptive mechanisms including the increase of
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11 254 the baseline FHR in the event of acute hypoxic events supervening during labour.

12 255 The most common CTG features of growth restricted fetuses include a raised baseline which is
13
14 256 associated with reduced FHR variability and absence of accelerations. These latter result from the
15
16 257 reduction or the absence of fetal movements, which is a typical feature of the fetuses exposed to a
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18 258 hypoxic environment. In such context, the onset of uterine contractions reduces the utero-placental
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20 259 circulation and may precipitate the fetal provision of oxygen, with resulting hypoxemia potentially
21
22 260 leading to hypoxia and, ultimately, hypoxic-ischaemic encephalopathy (HIE) and myocardial failure
23
24 261 with terminal bradycardia and intrapartum stillbirth [46]. Therefore, these cases warrant careful
25
26 262 administration of uterotonics and may benefit from the use of tocolytics and low threshold for
27
28 263 delivery.

29 264 An abnormal CTG in early labor or prior to labor may also indicate a pre-existing injury of the fetal
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31 265 central nervous system which is not related to the hypoxic stress of labor. In such cases, the CTG
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33 266 pattern is featured by a fixed and relatively stable baseline rate, with reduced variability that does
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35 267 not exhibit fetal cycling and shallow decelerations. Tachycardia may occur, and is usually more
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37 268 marked the more recent the central nervous system insult, while a normal baseline of the FHR is
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39 269 more common the more remote from admission the central nervous system insult. Such pattern is
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41 270 static and cannot be modified by tocolysis or other intervention described for intrapartum
42
43 271 resuscitation. Shallow decelerations are chemoreceptor-mediated and may not fulfil the criteria
44
45 272 defining decelerations acknowledged by the international guidelines [23]. Phelan and Kim [72]
46
47 273

1 attempted a categorization of such nonreactive CTG traces on admission into three groups on the
2
3 basis of the baseline FHR and of the FHR variability, concluding that the CTG features may correlated
4
5 with the time at onset of the injury. In details, the finding of FHR tachycardia >160 bpm associated
6
7 with a reduced or absent FHR variability was suggested to be related to a short time-interval
8
9 between the injury and the CTG recording, while the finding of a normal baseline FHR associated
10
11 with a reduced FHR variability is considered to represent a long interval between the brain injury
12
13 and the CTG recording. When such CTG features last for over 50 minutes despite the adoption of
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15 maneuvers including changes of maternal position (to relieve supine hypotension), hydration,
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17 stopping of oxytocin infusion, and use of tocolytic drugs if uterine hyperstimulation is suspected –
18
19 in order to improve uteroplacental circulation and ensure adequate delivery of oxygen to the fetus
20
21 – delivery by caesarean section is warranted in order to prevent further damage to the fetus [23].
22
23
24 In the third case scenario, which may occur in “known” FGR fetuses or in FGR fetuses misdiagnosed
25
26 at third trimester screening of the fetal growth or in normally sized fetuses with subclinical placental
27
28 insufficiency, the CTG pattern is normal at the onset of labor and the consequences of the impaired
29
30 placental function may manifest with increasing uterine contractions. In such cases, the CTG
31
32 abnormalities most commonly mimic those characterizing gradually evolving hypoxia – i.e.
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34 repetitive decelerations associated with loss of accelerations followed by increase of the baseline
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36 FHR and loss of cycling and variability [73]– however it has to be acknowledged that in such cases
37
38 the sympathetic response may be dysregulated. This may determine the limited or no increase of
39
40 the baseline FHR and the altered cardiovascular response to sudden hypotensive stress, which
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42 ultimately increases the susceptibility of the fetus to the hypoxic insults that may occur in labour. In
43
44 such context, the systematic adoption of a policy of low-threshold for intervention may contribute
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46 in optimizing the labour outcome of growth restricted fetuses [23,31-32].
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196 **Authors' contribution section**

2

3 297 Andrea Dall'Asta – Conceptualization, literature review, manuscript writing and editing.
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5
6 298 Greta Cagninelli – Literature review, manuscript writing and editing.

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8 299 Letizia Galli – Literature review, manuscript writing and editing.

9

10 300 Tiziana Frusca – Conceptualization, manuscript review.

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12 301 Tullio Ghi – Conceptualization, manuscript review.

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15 302 All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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