

Placental ARFI elastography and biometry evaluation in bitches

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26 **ABSTRACT**

27 Placental rigidity and biometry of twelve pregnant bitches were evaluated using B-mode and
28 Acoustic Radiation Force Impulse (ARFI) ultrasonography, performed once daily, from day
29 15 of gestation until parturition. Specific software (Virtual Touch Tissue Quantification®
30 VTTQ and Virtual Touch Tissue Imaging Quantification® VTTIQ) were used. Values for
31 results for variables were correlated and regression models related to gestational day were
32 used to make evaluations. Maternal-fetal placental thickness increased to day 63 ($P < 0.0001$;
33 $R^2 = 0.91$); maternal placental thickness increased until day 40 ($P = 0.0340$; $R^2 = 0.54$); and
34 fetal placental thickness increased to day 50 ($P < 0.0001$; $R^2 = 0.83$) of gestation. Shear wave
35 velocity (SWV) of the dorsal ($P < 0.0010$) was greater than lateral, which in turn was greater
36 ($P = 0.020$) than the ventral area. The SWV of the dorsal area as determined using VTTQ,
37 decreased from day 21 to 35 and increased to day 56 of gestation ($P = 0.0291$; $R^2 = 0.4021$);
38 lateral SWV decreased from day 24 to 45 and increased until the time of parturition ($P <$
39 0.001 ; $R^2 = 0.6055$). The SWV of the dorsal area, as determined using VTTIQ, decreased
40 from day 21 to 43 and then increased to day 60 of gestation ($P = 0.0016$; $R^2 = 0.5075$); and
41 ventral area SWV increased from day 21 to 23 and decreased until the time of parturition (P
42 < 0.001 ; $R^2 = 0.8055$). Placental alterations reflect structural and biochemical gestational
43 adaptations and can become useful techniques for obstetrics.

44 Keywords: Biometry; Canine; Elastography; Placental; Ultrasonography

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52 **1. Introduction**

53 The placenta is the first fetal organ to develop and has both primordial and critical
54 functions because it establishes an interface for the exchange of nutrients and gases in
55 maternal-fetal circulation, as well as modifies local immunological mediators, the
56 cardiovascular system, and metabolic functions (Cross, 2006). In carnivores, the placenta is
57 classified as zonary due to the characteristics of the chorionic villous (Júnior, 2015) and
58 endotheliochorial tissues at the connection between the villi of the fetal chorion and uterine
59 endothelium (Johnston et al., 2001).

60 The first stage of placental development is marked by embryonic implantation, which
61 begins in bitches around the 18th day after ovulation of the oocyte that resulted in the
62 subsequent pregnancy (Chastant-Maillard et al., 2010). Preceding the hatching of the
63 blastocyst are changes that begin in the uterus and embryo, which include physical contact
64 after dissolution of the zona pellucida between the trophoblast and the endometrium
65 (Landim-Alvarenga, 2006).

66 Biometrics is an important technique for morphometrically analyzing and monitoring
67 the development and growth of maternal, embryonic, and fetal gestational structures. It is
68 important in predicting the gestational age of the fetus and the probably date of parturition
69 (Lopate, 2008; Miranda and Domingues, 2010). There can be a reduction in prenatal
70 mortality by diagnosing disorders that can negatively affect pregnancy (Johnsen et al., 2008).
71 In medicine, elastographic evaluation of the placenta has been performed to characterize
72 structural rigidity and identify early anomalies such as preeclampsia, placental abruption,
73 spontaneous premature delivery, intrauterine growth retardation, and perinatal death, which
74 are the main causes (about 5% of the neonatal population) of maternal and fetal morbidity
75 and mortality (Gupta et al., 2008; Yu et al., 2008; Lindheimer et al., 2010).

76 In veterinary medicine, results of only one study have been reported regarding the
77 applicability of elastography in animal placenta evaluation, using a murine experimental
78 model of intrauterine growth restriction (Quibel et al., 2015). This highlights a lack of
79 information on ultrasonic characteristics of utero-placental structure when there is a gestation
80 period involving no abnormal occurrences or when there is a gestation with complications
81 (i.e., pathological).

82 The imaging methods developed specifically to evaluate the elasticity of tissues are
83 collectively referred as elastography, a non-invasive imaging modality classified based on the
84 source of the force that is exerted on the tissues, such as manual compression, acoustic
85 radiation force impulse (ARFI) and real-time shear velocity (RSV). In addition, elastographic
86 evaluations can be performed using the qualitative technique, strain elastography, and the
87 quantitative technique using compression waves (Feliciano et al., 2015a). In veterinary
88 medicine, ARFI ultrasonography technique has been used to detect various pathological
89 changes in the dog and cat spleen and kidneys, as well as in the dog liver, prostate gland, and
90 testes (Holdsworth et al., 2014; Feliciano et al., 2015b, 2015c; Garcia et al., 2015; Maronezi
91 et al., 2015), dog and cat mammary gland (Feliciano et al., 2015; Feliciano et al., 2017;), dog
92 lymph node metastasis (Silva et al., 2018a), and dog and sheep fetal lung and liver (Simões et
93 al., 2018; Silva et al., 2018b). This technique has the advantages of being repeatable,
94 objective, and less operator-dependent, and has promise as a valid method of assessing
95 structural changes in dog placental tissues.

96 Furthermore, it was hypothesized that: i) placental biometry using B-mode
97 ultrasonography allows for prediction of gestational age; and ii) alterations in the tissue
98 rigidity of the placental structure during gestational development, measured by elastography.
99 The aim of the present study was to evaluate the biometry of placental structures and
100 determine the quantitative elastographic characteristics and reference ranges for shear wave

101 velocities (SWV) of dog placental structures in healthy bitches from gestational day 15 until
102 parturition. The rationale was that the use of elastography would provide useful information
103 on placental development during physiological gestation in dogs. Additionally, it might be a
104 useful technique for identifying pathological conditions that may alter tissue rigidity and
105 development during pregnancy, a period during which the restriction of uterine growth is one
106 of the most important causes of perinatal morbidity and mortality (Bernstein et al., 2000;
107 Aucott et al., 2004). It is expected that the results of the present study will provide a basis for
108 future studies aiming at the early diagnosis and monitoring of female dogs with gestational
109 complications, thereby reducing genetic and economic losses of kennels and breeders
110 (Beccaglia, 2015).

111

112 **2. Materials and methods**

113 *2.1. Ethical aspects and animals*

114 All experimental procedures were approved by the Animal Ethics and Welfare
115 Committee (Univ. Estadual Paulista) protocol N° 9.884/16. Twelve brachycephalic,
116 primiparous or multiparous bitches (body weight 10.5 ± 3.3 kg and age of 2.56 ± 0.89 years),
117 all clinically healthy (based on assessment of clinical history, general examination,
118 hematology and biochemical ALT, creatinine and blood glucose, dosage) and of different
119 breeds (eight French Bulldogs, two Pugs and two Shih-tzus) were randomly selected
120 according to the inclusion criteria for commercial dog breeders were used in this study. The
121 sample size was defined with the aim of evaluating 24 placental units, which allowed for a
122 statistical power of at least 85% based on results from a previous study in which there was
123 evaluation of the rigidity of the placental structure in women with an ongoing pregnancy
124 (Sugitani et al., 2013).

125

126 2.2. *Experimental protocol*

127 2.2.1. *Artificial insemination*

128 Kennel owners were trained to detect early signs of proestrus, to determinate the dogs'
129 optimal mating period. The ovarian estrous cyclic phase was determined by observing the
130 signs of estrus (i.e., female's acceptance of coupling) and using vaginal cytology (detection of
131 anucleated surface cells in smears (> 80 %) (Socha et al., 2012). Following vaginal cytology
132 estrous confirmation, artificial intravaginal insemination (AIVI) with fresh semen was
133 performed, every 48 h for 3 consecutive days (Jacomini et al., 2006).

134

135 2.2.2. *B-mode ultrasonography assessment*

136 Ultrasonographic pregnancy detection (Acuson S2000™ ultrasonic device; Siemens®,
137 Munich, Germany equipped with a 9.0 MHz linear transducer) was performed 2 weeks after
138 the first AI as described for a previous study of Feliciano et al. (2007). To perform ultrasonic
139 exams the hair of the abdomen was clipped. The transducer was positioned in the caudal
140 abdominal area and all adjustable settings of the ultrasonic device (e.g., depth, gain,
141 mechanical index, and focal zones) were optimized to ensure a more precise image and left
142 unchanged for the entire study period. All ultrasonic examinations were performed by a
143 single experienced operator (5 years) to reduce the evaluation time and stress endured by
144 pregnant animals, and consistently ascertain the proper development of conceptuses and the
145 gestational age (Yeager et al., 1992; Socha et al., 2012; Simões et al., 2018).

146 Considering a variable period of gestation in dogs (between 57 to 63 days)
147 (Concannon et al., 1983), the day after the first insemination was considered the first day of
148 gestation in this study. Thickness (mm) assessments of the maternal-fetal placental structure
149 tissues were determined once daily from day 15 of gestation and the individual maternal and
150 fetal tissues from day 21 of gestation until whelping (Figure 1). To evaluate the same area of

151 the placenta in each animal consistently, there was standardization of the evaluation of two
152 caudal placenta (one from each uterine horn).

153

154 *2.2.3. ARFI elastography assessment*

155 After completion of the B-mode ultrasonography, quantitative elastographic (ARFI)
156 determinations were made of the placental structure (dorsal, lateral and ventral) using two
157 specific types of software designed for tissue rigidity image analyses: VTTQ™ (Virtual
158 Touch™ Tissue Quantification; Siemens, Germany) and VTTIQ™ (Virtual Touch Tissue™
159 Imaging Quantification; 2D-SWE technique, Siemens, Germany). Each procedure was
160 performed once daily from 21 days of gestation until whelping. Values for real-time
161 quantitative elastographic variables of shear wave velocities (SWV; m/s) of the tissues were
162 obtained by placing an electronic calliper with fixed dimensions (VTTQ™: 5 x 5 mm, Figure
163 2; VTTIQ™: 1 x 1 mm, Figure 3) within the parenchyma of each organ at three different
164 locations (cranial, caudal, central), with the depth ranging from 5 to 20 mm.

165

166 *2.2.4. Apgar score*

167 After parturition, all neonates were clinically evaluated using the Apgar score (0-10;
168 at 0, 5, and 60 min post-partum) by quantifying the body temperature (TC), heart rate (HR),
169 respiratory effort (RF), gingival mucous color, muscle tone, irritability reflexes, and
170 vocalization (Silva et al., 2008). The morpho-physiological development of the pups was
171 verified weekly using clinical examinations until day 60 postpartum, when the pups were
172 separated from the mother.

173

174 *2.3. Statistical analysis*

175 Statistical analyses were performed using the R® statistical software (R Foundation
176 for Statistical Computing; Vienna, Austria), using a block (bitches) randomized experimental
177 design, with parcels subdivided in time (gestational days). Residual normality (Shapiro test)
178 and homoscedasticity of variances (Barlett's test) were previously tested. The variation
179 between measurements of the three areas of interest in each area of the placental structure
180 was studied using the Bland-Altman concordance test. The SWV averages and placental
181 thicknesses were compared between the evaluated areas and gestational days using the
182 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measures. The values for variables that were
183 different based on use of an ANOVA were further analyzed using mathematical regression
184 models (linear, quadratic, and cubic) or orthogonal contrasts. The statistical significance was
185 set at 95% (P value < 0.05).

186

187 **3. Results**

188 All animals had normal gestation periods and there were no anomalies in fetal or
189 placental development at the time of pre- or postpartum examinations. Respiratory distress
190 did not occur in any neonate and Apgar scores were > 7 (median \pm IQR: 9 ± 1.5 at 0 min; 10
191 ± 1.5 at 5 min, and 10 ± 0.5 at 60 min after birth) during the first hour after birth. The B-
192 mode and ARFI ultrasonography could be performed without difficulties and did not cause
193 any morpho-physiological alterations in the puppies during the first 60 days after parturition.

194 Maternal-fetal placental thickness (5.59 ± 0.83 mm) determined from day 15 of
195 gestation until the day of parturition varied with the progression of gestation ($P < 0.0001$); it
196 increased in thickness gradually until the day 63, as indicated by use of a linear regression
197 model for this variable ($P < 0.0001$; $R^2 = 0.91$); and the placental thickness was observed to
198 vary after this period.

199 Maternal placental thickness (2.20 ± 0.55 mm), determined from day 21 of gestation
200 until parturition (Figure 1) increased with the progression of gestation ($P < 0.0001$) from day
201 21 to 40 and subsequently plateaued. This is indicated by a cubic regression model for this
202 variable ($P = 0.0340$; $R^2 = 0.54$). The fetal placental thickness (3.40 ± 0.63 mm) determined
203 after day 21 of gestation until parturition also varied with the progress of gestation ($P <$
204 0.0001), gradually increasing until the day 50 and then stabilizing as indicated by a linear
205 regression model for this variable ($P < 0.0001$; $R^2 = 0.83$; Figure 4).

206 In the evaluation of tissue rigidity using the quantitative elastographic technique
207 VTTQ™ (Figure 2), there was not an intra-observational variation for SWV ($P = 0.6291$)
208 and the data were considered to be similar because of the very small amount of variation (0.3
209 ± 0.2 m/s). Between the two placentas analyzed in each of the pregnant bitches, no variations
210 were observed in the SWV ($P = 0.2023$).

211 Comparing the placental areas, the mean SWV of the dorsal area analyzed using
212 VTTQ™ (2.62 ± 0.63 m/s) was greater ($P < 0.0010$) than that of the lateral area (1.68 ± 0.53
213 m/s), which was greater ($P = 0.020$) than that of the ventral area (1.50 ± 1.37 m/s). The SWV
214 of the dorsal area (Figure 5) varied during the gestational period ($P = 0.0052$), as indicated by
215 a cubic regression model ($P = 0.0291$; $R^2 = 0.40219$), such that the values for this variable
216 decreased from day 21 to 35 of gestation, subsequently increased until day 56 and then
217 stabilized. The SWV of the lateral area also varied ($P < 0.001$) and this variation is indicated
218 by a quadratic regression model ($P < 0.001$; $R^2 = 0.6055$), where the values for this variable
219 decreased gradually from day 24 to 45 and then gradually increased until parturition. The
220 placental SWV of the ventral area did not change during the gestational period ($P = 0.9611$).

221 In the evaluation of tissue rigidity by the quantitative elastographic technique
222 VTTIQ™ (Figure 3), there was no intra-observational variation for SWV ($P = 0.4774$) and
223 the data were considered similar because of the small amount of variation (0.02 ± 0.52 m/s).

224 Between the two placentas analyzed in each of the pregnant bitches, there were no variations
225 in the SWV ($P = 0.6570$).

226 Comparing the placental areas, the mean SWV of the dorsal area (2.60 ± 0.44 m/s)
227 measured using the VTTIQ™ technique was greater ($P < 0.001$) than that of the lateral (2.33
228 ± 0.56 m/s), which was greater ($P < 0.001$) than that of the ventral (1.66 ± 0.66 m/s) area.
229 The SWV of the dorsal area (Figure 6) varied during the gestational period ($P < 0.0010$), as
230 indicated by a cubic regression model ($P = 0.0016$; $R^2 = 0.5075$), in which the values for this
231 variable decreased from day 21 to 43, increased to day 60 of gestation and then stabilized.
232 The placental SWV of the ventral area also varied ($P < 0.001$) which is indicated by a
233 quadratic regression model ($P < 0.001$; $R^2 = 0.8055$), where the values for this variable
234 gradually increased from day 21 to 23 of gestation and then progressively decreased until the
235 time of parturition. Furthermore, the placental SWV of the lateral area did not change during
236 the gestational period ($P = 0.1092$).

237 The values resulting from SWV evaluations using the VTTQ™ and VTTIQ™ techniques
238 were positively correlated ($P < 0.0001$) for each of the dorsal, ventral, and lateral area ($R =$
239 $0.261, 0.626$ and 0.460 ; respectively) and only small variations were observed when there
240 were comparisons of these values ($- 0.08 \pm 0.62, - 0.07 \pm 0.026, 0.60 \pm 0.79$ m/s,
241 respectively).

242

243 **4. Discussion**

244 Based on the results of the present study, implementation of B-mode and ARFI
245 ultrasonography in brachycephalic bitches performed once a day from day 15 of gestation to
246 parturition was applicable and did not cause any clinical change in viability and maternal,
247 fetal, or neonatal health. These findings are consistent with results in elastographic studies

248 performed in humans (Sugitani et al., 2013; Karaman et al., 2016), baboons (Quarello et al.,
249 2016) and with determination of biometrics in bitches (Maldonado et al., 2012).

250 The increase in maternal, fetal, and maternal-fetal placental thickness as assessed
251 using B-mode ultrasonography in dogs apparently is indicative of the changes that occur in
252 the histology of the placental areas of the uterus that is associated with more rapid growth
253 during the prenatal period, after implantation (Dantzer and Leiser, 2012). The maternal-fetal
254 placental thickness (5.59 ± 0.83 mm) determinations also allowed for the prediction of
255 gestational age, corroborating the results of a previous study (Maldonado et al., 2012) in
256 which there was evaluation of different breeds and sizes of bitches (small, medium, and
257 large), and defining of an average placental thickness of 0.58 cm corresponding to the days
258 (days 30.5, 35.2, 46, and 56.3) of gestation. Each dog was evaluated once from the third
259 gestational week, while in the present study each animal was evaluated daily, from day 15
260 after the first artificial insemination until parturition, and only brachycephalic breeds of dogs
261 being used as specimens for the study. These results also corroborate the findings of Silva et
262 al. (2007) in boxer breeds in a study where there were determinations that there was a
263 positive correlation between values for placental thickness and days of gestation with $R^2 =$
264 0.91, similar to results from the present study.

265 Comparing individual maternal and fetal thicknesses, the fetal placental thickness
266 (3.40 ± 0.63 mm) was greater than that of the maternal thickness (2.20 ± 0.55 mm),
267 indicating there was a gradual and constant increase until the second third of gestation and
268 subsequently stabilizing of placental thickness; however, there have been limited evaluations
269 in previous studies. As observed in humans (Schwartz et al., 2012), the measurement of
270 placental thickness may be an important clinical evaluation in the prediction of uteroplacental
271 blood flow restriction in dogs.

272 A thick heterogeneous placenta is a disorder strongly associated with maternal, fetal,
273 and neonatal complications, including the end-stage of a compensatory process caused by an
274 underdevelopment of the uteroplacental circulation (Raio et al., 2004), placental calcification
275 (Maldonado et al., 2012), early signs of fetal hydrops, uncontrolled maternal diabetes and
276 congenital infection (Kuhlmann and Warsof, 1996).

277 The placenta is one of the most important parenchymal organs in obstetrics and
278 studies evaluating placental elasticity are limited. Sugitani et al. (2013) were the first to
279 evaluate *ex vivo* placental tissue in pregnant women with fetal growth restriction and in which
280 there was identification of an increase in placental rigidity compared to the healthy control
281 group. Karaman et al. (2016) also evaluated placental elasticity *in vivo* using the ARFI
282 technique in pre-eclamptic and normal hypertensive pregnant women, concluding that this
283 diagnostic approach allows for accurate assessments in detection of these complications.

284 The present study is the first conducted to evaluate the chronology of placental
285 physiological elasticity in bitches, defining normal placental patterns for brachycephalic
286 bitches, with the precept that these abnormalities may be an important factor in fetal
287 morbidity and mortality due to its importance in fetal development and growth (Bowman and
288 Zennedy, 2014). Pathophysiological studies, therefore, are extremely important in validation
289 of this diagnostic parameter in different species. Results from some studies indicate there are
290 possible long-term fetal adverse effects of ultrasonography, such as thermally induced
291 teratogenesis due to tissue temperature increases, associated with the absence of fetal
292 vascular perfusion during early pregnancy (Abramowicz et al., 2008). In the present study,
293 however, there were no malformations observed even with the daily evaluation using this
294 technique.

295 The ARFI elastography was performed without discomfort to the pregnant bitches and
296 there was no evidence of alterations in the factors being evaluated as result of the use of this

297 technique, considering it a safe and a non-invasive approach. There were similar observations
298 by Tabaru et al. (2012) in a study on the biological effects of ultrasonography in fetal
299 evaluation. These findings were verified by Sugitani et al. (2013) in women when there was
300 reporting that, microscopically, there were no structural, thermal, or mechanical changes in
301 the tissues studied. The ARFI elastography was also effective because of the ease of
302 applicability and reproducibility, that is, any operator should be able to obtain the same image
303 quality without difficulty. There was no difference between repeated measures, even with in-
304 depth interference in the measured SWV, consistent with the results in a report of Ohmaru et
305 al. (2015) in which there was evaluation of the second and third gestational period in women.

306 Li et al. (2012) reported there was no difference between the borders and central areas
307 of placenta in terms of placental elasticity values in the third trimester of physiological
308 gestation in humans. The SWV of the dorsal area that corresponds to the free edge area of the
309 maternal-fetal placental unit was evaluated using both software to distinguish a well-defined
310 tissue function during the gestational process, similar to that reported in women by Ohmaru
311 et al. (2015). The findings indicated that although the SWV values for placenta assessments
312 did not correlate with the week of gestation, however, it gradually increased during
313 pregnancy. Furthermore, in the third trimester of gestation, results from histological
314 evaluations indicated there were alterations such as a greater than typical abundance of
315 collagen fibers and the presence of fibrosis. These conditions could increase tissue rigidity;
316 and additional factors such as inflammatory changes that could be the result of vascular
317 dysfunction associated with gestational hypertension and/or infarction could not be excluded;
318 however, complications were not detected during the observation period.

319 The SWV values for the ventral area using the VTTQ™ software that refers to the
320 umbilical cord insertion area, and the lateral area that corresponds to the free edge area of the
321 placental unit with use of the VTTIQ™ software, did not change. To the best of our

322 knowledge, there are no previous reports that allow for comparison of the current with
323 previous results. It, therefore, is considered advisable to evaluate the SWV of the dorsal area
324 using any of the software types used and described for conducting the present study.

325 In veterinary medicine, the results from the study by Quarello et al. (2015a), in which
326 there was assessment of placental elasticity in baboons in the first, second, and third
327 gestational trimesters and assessment of SWV, could be explained using a quadratic
328 regression model with $R^2 = 0.196$ during gestation. There were similar similar results in the
329 previous study to those in the present study for the free edge area of the placenta.
330 Nevertheless, the results of the present study indicated there was a greater coefficient of
331 determination $R^2 = 0.60$ due to the larger sample size and repeated evaluation at regular
332 intervals in the same animals. The results of the present study indicate the approaches used
333 are promising for pathophysiological evaluations in future studies.

334 It is important to emphasize and recognize some limitations of the present study. All
335 fetuses were born healthy; indications for caesarian-section were based on ultrasonic
336 detection of changes in fetal heart rate (Gil et al., 2014a). The small sample size may be
337 considered a limiting factor of the present study, however, is consistent with the methodology
338 used by Gil et al. (2014, 2015a, 2015b) in previous studies in which there was determination
339 of values for several clinical variables that are commonly used as reference values for dog
340 pregnancies.

341 In addition, the results of the present study could have been affected by peristaltic
342 movements occurring in pregnant bitches, variability in fetal organ depth, fetal movements,
343 acoustic shadowing generated by fetal ribs, and the proportions of areas of interest evaluated.
344 These limitations of the imaging technique have been previously described by Quarello et al.
345 (2015b) and Simões et al. (2018) and may affect the relationships between elastographic
346 features of placental tissue.

347 5. Conclusion

348 The biometric and elastographic evaluation of the dog placenta from day 15 of
349 gestation until parturition was possible and did not cause any apparent alterations in maternal,
350 fetal, or neonatal viability. The patterns found in placental thickening and placental SWV
351 assessments reflect the structural and biochemical adaptations that occur during the
352 gestational stages and can become a useful technique in clinical obstetrics. The technique and
353 values elucidated in this study provide a reference for biometric and elastographic analyses of
354 normal gestational tissues and a promising basis for future pathophysiological studies in
355 different species of veterinary interest.

356

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364

365 Conflict of Interest

366 None of the authors has any conflict of interest to declare.

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534

535 **Figures Legends**

536 **Fig. 1.** High resolution ultrasonographic image in a longitudinal section of the placental
537 structure (maternal unit: x, fetal: \diamond , and maternal-fetal: +) in a bitch on day 31 of gestation

538

539 **Fig. 2.** Image of quantitative ARFI VTTQ™ elastography in a longitudinal section of the
540 dorsal area of the dog placenta (green calliper) on day 40 of gestation (SWV = 2.40 m/s,
541 depth = 1.3 cm)

542

543 **Fig. 3.** Image of quantitative ARFI VTTIQ™ elastography in a longitudinal section of the
544 dorsal, lateral, and ventral dog placenta on day 25 of gestation

545

546 **Fig. 4.** Graphic representation of placental maternal-fetal (A) and fetal (B) thicknesses (Y)
547 during the physiological gestational period (X) in brachycephalic bitches; Continuous line
548 corresponds to the regression model (maternal-fetal thickness (mm) = 0.12 X gestational day
549 + 0.52; fetal thickness (mm) = 0.083 X gestational day – 0.13) adapted to each variable and
550 the dots indicate the 95% confidence interval

551

552 **Fig. 5.** Graphical representation of the shear wave velocity (SWV; m/s) of the placental
553 dorsal and lateral areas using the quantitative elastographic technique VTTQ™ during the
554 physiological gestational period in 12 brachycephalic bitches

555

556 **Fig. 6.** Graphical representation of the shear wave velocity (SWV; m/s) of the placental
557 dorsal and ventral areas of the placenta determined using the quantitative elastographic
558 technique VTTIQ™ during the gestational period in 12 brachycephalic bitches