Effect of Maternal Dxamethasone Administration on Fetal Doppler Indices

Ehesis

Submitted for partial Fulfillment of Master Degree in Obstetrics and Gynecology

Presented by Hyam Abd El- Latif Abd El Aziz

M.B.B.Ch., Faculty of Medicine, Ain Shams University

Supervised by

Prof. Khalid Kamal Ali

Professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology
Faculty of Medicine
Ain Shams University

Dr. Hosam Mohamed Hemeda

Lecturer of Obstetrics and Gynecology Faculty of Medicine Ain Shams University

Faculty of Medicine
Ain Shams University
2014

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرّحَمَٰنِ الرّحيمِ

إِرْتَهُ إِرْمِهِمْ فِي قِيلِةٍ فَ عِلِهِ وَالْحِقِ [...] إِنِهُ إِنْ مِنْهِ عَلَيْهِ وَ عَلِمُ الْهِ وَالْحِقِ

[फ़र्णांक कुंग्रें व्रोंष्ट्र विवास्त्रें विवास विवास

صدق الله العظيم

النمل.. اية رقو 19

Acknowledgements

First of all thanks and praise to **ALLAH**, who gave me everything, enable me to complete this work.

I am extremely fortunate to have the opportunity to work under the kind guidance of **Prof. Khalid Kamal**Ali, Prof of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine Ain Shams University. I am greatly honored to express my deepest thanks for his indispensible support throughout the whole work

I was lucky to work under supervision of **Dr. Hosam Mohamed Hemeda**, Lecturer of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Faculty of Medicine Ain Shams University, who helped me a lot during my study, I would like to express my deepest appreciation for her support.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family who gave me unconditional encouragement and support. I would like to dedicate my work to my beloved husband and my both children.

🖎 Hyam Abd El-Latif Abd El Aziz

List of Contents

Subject	Page No.
List of Tables	i
List of Figures	ii
Protocol	••••••
Introduction	1
Aim of the Work	2
Review of Literature	
Preterm labor	3
Corticosteroids in Pregnancy	33
Doppler Ultrasound	42
Patients and Methods	66
Results	71
Discussion	80
Summary	86
Conclusion	88
Recommendations	89
References	
Appendix	I
Arabic Summary	

List of Tables

Table No	o. Eitle	Page No.
Table (1):	Risk Factors for Spontaneous Preterm l	abor8
Table (2):	Risks of Preterm and Low Birth Weig by Number of Fetuses	
Table (3):	Strategies for the Prevention of Preterm	Birth 26
Table (4):	Summary of Tocolytics for the Manag Preterm Delivery	
Table (5):	Description of the adverse events that from conception to birth. Based on dedescribed in Williams Obstetrics	efinitions
Table (6):	Descriptive data of study group	71
Table (7):	Doppler parameters in day 0 in the stud	y group 71
Table (8):	Doppler parameters in day 2 in the stud	y group 72
Table (9):	Doppler parameters in day 4 in the stud	y group 72
Table (10):	Comparison between day 0 and day 2 to studied parameters	•
Table (11):	Comparison between day 0 and day 4 r to studied parameters	
Table (12):	Comparison between day 2 and day 4 r to studied parameters	

List of Figures

Figure No	o. Eitle	Page No.
Figure (1):	Potential routes of intrauterine infection.	19
Figure (2):	The time line for adverse events that of from conception to birth. Adapted from	
Figure (3):	Sites of insonation of uterine artey	47
Figure (4):	Ultrasound image with conventional Doppler showing the uterine artery external iliac artery	and the
Figure (5):	Normal Pregnancy-Development of the artery	
Figure (6):	Pulsatility index in the uterine artegestation (mean 95th and 5th centiles)	•
Figure (7):	Normal Pregnancy - Development umbilcal artery	
Figure (8):	Normal flow velocity waveforms frumbilical vein (top) and artery (bottom weeks of gestation	n) at 32
Figure (9):	Pulsatility index in the umbilical artegestation (mean, 95th and 5th centiles)	•
Figure (10):	Parasagittal view of the fetal true superimposed color Doppler show descending aorta	ing the
Figure (11):	Normal Pregnancy - Development Descending Aorta	
Figure (12):	Pulsatility index of the fetal aorta with (mean, 95th and 5th centiles)	-
Figure (13):	Transverse view of the fetal head with color showing the circle of Willis	* *
Figure (14):	Normal Pregnancy - Development of the Cerebral Artery	

List of Figures (Cont...)

Figure N	o. Citle	Page No.
Figure (15):	Pulsatility index of the fetal middle artery with gestation (mean, 95th centiles)	and 5th
Figure (16):	Flow velocity waveform across the valve at 28 weeks of gestation	•
Figure (17):	Normal flow velocity waveforms of the venosus visualized in a sagittal section the fetal abdomen.	through
Figure (18):	Comparison between day 0 and day 2 reg studied parameters	-
Figure (19):	Comparison between day 0 and day 4 reg studied parameters	_
Figure (20):): Comparison between day 2 and day 4 regarding to studied parameters	
Figure (21):	Umbilical artery RI & PI throughout the	study78
Figure (22):	Middle Cerebral artery RI & PI through study	
Figure (23):	Ascending Aorta RI & PI throughout the	study79
Figure (24):	Ductus Venousus RI & PI throughout the	e study79

Introduction

orticosteroids reduce the occurrence of respiratory distress syndrome (RDS) and other complications following preterm birth, such as intraventricular hemorrhage, necrotizing enterocolitis and neonatal death. The benefits of betamethasone treatment have been questioned in severely growth-restricted fetuses (*van Stralen et al.*, 2009).

Evaluation of fetal wellbeing with Doppler waveform studies after maternal corticosteroid administration is therefore important. Knowledge of fetal haemodynamic effects of exogenous corticosteroids is limited. Little is known about the impact of antenatal corticosteroid therapy on Doppler waveforms in fetal arteries (*Wallace & Baker*, 1999).

Aim of the Work

The aim of this study was to investigate the possible effects of antenatal dexamethasone administration on umbilical artery, middle cerebral artery, aortic artery and ductus arteriosus flow velocity waveforms indices in suspected preterm labour.

Chapter (1):

Preterm labor

reterm labor is defined as labor occurring prior to 37 weeks gestation and is the leading cause of death in children under 5 years of age, second only to pneumonia (Blencowe et al., 2012).

Preterm labor is defined as the presence of uterine contractions of sufficient frequency and intensity to effect progressive effacement and dilation of the cervix prior to term gestation (between 20 and 37 wk) (*Lowes*, 2013).

Successful reduction of perinatal morbidity and mortality associated with prematurity may require the implementation of effective risk identification and behavioral modification programs for the prevention of preterm labor; these in turn require both an improved understanding of the psychosocial risk factors, etiology, and mechanisms of preterm labor and programs for accurate identification of pregnant women at risk for premature labor and delivery.

Evidence suggests that early identification of at-risk gravidas with timely referral for subspecialized obstetrical care may help identify women at risk for preterm labor and delivery and decrease the extreme prematurity (< 32 wk) rate, thereby reducing the morbidity, mortality, and expense associated with prematurity (*Eden et al.*, 2005).

Epidemiology:

Premature labor is a common and costly health care condition, the magnitude of which is staggering. Every minute approximately 1,400 babies are born prematurely throughout the world and over 100 of these infants die (*Beck et al., 2010*). Preterm delivery is the leading cause of neonatal deaths worldwide, 99% of which occur in low and middle income countries (*WHO*, 2010).

Preterm birth is the largest cause of perinatal morbidity and mortality; with rates of preterm birth rising. In the USA, the preterm delivery rate is 12–13% and in Europe and other developed countries, reported rates are generally 5–9%. The UK now has the highest rate of premature birth in Europe with 7.8% of overall births in Scotland occurring before 37 weeks gestation (*Gray*, 2008).

Significant progress has been made in the care of premature infants, but not in reducing the prevalence of preterm birth. In the United States, there has been a 21% rise in the rate of preterm births since 1990, which peaked in 2006 with 12.8% of all 4 million annual live births born at less than 37 weeks of gestation (*Russell et al.*, 2007).

The incidence in Europe and other developed countries lies between 5-9%. East Asian and Hispanic women typically have a low pre-term birth rate. However, the incidence of preterm birth continues to rise. Part of this escalation is due to the increased indicated preterm delivery of artificially conceived multiple pregnancies, which account for 15-20% of all pre-term births (*Goldenburg et al.*, 2008).

Approximately 30–35% of preterm births are indicated or iatrogenic due to medical or obstetric complications, 40–45% are related to spontaneous preterm labour, and 25–30% to preterm pre-labor rupture of membranes (PPROM). Spontaneous pre-term birth is most commonly caused by preterm labour in Caucasians, and PPROM in black women indicating the existence of potentially different causative mechanisms (*Goldenburg et al.*, 2008).

Preterm Labor Biology:

Pathogenesis:

The exact mechanism(s) of preterm labor is largely unknown but is believed to include decidual hemorrhage, (eg, abruption, mechanical factors such as uterine overdistension polyhydramnios), from multiple gestation or cervical incompetence (eg, trauma, cone biopsy), uterine distortion (eg, müllerian duct abnormalities, fibroid uterus), cervical inflammation (eg, resulting from bacterial vaginosis [BV], trichomonas), maternal inflammation/fever (eg, urinary tract infection), hormonal changes (eg, mediated by maternal or fetal stress), and uteroplacental insufficiency (eg, hypertension, insulin-dependent diabetes, drug abuse, smoking, alcohol consumption) (ACOG practice bulletin, 2003).

Nearly 40% of premature births have an unknown cause, studies suggest that there are four main causes of spontaneous preterm labor, namely: a) maternal and/or fetal stress, b) bleeding, c) stretching and d) infections/inflammation (*Beck et al.*, 2010).

Chronic psychosocial stress of the mother or physical stress in the fetus induce production of corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), which in turn may trigger other hormones, such as prostaglandins, which trigger uterine contractions and eventually preterm birth (*Goldenberg et al.*, 2008).

Uterine bleeding as a result of complications such as placental abruption (placenta peels away from the uterine wall before delivery), which may trigger release of proteins involved in clotting, such as thrombin, which in turn stimulates uterine contractions. Uterine distension by multi-fetal pregnancies may lead to increased gravitational weight exerted on the cervix and a positive feed-forward release of the hormone oxytocin, which stimulates uterine contractions (*Goldenberg et al. 2008*).

The bulk of preterm labor is induced by bacterial infections that lead to inflammation and preterm labor and account for the preterm premature rupture of membranes (PROM) (25-40%), and obstetrically indicated preterm delivery (20-25%) (Wen et al., 2004).

Iatrogenic preterm delivery

Iatrogenic preterm delivery accounts for more than 30% of all preterm deliveries. The preterm birth rate continues to escalate in many countries worldwide because of an increase in the indicated preterm births rate (*Goldenberg et al.*, 2008).

Pre-eclampsia and placental abruption affects approximately 7% and 1% of all pregnancies, respectively. Along with intrauterine growth restriction and premature rupture of the membranes, they represent the most common reasons for indicated preterm delivery (*Plunkett*, 2008).

Multiple gestations make up 10% of all preterm births, the majority of which, (50%), are delivered preterm due to medical indications (*Moutquin*, 2003). The Obstetrician has to weigh up the benefits of allowing the pregnancy to continue in order to achieve improved perinatal outcome for the preterm infant, against delivering the fetus early for the health of the mother and infant. In 1995, The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists reported a survival rate for newborns at 34 weeks gestation as being within 1% of those born at or beyond 37 weeks (*Hauth*, 2006).

Risk factors:

A. Maternal factors:

Several lifestyles and factors have been identified to put a woman at risk for preterm birth, including: a) a history of preterm birth; b) size or multi-fetal pregnancies; c) certain

uterine or cervical abnormalities (such as shortened cervix); d) ethnicity, with the highest rate in black women; e) age, with teenage or older mothers at the greatest risk; f) education and socio-economic status highest in women with low education and socio-economic status; g) habits, such as cigarette smoking increase the risk; h) marital status: unmarried women or those not living with a partner are at a higher risk; i) occupation: women with stressful occupations are at a higher risk; j) body weight: low maternal pre-pregnancy body mass index, and poor or excessive weight gain increase the likelihood of a preterm birth (*Wen et al. 2004*).

Table (1): Risk Factors for Spontaneous Preterm labor

Risk Factors for Spontaneous Preterm Birth		
Non-modifiable Risk Factors		
Prior preterm birth	Cervical injury or anomaly	
African-American race	Uterine anomaly	
Age $<$ 18 years or $>$ 40 years	Excessive uterine activity (?)	
Poor nutrition	Premature cervical dilatation (>2 cm) or	
Low pre-pregnancy weight	effacement (>80%)	
Low socioeconomic status	Overdistended uterus (twins,	
Absent prenatal care	polyhydramnios)	
	Vaginal bleeding	
Potentially Modifiable Risk Factors		
Cigarette smoking	Lower genital tract infections (including	
Illicit drug use	bacterial vaginosis, Neisseria gonorrhoea,	
Anemia	Chlamydia trachomatis, Group B	
Bacteriuria/urinary tract infection	Streptococcus, Ureaplasma urealyticum, and	
Gingival disease	Trichomonas vaginalis)	
Strenuous work/work environment	High personal stress	

(Errol et al., 2011)

• Previous preterm birth

The risk of preterm birth is increased among women who have had a previous preterm birth. Previous preterm birth is the