

**The Significance of ‘Non-Significant’ Meconium Stained Amniotic Fluid
(MSAF): Colour versus Contents**

Running Head: The Significance of Non-Significant Meconium

Abstract

The presence of ‘thin’ or ‘non-significant’ meconium stained amniotic fluid (MSAF) is currently being considered by some intrapartum guidelines as ‘low risk’, requiring only an intermittent auscultation and not continuous electronic fetal heart rate monitoring using the cardiotocograph (CTG). Clinicians not only must exclude ‘non-physiological’ causes of MSAF but consider the potential effect of MSAF on fetal wellbeing, irrespective of whether the passage was secondary to a normal physiological process or due to an underlying pathology. Management decisions should be made based on the parity, rate of progress of labour, cervical dilatation at diagnosis, and observed CTG changes and the risk factors such as multiple pregnancy and intra-uterine growth restriction. Presence of any meconium within the amniotic fluid should be considered as an important intrapartum risk factor. The thin meconium may be ‘non-significant’ on visual inspection, but it is very significant from a point of view of a fetus, who is covered with toxic materials within the surrounding amniotic fluid.

Keywords: Meconium, Stained Amniotic Fluid, fetal wellbeing, cardiotocograph

Introduction

The presence of ‘thin’ or ‘non-significant’ meconium stained amniotic fluid (MSAF) is currently being considered by some intrapartum guidelines as ‘low risk’, requiring only an intermittent auscultation and not continuous electronic fetal heart rate monitoring (CEFM) using the cardiotocograph (CTG). It is true that the majority of fetuses pass meconium at term due to the physiological maturation of fetal gut. Accumulation of digested lanugo hair, vernix, cellular matter from the swallowed amniotic fluid as well as the regular shedding of epithelial cells from the gastrointestinal tract and intestinal secretions cause progressive distension of the bowel as the gestation advances. As the gut is mature at term, initiation of peristalsis and dilatation of the anal sphincter due to the ‘loading’ of faecal matter results in normal defaecation in utero. If there is a copious amount of amniotic fluid to dilute the meconium, this would result in a ‘thin’ or ‘non-significant’ meconium. Conversely, if the amount

37 of amniotic fluid is reduced (e.g. oligohydramnios secondary to ongoing chronic utero-placental
38 insufficiency), a 'thick' or 'significant' meconium would be noted. However, clinicians not only must
39 exclude 'non-physiological' causes of MSAF (e.g. ongoing hypoxia or chorioamnionitis), but consider
40 the potential effect of MSAF on fetal wellbeing, irrespective of whether the passage was secondary
41 to a normal physiological process or due to an underlying pathology.

42 **Why is the mere presence of meconium within the amniotic fluid harmful?**

43 Meconium refers to the first stool passed by the fetus, usually within the first 48 hours of birth and
44 consists of gastrointestinal contents of the fetus¹. It is detectable at 11 to 14 weeks gestation². The
45 greenish colour is due to bile pigments³. Although, 80% of meconium consists of water, in addition
46 to bile salts, bile acids and bile pigments, it contains gastro-intestinal digestive enzymes (amylases,
47 lipases and proteases), intestinal epithelial cells, materials which are constantly swallowed from the
48 amniotic fluid (e.g. fetal lanugo hair, vernix caseosa, inflammatory mediators and desquamated
49 epithelial cells). Therefore, if a fetus is surrounded by amniotic fluid contaminated by meconium
50 with all its toxic contents, several local effects may occur. In autopsy examinations, meconium
51 exposure was associated with damage to the umbilical cord such as severe ulceration⁴. The effects of
52 bile salts and bile acids on the blood vessels in the umbilical cord may lead to the spasm of the blood
53 vessels, resulting in an acute reduction in fetal oxygenation. Prolonged contact of the potentially
54 toxic contents of meconium with the fetal skin may cause skin damage, such as physiological
55 desquamation of the skin or even erythema toxicum neonatorum⁴. Scientific evidence suggests a
56 stronger association between the passage of meconium and a higher incidence of chorioamnionitis
57 and endometritis¹. The presence of the meconium within the amniotic cavity has been shown in
58 experimental studies to promote bacterial growth as a result of the inactivation of neutrophil
59 phagocytosis⁵. Therefore, even a 'thin' or 'non-significant' meconium may be associated with
60 significant fetal harm secondary to the presence of digestive, toxic and inflammatory contents.

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63 Systemic effects include meconium aspiration syndrome (MAS), which occurs in approximately 11%
64 of all cases of MSAF and is associated with a neonatal mortality rate of 20%.⁶ Whilst MAS does occur
65 more commonly with thick meconium, one should not dismiss the 'thin' meconium staining of
66 amniotic fluid as 'non-significant'. This is because the concentration of toxic mediators may be lower
67 compared to 'thick' or 'significant' meconium, however, the biochemical and inflammatory effects
68 on the alveoli are the same. It has been shown that MSAF induces the activation of alveolar
69 macrophages and neutrophils, leading to the release of cytokines including tumour necrosis factor α
70 and interleukins⁶. In addition, displacement of the surfactant may lead to respiratory distress
71 syndrome even in a term fetus⁶. Moreover, the MSAF-induced release of inflammatory mediators
72 can directly damage pulmonary parenchymal tissue or damage the pulmonary vasculature resulting
73 in vascular leakage and damage to the type 2 pneumocytes and decrease surfactant production⁶.
74 MSAF-induced release of the surfactant may lead to a decreased lung compliance, hypoxia and
75 acidosis². Compared to thin meconium, if there is 'thick' meconium or a 'meconium plug', this can
76 cause obstruction of the airways⁶. The obstruction of relatively larger airways may result in an
77 airway obstruction, resulting in ventilation/perfusion mismatch². In severe cases of ventilation-
78 perfusion mismatch, or if there is damage to the pulmonary vasculature secondary to inflammatory

79 damage to the alveolar epithelium and the underlying endothelium, then, a persistent pulmonary
80 hypertension (PPH) may occur in up to 40% of cases of severe MAS⁷. PPH can worsen fetal condition
81 and result in poor neonatal adaptation resulting in hypoxia and severe metabolic acidosis, which
82 causes further pulmonary vasoconstriction^{7,8}. Hence, a vicious cycle may be established leading to a
83 very poor perinatal outcome.

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85 **Time to question the significance of ‘non-significant’ meconium**

86 It has been shown that, irrespective of whether it is ‘thin’ or ‘thick’, the mere presence of meconium
87 within the amniotic fluid is associated with increased risk of neonatal sepsis and admission to
88 neonatal intensive care units⁷⁻⁹. Therefore, it is illogical and possibly dangerous to suggest that in the
89 presence of ‘thin’ or ‘non-significant’ meconium, it is appropriate to classify the fetus as ‘low-risk’
90 and to recommend intermittent auscultation¹⁰. This is because doing so, would lead to
91 underestimation the local and systemic effects of the potentially toxic contents of the meconium on
92 the fetus. Whilst the presence of thick meconium is known to be significantly associated with severe
93 fetal complications^{11,12}, one should not forget that even thin or ‘non-significant’ meconium in the
94 amniotic fluid with it’s bile salts and acids, pancreatic enzymes and inflammatory mediators reduces
95 the phagocytotic activity of the amniotic fluid and should be seen as a strong risk factor towards the
96 development of chorioamnionitis. Therefore, the presence of *any* meconium, irrespective of
97 whether it is significant or ‘non-significant’ as deemed by clinicians which has a considerable inter-
98 and intra-observer variability, warrants continuous intrapartum fetal heart rate monitoring to timely
99 recognize the onset of chorioamnionitis and evolving hypoxic stress.

100 **Role of CTG Guidelines in managing fetuses with MSAF**

101 The guidelines produced by national¹⁰ and international¹³ bodies on CTG interpretation are
102 specifically designed to timely detect intrapartum hypoxia and not infection. It is important to
103 appreciate that MSAF may result in chorioamnionitis, which does not operate through the hypoxic
104 pathway of fetal injury, but the inflammatory pathway. It has been shown that in the presence of
105 fetal tachycardia associated with MSAF, the risk of infection is increased by 51 fold¹⁴. It is important
106 to appreciate that a fetus beyond 40 weeks of gestational may have a lower baseline FHR due to the
107 vagal dominance. Therefore, when there is an intrauterine fetal infection, a rise of fetal temperature
108 by 1°C secondary to the inflammatory response may only increase the baseline FHR by
109 approximately 10%. Therefore, a fetus with a baseline FHR of 130 bpm may not increase the FHR
110 beyond 150 bpm to demonstrate tachycardia (i.e. > 160 bpm). Therefore, it should be noted that a
111 rise in the fetal heart rate, even within the normal range may be abnormal for a fetus who has
112 developed chorioamnionitis. Arbitrary cut offs (i.e. baseline of 110-160 bpm) which have been
113 developed for human population of babies cannot be blindly applied to individual fetuses with
114 MSAF. Moreover, contrary to earlier belief, it is now accepted that fetuses do not always pass
115 meconium secondary to hypoxia¹⁵. Therefore, the absence of ongoing decelerations should not
116 provide a false sense of security in fetuses with MSAF. CTG features suggestive of non-hypoxic
117 pathways fetal neurological injuries such as higher than expected baseline, absence of cycling and
118 accelerations (Figure 1) and loss of baseline variability should be considered¹⁶. Recently, it has been
119 reported that absence of cycling, a rise in the baseline FHR and saltatory patterns are associated
120 with chorioamnionitis¹⁷.

121 Figure 1. Note higher than expected baseline FHR for 41 weeks of gestation with absence of cycling
122 and accelerations indicative of ongoing chorioamnionitis in a fetus with MSAF

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124 Moreover, a rise in the baseline and repetitive atypical variable decelerations which have been
125 associated with in-utero gasping and meconium aspiration syndrome should be avoided. The use of
126 oxytocin should be critically reviewed because the onset of additional hypoxic stress in a fetus with
127 MSAF during labour may not only increase the risk of meconium aspiration syndrome, but also, may
128 increase the risk of fetal neurological injury if there is an ongoing chorioamnionitis secondary to
129 MSAF. Scientific evidence suggests that the synergistic effect of intrapartum hypoxia (e.g. due to the
130 use of oxytocin) and fetal infection increases the risk of cerebral palsy by up to 78 fold¹⁸.
131 Management decisions should be made based on the parity, rate of progress of labour, cervical
132 dilatation at diagnosis, and observed CTG changes and the risk factors such as multiple pregnancy
133 and intra-uterine growth restriction.

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135 Figure 2. Note ongoing Atypical variable decelerations after the commencement of oxytocin in a
136 fetus with MSAF, which increases the risk of meconium aspiration syndrome by inducing fetal
137 gasping.

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140 **How to avoid poor perinatal outcomes in fetuses with MSAF?**

141 Clinicians should consider the presence of any meconium (thick, thin, significant or non-significant)
142 as an important risk factor for poor perinatal outcomes due to its local and systemic side effects. The
143 use of intermittent auscultation for 'non-significant' meconium should be strongly discouraged as
144 this technique is not sensitive to detect features of non-hypoxic causes of fetal neurological injury
145 secondary to the harmful effects of meconium. Auscultation once in every 15 minutes would delay
146 the detection of a prolonged deceleration which occurs as a result of umbilical cord spasm during
147 the interim period. Moreover, intermittent auscultation cannot detect a subtle rise in the baseline
148 fetal heart rate, sinusoidal or saltatory patterns which are seen in chorioamnionitis secondary to
149 MSAF. Considering the 'non-significant' meconium as 'low risk' reflects the lack of understanding
150 regarding the biochemical, inflammatory, digestive and toxic contents which constitute the
151 meconium. Presence of any meconium, irrespective of how thick it appears to a clinician's eyes,
152 should be viewed with caution, due to the local and systemic side effects (Table 1).

153 Management decisions should be made based on the parity, rate of progress of labour, cervical
154 dilatation at diagnosis, and observed CTG changes and the risk factors such as multiple pregnancy
155 and intra-uterine growth restriction. In the presence of MSAF, caution should be exercised whilst
156 commencing oxytocin infusion, especially in early labour, because a super-imposed hypoxic stress
157 (Figure 3), especially if there was a meconium-induced chorioamnionitis, may worsen perinatal
158 outcomes and increase the likelihood of meconium aspiration syndrome.

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160 Figure 3. Note the onset of deceleration in a fetus already experiencing chorioamnionitis (raised
161 baseline FHR for 40 weeks + 6 days), which resulted in meconium aspiration syndrome.

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163 **Conclusion**

164 The presence of meconium within the amniotic fluid should be considered as a significant risk factor
165 for poor perinatal outcomes. The terminologies 'light', 'thin' or 'non-significant' should be used with
166 caution and should not lead to false reassurance because the presence of meconium within the
167 amniotic cavity increases the risk of local and systemic adverse effects to a fetus regardless of the
168 concentration. Recently it has been reported that there was an 8-fold increase in the incidence of
169 MSAF in fetuses with chorioamnionitis¹⁹. Therefore, one should not recommend intermittent
170 auscultation for 'non-significant meconium' because this technique would not be able to reliably
171 detect features of non-hypoxic injury such as absence of cycling, loss of baseline FHR variability and
172 a rise in the baseline by 10-15 bpm in a term fetus. In addition, if there is umbilical cord spasm
173 secondary to meconium within the amniotic fluid, auscultation in the next 15 minutes may miss a
174 fetus experiencing an acute hypoxic insult secondary to vasospasm. Meconium, regardless of how it
175 looks to the human eye, contains the same digestive and toxic agents, and should be treated with
176 caution and as an important intrapartum risk factor. Presence of any meconium within the amniotic
177 fluid should be considered as an important intrapartum risk factor. The thin meconium may be 'non-
178 significant' on visual inspection, but it is very significant from a point of view of a fetus, who is
179 covered with toxic materials within the surrounding amniotic fluid.

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181 Conflict of Interest

182 None

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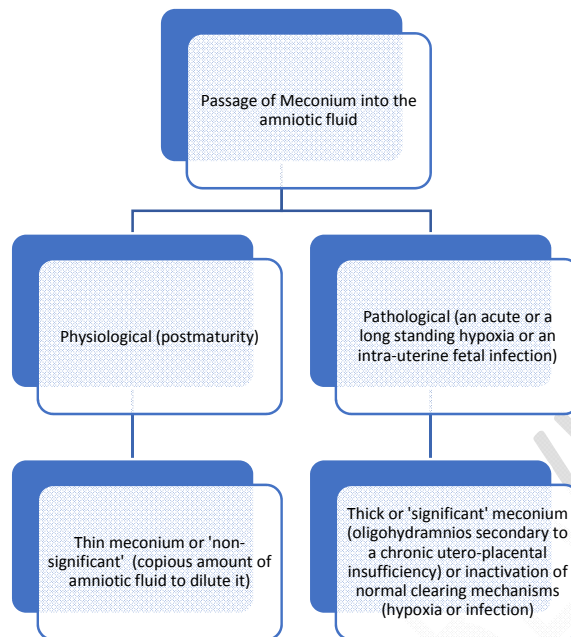
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193 Table 1. Impact of 'Significant' and 'Non-Significant' Meconium

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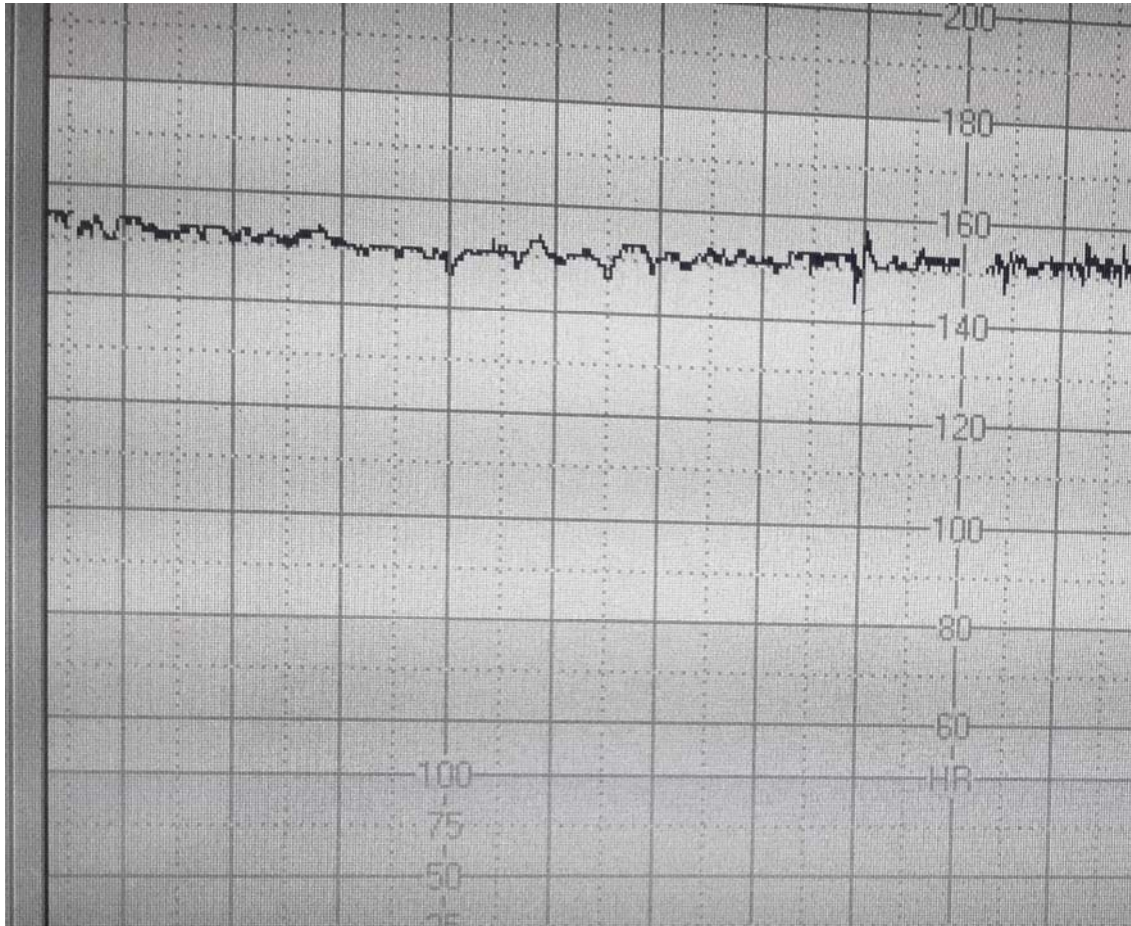
Local effects: Spasm of umbilical cord vessels leading to an acute hypoxic insult, inactivation of neutrophil phagocytosis leading to chorioamnionitis, ulceration of the fetal skin or the umbilical cord due to a prolonged contact with bile salts and digestive enzymes

Systemic effects: displacement & inactivation of the surfactant leading to respiratory distress syndrome (RDS), inactivation of alveolar macrophages leading to a chemical pneumonitis, damage to alveolar membrane and pulmonary vasculature leading to primary pulmonary hypertension (PPH) and meconium aspiration syndrome (MAS). Obstruction of the larger airways resulting in a 'ball-valve' effect resulting in a pneumothorax (thick meconium)

211 Figure 1

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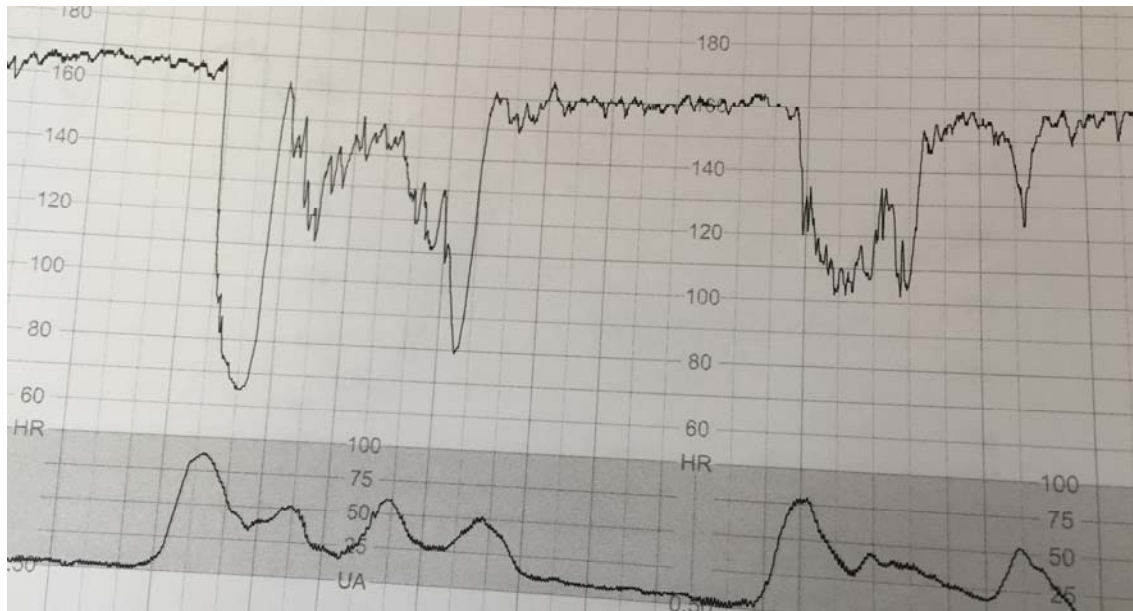
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224 Figure 2



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227 Figure 3

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