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2 **Peripheral chemoreflex activation and cardiac function during hypoxemia in near term fetal**  
3 **sheep without placental compromise**

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39 **Running head: Fetal chemoreflex and cardiac function in hypoxemia**

40

41 **Abstract**

42 A drop in arterial oxygen content activates fetal chemoreflex including an increase in sympathetic  
43 activity leading to peripheral vasoconstriction and redistribution of blood flow to protect the brain,  
44 myocardium, and adrenal glands. By using a chronically instrumented fetal sheep model with intact  
45 placental circulation at near-term gestation, we investigated the relationship between peripheral  
46 chemoreflex activation induced by hypoxemia and central hemodynamics. A total of 17 Åland  
47 landrace sheep fetuses at 115-128/145 gestational days were instrumented. Carotid artery was  
48 catheterised in 10 fetuses and descending aorta in 7 fetuses. After a 4-day recovery, baseline  
49 measurements of fetal arterial blood pressures, blood gas values, and fetal cardiovascular  
50 hemodynamics by pulsed Doppler ultrasonography were obtained under isoflurane-anesthesia.  
51 Comparable data to baseline was collected 10 (acute hypoxemia) and 60 minutes (prolonged  
52 hypoxemia) after maternal hypo-oxygenation to saturation level of 70-80% was achieved. During  
53 prolonged hypoxemia, pH and base excess (BE) were lower, and lactate levels higher in the

54 descending aorta than in the carotid artery. During hypoxemia mean arterial blood pressure (MAP)  
55 in the descending aorta increased, while in the carotid artery MAP decreased. In addition, right  
56 pulmonary artery pulsatility index values increased, and the diastolic component in the aortic  
57 isthmus blood flow velocity waveform became more retrograde thus decreasing the aortic isthmus  
58 antegrade/retrograde blood flow (AoI Net Flow) ratio. Both fetal ventricular cardiac outputs were  
59 maintained even during prolonged hypoxemia when significant fetal metabolic acidemia developed.  
60 Fetal chemoreflex activation induced by hypoxemia decreased the perfusion pressure in the cerebral  
61 circulation. Fetal weight-indexed LVCO or AoI Net Flow-ratio did not correlate with a drop in  
62 carotid artery blood pressure.

### 63 **New & Noteworthy**

64 During fetal hypoxemia with intact placental circulation, peripheral chemoreflex was activated as  
65 demonstrated by an increase in the descending aorta blood pressure, pulmonary vasoconstriction  
66 and an increase in retrograde diastolic AoI blood flow, while both ventricular cardiac outputs  
67 remained stable. However, perfusion pressure in the cerebral circulation decreased. These changes  
68 were seen even during prolonged hypoxemia when significant metabolic acidosis developed.  
69 Weight-indexed LVCO or AoI Net Flow-ratio did not correlate with a drop in carotid artery blood  
70 pressure.

71

72 **Keywords: physiology, blood flow, Doppler ultrasonography, aortic isthmus, hemodynamics**

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75 **Introduction**

76 Fetus is protected against hypoxemia by several mechanisms, such as high myocardial glycogen  
77 stores, increased oxygen affinity of fetal hemoglobin, near-maximal cardiac output, and the  
78 presence of fetal vascular shunts that optimize oxygen delivery to the vital organs (26, 37, 40). Fetal  
79 peripheral chemoreceptors respond rapidly to changes in arterial pO<sub>2</sub> and mediate the neural  
80 protective responses (10, 11, 16). The chemoreflex activation in the carotid body results in  
81 increased parasympathetic activity leading to initial fetal bradycardia. A simultaneous increase in  
82 sympathetic activity leads to peripheral vasoconstriction and the centralisation of blood flow (16,  
83 23). When increased sympathetic activity is sustained, the parasympathetic effect is counteracted  
84 with a positive chronotropic effect and fetal bradycardia starts to recover (16). In addition,  
85 peripheral vasoconstriction increases blood pressure in the descending aorta leading to increased  
86 right ventricular afterload, which enhances shunting through the foramen ovale into the ascending  
87 aorta and cerebral circulation (15). Humoral agents are thereafter released which help to maintain  
88 the peripheral vasoconstriction and increase the heart rate even higher (16, 24). Hypoxic  
89 vasodilatation of the fetal cerebrovascular bed is associated with the local release of vasoactive  
90 agents, such as adenosine and nitric oxide (7, 21). These responses may vary during pregnancy,  
91 because fetal autonomic nervous system and chemoreceptor sensitivity mature with advancing  
92 gestation (13, 22, 38, 42).

93 Hypoxemia in fetuses with intact placental circulation leads to alterations in central hemodynamics  
94 that can be detected by Doppler ultrasonography. The most important findings include an increase  
95 in pulmonary arterial vascular impedance (4, 30, 33) and the appearance of a retrograde diastolic  
96 blood flow component in the aortic isthmus blood flow velocity waveform (31). Furthermore, the  
97 right ventricular cardiac output may increase during fetal hypoxemia (31, 41).

98 We developed a fetal sheep model with intact placental circulatory physiology to investigate the  
99 relationship between peripheral chemoreflex activation induced by hypoxemia and fetal central  
100 hemodynamics. We hypothesized that hypoxemia-induced alterations in fetal cardiovascular  
101 hemodynamics reflect the activation of peripheral chemoreflex. From a clinical standpoint, it would  
102 be important, if we could find the moment when the fetal peripheral chemoreflex is unable to  
103 provide sufficient perfusion pressure and blood flow to the brain by non-invasive ultrasonography.  
104 Specifically, we wanted to examine 1) the changes in carotid artery and descending aorta blood  
105 pressures and blood gas values, 2) the alterations in fetal cardiovascular hemodynamics, and 3) the  
106 relationship between cardiovascular hemodynamics and fetal carotid artery and descending aorta  
107 blood pressures during hypoxemia.

## 108 **Materials and methods**

109 The study protocol was approved by the National Animal Experiment Board of Finland  
110 (ESAVI/2387/04.10.07/2017). The animal care and experiments were performed in compliance  
111 with the national legislation (Finnish Government 2013; Parliament of Finland 2013) and the EU  
112 directive (The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union 2010).

113 A total of 17 Åland landrace sheep with time-dated singleton pregnancies were included in this  
114 study (Lammastila Sikka Talu, University of Turku, Rymättylä, Finland). The sheep were  
115 transported from the breeders to the Laboratory Animal Centre at the University of Oulu, Finland  
116 two weeks before the experiment. During this adaptation period, the sheep were group housed in  
117 two pens of 10.8 m<sup>2</sup> in area and during the experiment in individual pens of 3.6 m<sup>2</sup>, with straw  
118 bedding. Adjacent sheep were able to be in contact with each other through the windows between  
119 the pen walls, and no individual sheep was left alone in the animal room. The room temperature  
120 was 18 ± 2°C, ventilation rate 15 times per hour, and humidity 45 ± 5%. The light-dark cycle was 12  
121 h-12 h, with the lights off at 18.00 h. The sheep were given tap water and hay *ad libitum*, and they

122 had a salt block in the pen. Individually rationed oat grains, turnip rape-based protein supplement  
123 (Farmarin rypsi; Hankkija-Maatalous Oy, Seinäjoki, Finland) and mineral and vitamin supplements  
124 (Lammas Hertta; Hankkija -Maatalous Oy) were given twice daily, and the rations were increased  
125 gradually towards the end of pregnancy. Supportive doses of calcium were given when needed  
126 (orally or intravenously). Animals were monitored several times daily by a veterinarian, animal  
127 technicians and the investigators for signs of pain, distress, injury, or disease. The focus was set to  
128 ensure the well-being of animals and to minimize pain and suffering (see methodological  
129 description below for details).

### 130 **Surgery and Instrumentation**

131 Fetal instrumentation was performed at 115-128 gestational days (term 145 days). The sheep were  
132 premedicated with ketamine (2mg/kg i.m.; Ketaminol vet; Intervet, Boxmeer, The Netherlands) and  
133 midazolam (0.2mg/kg i.m.; Midazolam Hameln; Hameln Pharmaceuticals, Hameln, Germany).

134 Maternal left jugular vein was cannulated to obtain intravenous access and lactated Ringer solution  
135 was infused with a rate of 200ml/h. General anesthesia was induced with intravenous propofol (4–7  
136 mg/kg; Propofol-Lipuro; Braun, Melsungen, Germany) and maintained with isoflurane (1.5–2.5%;  
137 Isofluran Baxter; Baxter S.A., Lessines, Belgium) in an oxygen–air mixture delivered via an  
138 endotracheal tube. Fentanyl (0.05–0.15 mg; Fentanyl-Hameln; Hameln Pharma Plus, Hameln,  
139 Germany) was administered intravenously when required for pain relief based on maternal heart  
140 rate and arterial blood pressure changes during surgical stimuli.

141 A midline abdominal incision was made to access the uterus and the fetus through a hysterotomy. In  
142 case of a twin pregnancy, only one fetus was instrumented. In 10 fetuses, the head and upper body  
143 were delivered. Nonocclusive polyvinyl catheters were inserted into the carotid artery and internal  
144 jugular vein, with the catheter tips in the carotid artery and superior vena cava (SVC) pointing  
145 towards the heart. In 7 fetuses, the lower body was delivered, and a nonocclusive polyvinyl catheter

146 was inserted into the femoral artery with the catheter tip in the descending aorta pointing towards  
147 the heart. A three-lead 28-gauge silver-coated copper ECG wire (New England Wire Tech., Lisbon,  
148 NH, USA) was placed subcutaneously on the fetal chest. A separate polyvinyl catheter was placed  
149 in the amniotic cavity. Lost amniotic fluid was replaced with warm saline. Injection of penicillin G  
150 (1 million units; Geopenil; Orion Oyj, Espoo, Finland) was administered to the fetus. The surgical  
151 incisions were closed. All catheters were tunnelled subcutaneously and exteriorized through a small  
152 incision in the ewe's flank. Postoperative analgesia was provided with 100mg bupivacaine  
153 (Bupivacaine Accord 5mg/ml; Accord Healthcare B.V., Utrecht, Netherlands) injected locally into  
154 the surgical wounds and with transdermal fentanyl patches (Fentanyl ratiopharm; Ratiopharm, Ulm,  
155 Germany), at the dose rate of 2  $\mu\text{g}$  /kg/h, applied to the ewe's antebrachium before surgery.

## 156 **Experimental protocol**

157 Following a 4-day recovery period, general anesthesia was induced with a single bolus of propofol  
158 (4–7 mg/kg; Propofol-Lipuro; Braun, Melsungen, Germany) and maintained by isoflurane (1.5–  
159 2.5%; Isofluran Baxter; Baxter S.A., Lessines, Belgium) in an oxygen/air mixture. The depth of  
160 anesthesia was titrated to keep maternal heart rate and blood pressure within the normal physiologic  
161 range, while allowing for ultrasound examination without maternal discomfort. A 16-gauge  
162 polyurethane catheter was inserted into the maternal femoral artery in order to measure maternal  
163 arterial blood pressure and to obtain arterial blood gas samples. The ewe was placed supine with a  
164 right lateral tilt and allowed to stabilize for 30 minutes before the baseline measurements were  
165 taken. Thereafter, maternal hypo-oxygenation was induced in a re-breathing circuit to reach a  
166 maternal arterial oxygen saturation level of 70-80%. This was confirmed by an arterial blood gas  
167 sample. Ten minutes after the desired maternal oxygen saturation level was reached, the data for  
168 acute hypoxemia was collected. The data acquisition for prolonged hypoxemia was performed 60  
169 minutes following the onset of hypoxemia.

170

### 171 **Invasive monitoring**

172 Fetal and maternal blood pressures were continuously monitored with disposable pressure  
173 transducers (DT-XX; Ohmeda, Hatfield, UK). Fetal blood pressures were referenced to intra-  
174 amniotic pressure. Maternal heart rate was obtained from the arterial pressure waveforms. Fetal  
175 ECG leads were connected to the ultrasound equipment to obtain fetal heart rate. Maternal and fetal  
176 blood gas values were analysed (correction to 39°C) at each study point using an Abbot i-Stat 1  
177 arterial blood gas analyser (i-Stat, East Windsor, NJ, USA).

### 178 **Ultrasonography**

179 Vivid 7 Dimension ultrasound system (GE Vingmed Ultrasound, Horten, Norway) with a 10 MHz  
180 phased-array transducer was used to collect fetal cardiovascular hemodynamic parameters. The  
181 high-pass filter was set at minimum, and the angle of insonation was kept below 15 degrees. Three  
182 consecutive cardiac cycles were measured, and the mean values were used for analysis.

183 Fetal left (LVCO) and right (RVCO) ventricular cardiac outputs were calculated as previously  
184 described (35). Briefly, aortic and pulmonary valve diameters were measured, and their cross-  
185 sectional areas (CSA) were calculated. From the blood flow velocity waveforms of the aortic and  
186 pulmonary valves, time-velocity integrals (TVI) were measured and volumetric blood flows (Q)  
187 across the aortic (left ventricular cardiac output, LVCO) and pulmonary (right ventricular cardiac  
188 output, RVCO) valves were calculated ( $Q = CSA \times TVI \times \text{fetal heart rate}$ ). The sum of LVCO and  
189 RVCO is the combined cardiac output (CCO). Fetal cardiac outputs were weight-indexed.

190 Blood flow velocity waveforms of the ductus arteriosus (DA), umbilical artery (UA), descending  
191 aorta (DAo), right pulmonary artery (RPA), pulmonary vein (Pulmvein), ductus venosus (DV) and  
192 inferior vena cava (IVC) were obtained to calculate their pulsatility index (PI) values as follows:  
193  $(\text{peak systolic velocity} - \text{end diastolic velocity}) / \text{time-averaged maximum velocity over the cardiac}$

194 cycle. Aortic isthmus blood flow velocity waveforms were recorded and the TVI ratio between  
195 antegrade and retrograde blood flow components was calculated (AoI Net Flow-ratio). Figure 1  
196 demonstrates fetal sheep cardiovascular anatomy. To estimate volume blood flow in the placenta  
197 ( $Q_{\text{plac}}$ ), umbilical venous (UV) volume blood flow was calculated as follows:  $0.5 \times \text{UV maximum}$   
198  $\text{velocity (cm/s)} \times \text{UV CSA (3)}$ . Placental vascular resistance ( $R_{\text{plac}}$ ) was calculated by dividing  
199 descending aorta MAP by  $Q_{\text{plac}}$ . Both  $Q_{\text{plac}}$  and  $R_{\text{plac}}$  were weight-indexed (1). At each phase, the  
200 ultrasonographic data acquisition took about 15–20 minutes, and the data were collected in a  
201 random order by a single investigator. The ultrasonographic data were stored and analysed  
202 afterwards in a blind manner.

203 At the end of the experiment, the fetus and the ewe were killed with an i.v. overdose (100 mg/kg) of  
204 pentobarbital sodium (Mebunat vet; Orion Oyj, Espoo, Finland), and fetal weight was determined.

### 205 **Statistical analysis**

206 Data were analysed using SAS for windows (version 9.4; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

207 Summary measurements are presented as means and standard deviations (SD) unless otherwise

208 stated. We used a repeated-measures mixed-model ANOVA for continuous outcomes to report the

209 between-group differences at specific time points and within-group differences between different

210 time points. Because fetal hypoxemia exposure was similar in both groups and ultrasonographic

211 parameters of fetal hemodynamics did not differ significantly between the groups at any time point,

212 we combined the ultrasonographic data from the two groups for statistical analyses. To test the

213 correlation between the variables, Spearman's correlation coefficient ( $\rho$ ) was calculated. The

214 strength of the association was considered for absolute values of  $\rho$  0.25-0.5 as weak, 0.5-0.75 as

215 moderate, and 0.75-1 as strong correlation, while  $\rho < 0.25$  was regarded as having no association.

216 A two-tailed p-value of  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. P-values should be treated

217 with caution given the large number of statistical tests performed.

218 **Results**

219 Mean (SD) maternal weight was 54 (8) kg. Maternal blood pressure remained within normal  
220 physiologic range during the entire experiment. As expected, maternal pO<sub>2</sub> decreased significantly  
221 during hypoxemia (Table 1).

222 The gestational age on the day of the experiment was 119-132 days. The mean fetal weight was  
223 2449 (342) g and did not differ significantly between fetuses that had their carotid artery or  
224 descending aorta catheterized (2408 (29) vs. 2508 (44)g, p=0.57). At baseline, fetal arterial pH and  
225 blood gas values were within the normal physiologic range and comparable between the carotid  
226 artery and the descending aorta (Table 2). During hypoxemia, fetal pO<sub>2</sub> decreased significantly  
227 from baseline values with no difference between the carotid artery and the descending aorta (Table  
228 2). Fetal pH and base excess were lower and lactate values higher in the descending aorta than in  
229 the carotid artery during prolonged hypoxemia (Table 2).

230 Fetal carotid artery and descending aorta blood pressure values at different time points are presented  
231 in Figure 2. At baseline, fetal carotid artery and descending aorta blood pressures were comparable.  
232 During acute hypoxemia, carotid artery systolic (52 (7) vs. 42 (6) mmHg, p<0.001), mean (42 (7)  
233 vs. 33 (8) mmHg, p=0.001), and diastolic (31 (6) vs. 26 (6) mmHg, p=0.006) blood pressures  
234 decreased from baseline. During prolonged hypoxemia, carotid artery systolic and diastolic blood  
235 pressures did not change further. On the other hand, in the descending aorta, systolic (50 (5) vs. 62  
236 (17) mmHg, p=0.025) and mean (39 (5) vs. 47 (12) mmHg, p=0.036) blood pressures increased  
237 from baseline during prolonged hypoxemia. There was a difference between the carotid artery and  
238 descending aorta blood pressures during both acute (systolic 42 (6) vs. 59 (8) mmHg, p<0.001,  
239 mean 33 (8) vs. 44 (12) mmHg, p=0.027, diastolic 26 (6) vs. 40 (13) mmHg, p=0.001) and  
240 prolonged (systolic 43 (6) vs. 62 (17) mmHg, p<0.001, diastolic 27 (7) vs. 40 (10) mmHg, p=0.003)

241 hypoxemia. Fetal heart rate was higher during prolonged hypoxemia compared to baseline (Table  
242 3). Fetal systemic venous pressure did not change significantly during hypoxemia (Table 3).

243 Fetal weight-indexed cardiac outputs remained comparable to baseline during the experiment  
244 (Table 3). However, fetal RPA PI and Pulmvein PIV values increased significantly during  
245 hypoxemia (Figure 3, Table 4). In the AoI, hypoxemia increased the retrograde blood flow velocity  
246 waveform component leading to a significant decrease in the AoI Net Flow-ratio (Figure 3, Table  
247 4). On the other hand, UA, DA and DAo PI values were not statistically significantly affected by  
248 fetal hypoxemia. In the fetal systemic venous circulation, IVC PIV values increased significantly  
249 during prolonged hypoxemia compared to baseline, while DV PIV values did not change (Figure 3,  
250 Table 4). There was a trend towards a decrease in weight-indexed  $Q_{\text{plac}}$  and an increase in  $R_{\text{plac}}$ .  
251 However, these changes did not reach statistical significance (Table 3).

252 At baseline, RPA PI showed a strong negative correlation with weight-indexed LVCO ( $\rho = -0.82$ ,  
253  $p = 0.023$ ) (Figure 4) and moderate negative correlation with AoI Net Flow-ratio ( $\rho = -0.51$ ,  $p =$   
254  $0.007$ ). During prolonged hypoxemia, AoI Net Flow-ratio correlated moderately positively with  
255 weight-indexed  $Q_{\text{plac}}$  ( $\rho = 0.51$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ). In addition, there were strong positive correlations  
256 between descending aorta systolic ( $\rho = 0.93$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), mean ( $\rho = 0.90$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ) (Figure 4),  
257 and diastolic ( $\rho = 0.79$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ) blood pressures and weight-indexed  $Q_{\text{plac}}$  during prolonged  
258 hypoxemia. Furthermore, weight-indexed LVCO showed strong positive correlations with  
259 descending aorta systolic ( $\rho = 0.89$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ) and mean ( $\rho = 0.76$ ,  $p = 0.041$ ) blood pressure  
260 during prolonged hypoxemia. RPA PI had a strong negative correlation with descending aorta  
261 systolic blood pressure during prolonged hypoxemia ( $\rho = -0.79$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ). On the other hand,  
262 AoI Net Flow-ratio ( $\rho = 0.02-0.29$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ) and weight-indexed LVCO ( $\rho = 0.05-0.41$ ;  $p > 0.05$ )  
263 did not show any statistically significant correlation with carotid artery blood pressures at baseline  
264 or during hypoxemia. Hypoxemia-induced decrease in the carotid artery blood pressure did not

265 differ between fetuses with antegrade ( $>1$ ) and retrograde ( $<1$ ) AoI Net Flow-ratio (data not  
266 shown).

## 267 **Discussion**

268 This fetal sheep study was designed to investigate how fetal chemoreflex activation induced by  
269 hypoxemia is reflected in fetal central hemodynamics at near term gestation with intact placental  
270 circulation. Hypoxemia activated fetal chemoreflex as shown by an increase in the descending aorta  
271 blood pressure and a decrease in the carotid artery blood pressure. Increased descending aorta blood  
272 pressure most likely reflects hypoxemia-induced peripheral vasoconstriction as shown by Giussani  
273 et al. (16). Fetal heart rate increased during prolonged hypoxemia indicating increased sympathetic  
274 activation. Under hypoxemia, fetal blood gas values measured from the carotid artery and  
275 descending aorta demonstrated a divergent pattern. In the descending aorta, pH and BE decreased,  
276 and lactate values increased significantly more than in the carotid artery, demonstrating the  
277 importance of fetal circulatory shunts, i.e., ductus venosus and foramen ovale, to protect the brain  
278 by allowing the oxygenated blood from the placenta to enter cerebral circulation. In the fetal central  
279 hemodynamics, hypoxemia induced vasoconstriction in the pulmonary circulation as demonstrated  
280 by an increase in right pulmonary artery PI values, and a decrease in the AoI Net Flow-ratio. We  
281 found no correlation between weight-indexed LVCO or AoI Net Flow-ratio and fetal carotid artery  
282 blood pressure.

283 Aortic isthmus is an important watershed area in the fetal arterial circulation that reflects the  
284 balance between upper (brain) and lower body (placenta) resistances (14, 31, 32). The physiologic  
285 importance of aortic isthmus has been studied in acute fetal sheep experiments, in which placental  
286 vascular resistance has been increased by limiting umbilical venous return to the fetus (8). A 50 %  
287 reduction in the umbilical venous blood flow was associated with a retrograde diastolic flow  
288 through the aortic isthmus (8). When the umbilical venous flow reduction reached about 75 %, the

289 net forward flow through the aortic isthmus approached zero. At the same time, fetal descending  
290 aorta blood pressure was maintained and fetal hypercapnia without hypoxemia developed. In a  
291 similar experiment, carotid artery blood pressure and volume blood flow were maintained during a  
292 progressive reduction in the umbilical venous blood flow, while  $pO_2$  decreased and  $pCO_2$  increased  
293 significantly. The authors found that the delivery of oxygen to the brain is preserved despite a  
294 significant drop in arterial oxygen content as long as the net flow through the aortic isthmus is  
295 antegrade (14). The restriction of umbilical venous return led to a significant drop in both left and  
296 right ventricular cardiac outputs (14). In the present study, we found a similar change in the aortic  
297 isthmus blood flow profile with intact placental circulation and unchanged fetal cardiac outputs. We  
298 found no significant correlation between the AoI Net Flow-ratio and carotid artery or descending  
299 aorta blood pressures during hypoxemia. In addition, weight-indexed LVCO did not correlate with  
300 carotid artery blood pressure under hypoxemia. In addition, the blood pressure changes in the  
301 carotid artery induced by hypoxemia were comparable between fetuses with antegrade (ratio >1)  
302 and retrograde (ratio <1) aortic isthmus net blood flow. Furthermore, we have shown previously  
303 that in fetal sheep with complete occlusion of the ascending aorta, carotid artery blood pressure  
304 decreased dramatically demonstrating that the aortic isthmus failed to redirect blood flow from the  
305 ductus arteriosus and descending aorta to the aortic arch (20). Our findings suggest that the AoI Net  
306 Flow-ratio or LVCO are not related to changes in fetal cerebral perfusion pressure and therefore  
307 cannot be used as surrogates of perfusion pressure in the fetal brain.

308 Fetal hypoxemia led to vasoconstriction in pulmonary arterial bed, as indicated by an increase in the  
309 RPA PI values. In addition, pulmonary vein PIV values increased, most likely reflecting a  
310 significant reduction in the volume blood flow in the lung circulation, while another explanation  
311 could be a rise in the left atrial pressure. We found significant negative correlations between the  
312 RPA PI values and the AoI Net Flow-ratio and weight-indexed LVCO at baseline. In other words, a  
313 drop in the lung volume blood flow would lead to a decrease in the LVCO and an increase in the

314 retrograde component in the aortic isthmus blood flow pattern. We have shown that foramen ovale  
315 has a limited capacity to increase its volume blood flow (18, 29). These findings suggest that fetal  
316 pulmonary blood flow has an important role in the regulation of left ventricular output and  
317 hemodynamics in the aortic isthmus.

318 Both fetal ventricular cardiac outputs were maintained even during prolonged hypoxemia when  
319 significant fetal metabolic acidemia had developed. Our findings are in agreement with previous  
320 studies showing that during acute hypoxemia fetal cardiac outputs remain unchanged or RVCO can  
321 even increase (32, 41). Cohn et al. (10) studied circulatory responses to hypoxemia and acidemia in  
322 fetal sheep at near-term gestation by using nuclide-labeled microspheres and their results suggested  
323 that in fetuses who developed acidemia, cardiac output fell significantly. In the present study, fetal  
324 metabolic acidemia was even more severe than in the study by Cohn et al. (10). Different  
325 methodology to measure fetal cardiac output could at least partially explain this discrepancy in the  
326 results. On the other hand, our results are in agreement with studies demonstrating stable ventricular  
327 cardiac outputs in sheep fetuses with metabolic acidemia and placental embolization (2) as well as  
328 increased placental vascular resistance caused by Angiotensin II (25). Furthermore, human fetuses  
329 with placental insufficiency and growth restriction have comparable weight-indexed cardiac outputs  
330 to control fetuses, while the proportion of cardiac output directed to the placenta is reduced,  
331 indicating enhanced recirculation of umbilical blood in the fetal body (27, 32, 36). In the present  
332 study, the weight-indexed placental volume blood flow and vascular resistance, and UA PI values  
333 did not change statistically significantly during hypoxemia. For calculation of placental vascular  
334 resistance, we could only include those fetuses with descending aorta blood pressure, because the  
335 carotid artery blood pressure response to hypoxemia was different. Under hypoxemia, the AoI Net  
336 Flow-ratio and descending aorta blood pressures correlated positively with the weight-indexed  
337 placental blood flow. Our findings are in agreement with earlier studies demonstrating the  
338 relationship between aortic isthmus hemodynamics and placental volume blood flow (14), as well

339 as unchanged UA PI values during hypoxemia (31). The strong positive correlations between  
340 descending aorta blood pressures and placental volume blood flow demonstrate the importance of  
341 perfusion pressure in the maintenance of placental volume blood flow, because the  
342 umbilicoplacental circulation has no significant autoregulative capacity (5).

343 We found an increase in the pulsatility of IVC blood flow velocity waveform during prolonged  
344 hypoxemia, the most likely explanation being augmented atrial contraction, because fetal systemic  
345 venous pressure did not increase during hypoxemia (19). On the other hand, DV PIV values did not  
346 change significantly during the experiment. Fetal oxygen tension is known to be an important  
347 regulator of DV tonus and caliber; fetal hypoxemia dilates DV to increase the DV blood flow  
348 shunting from the placenta (28). Therefore, these hypoxemia-related changes in the DV  
349 hemodynamics could mask the effect of augmented atrial contraction.

350 During prolonged hypoxemia, descending aorta pH and base excess values were significantly lower,  
351 and lactate levels higher than in the carotid artery. Since blood gas values in the carotid artery  
352 represent the blood that is mainly coming from the placenta, and descending aorta blood gas values  
353 represent the blood coming from the IVC and SVC, the differences we observed demonstrate the  
354 ability of intact placenta to remove lactate from the fetal circulation and also the physiologic  
355 importance of the fetal shunts, mainly DV and foramen ovale, to provide blood from the placenta to  
356 critical fetal organs.

357 Even though we did not directly measure the cerebral volume blood flow, we can estimate that it  
358 increased during hypoxemia because of unchanged left ventricular output and increased retrograde  
359 aortic isthmus flow during diastole. In addition, Fouron et al. (14) demonstrated a slight increase in  
360 the carotid artery volume blood flow during umbilical venous constriction, even though left  
361 ventricular output decreased significantly. In near term fetal sheep, it has been estimated that about  
362 2.6% of the combined cardiac output is directed to the brain, while SVC blood return represents

363 about 25% of the combined cardiac output (38). We can roughly estimate that in fetal sheep SVC  
364 volume blood flow equals the volume blood flow in the brachiocephalic artery. The brachiocephalic  
365 artery is a single blood vessel arising from the aortic arch supplying the upper body and brain.  
366 Therefore, by redirecting blood flow from the upper body towards the brain by means of peripheral  
367 vasoconstriction and cerebral vasodilatation, fetus could markedly increase brain blood flow  
368 without any change in the volume blood flow of the brachiocephalic artery.

369 Our findings are clinically important. The hypoxemia induced fetal chemoreflex activation led to a  
370 reduction in the perfusion pressure of the cerebral circulation. It has been shown that neuronal  
371 damage is more associated with hypotension than the degree of hypoxia in near-term fetal sheep  
372 (17). However, hypoxemia related alterations in the fetal central hemodynamics or LVCO were not  
373 associated with the reduction in the perfusion pressure of the brain which, therefore, most likely  
374 reflected decreased cerebrovascular resistance. On the other hand, our results are in agreement with  
375 previous studies demonstrating that non-invasive Doppler ultrasound could be used to identify  
376 hypoxemic fetuses at near term gestation by monitoring fetal branch pulmonary artery and aortic  
377 isthmus hemodynamics.

378 This study has some limitations. The surgery could cause a significant stress to the fetus. However,  
379 the postoperative period should be long enough for the recovery of fetal myocardial function and  
380 circulatory physiology (12). Furthermore, fetal blood gas values and blood pressures were within  
381 the normal physiological range at baseline indicating sufficient recovery (12). The experiments  
382 were performed under general anaesthesia that could influence fetal cardiovascular responses to  
383 hypoxemia. However, studies have shown that at reasonable anesthetic depth, and without  
384 myocardial or peripheral cardiovascular disease, the newborn lamb can coordinate neural,  
385 endocrine, and local tissue responses to increase cardiovascular performance in response to  
386 hypoxemia (9). In an ideal study design, both carotid artery and descending aorta blood pressures  
387 would have been measured simultaneously from the same fetus. This approach would have

388 significantly increased the risk for fetal loss due to more extensive instrumentation. Validation  
389 studies in fetal sheep have shown that invasive and Doppler echocardiographic volume blood flow  
390 calculations correlate well (39). The intraobserver variabilities of Doppler ultrasonographic  
391 parameters of fetal sheep cardiovascular hemodynamics are comparable to those found in human  
392 fetuses during the second half of pregnancy (6, 34).

393 We conclude that hypoxemia increased descending aorta blood pressures and decreased carotid  
394 artery blood pressures, indicating the activation of the fetal chemoreflex. During hypoxemia,  
395 descending aorta pH decreased, and lactate values increased more than the corresponding values in  
396 the carotid artery, demonstrating the importance of fetal circulatory shunts, i.e., ductus venosus and  
397 foramen ovale, to protect the brain. Hypoxemia induced vasoconstriction in the fetal pulmonary  
398 circulation and decreased the AoI Net Flow-ratio. However, fetal weight-indexed LVCO or AoI Net  
399 Flow-ratio did not correlate with carotid artery blood pressures, suggesting that these parameters do  
400 not reflect the cerebral perfusion pressure.

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517 Figure legends:

518

519 **Figure 1. Anatomy of fetal sheep heart and central blood vessels.**

520 **Figure 2. Fetal systolic, mean, and diastolic blood pressures in the carotid artery (n=10) and**  
521 **the descending aorta (n=7) during the experiment.** Symbols represent mean values and vertical  
522 bars represent one standard deviation.

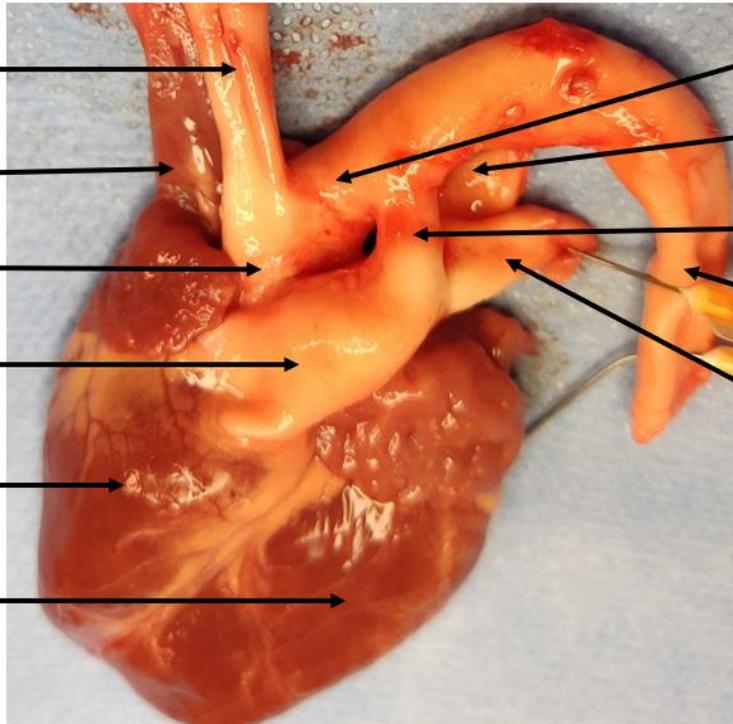
523 **Figure 3. Blood flow velocity waveforms of A) aortic isthmus, B) right pulmonary artery, C)**  
524 **pulmonary vein, D) inferior vena cava, E) ductus venosus, F) descending aorta and G)**  
525 **umbilical artery at baseline and during hypoxemia.**

526 **Figure 4. Correlations between a) weight-indexed left ventricular cardiac output (LVCO) and**  
527 **right pulmonary artery pulsatility index (RPA PI) values at baseline, and b) descending aorta**  
528 **mean arterial pressure (MAP) and weight-indexed placental volume blood flow ( $Q_{\text{plac}} / \text{kg}$ )**  
529 **during prolonged hypoxemia.**

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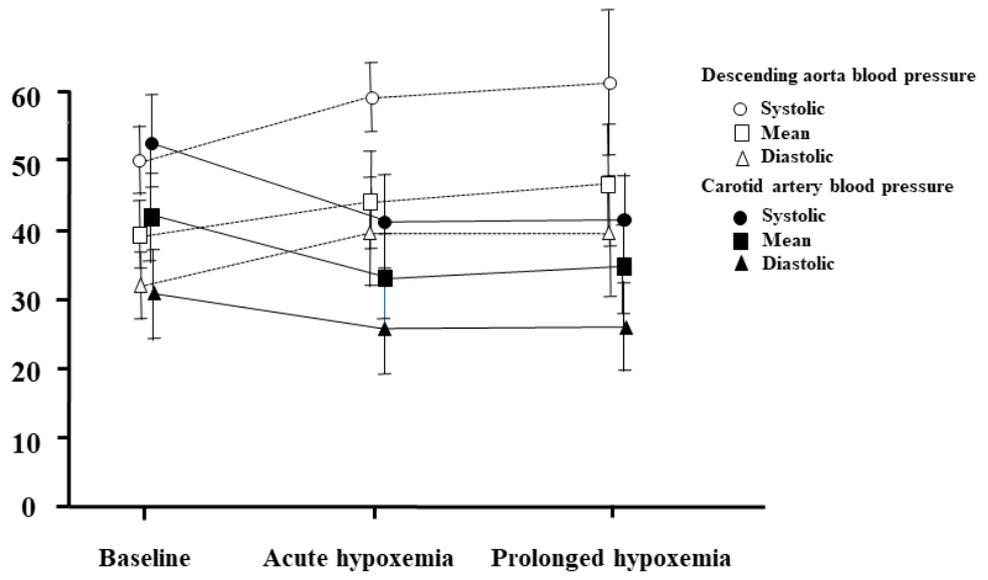
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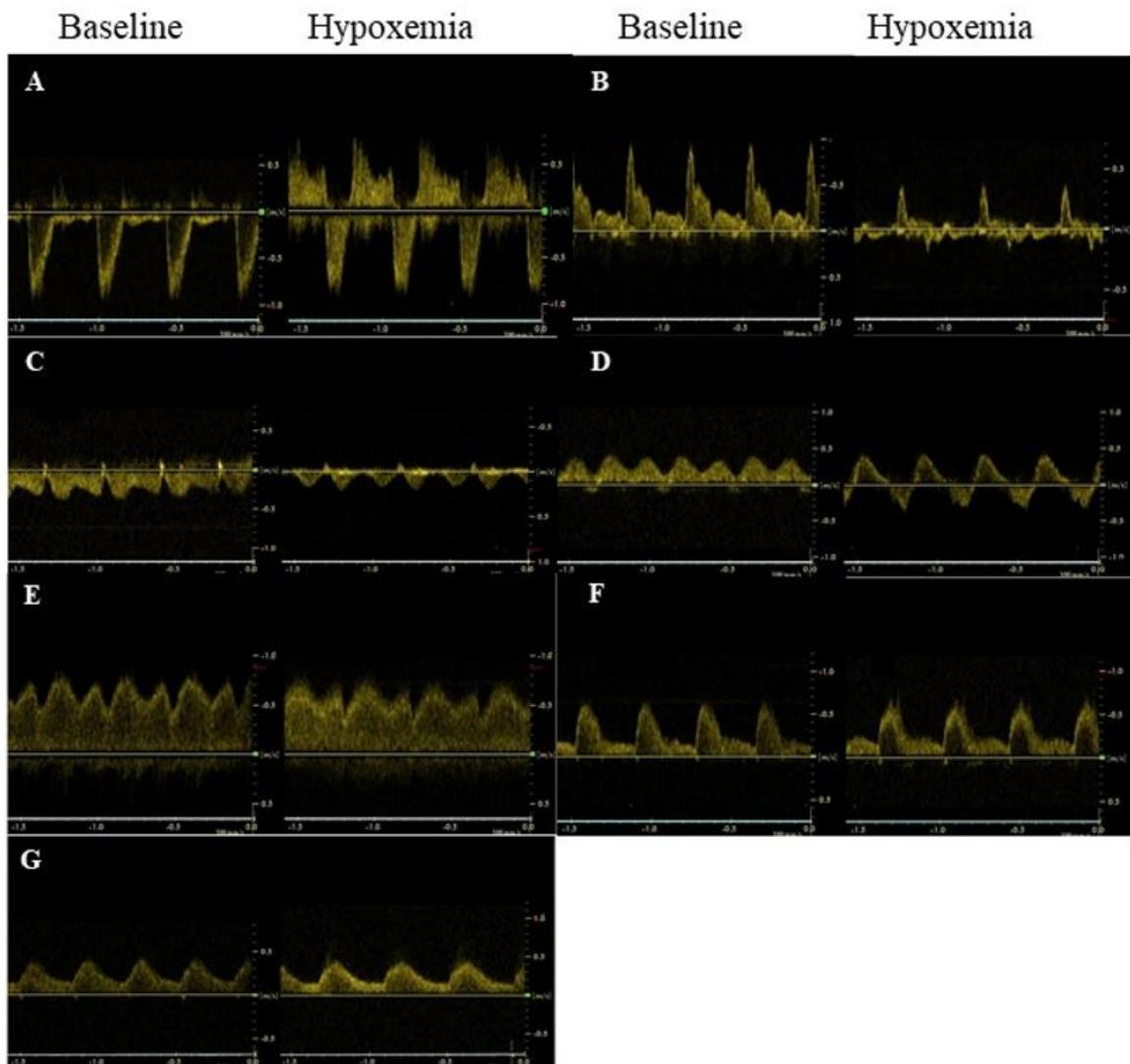
Brachiocephalic artery  
Superior vena cava  
Ascending aorta  
Main pulmonary artery  
Right ventricle  
Left ventricle

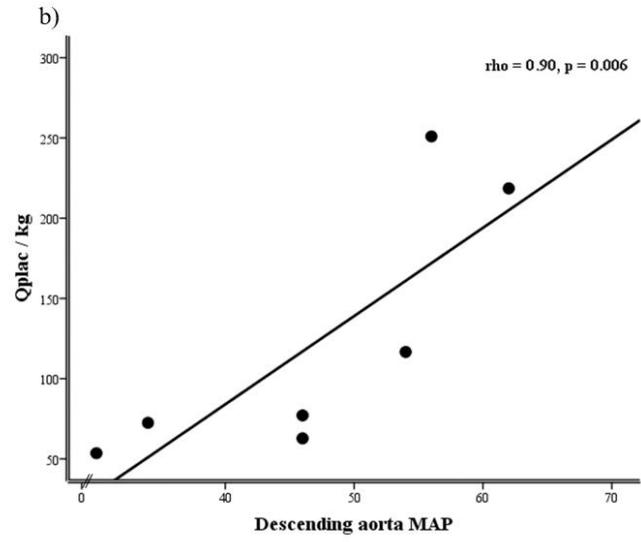
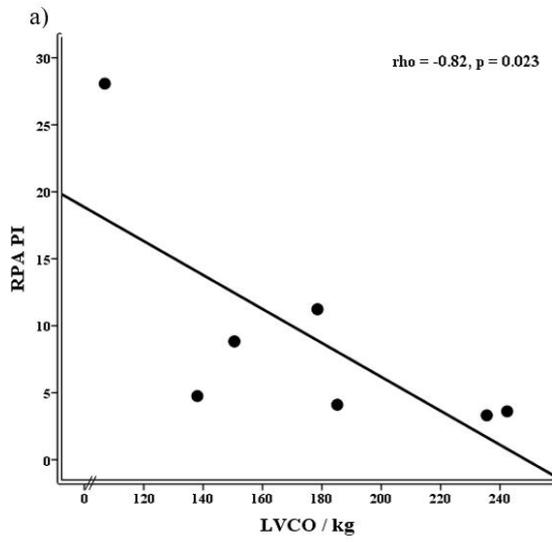


Aortic isthmus  
Right pulmonary artery  
Ductus arteriosus  
Descending aorta  
Left pulmonary artery

**Blood Pressure  
(mmHg)**







**Table 1. Maternal arterial blood gas values and lactate concentrations during the experiment (combined data from both groups; n=17).**

	Baseline	Acute hypoxemia	Prolonged hypoxemia	p-value between different timepoints:	
				Baseline vs. acute hypoxemia	Baseline vs. prolonged hypoxemia
<b>pH</b>	7.38 (0.07)	7.3 (0.07)	7.40 (0.06)	0.51	0.04
<b>pCO<sub>2</sub></b> (kPa) (mmHg)	5.21 (0.75) 39.08 (5.63)	4.83 (0.44) 36.23 (3.30)	4.65 (0.41) 34.88 (3.08)	<b>0.013</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
<b>pO<sub>2</sub></b> (kPa) (mmHg)	20.11 (7.17) 150.84 (53.78)	6.23 (0.93) 46.73 (6.98)	5.66 (1.13) 42.45 (8.48)	<b>&lt; 0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
<b>Base excess</b> (mmol/l)	-2.4 (2.9)	-3.3 (3.6)	-3.4 (3.2)	0.057	<b>0.023</b>
<b>Lactate</b> (mmol/l)	0.48 (0.18)	0.65 (0.29)	0.93 (0.45)	0.27	<b>0.005</b>

Abbreviations: pCO<sub>2</sub>= partial pressure of carbon dioxide, pO<sub>2</sub>= partial pressure of oxygen,

kPa= kilo Pascal, mmHg = millimeters of Mercury, mmol/l= millimole per litre, Values are means with SD in parentheses.

**Table 2. Fetal arterial blood gas values and lactate concentrations during the experiment in the carotid artery (n=10) and descending aorta groups (n=7).**

	Group	Baseline	Acute hypoxemia	Prolonged hypoxemia	p-value between different timepoints:		
					Baseline vs. acute hypoxemia	Baseline vs. prolonged hypoxemia	Acute vs. prolonged hypoxemia
pH	Carotid artery	7.31 (0.05)	7.30 (0.04)	7.24 (0.09)	0.49	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.021</b>
	Descending aorta	7.33 (0.07)	7.29 (0.06)	7.14 (0.12)	0.12	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Difference between groups	0.02, 95% CI (-0.09, 0.06), p = 0.63	0.01, 95% CI (-0.06, 0.08), p = 0.82	0.10, 95% CI (0.02, 0.17), p = <b>0.012</b>			
pCO <sub>2</sub> (kPa) (mmHg)	Carotid artery	6.66 (1.06) 49.95 (7.95)	6.75 (0.44) 50.32 (3.30)	6.84 (0.85) 51.30 (6.38)	0.73	0.51	0.75
	Descending aorta	7.24 (0.67) 54.30 (5.03)	7.62 (1.08) 57.16 (8.10)	7.52 (0.97) 56.41 (7.28)	0.16	0.29	0.69
	Difference between groups (kPa)	0.59, 95% CI (-0.29, 1.46), p = 0.18	0.87, 95% CI (-1.74, 0.00), p = 0.051	0.68, 95% CI (-1.55, 0.20), p = 0.12			
pO <sub>2</sub> (kPa) (mmHg)	Carotid artery	2.73 (0.35) 20.48 (2.63)	1.65 (0.29) 12.38 (2.18)	1.61 (0.36) 12.08 (2.70)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.75
	Descending aorta	2.87 (0.46) 21.53 (3.45)	1.49 (0.48) 11.18 (3.6)	1.51 (0.37) 11.33 (2.78)	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.90
	Difference between groups (kPa)	0.14, 95% CI (-0.52, 0.24), p = 0.45	0.16, 95% CI (-0.21, 0.54), p = 0.39	0.10, 95% CI (-0.28, 0.47), p = 0.61			
Base excess (mmol/l)	Carotid artery	-1.2 (2.5)	-1.7 (2.6)	-5.7 (4.0)	0.69	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.004</b>
	Descending aorta	1.6 (2.9)	0.6 (3.4)	-9.6 (5.0)	0.49	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Difference between groups	2.8, 95% CI (-0.7, 6.2), p = 0.11	2.8, 95% CI (-5.7, 1.2), p = 0.19	3.9, 95% CI (0.5, 7.3), p = <b>0.028</b>			
Lactate (mmol/l)	Carotid artery	1.63 (0.63)	3.68 (1.68)	6.98 (3.39)	<b>0.022</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Descending aorta	1.44 (0.63)	3.62 (2.57)	11.39 (2.44)	<b>0.038</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Difference between groups	0.19, 95% CI (-1.97, 2.35), p = 0.86	0.05, 95% CI (-2.10, 2.21), p = 0.96	4.40, 95% CI (2.45, 6.56), p = <b>&lt;0.001</b>			

Abbreviations: pCO<sub>2</sub>= partial pressure of carbon dioxide, pO<sub>2</sub>= partial pressure of oxygen, kPa = kilo Pascal, mmHg = millimeters of Mercury, mmol/l=millimole per litre, CI = confidence interval. Values are means with SD in parentheses.

**Table 3. Fetal cardiovascular and placental hemodynamics, and central venous pressure (combined data from both groups; n=17, unless otherwise stated).**

	Baseline	Acute hypoxemia	Prolonged hypoxemia	p-values between different timepoints:		
				Baseline vs. acute hypoxemia	Baseline vs. prolonged hypoxemia	Acute vs. prolonged hypoxemia
<b>FHR</b> (bpm)	172 (28)	181 (30)	183 (40)	0.16	<b>0.035</b>	0.45
<b>LVCO</b> (ml/min/kg)	226 (85)	207 (54)	222 (58)	0.23	0.88	0.29
<b>RVCO</b> (ml/min/kg)	300 (62)	290 (95)	300 (86)	0.48	0.86	0.59
<b>CCO</b> (ml/min/kg)	526 (131)	497 (119)	522 (121)	0.21	0.82	0.30
<b>Q<sub>plac</sub></b> (ml/min/kg)	99 (25)	84 (44)	83(46)	0.20	0.10	0.71
<b>R<sub>plac</sub></b> (mmHg/ml/ min/kg) (n=7)	0.35 (0.07)	0.39 (0.15)	0.48 (0.18)	0.57	0.067	0.18
<b>CVP</b> (mmHg) (n=10)	5 (4)	4 (3)	4 (4)	0.21	0.18	0.72

Abbreviations: FHR= fetal heart rate, LVCO= left ventricular cardiac output, RVCO= right ventricular cardiac output, CCO= combined cardiac output, Q<sub>plac</sub>= placental volume blood flow, R<sub>plac</sub>= placental vascular resistance, CVP= central venous pressure, bpm = beats per minute. Values are means with SD in parentheses.

**Table 4. Fetal peripheral hemodynamics (combined data from both groups; n=17).**

	Baseline	Acute hypoxemia	Prolonged hypoxemia	p-values between different timepoints:		
				Baseline vs. acute hypoxemia	Baseline vs. prolonged hypoxemia	Acute vs. prolonged hypoxemia
<b>RPA PI</b>	8.12 (5.13)	89.80 (133.16)	101.74 (84.32)	<b>0.013</b>	<b>0.004</b>	0.66
<b>DA PI</b>	1.85 (0.58)	1.74 (0.29)	1.97 (0.59)	0.27	0.47	0.087
<b>UA PI</b>	1.14 (0.22)	1.21 (0.35)	1.35 (0.59)	0.70	0.095	0.19
<b>DAo PI</b>	1.65 (0.23)	1.71 (0.26)	1.76 (0.36)	0.63	0.29	0.58
<b>Pulmvein PIV</b>	3.44 (3.76)	23.57 (17.26)	34.95 (49.10)	0.057	<b>0.011</b>	0.45
<b>DV PIV</b>	0.71 (0.23)	0.64 (0.24)	0.66 (0.23)	0.12	0.24	0.68
<b>IVC PIV</b>	1.74 (0.78)	2.44 (1.96)	3.26 (3.36)	0.19	<b>0.011</b>	0.18
<b>AoI Net Flow-ratio</b>	7.4 (9.8)	1.4 (0.7)	1.5 (1.7)	<b>0.007</b>	<b>0.008</b>	0.92

Abbreviations: RPA= right pulmonary artery, DA= ductus arteriosus, UA= umbilical artery, DAo= descending aorta, Pulmvein= pulmonary vein, DV= ductus venosus, IVC= inferior vena cava, PI= pulsatility index, PIV = pulsatility index for vein, AoI= aortic isthmus. Values are means with SD in parentheses.

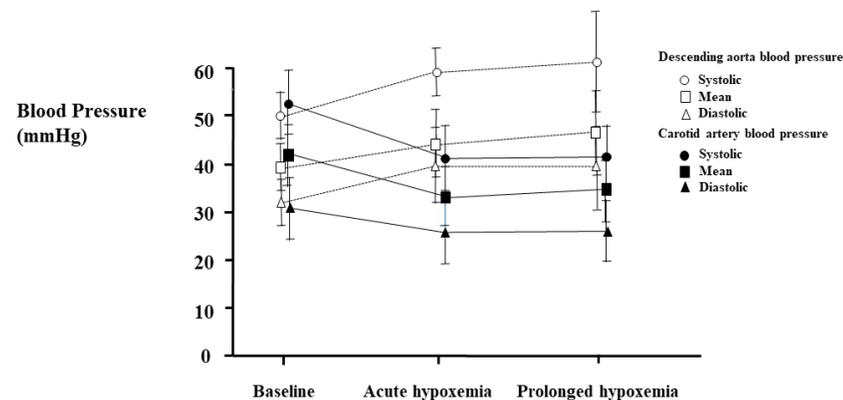
# Peripheral chemoreflex activation and cardiac function during hypoxemia in near term fetal sheep without placental compromise

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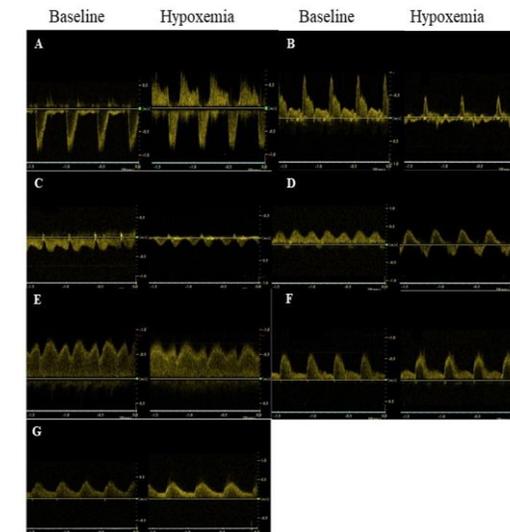
A drop in arterial oxygen content activates fetal chemoreflex including an increase in sympathetic activity leading to peripheral vasoconstriction and redistribution of blood flow to protect the brain, myocardium, and adrenal glands.

By using a chronically instrumented fetal sheep model with intact placental circulation at near-term gestation, we investigated the relationship between peripheral chemoreflex activation induced by hypoxemia and central hemodynamics. A total of 17 Åland landrace sheep fetuses at 115-128/145 gestational days were instrumented. Carotid artery was catheterised in 10 fetuses and descending aorta in 7 fetuses. After a 4-day recovery, baseline measurements of fetal arterial blood pressures, blood gas values, and fetal cardiovascular hemodynamics by pulsed Doppler ultrasonography were obtained under isoflurane-anesthesia. Comparable data to baseline was collected 10 (acute hypoxemia) and 60 minutes (prolonged hypoxemia) after maternal hypo-oxygenation to saturation level of 70-80% was achieved.



Fetal systolic, mean, and diastolic blood pressures in the carotid artery (n=10) and the descending aorta (n=7) during the experiment. Symbols represent mean values and vertical bars represent one standard deviation.

During prolonged hypoxemia, pH and base excess (BE) were lower, and lactate levels higher in the descending aorta than in the carotid artery. During hypoxemia mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) in the descending aorta increased, while in the carotid artery MAP decreased. In addition, right pulmonary artery pulsatility index values increased, and the diastolic component in the aortic isthmus blood flow velocity waveform became more retrograde thus decreasing the aortic isthmus antegrade/retrograde blood flow (AoI Net Flow) ratio. Both fetal ventricular cardiac outputs were maintained even during prolonged hypoxemia when significant fetal metabolic acidemia developed.



Blood flow velocity waveforms of A) aortic isthmus, B) right pulmonary artery, C) pulmonary vein, D) inferior vena cava, E) ductus venosus, F) descending aorta and G) umbilical artery at baseline and during hypoxemia.

**Fetal chemoreflex activation induced by hypoxemia decreased the perfusion pressure in the cerebral circulation. Fetal weight-indexed LVC0 or AoI Net Flow-ratio did not correlate with a drop in carotid artery blood pressure.**