

University of Groningen

## Impact of chemotherapy during pregnancy on fetal growth

INCIP; Maggen, Charlotte; Wolters, Vera E. R. A.; Van Calsteren, Kristel; Cardonick, Elyce; Laenen, Annouschka; Heimovaara, Joosje H.; Mhallem Gziri, Mina; Fruscio, Robert; Duvekot, Johannes J.

*Published in:*  
Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine

*DOI:*  
[10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645](https://doi.org/10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645)

**IMPORTANT NOTE:** You are advised to consult the publisher's version (publisher's PDF) if you wish to cite from it. Please check the document version below.

*Document Version*  
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

*Publication date:*  
2022

[Link to publication in University of Groningen/UMCG research database](#)

*Citation for published version (APA):*

INCIP, Maggen, C., Wolters, V. E. R. A., Van Calsteren, K., Cardonick, E., Laenen, A., Heimovaara, J. H., Mhallem Gziri, M., Fruscio, R., Duvekot, J. J., Painter, R. C., Masturzo, B., Shmakov, R. G., Halaska, M., Berveiller, P., Verheecke, M., de Haan, J., Gordijn, S. J., & Amant, F. (2022). Impact of chemotherapy during pregnancy on fetal growth. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine*, 35(26), 10314-10323. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645>

### Copyright

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

The publication may also be distributed here under the terms of Article 25fa of the Dutch Copyright Act, indicated by the "Taverne" license. More information can be found on the University of Groningen website: <https://www.rug.nl/library/open-access/self-archiving-pure/taverne-amendment>.

### Take-down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Downloaded from the University of Groningen/UMCG research database (Pure): <http://www.rug.nl/research/portal>. For technical reasons the number of authors shown on this cover page is limited to 10 maximum.

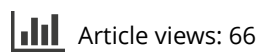
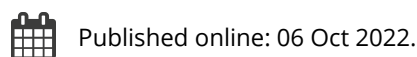
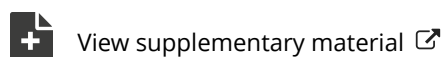


## Impact of chemotherapy during pregnancy on fetal growth


















Charlotte Maggen, Vera E. R. A. Wolters, Kristel Van Calsteren, Elyce Cardonick, Annouschka Laenen, Joosje H. Heimovaara, Mina Mhallem Gziri, Robert Fruscio, Johannes J. Duvekot, Rebecca C. Painter, Bianca Masturzo, Roman G. Shmakov, Michael Halaska, Paul Berveiller, Magali Verheecke, Jorine de Haan, Sanne J. Gordijn, Frédéric Amant & for the International Network on Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP)

To cite this article: Charlotte Maggen, Vera E. R. A. Wolters, Kristel Van Calsteren, Elyce Cardonick, Annouschka Laenen, Joosje H. Heimovaara, Mina Mhallem Gziri, Robert Fruscio, Johannes J. Duvekot, Rebecca C. Painter, Bianca Masturzo, Roman G. Shmakov, Michael Halaska, Paul Berveiller, Magali Verheecke, Jorine de Haan, Sanne J. Gordijn, Frédéric Amant & for the International Network on Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP) (2022): Impact of chemotherapy during pregnancy on fetal growth, *The Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine*, DOI: [10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645](https://doi.org/10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645)

To link to this article: <https://doi.org/10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645>



## Impact of chemotherapy during pregnancy on fetal growth

Charlotte Maggen<sup>a,b,\*</sup> , Vera E. R. A. Wolters<sup>c,\*</sup> , Kristel Van Calsteren<sup>d,e</sup> , Elyce Cardonick<sup>f</sup> , Annouschka Laenen<sup>g</sup> , Joosje H. Heimovaara<sup>a</sup> , Mina Mhallem Gziri<sup>h</sup> , Robert Fruscio<sup>i</sup> , Johannes J. Duvekot<sup>j</sup> , Rebecca C. Painter<sup>k</sup> , Bianca Masturzo<sup>l</sup> , Roman G. Shmakov<sup>m</sup> , Michael Halaska<sup>n</sup> , Paul Berveiller<sup>o</sup> , Magali Verheecke<sup>p</sup>, Jorine de Haan<sup>q</sup> , Sanne J. Gordijn<sup>r</sup> , Frédéric Amant<sup>a,c,s</sup>  and for the International Network on Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP)

<sup>a</sup>Department of Oncology, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; <sup>b</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Prenatal Medicine, University Hospital Brussels, Brussels, Belgium; <sup>c</sup>Department of Gynecology, Antoni van Leeuwenhoek – Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; <sup>d</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Hospitals Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; <sup>e</sup>Department of Development and regeneration, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; <sup>f</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Cooper, University Health Care, Camden, NJ, USA; <sup>g</sup>Department of Medical Statistics, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; <sup>h</sup>Department of Obstetrics, Cliniques Universitaires St Luc, UCL, Sint-Lambrechts-Woluwe, Belgium; <sup>i</sup>Clinic of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Milan – Bicocca, San Gerardo Hospital, Monza, Italy; <sup>j</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Erasmus MC, University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands; <sup>k</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Reproduction and Development, Amsterdam UMC, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; <sup>l</sup>Department Surgical Sciences, University of Torino, Torino, Italy; <sup>m</sup>National Medical Research Centre for Obstetrics, Gynecology and Perinatology Named After Academician V.I. Kulakov of the Ministry of Healthcare of Russian Federation, Moscow, Russia; <sup>n</sup>Faculty Hospital Kralovske, Vinohrady and 3rd Medical Faculty, Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic; <sup>o</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Centre Hospitalier Intercommunal de Poissy Saint Germain, Poissy, Université Paris Saclay, Gif-sur-Yvette, France; <sup>p</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, General Hospital, Turnhout, Belgium; <sup>q</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; <sup>r</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, The Netherlands; <sup>s</sup>Department of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

### ABSTRACT

**Background:** Chemotherapy crosses the placenta, however, it remains unclear to what extent it affects fetal growth. The current literature suggests up to 21% of the offspring of women receiving chemotherapy are small for gestational age (SGA, birth weight <10th percentile). Limiting research to birth weights only might misjudge fetal growth restriction (FGR) in this high-risk population with multiple risk factors for impaired fetal growth. Moreover, the role of the duration of chemotherapy and gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy in fetal growth is yet poorly understood.

**Objective:** This retrospective cohort study evaluates fetal growth and neonatal birthweights in pregnant women receiving chemotherapy.

**Study design:** All pregnant patients, registered by the International Network of Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP), treated with chemotherapy with at least two ultrasounds reporting on fetal growth, were eligible for this study. Duration and gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy were our major determinants, followed by cancer type and stage, maternal characteristics (parity, BMI, ethnicity hypertension, and diabetes) and individual cytotoxic agents (anthracycline, taxanes, and platinum). Fetal growth outcomes were described using the following mutually exclusive groups (1) FGR, based on a Delphi consensus (2016); (2) “low risk SGA” (birth weight below the 10th percentile), but an estimated growth above the 10th percentile; (3) “fetal growth disturbance”, which did not meet all FGR criteria; (4) “non-FGR”. Obstetric and oncological characteristics were compared between the growth impaired groups and non-FGR group. We calculated estimated fetal weight (EFW) according to Hadlock’s formula (1991) and birth weight percentile according to Nicolaides (2018). We used univariable and multivariable regression, and linear mixed effect models to investigate the effect of duration and gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy on birth weight, and fetal growth, respectively.

**Results:** We included 201 patients, diagnosed with cancer between March 2000 and March 2020. Most patients were diagnosed with breast cancer ( $n = 132$ , 66%). Regimens included anthracyclines ( $n = 121$ , 60%), (anthracyclines and) taxanes ( $n = 45$ , 22%) and platinum ( $n = 35$ , 17%). Fetal growth abnormalities were detected in 75 pregnancies: 43 (21%) FGR, 10 (5%) low risk SGA and 22 (8.5%) fetal growth disturbance. Chemotherapy prior to 20 weeks of gestation (47% vs. 25%,  $p = .04$ ) and poor maternal gestational weight gain (median percentile 15 (range 0–97) vs. 8 (0–84),  $p = .03$ ) were more frequent in the FGR group compared to the non-FGR

### ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 4 September 2021  
Revised 12 August 2022  
Accepted 22 August 2022

### KEYWORDS

Chemotherapy; cancer; pregnancy; fetal growth restriction; small for gestational age

**CONTACT** Frédéric Amant  frederic.amant@uzleuven.be  Department Oncologie, KU Leuven, Herestraat 49, Leuven 3000, Belgium

\*Both authors contributed equally to this work.

 Supplemental data for this article is available online at <https://doi.org/10.1080/14767058.2022.2128645>

© 2022 Informa UK Limited, trading as Taylor & Francis Group

group, whereas no difference was seen for specific chemotherapy or cancer types. Univariable regression identified gestational weight gain, hypertension, systemic disease, parity, neonatal sex and maternal BMI as confounders for birth weight percentiles. Multivariable regression revealed that each additional week of chemotherapy was associated with lower birth weight percentiles ( $-1.06$ ; 95%CI  $-2.01$ ;  $-0.04$ ;  $p = .04$ ), and that later initiation of chemotherapy was associated with an increase in birth weight percentile (1.10 per week; 95%CI 0.26; 1.95;  $p = .01$ ). Each additional week of chemotherapy was associated with lower EFW and abdominal circumference (AC) percentiles ( $-1.77$ ; 95%CI  $-2.21$ ;  $-1.34$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $-1.64$ ; 95%CI  $-1.96$ ;  $-1.32$ ,  $p < .001$ , respectively).

**Conclusions:** This study demonstrates that FGR is common after chemotherapy in pregnancy, and that the duration of chemotherapy has a negative impact. Sonographic follow-up of fetal growth and well-being is recommended.

## Introduction

When cancer is diagnosed during pregnancy, treatment should adhere as much as possible to standard recommendations for non-pregnant patients, including the administration of chemotherapy [1,2]. Chemotherapy has the potential to influence fetal development and growth directly by crossing the placenta [3]. Hence, cytotoxic agents should be avoided during the period of fetal organogenesis [3]. Indirect adverse effects of chemotherapy can be mediated by secondary poor maternal nutrition, hematological toxicity, and impaired placental function [4]. The largest cohort study to date on pregnant patients with cancer revealed a high occurrence (21%) of small for gestational age (SGA), defined as a birth weight below the 10th percentile, and antenatal chemotherapy was one of the risk factors [5]. SGA is often used as a proxy for fetal growth restriction (FGR). FGR is defined as a fetus that does not reach the intrinsic growth potential and is diagnosed based on specific ultrasound criteria [6]. Distinction between SGA and FGR is important as FGR represents pathological growth with the highest associated perinatal morbidity and mortality [6,7]. Moreover, the definition of SGA includes constitutionally healthy SGA fetuses with normal outcomes, however, misses growth impaired fetuses with a birth weight within normal limits [8].

The literature on fetal growth abnormalities related to chemotherapy has several limitations. Cancer and pregnancy rarely coincide, occurring in approximately one per 1000 pregnancies, which complicates conduction of prospective studies [9]. As preterm delivery for oncological reasons is common and impaired fetal growth may only occur in the third trimester of pregnancy, the exact incidence of chemotherapy-related FGR might be underestimated. Second, SGA does not properly represent FGR, as mentioned above. Third, besides antenatal chemotherapy, multiple other morbidities in the pregnant cancer population, such as

high maternal age, stage of disease, nutritional status, co-medications, and cancer-related stress might negatively impact fetal growth [10]. Additionally, cancer patients usually receive multiple agents, complicating the interpretation of single agents effects.

The primary aim of this cohort study was to assess fetal growth and the occurrence of FGR in pregnancies exposed to chemotherapy for cancer, who were registered by the International Network of Cancer, Infertility and Pregnancy (INCIP) [11]. Additionally, the impact of the duration and the gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy, as well as the impact of specific cytotoxic agents and cancer characteristics, on neonatal birth weight was investigated.

## Materials and methods

### Data collection and inclusions

In 2005, INCIP initiated a registry of retro- and prospectively collected oncological and obstetric data of premenopausal women with cancer (Clinicaltrials.gov, number NTC00330447). This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of University Hospital Leuven (Belgian number B322201421061) and local approval was obtained from participating centers when indicated. From the INCIP database, all singleton pregnancies with antenatal chemotherapy and prenatal scan information were selected. Available prenatal scans (range 22–37 weeks of gestational age) were allocated according to the gestational age at execution: “24 weeks” (between 154 and 195 days) and/or “30 weeks” (between 196 and 230 days) and/or “34 weeks” (between 231 and 264 days). Only women with available scans belonging to two different interval groups, with an interval of at least two weeks, were eligible for the study. Cases with major neonatal congenital malformations were excluded. Obstetric and oncological data were collected.

### Data processing and definitions

Systemic disease was defined as metastatic or stage IV disease, defined by TNM (T describes tumor size, N describes lymph node involvement, and M describes distant metastasis) or FIGO (the Federation of Gynecology and Obstetrics; stage IV for gynecological cancers includes tumor spread to adjacent pelvic or distant organs) staging systems, as well as locally advanced disease with organ dysfunction [12]. Duration of antenatal chemotherapy was defined as the interval between the first exposure and the last exposure during pregnancy, adding the duration of one chemotherapy cycle or the duration from last exposure to birth if the patient delivered earlier. Maternal weight gain was expressed in percentiles, according to the reference range for gestational age at delivery and pre-pregnancy BMI in a low risk pregnant population reported by Santos et al. [13].

The percentiles for measurements of fetal head circumference (HC), abdominal circumference (AC), and femur length (FL) were assessed by the reference range for gestational age of Snijders and Nicolaides [14]. The EFW from each examination was derived from Hadlock's formula, based on HC, AC, and FL [15]. EFW and birth weight by gestational age were expressed as crude percentiles, reported by the Fetal Medicine Foundation [16]. We used this international reference chart as it was designed to overcome the problem of underestimation of FGR in preterm birth, by providing information at all gestational ages, including babies *in utero*. If neonates had a birth weight below the 10th customized percentile, they were defined as SGA. Customized percentiles were calculated for birth weight, corrected for gestational age, ethnicity, neonatal sex, maternal pre-pregnancy BMI and parity [17]. Placental weight was corrected for gestational age at delivery [18]. Abnormal Doppler measurements were defined as pulsatility index (PI) of the umbilical artery >95th percentile according to the references by the Fetal Medicine Foundation [19]. The cerebroplacental ratio is defined as the ratio of the middle cerebral artery PI to the umbilical artery PI and assumed abnormal when <5th percentile [19].

Based on ultrasonographic features and birth weight, pregnancies were allocated into four mutually exclusive groups according to fetal growth impact:

1. FGR based on birth weight percentile below the 3rd percentile or ultrasonographic features defined by a Delphi consensus in 2016 (*the FGR group*) [6,20]. FGR before 32 weeks (early FGR) was defined as an AC or EFW percentile below

the 3rd percentile or absence of end-diastolic umbilical flow or AC/EFW below the 10th centile in combination with abnormal Dopplers of the uterine artery or the umbilical artery (above the 95th percentile). FGR after 32 weeks (late FGR) was defined as AC/EFW below the 3rd percentile or at least two out of three of the following; EFW below the 10th percentile, AC/EFW crossing  $\geq 50$  growth percentiles and/or cerebroplacental ratio below 5th percentile and/or Doppler of umbilical artery above the 95th percentile. Asymmetrical FGR was defined by an HC/AC ratio greater than the 95th percentile [14].

Due to the inherent poor predictive value of ultrasound, a second group and a third group "at risk" were defined.

1. A second group included cases with a birth weight percentile below the 10th percentile, that otherwise did not meet any of the criteria for FGR (*the "low risk SGA" group*).
2. A third category "at risk" for fetal growth impact was defined when only one of the following features was present at the prenatal ultrasound: a decrease in AC/EFW of  $\geq 50$  centiles during the course of pregnancy or EFW/AC percentile below the 10th percentile (*the "fetal growth disturbance" group*).
3. The fourth category included all cases without growth abnormalities (*the "normal fetal growth" group*).

### Statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics are presented as frequencies with percentages for categorical variables, or median with range and interquartile range for continuous variables. Oncological features and obstetric outcomes were compared between pregnancies with growth impact (FGR, "low risk SGA group", "fetal growth disturbance") and pregnancies without (non-FGR), using Chi-square for categorical variables or Fisher's exact test in case of frequencies lower than five, and Mann-Whitney's *U*-test for continuous variables. Multivariable linear regression models were used to evaluate the effect of duration of antenatal chemotherapy and gestational age at initiation on fetal growth and crude birth weight percentile. Confounders were included in the models if they showed an association with birth weight percentiles in the univariable analysis (*p* value <.2) or were well-established research-based

confounders for fetal growth or risk factors for SGA [5,21]. As the effect of gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy and duration of chemotherapy exposure are highly correlated, both variables were not used in one model. A linear mixed effects (LME) model for repeated measures was used to test whether duration of chemotherapy during pregnancy or gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy, together or separate, significantly explained the individual variability of each ultrasound measurement (EFW, AC, HC, and FL) [22]. All tests were two-sided, and a *p* value below .05 was assumed statistical significant for all tests. Analyses were performed using SAS software (version 9.4 of the SAS System for Windows, Cary, NC) and R (version 3.6.0) (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria).

## Results

### Study population

Out of 1008 pregnancies with antenatal chemotherapy registered in the INCIP database, 201 women were eligible (Supplementary Figure 1). The birth weight percentiles in this series were not significantly different from other registered INCIP cases ( $n=807$ ) treated with antenatal chemotherapy without available prenatal scan information (Supplementary Table 3). Most women were diagnosed with breast cancer (132, 66%) and anthracyclines were the most frequently administered chemotherapeutic agent (158, 79%) (Tables 1a and 1b). Overall, sonographic percentiles of EFW, HC, AC, and FL showed a decreasing trend, when comparing 24, 30, and 34-weeks scan results in 107 cases with ultrasounds at all of these timepoints (Supplementary Figure 2). However, boxplots of these measurements revealed a stable, wide range from percentile 0 to 100 (Supplementary Figure 2). Of note, 76 of 107 women (71%) had already initiated chemotherapy by the 24-weeks scan. The median birth weight percentile for the INCIP population was 30 (range 1–100) (Figure 1).

Out of 201 cases, 43 patients (21%) delivered an SGA neonate. In total, 75 of 201 (37%) pregnancies were subject to impaired fetal growth according to the predefined definitions: (1) *FGR* occurred in 43 fetuses (21%). In the *FGR* group, early *FGR* (<32 weeks of gestation) occurred in 19/43 (44%) fetuses and 7/43 (16%) *FGR* fetuses were classified as asymmetrical *FGR*. In addition, (2) 10/201 neonates (5%) were *low risk SGA* at birth and (3) 22/201 fetuses (17%) were *presumably FGR*. There was one stillbirth at 31 weeks of a fetus that was early (symmetrical) *FGR* based on

**Table 1a.** Characteristics (continuous variables) by groups.

	Total	Non-FGR	FGR	<i>p</i> Value	Low risk SGA	<i>p</i> Value	Fetal growth disturbance	<i>p</i> Value
Total <i>N</i>	201	126	43		10		22	
For maternal BMI at booking	170	106	38		8		18	
For maternal weight gain	151	83	33		8		17	
For placenta weight and percentile	176	91	27		7		16	
Maternal age at diagnosis (years)	33 (33–19; 46)	34 (21–45; 6)	33 (24–46; 8)	.598	33 (24–43; 10)	.254	33 (19–41; 7)	.280
Maternal BMI at booking (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	24 (16–42; 7)	25 (18–42; 7)	22 (16–38; 5.9)	.021	24 (19–28; 4)	.263	25 (19–33; 3)	.927
Gestational weight gain (kg)	7 (–9 to 25; 6)	7 (–7 to 25; 7)	5.9 (–9 to 18; 5)	.085	8 (2–22; 4)	.820	7 (1–16; 6)	.473
Maternal weight gain (percentile) (Santos) <sup>a</sup>	13 (0–97; 32)	15 (0–97; 37)	8 (0–84; 28)	.033	7 (0–96; 21)	.197	10 (1–74; 27)	.473
GA chemo initiation (weeks)	22 (12–34; 9)	23 (12–34; 8)	20 (13–32; 10)	.042	17 (16–22; 5)	.004	22 (12–33; 10)	.325
Duration of chemo during pregnancy (weeks)	12.3 (2–26; 7)	2 (2–26; 7)	12 (3–22; 8)	.560	16 (7–20; 5)	.026	14 (3–24; 9)	.284
Number of courses of chemotherapy	5 (1–16; 3)	4 (1–16; 3)	4 (1–16; 4)	.715	7 (5–12; 7)	.002	6 (1–16; 6)	.134
GA delivery (weeks)	37 (29–40; 3)	37 (31–40; 2)	36 (29–39; 3)	.046	38 (35–39; 2)	.393	37 (33–40; 3)	.499
Crude birthweight percentile	30 (1–100; 46)	47 (10–100; 52)	3 (1–39; 14)	<.001	7 (3–9; 5)	<.001	28 (10–90; 23)	.002
Customized birth weight percentile <sup>b</sup>	32 (0–99; 47)	46 (4–100; 44)	4 (0–41; 16)	<.001	8 (3–17; 9)	<.001	25 (11–91; 32)	.032
Placental weight (g) <sup>c</sup>	394 (136–750; 158)	435 (243–750; 166)	308 (136–574; 113)	<.001	294 (199–421; 157)	<.001	391 (332–750; 103)	.546
Placenta percentile (Thompson)	4 (2–85;13)	8 (2–80; 27)	2 (2–31; 3.3)	.004	2 (2–3; 0)	.214	5 (2–85; 11.3)	.498

BMI: body mass index; GA: gestational age.

The characteristics of the fetal growth restricted (FGR) group, “low risk SGA” group and “fetal growth disturbance” group are compared to the group with normal fetal growth (non-FGR). For all characteristics, the median (range; interquartile range) are given.

<sup>a</sup>According to the reference range for gestational age at delivery and pre-pregnancy BMI in a low risk pregnant population as reported by Santos et al.

<sup>b</sup>According to the reference chart reported by Gardosi et al.

<sup>c</sup>The INCIP database does not distinguish between placental weight based on untrimmed or trimmed measurements; nor fixed or fresh.

**Table 1b.** Characteristics (categorical variables) by groups.

	Total		Non-FGR		FGR		<i>p</i> Value	Low risk SGA			Fetal growth disturbance		
	201		126		43			10			22		
Total <i>N</i>	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%		<i>N</i>	%	<i>p</i> Value	<i>N</i>	%	<i>p</i> Value
<i>Cancer type</i>							.847			.287			.265
Breast cancer	132	66	81	64	29	67		7	70		15	68	
Gynecological cancer	23	11	18	14	5	12		0	0		0	0	
Hematological cancer	39	19	3	2	2	5		1	10		1	5	
Other	7	3	24	19	7	16		2	20		6	27	
<i>US available</i>							.503			.894			.027
All echo (24–30–34)	107	53	60	48	5	58		5	50		18	82	
Echo 24–30	53	26	35	28	11	26		3	30		3	14	
Echo 30–34	33	16	21	17	6	14		2	20		1	5	
Echo 24 and 34	11	5	10	8	1	2		0	0		0	0	
<i>Ethnicity</i>							.623			1			.746
Caucasian	175	87	108	85	39	91		9	90		19	86	
African	4	2	4	3	0	0		0	0		0	0	
Asian	20	10	12	10	4	9		1	10		3	14	
Other (including Hispanic)	2	1	2	2	0	0		0	0		0	0	
<i>GA initiation chemo</i>							.036			.011			.32
<20	68	34	32	25	20	47		7	70		9	41	
20–27.9	92	46	65	51	16	37		3	30		8	36	
≥28 weeks	41	20	29	23	7	16		0	0		5	23	
<i>GA initiation chemo</i>							.222			.005			.198
<16	25	12	12	10	8	19		0	0		5	23	
16–19.9	43	21	20	16	12	28		7	70		4	18	
20–23.9	55	27	38	30	10	23		3	30		4	18	
24–27	37	18	27	21	6	14		0	0		4	18	
28–31.9	30	15	23	18	5	11		0	0		2	9	
>32	11	5	6	5	2	5		0	0		3	14	
<i>Maternal BMI</i>							.03			.321			.686
<18.5	4	2	1	1	3	7		0	0		0	0	
18.5–24.9	91	45	52	41	24	56		6	60		9	41	
25.0–29.9	47	23	32	25	6	14		2	20		7	31	
>30.0	28	14	21	17	5	12		0	0		2	9	
Not reported	31	15	20	16	5	12		2	20		4	18	
<i>Parity</i>							.278			.091			1.000
Nulliparous	85	42	49	39	21	49		7	70		8	36	
Multiparous	115	57	77	61	21	49		3	30		14	64	
Not reported	1	1	0	0	1	2		0	0		0	0	
<i>Smoking or substance use</i>							1			.623			1.000
No	117	58	76	60	22	51		5	50		4	18	
Yes	30	15	18	14	6	14		2	20		14	64	
Unknown	54	27	32	25	15	35		3	30		4	18	
<i>Hypertensive disorder</i>							.16			1			1.000
No	198	99	125	99	73	95		10	100		22	100	
Yes	3	1	1	2	2	5		0	0		0	0	
<i>Disease extent</i>							.094			.604			.241
Local	178	89	115	91	35	81		10	100		18	82	
Systemic	23	11	11	9	8	19		0	0		4	18	
<i>Diabetes</i>							.204			1			.592
No	195	97	120	95	43	100		10	100		22	100	
Yes	6	3	6	5	0	0		0	0		0	0	
<i>Treatment</i>							.103			.239			.563
Anthracyclines	121	60	80	65	21	49		5	50		15	68	
(Anthracyclines +) taxanes <sup>a</sup>	45	22	22	17	14	32		4	40		5	23	
Platinum-based	35	17	24	19	8	19		1	10		2	9	
<i>Anthracyclines</i>							.525			.227			.252
No	43	21	26	21	11	26		4	40		2	9	
Yes	158	79	100	79	32	74		6	60		22	91	
<i>Taxanes</i>							.812			1			.148
No	141	70	105	83	37	86		9	90		17	77	
Yes	60	30	21	17	6	14		1	10		5	23	
<i>Platina</i>							.713			1			.766
No	163	81	103	82	59	79		8	80		19	86	
Yes	38	19	23	18	16	21		2	20		3	14	
<i>Antenatal surgery</i>							.859			.187			.813
No	124	62	79	63	15	35		4	40		13	59	
Yes	77	38	47	37	28	65		6	60		9	41	
<i>Antenatal radiotherapy</i>							Na			.074			Na
No	200	100	126	100	43	100		9	90		22	100	
Yes	1	1	0	0	0	0		1	10		0	0	

(continued)

Table 1b. Continued.

	Total		Non-FGR		FGR		<i>p</i> Value	Low risk SGA			Fetal growth disturbance		
	N	%	N	%	N	%		N	%	<i>p</i> Value	N	%	<i>p</i> Value
Total <i>N</i>													
<i>Antenatal rituximab</i>							.741			1			.357
No	188	94	117	93	39	39		10	100		22	100	
Yes	13	7	9	7	4	4		0	0		0	0	
<i>NICU admission</i>							.764			1			.695
No	129	64	115	91	38	88		9	90		21	95	
Yes	53	26	11	9	5	12		1	10		1	5	
<i>Neonatal sex</i>							.21			.317			.245
Male	90	45	59	47	17	40		3	30		8	36	
Female	101	50	61	48	25	58		6	60		14	63	
Not reported	10	5	6	5	1	2		1	10		0	0	
<i>GA delivery</i>							.003			.51			.554
<32 weeks	7	4	1	1	6	14		0	0		0	0	
32–34 weeks	17	9	11	9	4	9		0	0		2	9	
34–37 weeks	81	40	51	40	15	35		3	30		12	55	
>37 weeks	96	48	63	50	18	42		7	70		8	36	
<i>Onset of labor</i>							.194			.123			.118
Spontaneous	45	22	22	17	11	26		4	40		8	36	
IOL	79	39	50	40	19	44		3	30		7	32	
Elective CS	70	35	51	40	11	26		2	20		6	27	
Not reported	7	3	3	2	2	5		1	10		1	5	
<i>Spontaneous preterm labor</i>										1			.037
No	182	91	117	93	39	91	.813	9	90		17	77	
Yes	19	9	9	7	4	9		1	10		5	23	
<i>Reason of IOL (n = 79)</i>			N = 50		N = 19		.229	N = 3		1	N = 7		.936
Maternal obstetrical	4	5	2	4	2	11		0	0		0	0	
Fetal obstetrical	4	5	3	6	2	11		0	0		0	0	
Therapy planning	63	80	42	84	11	58		3	100		6	86	
Maternal deterioration	7	9	3	6	3	16		0	0		1	14	
Other	1	1	0	0	1	5		0	0		0	0	
<i>Reason elective CS (n = 70)</i>			N = 51		N = 11		.226	N = 2		.568	N = 6		.599
Maternal obstetrical	23	33	18	35	2	18		0	0		3	50	
Fetal obstetrical	6	9	4	8	2	18		0	0		0	0	
Maternal clinical/oncological	41	59	29	57	7	64		2	100		3	50	
<i>Mode delivery</i>							.101			.176			.481
Vaginal	112	56	64	51	28	65		7	70		13	59	
Cesarean section	82	41	59	47	13	30		2	20		8	36	
Not reported	7	3	3	2	2	5		1	10		1	5	
<i>Abnormal Dopplers</i>							.001			na			na
No	133	96	85	100	29	85		5	100		14	100	
Yes	5	4	0	0	5	15		0	0		0	0	
Not reported	63		41		9			5			8		
<i>Oligohydramnion</i>							.037			1			1.000
No	195	97	124	98	39	91		10	100		22	100	
Yes	6 <sup>b</sup>	3	2	2	4	9		0	0		0	0	

GA: gestational age; na: not applicable.

The characteristics of the fetal growth restricted (FGR) group, "low risk SGA" group and "Fetal growth disturbance" group are compared to the group with normal fetal growth (no impact growth).

<sup>a</sup>Including four women with breast cancer that only received taxanes during pregnancy.

<sup>b</sup>Treatment with (1) cisplatin (6×), (2) doxorubicin-cyclophosphamide (4×) and paclitaxel (4×), (3) epirubicin-cyclophosphamide (4×), (4) doxorubicin-cyclophosphamide (2×), (5) BEACOPP (6×), and (6) EPOCH (4×).

sonographic findings. Placental pathology revealed villos fibrosis and a large hematoma.

There were no significant differences in oncological characteristics between *FGR* and *non-FGR* cases. In the *FGR* group, the maternal weight gain was lower ( $p = .033$ ) compared and more women started chemotherapy prior to 20 weeks of gestation ( $p = .036$ ). In 144 pregnancies, Doppler studies were reported. All cases with abnormal Doppler measurements were allocated to the *FGR* group ( $n = 5$ ).

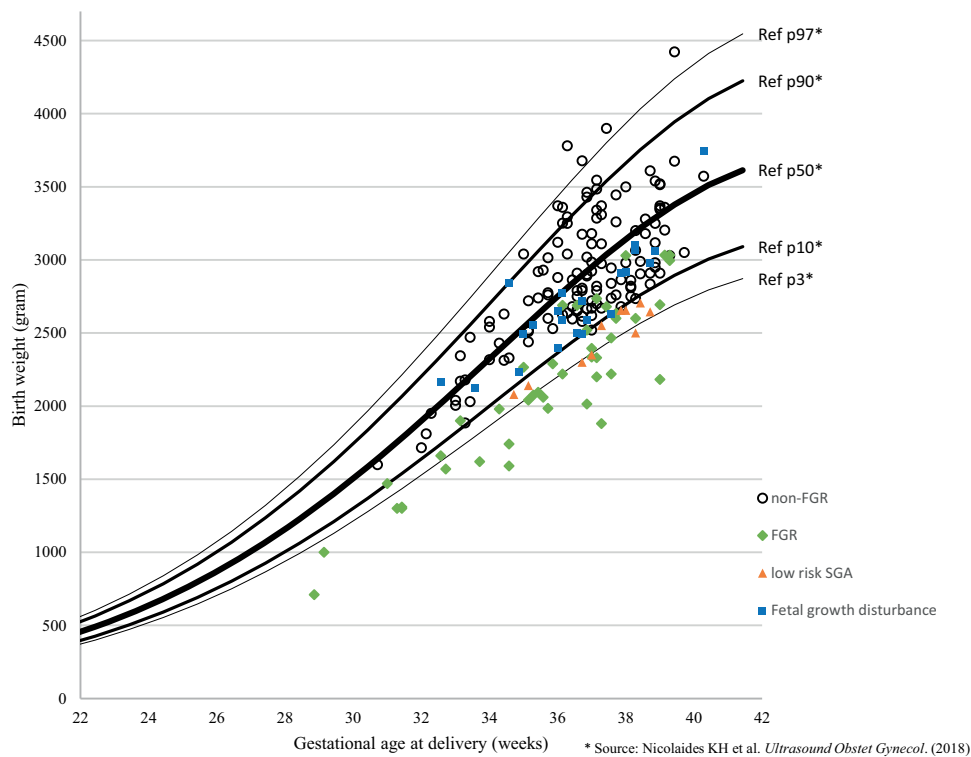
Median gestational age at delivery was 37 weeks (range 29–40). Most deliveries were planned for

obstetric or medical reasons (149 of 201, 74%). Only 10/201 (4.9%) women had an planned delivery because of fetal reasons (e.g. *FGR*). Preterm delivery was reported in 105 (52%) women, including 19 women with spontaneous preterm labor (9%).

### Effects of chemotherapy on birth weight

Univariable regression analysis showed that early *gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy* (1.09; 95%CI 0.38; 1.81,  $p < .01$ ) and longer *duration* thereof (−0.79; 95%CI −1.61; 0.02,  $p = .06$ ), low *maternal BMI* (1.30;





**Figure 1.** Scatter plot of birthweight according to gestational age at delivery, plotted on the reference chart by Nicolaides et al. [16] ( $n = 201$ ).

95%CI 0.39; 2.22,  $p < .01$ ), *systemic disease* ( $-10.23$ ; 95%CI  $-22.98$ ; 2.52,  $p = .12$ ), *low gestational weight gain* (0.17; 95%CI  $-0.01$ ; 0.34,  $p = .07$ ), *hypertensive disorders* ( $-31.14$ ; 95%CI  $-65.55$ ; 2.26,  $p = .07$ ), *parity (nulliparity)* (8.00; 95%CI  $-1.20$ ; 16.20,  $p = .06$ ), and *female neonatal sex* ( $-7.57$ ; 95%CI  $-0.67$ ; 15.81,  $p = .07$ ) were associated with lower birth weight percentile (Supplementary Table 1).

In this heterogeneous series, we identified *diabetes*, *maternal age*, *ethnicity*, and *cancer type* as clinically relevant confounders for fetal growth [21]. As most women ( $n = 158$ , 79%) received anthracyclines, and previous research revealed a higher risk for SGA with taxanes and platinum, we additionally corrected for the receipt of *taxanes* and/or *platinum* in multivariable analysis [5]. In multivariable analysis, the duration of antenatal chemotherapy (in weeks) remained negatively associated with birth weight percentile ( $-1.06$ ; 95%CI  $-2.01$ ;  $-0.04$ ;  $p = .04$ ), and gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy (in weeks) showed a positive correlation (1.10; 95%CI 0.26; 1.95;  $p = .01$ ) (Supplementary Table 1).

### Effect of chemotherapy on fetal growth

The LME models revealed that a longer duration of chemotherapy (in weeks) was related to lower EFW, AC, HC, and FL percentiles ( $-0.253$ ; 95%CI  $-0.315$ ;

$-0.191$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $-0.234$ ; 95%CI  $-0.280$ ;  $-0.189$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $-0.200$ ; 95%CI  $-0.034$  to 0.117,  $p < .001$ ; and 0.035; 95%CI  $-0.039$ ; 0.108,  $p < .001$ , respectively) (Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 3). In these models, the duration of antenatal chemotherapy appeared to have a greater influence on fetal growth compared to gestational age at chemotherapy initiation. The later chemotherapy was initiated, the higher the negative impact on EFW, AC, and HC (with a constant chemotherapy duration).

### Discussion

In this cohort study of pregnant cancer patients treated with chemotherapy, of whom 66% had breast cancer, 79% received anthracyclines and 88% delivered after 34 weeks of gestation, we found that over one third of the pregnancies was complicated by impaired fetal growth, including 21% FGR. Disease-related factors that were associated with FGR were systemic disease and low gestational weight gain, both associated with general maternal health and nutrition. The current data show that there is a strong correlation between low birth weight and a longer duration of chemotherapy exposure on the one hand and, likewise, low birth weight and an earlier gestational age at initiation of chemotherapy on the other. Nevertheless, when controlling for chemotherapy

duration, it appeared that chemotherapy initiation later in pregnancy resulted in a stronger impairment of fetal growth.

The literature about chemotherapy related FGR describes conflicting results; the largest cohorts, revealed an increased risk of SGA, where others, including population-based studies, do not confirm this [5,23–27]. To date, research in this field focused on birth weight only, potentially misjudging or underestimating the problem of FGR. Here, we confirm the high incidence of FGR in pregnant women receiving chemotherapy. However, not all fetuses are growth impaired and the majority do show a reassuring growth. The multifactorial etiology of FGR apart from exposure to cytotoxic drugs, including maternal nutritional status and disease severity, psychological stress, the presence of hypertensive disorders or diabetes, is reflected in these data. Factors interfering with fetal growth will have most impact when occurring in the third trimester of pregnancy, as EFW growth velocity increases across gestation, with a peak acceleration in the third trimester of pregnancy (35 weeks of gestational age) [28].

All maternal, placental, and fetal factors play a role in the etiology underlying FGR [10].

In (pregnant) cancer patients poor nutrition and general health, primary by cancer and secondary by the adverse effects of cancer treatment and cancer-related stress, are major determinants [29,30]. In this series, only 21% (32 of 151 data available) patients met IOM standards for maternal weight gain [31]. A cancer diagnosis results in both physical as emotional stress [32,33]. There is increasing evidence that prenatal stress disrupts maternal and fetal endocrine (cortisol-related pathways involving the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal (HPA) axis), nervous and immune (increased cytokine release) systems, hereby affecting pregnancy outcomes, including preterm birth and FGR [34]. Prenatal stress is reported to directly interfere with the insulin growth factor (IGF) system, involved in the regulation of fetal, placental, and neonatal growth [35].

Placental changes following chemotherapy exposure include histologic disturbances related to impaired maternal–fetal nutrient supply as well as placental oxidative damage and apoptosis affecting placental growth and function [36–38]. A case control study, evaluating chemotherapy-exposed placentas from women with cancer and placentas from healthy controls, confirmed increased oxidative (DNA) damage in chemotherapy-exposed placentas, with an increasing effect with longer chemotherapy exposure [38]. Also, chemotherapy might induce DNA damage and epigenetic changes in the

unborn child, affecting growth and health on the long-term [39].

Follow-up studies of children prenatally exposed to chemotherapy reveal that SGA children will eventually catch up growth [40,41]. This implicates that adverse fetal effects are rather transient, without affecting the postnatal growth potential. It remains unclear whether chemotherapy itself or the disease-related stress and inflammation is the dominant factor in impaired fetal growth; most likely it is a combination thereof.

With the relative low molecular weight and lower plasma protein binding, platinum derivatives will cross the placenta more easily compared to anthracyclines [42–44]. Although measured fetal plasma concentrations are low, the strong tissue-binding capacity of taxanes results in measurable concentrations in fetal tissues [42,45,46]. Based on earlier reports, we hypothesized that low birth weight percentiles would mainly be seen in patients exposed to taxanes and platinum, but we could not confirm this [5]. However, this cohort is relatively small compared to previous series and the heterogeneous cancer treatments and multidrug use complicate the detection of specific drug interactions [5].

This cohort study reveals a negative impact of the duration of chemotherapy on fetal growth; however, the actual cause of impaired fetal growth is most likely explained by the (longer duration of) exposure to multiple factors including cytotoxic agents, co-medications, maternal physical and psychological stress and malnutrition. In clinical practice, oncological management should adhere to standard protocols, while continuously balancing maternal and fetal risks. In order to preserve maternal prognosis antenatal treatment should not be postponed. Fetal surveillance includes serial growth scans and patients with an oncological diagnosis early in pregnancy and a presumed long antenatal treatment are at highest risk of impaired fetal growth.

This is an observational study to assess FGR in a selected group of pregnant women receiving chemotherapy, based on predefined criteria. However, management of FGR in cancer patients is case-specific and should not be extrapolated from this retrospective series. The variance in numbers of available ultrasound and performed Doppler measurements between patients is a consequence of the difference in local policies in obstetric follow-up of pregnant patients receiving chemotherapy and the lack of an international consensus. The lack of a detailed ultrasound reporting system in some hospitals, explains why relatively few cases with available ultrasounds could be selected from

the large INCIP registry. Also, this cohort is subject to selection bias as fetal ultrasounds may have been performed because of an assumed high risk of fetal growth abnormalities. The majority of the participating hospitals counsel pregnant cancer patients in a routine way for INCIP registration. In terms of distribution of cancer types, duration of antenatal chemotherapy and mean birth weight this series appears representative for the INCIP database. The results of this series should be interpreted with caution because multiple confounders for fetal growth in this high-risk population complicate data interpretation. Due to the retrospective study design, large amount of data were missing (e.g. on BMI, gestational weight gain, smoking/substance use during pregnancy). Also, we could not further explore placental histopathological findings. Future research on antenatal chemotherapy should not only focus on clinical data, but also on placental histopathology and FGR-related biomarkers in order to unravel the exact mechanism of chemotherapy-induced FGR. Larger prospective, more homogeneous cohorts are needed to further focus on effects of specific chemotherapy regimens and investigate a dose–effect of chemotherapy on fetal growth and birth weight, as suggested by these data. In this cohort study, racial disparities cannot be discussed properly as non-Caucasian women are underrepresented. The INCIP initiative strives to continue to collect data in a multicenter, international setting and collaborate with more hospitals around the globe to adjust for these disparities [47].

This study reveals that prenatal exposure to chemotherapy is a risk factor for FGR. Pregnant cancer patients should be followed in a high-risk obstetric unit with a close surveillance of the fetal growth, especially in the third trimester of pregnancy.

### Acknowledgements

We thank all patients who consented to have their data registered and all (para-)medical staff who was involved in registering cases in the INCIP database (details on [www.cancerinpregnancy.org](http://www.cancerinpregnancy.org)). We especially thank all INCIP members for the continued international collaboration and registration of clinical data on pregnant cancer patients and their offspring. We thank the European Society Gynecologic Oncology (ESGO) for their continued support.

### Disclosure statement


















The authors report no conflict of interest.

### Funding

The European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Program under Grant Agreement No. 647047,

Kom Op Tegen Kanker (Stand up to Cancer) funds the project of INCIP. The project receives support from ESGO (European Society of Gynecological Oncology).

### ORCID

Charlotte Maggen  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7485-0839>  
 Vera E. R. A. Wolters  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0169-3262>  
 Kristel Van Calsteren  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2438-6783>  
 Elyce Cardonick  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2203-3367>  
 Annouschka Laenen  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1371-442X>  
 Joosje H. Heimovaara  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0550-2793>  
 Mina Mhallem Gziri  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3528-2389>  
 Robert Fruscio  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5688-2194>  
 Johannes J. Duvekot  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3191-9362>  
 Rebecca C. Painter  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-9336-6033>  
 Bianca Masturzo  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-5243-0940>  
 Roman G. Shmakov  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2206-1002>  
 Michael Halaska  <http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6404-4537>  
 Paul Berveiller  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-7814-6945>  
 Jorine de Haan  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6470-3739>  
 Sanne J. Gordijn  <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-3915-8609>  
 Frédéric Amant  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5452-4905>

### References

- [1] Loibl S, Schmidt A, Gentilini O, et al. Breast cancer diagnosed during pregnancy: adapting recent advances in breast cancer care for pregnant patients. *JAMA Oncol.* 2015;1(8):1145–1153.
- [2] Amant F, Berveiller P, Boere IA, et al. Gynecologic cancers in pregnancy: guidelines based on a Third International Consensus Meeting. *Ann Oncol.* 2019;30(10):1601–1612.
- [3] Cardonick E, Iacobucci A. Use of chemotherapy during human pregnancy. *Lancet Oncol.* 2004;5(5):283–291.
- [4] Abdalla N, Bizoń M, Piórkowski R, et al. Does chemotherapy for gynecological malignancies during pregnancy cause fetal growth restriction? *Biomed Res Int.* 2017;2017:7543421.
- [5] de Haan J, Verheecke M, Van Calsteren K, et al. Oncological management and obstetric and neonatal outcomes for women diagnosed with cancer during pregnancy: a 20-year international cohort study of 1170 patients. *Lancet Oncol.* 2018.
- [6] Gordijn SJ, Beune IM, Thilaganathan B, et al. Consensus definition of fetal growth restriction: a Delphi procedure. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2016;48(3):333–339.
- [7] Lees C, Marlow N, Arabin B, et al. Perinatal morbidity and mortality in early-onset fetal growth restriction: cohort outcomes of the Trial of Randomized Umbilical and Fetal Flow in Europe (TRUFFLE). *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* 2013;42(4):400–408.
- [8] Ganzevoort W, Thilaganathan B, Baschat A, et al. Point. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2019;220(1):74–82.

- [9] Smith LH, Danielsen B, Allen ME, et al. Cancer associated with obstetric delivery: results of linkage with the California Cancer Registry. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* **2003**;189(4):1128–1135.
- [10] Mayer C, Joseph KS. Fetal growth: a review of terms, concepts and issues relevant to obstetrics. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* **2013**;41(2):136–145.
- [11] Cancer in Pregnancy; **2022**. Available from: [www.cancerinpregnancy.org](http://www.cancerinpregnancy.org)
- [12] Brierley J, Gospodarowicz MK, Wittekind C. TNM classification of malignant tumours. 8th ed. Chichester (UK); Hoboken (NJ): John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; **2017**.
- [13] Santos S, Eekhout I, Voerman E, et al. Gestational weight gain charts for different body mass index groups for women in Europe, North America, and Oceania. *BMC Med.* **2018**;16(1):201.
- [14] Snijders RJ, Nicolaides KH. Fetal biometry at 14–40 weeks' gestation. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* **1994**;4(1):34–48.
- [15] Hadlock FP, Harrist RB, Martinez-Poyer J. In utero analysis of fetal growth: a sonographic weight standard. *Radiology.* **1991**;181(1):129–133.
- [16] Nicolaides KH, Wright D, Syngelaki A, et al. Fetal medicine foundation fetal and neonatal population weight charts. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol.* **2018**;52(1):44–51.
- [17] Gardosi JF, Williams M, Hugh O, et al. Customised centile calculator GROW v8.0.4. Gestation Network; **2019**. Available from: [www.gestation.net](http://www.gestation.net)
- [18] Thompson JM, Irgens LM, Skjaerven R, et al. Placenta weight percentile curves for singleton deliveries. *BJOG.* **2007**;114(6):715–720.
- [19] Fetal Medicine Foundation. Assessment: fetal Doppler calculator; **2020** [cited 2020 Dec 1]. Available from: <https://fetalmedicine.org/research/doppler>
- [20] Beune IM, Bloomfield FH, Ganzevoort W, et al. Consensus based definition of growth restriction in the newborn. *J Pediatr.* **2018**;196:71–76.e1.
- [21] McCowan L, Horgan RP. Risk factors for small for gestational age infants. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol.* **2009**;23(6):779–793.
- [22] Oberg AL, Mahoney DW. Linear mixed effects models. *Methods Mol Biol.* **2007**;404:213–234.
- [23] Lu D, Ludvigsson JF, Smedby KE, et al. Maternal cancer during pregnancy and risks of stillbirth and infant mortality. *J Clin Oncol.* **2017**;35(14):1522–1529.
- [24] Lee YY, Roberts CL, Dobbins T, et al. Incidence and outcomes of pregnancy-associated cancer in Australia, 1994–2008: a population-based linkage study. *BJOG.* **2012**;119(13):1572–1582.
- [25] Ring AE, Smith IE, Jones A, et al. Chemotherapy for breast cancer during pregnancy: an 18-year experience from five London teaching hospitals. *J Clin Oncol.* **2005**;23(18):4192–4197.
- [26] Cardonick E, Usmani A, Ghaffar S. Perinatal outcomes of a pregnancy complicated by cancer, including neonatal follow-up after in utero exposure to chemotherapy: results of an International Registry. *Am J Clin Oncol.* **2010**;33(3):221–228.
- [27] Freret TS, Exman P, Mayer EL, et al. Birthweight and chemotherapy exposure in women diagnosed with breast cancer during pregnancy. *Am J Perinatol.* **2022**;39(5):554–561.
- [28] Grantz KL, Kim S, Grobman WA, et al. Fetal growth velocity: the NICHD fetal growth studies. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* **2018**;219(3):285.e1–285.e36.
- [29] Aapro M, Arends J, Bozzetti F, et al. Early recognition of malnutrition and cachexia in the cancer patient: a position paper of a European School of Oncology Task Force. *Ann Oncol.* **2014**;25(8):1492–1499.
- [30] Muscaritoli M, Lucia S, Farcomeni A, et al. Prevalence of malnutrition in patients at first medical oncology visit: the PreMiO study. *Oncotarget.* **2017**;8(45):79884–79896.
- [31] Institute of Medicine. Weight gain during pregnancy – reexamining the guidelines. In: Rasmussen KM, Yaktine AL, editors. Technical guidelines. Washington (DC): Institute of Medicine and National Research Council, The National Academies Press; **2009**.
- [32] Vandenbroucke T, Han SN, Van Calsteren K, et al. Psychological distress and cognitive coping in pregnant women diagnosed with cancer and their partners. *Psychooncology.* **2017**;26(8):1215–1221.
- [33] Andreu Y, Galdon MJ, Dura E, et al. A longitudinal study of psychosocial distress in breast cancer: prevalence and risk factors. *Psychol Health.* **2012**;27(1):72–87.
- [34] Coussons-Read ME. Effects of prenatal stress on pregnancy and human development: mechanisms and pathways. *Obstet Med.* **2013**;6(2):52–57.
- [35] Montoya-Williams D, Quinlan J, Clukay C, et al. Associations between maternal prenatal stress, methylation changes in IGF1 and IGF2, and birth weight. *J Dev Orig Health Dis.* **2018**;9(2):215–222.
- [36] Toledo MT, Gomes-Marcondes MC. Morphologic aspect of the placenta in young and adult pregnant rats bearing walker 256 carcinoma. *Oncol Res.* **1999**;11(8):359–366.
- [37] Toledo MT, Ventrucchi G, Marcondes MC. Cancer during pregnancy alters the activity of rat placenta and enhances the expression of cleaved PARP, cytochrome-c and caspase 3. *BMC Cancer.* **2006**;6:168.
- [38] Verheecke M, Cortes Calabuig A, Finalet Ferreiro J, et al. Genetic and microscopic assessment of the human chemotherapy-exposed placenta reveals possible pathways contributive to fetal growth restriction. *Placenta.* **2018**;64:61–70.
- [39] Cheung-Ong K, Giaever G, Nislow C. DNA-damaging agents in cancer chemotherapy: serendipity and chemical biology. *Chem Biol.* **2013**;20(5):648–659.
- [40] Amant F, Vandenbroucke T, Verheecke M, et al. Pediatric outcome after maternal cancer diagnosed during pregnancy. *N Engl J Med.* **2015**;373(19):1824–1834.
- [41] Vandenbroucke T, Verheecke M, van Gerwen M, et al. Child development at 6 years after maternal cancer diagnosis and treatment during pregnancy. *Eur J Cancer.* **2020**;138:57–67.
- [42] Calsteren KV, Verbesselt R, Devlieger R, et al. Transplacental transfer of paclitaxel, docetaxel, carboplatin, and trastuzumab in a baboon model. *Int J Gynecol Cancer.* **2010**;20(9):1456–1464.

- [43] Van Calsteren K, Verbesselt R, Beijnen J, et al. Transplacental transfer of anthracyclines, vinblastine, and 4-hydroxy-cyclophosphamide in a baboon model. *Gynecol Oncol.* 2010;119(3):594–600.
- [44] Berveiller P, Marty O, Vialard F, et al. Use of anticancer agents in gynecological oncology during pregnancy: a systematic review of maternal pharmacokinetics and transplacental transfer. *Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol.* 2016;12(5):523–531.
- [45] Cardonick E, Broadrup R, Xu P, et al. Preliminary results of identification and quantification of paclitaxel and its metabolites in human meconium from newborns with gestational chemotherapeutic exposure. *PLOS One.* 2019;14(2):e0211821.
- [46] Berveiller P, Vinot C, Mir O, et al. Comparative transplacental transfer of taxanes using the human perfused cotyledon placental model. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2012;207(6):514.e1–514.e7.
- [47] Maggen C, Wolters V, Cardonick E, et al. Pregnancy and cancer: the INCIP project. *Curr Oncol Rep.* 2020; 22(2):17.