

**COMPARISON OF ORAL MIFEPRISTONE WITH INTRACERVICAL FOLEYS
CATHETERISATION FOR INDUCTION OF LABOUR AND FETOMATERNAL
OUTCOME**

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2025

STRUCTURED ABSTRACT

Background: Induction of labor (IOL) is a critical obstetric intervention employed when the benefits of early delivery outweigh the risks of continuing pregnancy. While both mechanical and pharmacological methods exist, their relative safety, effectiveness, and comfort for term pregnancies remain under evaluation.

Objective: This study aims to compare the efficacy and fetomaternal outcomes of oral mifepristone versus transcervical Foley catheterization for cervical ripening and labor induction in term pregnancies with an unfavorable cervix.

Methods: In a prospective study conducted over 18 months at RL Jalappa Hospital, 50 term pregnant women with unfavorable cervixes were randomized into two groups: Group A received 200 mg oral mifepristone, and Group B underwent Foley catheter insertion. Labor induction success, Bishop score changes, induction-delivery intervals, mode of delivery, and neonatal outcomes were evaluated. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 26.0.

Results: There were no statistically significant differences between groups in terms of age, parity, gestational age, or baseline Bishop scores. Although vaginal delivery rates were slightly higher in the mifepristone group (88% vs. 76%), this difference was not significant. However, the induction-to-delivery interval was significantly shorter in the Foley group (13.66 ± 5.36 hrs) compared to the mifepristone group (21.14 ± 8.39 hrs, $P = 0.001$). Neonatal APGAR scores and failed induction rates showed no significant differences.

Conclusion: Both mifepristone and Foley catheter are effective for cervical ripening and induction of labor in term pregnancies. While Foley catheterization leads to faster deliveries, mifepristone offers a non-invasive alternative with comparable safety and

delivery outcomes. Method selection should be individualized based on patient comfort, resource availability, and clinical circumstances.

Keywords: *Mifepristone, Foley catheter, cervical ripening, labor induction, term pregnancy, Bishop score, vaginal delivery, maternal outcomes, neonatal outcomes.*

INTRODUCTION:

Obstetrics is a field of medicine dedicated to the care of women during pregnancy, childbirth, and postpartum period, involving a delicate balance of maternal and fetal well-being. While most pregnancies progress without complication, certain medical or obstetric conditions necessitate intervention before spontaneous onset of labour. In such cases, Induction of labour (IOL) becomes a critical tool, allowing clinicians to safely initiate labor when prolongation of pregnancy may lead to adverse outcomes.

Induction of labour is clinically indicated when the benefits of timely delivery outweigh the risks associated with continuation of the pregnancy¹. Common indications include Hypertensive disorders, Diabetes mellitus, Premature rupture of membranes, Intrauterine growth restriction of baby, oligohydramnios, fetal death, and post-term pregnancy². While medically indicated induction is widely accepted, **elective inductions**—those performed without a medical necessity—have increased in recent years and remain controversial due to their association with increased cesarean section (CS) rates and maternal morbidity³

The global rise in IOL is evident, with the overall induction rate is climbing from 8.5 % in the year 1990 to twenty three percentage in 2009⁴. Among parous women, this rate is even higher—up to 38%⁴⁻⁶. Elective inductions now account for nearly one-third of

total births in some settings, often leading to unnecessary interventions, healthcare cost escalation, and increased maternal and neonatal complications⁴⁻¹⁰

A crucial determinant of IOL success is the **state of the cervix** at initiation. In cases with a unfavorable cervix, induction before cervical ripening is necessary. Two methods—**pharmacological (e.g., mifepristone)** and **mechanical (e.g., Foley catheterization)**—are widely used. Mechanical methods exert pressure to induce local prostaglandin release, whereas pharmacologic agents act via hormonal modulation¹¹

Among pharmacologic agents, mifepristone has emerged as promising cervical ripening and labour-induction agent. Also known as RUU:486, mifepristone is a 19-norsteroid with potent anti-progestogenic, anti-glucocorticoid, and mild anti-androgenic effects¹². It works by blocking progesterone receptors, increasing uterine sensitivity to prostaglandins, and facilitating cervical softening and dilatation. It is characterized by rapid absorption and a longer half-life of 25–30 hours, making it suitable even for outpatient settings.

While mechanical methods like the Foley catheter are commonly used, especially in women with prior cesarean sections, their **invasive nature**, potential for discomfort, and risk of infection have led to greater interest in non-invasive pharmacologic alternatives. Mifepristone offers a **less invasive** approach with potential for outpatient use and **favorable outcomes**, including **higher rates of spontaneous labor onset, improved Bishop scores, and lower cesarean section rates** in several studies^{13,14}.

Despite growing interest in mifepristone, clinical data remain insufficient, particularly regarding its comparative efficacy and safety in term pregnancies. According to a Cochrane review by Hapangama and Neilson (2009), while mifepristone shows

potential as a labor induction agent, more clinical studies are needed to substantiate its widespread use.

This study is focused on evaluating the effectiveness and fetomaternal outcomes of oral mifepristone as an agent for the induction of labour in the term pregnancies with an unfavorable cervix, comparing its performance with that of the commonly used Foley's catheter. As labour induction in an unripened cervix can be prolonged and stressful for both mother and fetus, optimizing the method of induction is crucial for improving birth outcomes. Through this study, we aim to assess whether mifepristone offers a safer, more efficient, and more comfortable alternative for cervical ripening and induction of labour.

STUDY OBJECTIVES:

1. Determination of the effectiveness and safety of Mifepristone and Foley's balloon catheterization in induction of labour at term pregnancy.
2. To assess fetal and obstetric outcomes

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

NORMAL LABOUR

Labour is a series of coordinated physiological processes that enable the fetus to transition from the intrauterine environment to the external world. In a typical singleton pregnancy, gestation lasts an average of 40 weeks (280 days), calculated from the first day of the last normal menstrual cycle. A pregnancy is considered "term" when it reaches between 37 weeks (259 days) and 42 weeks (294 days) of gestation.

DEFINITION:

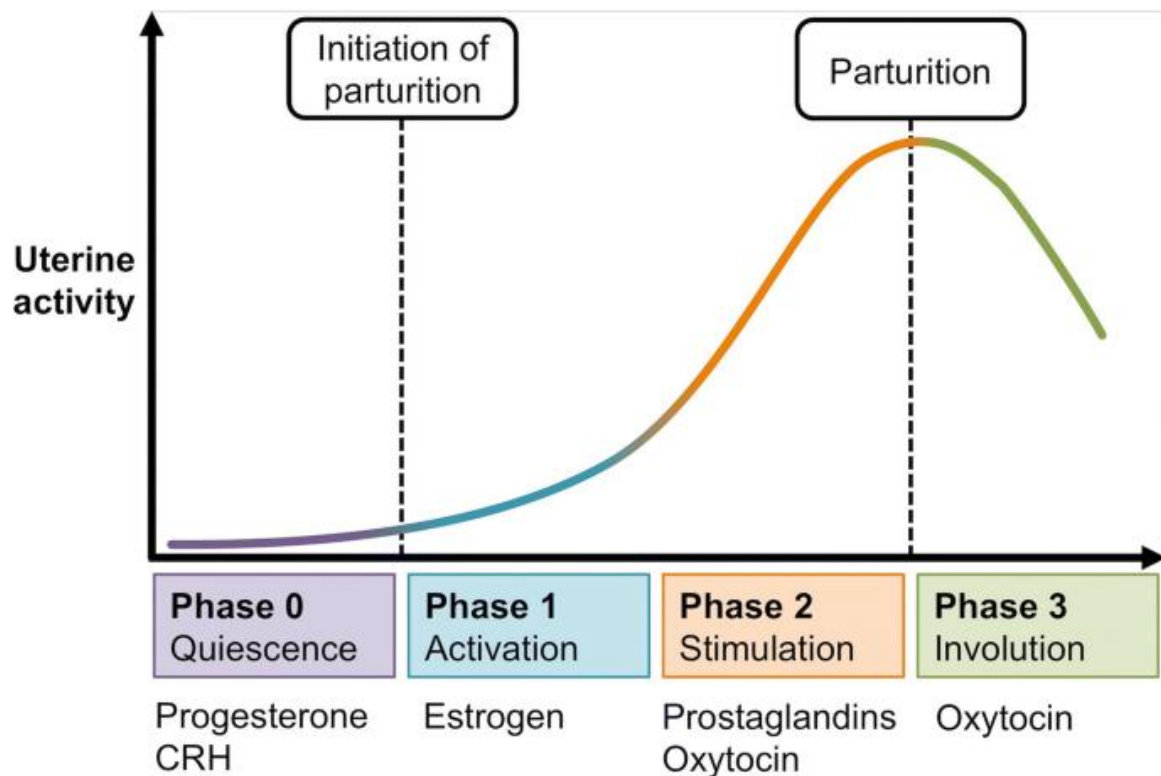
Clinically, labour is defined by the presence of consistent, painful uterine contractions that progressively increase in both strength and frequency, accompanied

by cervical effacement or dilation. A hallmark of true labor is the shift in myometrial activity from irregular, prolonged, low-frequency contractions ("contractures") to more powerful and frequent contractions ("contractions")¹⁵. It is important to distinguish that contractions without cervical changes do not qualify as labor. The presence of a bloody mucus discharge, commonly referred to as a "show," may occur in the days leading up to labor but is not essential for diagnosis. Typically, in spontaneous term labor, cervical softening and remodeling occur before uterine contractions, which are then followed by cervical dilation. Rupture of the fetal membranes usually happens during labor, although in some instances, it may precede the onset of contractions and result in leakage of amniotic fluid.

THE ONSET OF LABOUR:

Physiologically, the initiation of labour at term is better understood as the withdrawal of pregnancy-induced inhibition of myometrial contractility rather than a response to direct uterine stimulation¹⁵. There are four recognized phases of uterine activity that characterize this progression (Fig. 1).

FIGURE 1



During pregnancy the uterus remains in a state of functional dormancy—referred to as Phase 0 due to the influence of several inhibitory substances such as progesterone, prostacyclin, relaxin, nitric oxide, and various peptides including parathyroid hormone related peptide, calcitonin gene related peptide, adrenomedullin, and vasoactive intestinal peptide. As pregnancy advances toward term the uterus undergoes a preparatory transformation Phase 1 driven by uterotropins like estrogen. This leads to increased production of contraction associated proteins, including receptors for oxytocin and prostaglandins, enhanced expression of ion channels, and upregulation of connexin 43, which is vital for gap junction communication.

Following this preparatory stage the uterus becomes responsive to uterotropins such as oxytocin and prostaglandins E₂ and F_{2α}, triggering contractions (Phase 2). Since no single molecule has been identified as the definitive trigger, the term "promoters of labor onset" is more appropriate than "initiators." After delivery, uterine involution—Phase 3—is primarily mediated by oxytocin and possibly thrombin.

The Endocrine Control of Labour

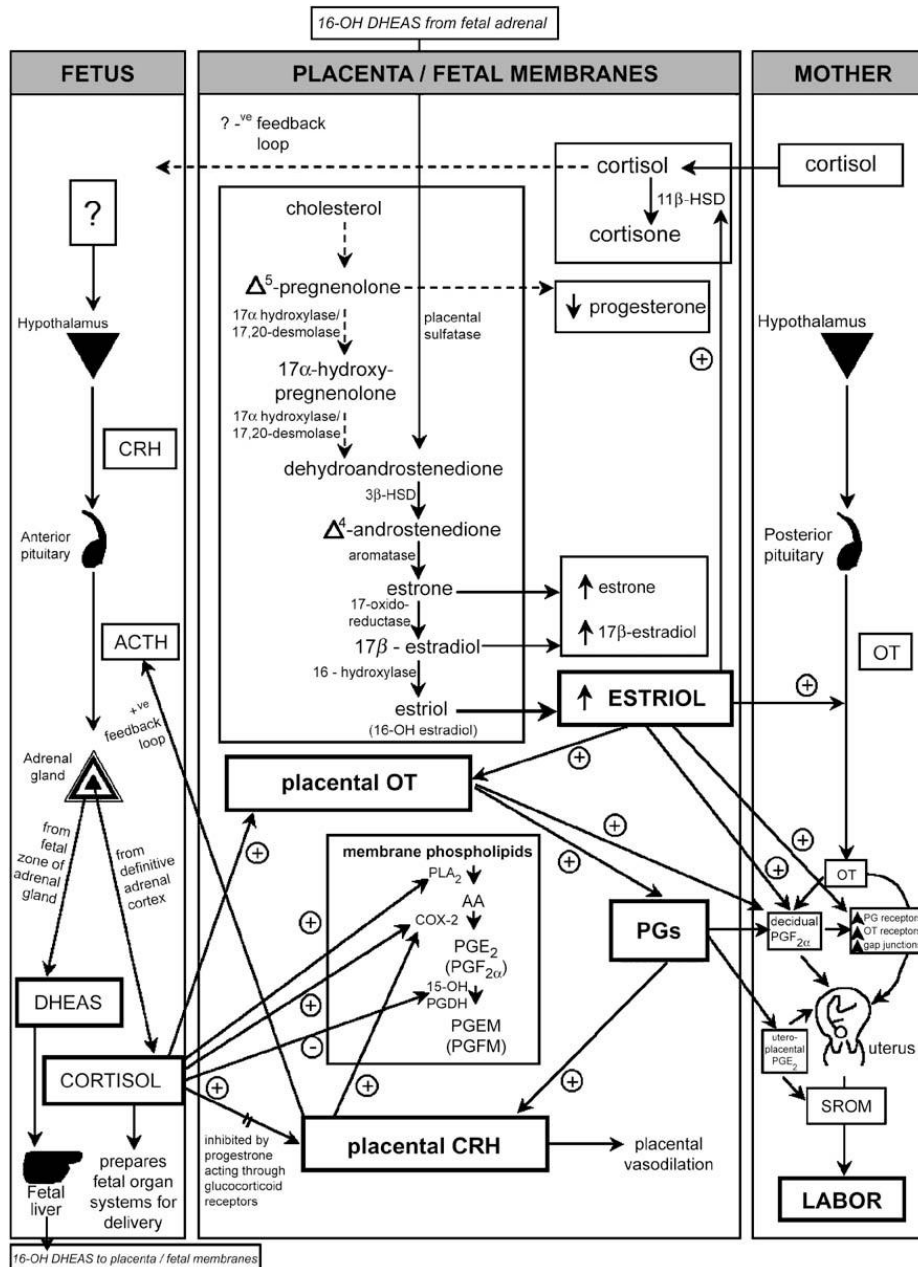
Substantial evidence suggests the foetus has a central role in determining the timing of labor. Ancient beliefs speculated that fetal movements-initiated labor, and although we now understand labor more intricately, the idea that the fetus contributes to initiating labor is supported by data from various mammalian species. Mid-20th-century cross-breeding studies in equines demonstrated intermediate gestational lengths, implying fetal genetics influence labor timing. In domestic ruminants like sheep, fetal cortisol triggers placental enzyme activation—specifically 17 α hydroxylase/ 17,20-lyase which converts progesterone to estradiol-17 β , leading to increased uterine prostaglandin production and subsequent labor. Surfactant protein-A release from foetal lungs into amniotic fluid has also been implicated in labour initiation in mice. However, these mechanisms do not fully translate to humans; for example, the human placenta lacks the enzyme activated by glucocorticoids in ruminants.

The slow progress in elucidating human parturition biochemistry is largely due to the complexity and species-specific nature of labour mechanisms. In humans labor is controlled predominantly through paracrine and autocrine signalling within the uterus, which complicates direct study. Still most consistent mechanism appears to be activation of the foetal hypothalamic pituitary-adrenal axis, common across viviparous species. In humans this activation results in the release of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA), a C-19 steroid precursor necessary for placental estriol synthesis^{16,17}. Studies in rhesus monkeys have shown that while direct administration of estrogen does not induce preterm labor, administration of its precursor does. Furthermore, aromatase inhibition prevents this effect, confirming the necessity of precursor conversion to estrogen for labor initiation^{18,19}

Regardless of whether labour signaling originates in the mother or foetus, the final pathway converges in the maternal uterine tissues. Myometrial contractions, like those in other smooth muscle types, rely on ATP-mediated binding of myosin to actin. Unlike vascular smooth muscle, uterine muscle has minimal nerve supply, which diminishes further during pregnancy. Thus, uterine contractility is mainly regulated by hormonal signals and intrinsic cellular mechanisms. As the uterus transitions from quiescence to contractility, enhanced gap junction formation between myometrial cells ensures electrical coordination of contractions. Notably expression of connexin-43 mRNA a critical gap junction component increases as labour begins²⁰

It is proposed that labour in humans results from a cascading sequence of interconnected signals—referred to as the "parturition cascade" (Fig. 2)—which progressively removes factors that maintain uterine quiescence and introduces those promoting uterine activity. This sequence integrates maternal, placental, and foetal pathways, ensuring redundancy and resilience. Labour ultimately emerges as a complex, multi-phase physiological process that reflects cumulative changes across the myometrium, decidua, and cervix. These changes include heightened prostaglandin production, increased gap junction formation, and upregulation of oxytocin receptors. Once the uterus and cervix are sufficiently primed, hormonal and mechanical stimuli from the fetus and placenta facilitate the shift from uterine contractures to effective contractions. The fetus likely contributes to this switch through its influence on placental hormone production, mechanical stretching of the uterus, and release of hormones that stimulate prostaglandin synthesis

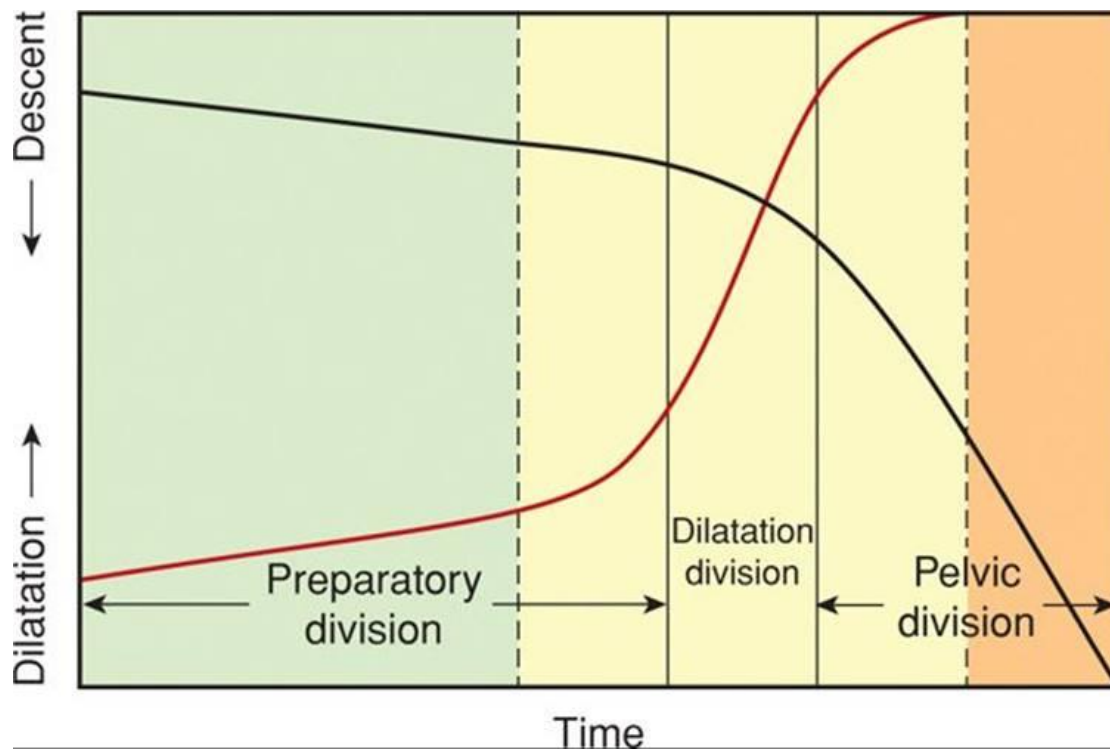
FIGURE 2. “parturition cascade” in spontaneous labor.



STAGEES AND DRATION OF NRMAL LABOUR

Although labour is a continuous process, it traditionally has been divided into three stages to facilitate study and assist in clinical management.

FIGURE 3



First Stage of Labour

The first stage marks the time from the beginning of labour until the cervix reaches full dilation. It is commonly divided into three phases based on cervical dilation rates²¹

1. **Lateent Phase:** This early phase involves slow, gradual dilation of the cervix and varies widely in duration.
2. **Active Phase:** Dilation accelerates, typically starting around 2–4 cm. Although this phase can be further subdivided (e.g., acceleration, peak slope, deceleration), such distinctions are now rarely used.
3. **Descent Phase:** While descent of the foetus typically aligns with the second stage, some early frameworks included it here. However this classification is debated.

Labour progression patterns are generally consistent across ethnic groups but differ significantly between women giving birth for the first time and those with previous deliveries. Friedman's classic work quantified average labor durations and defined thresholds for delay as two standard deviations beyond the mean. For example, 1.2 cm/hr dilation in a nullipara was considered slow, though the average was closer to 3 cm/hr. Labor progression can be tracked using a partogram—a chart mapping cervical dilation over time—to quickly identify abnormalities and respond accordingly²¹

Second Stage of Labour

The second stage begins at full cervical dilation (10 cm) and ends with the birth of the baby. It involves descent of the fetal presenting part through the pelvis and eventual delivery. Signs of entering this stage include increased vaginal bleeding, maternal urge to bear down, rectal pressure, and sometimes nausea or vomiting. Women often take a more active role by pushing during contractions. For nulliparous patients, pushing may continue for up to 2 hours (3 hours with epidural), and for multiparas, up to 1–2 hours is acceptable. If both maternal and fetal conditions remain stable, longer pushing times may be permitted without increased risk²¹

Third Stage of Labour

This stage extends from the baby's birth to the delivery of the placenta and membranes. Classical indicators of placental separation include:

1. Lengthening of the umbilical cord
2. Vaginal bleeding indicating placental detachment, and
3. Uterine fundus becoming firm, elevated, and globular.

Postpartum hemorrhage is the primary concern during this stage, as it contributes significantly to maternal complications. Normal blood loss is around 500 mL. While there's no universal timeline for this stage, retained placenta is typically diagnosed if it remains undelivered after 30 minutes. The WHO uses a 60-minute threshold as the definition²²

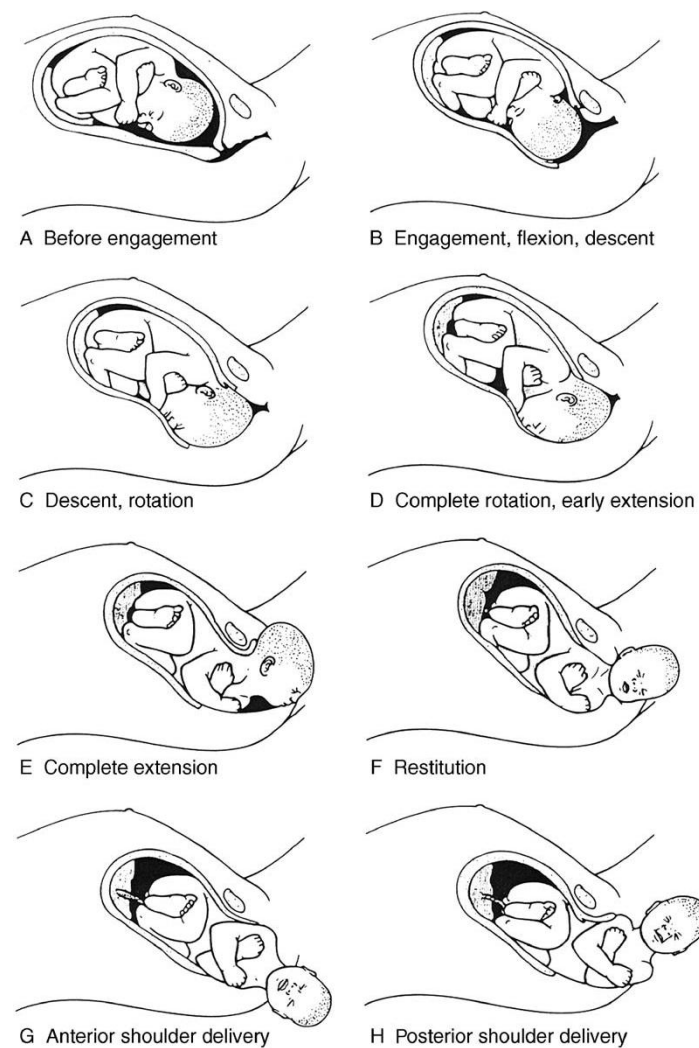
Cardinal Movements of Labour

These are the specific positional changes of the foetal head required to navigate the birth canal due to anatomical asymmetry. The seven movements are: **Engagement, Descent, Flexion, Internal Rotation, Extension, External Rotation (Restitution),** and **Expulsion** (Fig. 4).

- **Engagement** occurs when the widest part of the foetal head (usually the biparietal diameter in cephalic presentation) passes the pelvic inlet. Clinically, it's confirmed either by abdominal palpation (when only two-fifths of the head are felt) or vaginal examination (when the head is at or below the ischial spines). This is a key marker of labour progression. In multiparas engagement can occur later, even during labour, but in nulliparas, lack of engagement by 36 weeks may suggest cephalopelvic disproportion
- **Descent:** This refers to the downward movement of the presenting foetal part through the maternal pelvis. It occurs intermittently, accelerating during the late first stage and throughout the second stage of labour.
- **Flexion:** As the fetal head moves downward, it flexes due to pelvic anatomy and resistance from pelvic soft tissues. While some flexion exists before labour, full flexion—presenting the smallest head diameter (suboccipito-bregmatic)—typically occurs during labour, allowing easier passage.

- **Internal Rotation:** This movement shifts the fetal presenting part, usually from a transverse to an anteroposterior orientation, aligning the fetal occiput with the maternal symphysis pubis. Initially, the head may descend slightly off-center (asynclitic) but usually corrects as it rotates, guided passively by the pelvic shape and musculature.

FIGURE 4



- **Extension:** Once foetal head reaches the vulvar opening, the occiput meets the underside of the symphysis pubis. The birth canal then curves upward, and the head is delivered by extending and pivoting around the symphysis, propelled by contractions and maternal pushing against pelvic floor resistance.

- **Externaal Rotaton (Restution):** After delivery of the head, it passively rotats to realign with thee shoulders and torso. This movement releases built-up rotational tension and reflects the fetal head returning to its natural alignment.
- **Expulsion:** Final delivery of the fetus occurs as the anteriior shouldder slides beneath the symphysiis publiis, folowed by the posterior shoulder and the rest off the body, typiclly with minimal resistance.

INDUCTIN OFF LABUOR

Historic Perspectives

The practice of labor induction began in the late 18th century, originally applied in select high-risk cases. Over time, it expanded to include a broader range of maternal and fetal indications, including overdue pregnancies, leading to the modern concepts of “post-term” and “post-dates.” Today, induction is common even in low-risk pregnancies when continuation poses potential risks²³

Historically, both mechanical and chemical methods of induction have evolved across cultures. Ancient practices are sparsely documented but include intriguing ethnobotanical and spiritual techniques. Native Americans reportedly used powdered rattlesnake rattles, bear claw scrapings, and herbal teas for induction. A medicine man was even observed using smoke and rhythmic rattles as part of the ritual²³

In ancient Greece and Rome, physicians like Hippocrates advocated methods such as nipple stimulation, while Soranus of Ephesus described interventions for women with contracted pelvises, including enemas and topical applications to relax the cervix. Mechanical approaches like digital cervical dilation were used widely, though often with risk of trauma. Over time, devices like balloon dilators were introduced—Tarnier's device

in 1862, followed by the Champetier de Ribes' "metreurynter" in 1878, which later evolved into the Voorhees version. In 1890, Treub proposed using a urinary catheter fitted with a condom. By 1947, Kloosterman still favored this method, though complications like fetal malposition and cord prolapse were concerns. The use of the Foley catheter for cervical ripening emerged in the late 1960s²³

Pharmacological induction began with the use of ergot, quinine, and posterior pituitary extracts. Sir Henry Dale's discovery that pituitary extracts could stimulate the uterus was groundbreaking, although associated side effects limited its application. By 1928, oxytocin and vasopressin were identified separately, and in 1949, Vigneaud discovered and later synthesized oxytocin, revolutionizing modern induction techniques²³

Prostaglandins became relevant in the 1930s when Kurzoak and Lieb observed that semen stimulated uterine contractions. Von Euler named them "prostaglandins" in 1935. In 1968, Karim introduced labor induction using intravenous PGF₂ α , followed by successful use of PGE₂ by Calder and Embrey in 1973 via extra-amniotic infusion. Their findings confirmed PGE₂'s role in cervical ripening and spurred extensive trials to determine optimal use. Since the 1980s, two main strategies have dominated: amniotomy with oxytocin in favorable cervixes, and prostaglandin-based cervical ripening followed by augmentation for unfavorable cases²³

INDICATIONS

Labour is indicated when delivery of the foetus will be beneficial to the health of fetus or mother or both. The indications for the induction of labour may be one of the below causes²⁴

MATERNAL CAUSES

- Pregnancy induced hypertension

- Uncontrolled diabetes
- Abruptio placentae
- Coagulopathy
- Chorioamnionitis
- Premature rupture of membranes
- Cholestasis of pregnancy
- Acute fatty liver of pregnancy
- Acute hydrops
- Maternal request

FETAL CAUSES

- Intrauterine growth restriction
- Diabetes
- Rh incompatibility
- Unstable lie
- Prolonged pregnancy
- Ruptured membranes

CONTRAINDICATIONS FOR LABOR INDUCTION

The contraindications to labor induction are the same as those for spontaneous labor and vaginal delivery²⁵. They include, but are not limited to the following situations:

ABSOLUTE CONTRAINDICATIONS

- Vasa previa or complete placenta previa
- Transverse or oblique fetal lie
- Umbilical cord prolapse

- Prior classical uterine incision or trans fundal uterine surgery
- Active genital herpes infection
- Absolute cephalopelvic disproportion
- Contracted pelvis
- Previous Myomectomy entering the endometrial cavity

RELATIVE CONTRAINDICATIONS

- Malpresentation (breech)
- Cervical carcinoma

CRITERIA FOR INDUCTION OF LABOUR

Maternal criteria:

- Confirm indication
- Rule out contraindications
- Perform clinical pelvimetry to rule out CPD
- Assess Bishop's score
- Discuss risks and benefits with patient and relatives

Fetal criteria:

- Confirm gestational age
- Assess fetal lung maturity status if required
- Estimate fetal weight (clinically or USG)
- Confirm fetal presentation and lie
- Confirm fetal well-being

METHODS OF INDUCING LABOUR

The choice of labor induction method is influenced by multiple factors, such as gestational age, maternal parity and overall health, the underlying reason for induction, any existing pregnancy complications, fetal wellbeing and position, previous delivery history, cervical status, maternal preferences, and available healthcare resources²⁶. Among these, cervical readiness—assessed by features like consistency, dilation, and effacement—plays a critical role in predicting the success of induction and guiding the selection of the most suitable method. Mechanical approaches often suffice when the cervix is already somewhat favorable, especially if labor is imminent. In contrast, less favorable cervices may require pharmacologic interventions, sometimes in combination with mechanical techniques, and often involve more than one agent.

Natural Methods:

- Breast/nipple stimulation
- Membrane sweeping
- Amniotomy
- Acupuncture

Mechanical Techniques:

- Balloon catheters (e.g., Foley catheter)
- Laminaria stems
- Synthetic osmotic dilators

Chemical Methods:

Non-Hormonal Agents:

- Herbal remedies: blue/black cohosh, red raspberry leaf, evening primrose oil

- Castor oil
- Enemas

Hormonal Agents:

- Prostaglandin E2 (PGE2)
- Misoprostol (PGE1 analogue)
- Oxytocin
- Mifepristone
- Relaxin
- Estrogen
- Nitric oxide donors
- Fetal fibronectin

PREPARATION

Before initiating induction of labor (IOL), the cervix should be assessed using the Bishop scoring system, which evaluates dilation, effacement, consistency, position, and fetal station. A score of ≥ 8 suggests favorable conditions for vaginal delivery, whereas a score ≤ 3 is associated with reduced success. Discussing these findings with the patient helps inform her expectations²⁴

Informed consent must include a clear explanation of the benefits, risks, alternatives, and possible outcomes of IOL. Risks associated with IOL are similar to those of spontaneous labor and include cesarean delivery, operative vaginal birth, infection (chorioamnionitis), abnormal fetal heart patterns, and postpartum hemorrhage. Cesarean delivery may be necessary when induction fails—defined by inadequate cervical dilation

despite medications or membrane rupture. According to ACOG, oxytocin should be administered for 12–18 hours post-amniotomy before labelling IOL as unsuccessful²⁴

Providers should also outline available induction methods—mechanical, pharmacological, or a combination. A 2016 RCT showed that using combined methods (e.g., Foley catheter with misoprostol or syntocinon) led to faster delivery than single-method approaches, though differences diminished when adjusting for confounding variables²⁸ Cochrane reviews comparing amniotomy, prostaglandins, and mechanical options indicate that balloon catheters may be as effective as vaginal PGE₂, with potential safety advantages for the neonate. Although oral misoprostol may be more effective, its safety profile is less clear. Future research should focus on maternal satisfaction and neonatal safety²⁴.

The ARRIVE trial (NEJM) found that elective induction at 39 weeks in low-risk nulliparas resulted in a lower cesarean rate without increased adverse neonatal outcomes. Similarly, a 2013 retrospective study suggested elective IOL between 37–40 weeks did not elevate maternal risks and was associated with reduced cesarean odds²⁴. Regarding neonatal risks, that same 2013 California study found no significant differences in NICU admissions or respiratory distress between groups. However, a 2009 NEJM study noted increased complications in neonates delivered at 37 weeks by cesarean compared to those born at 38–39 weeks²⁴

Technique

Mechanical dilation may be achieved using a Foley catheter, double-balloon catheter, or osmotic dilators (e.g., laminaria). A Foley catheter is inserted past the cervical os and inflated with 30–80 mL of saline, applying pressure to promote dilation. A double-balloon system applies pressure internally and externally. These are typically

removed once the cervix reaches 3–4 cm . Pharmacologic agents such as misoprostol (PGE1 analog) can be administered orally, vaginally, or sublingually in 25–50 mcg doses²⁷. In cases of intrauterine fetal demise, higher misoprostol doses (e.g., 400 mcg every 3 hours) are used²⁸. Dinoprostone (PGE2) is available as a gel (0.5 mg) or vaginal insert (10 mg)²⁷ . Oxytocin (syntocinon) is administered IV, titrated to achieve contractions every 2–3 minutes. Hospitals may cap dosages in women undergoing trial of labor after cesarean (TOLAC). Amniotomy may be performed at the clinician’s discretion, considering fetal station, engagement, and maternal preference.

Complications

As IOL becomes more common, especially for non-urgent reasons, the focus on safety increases. Mechanical methods are often safer and cost-effective, with fewer side effects like uterine hyperstimulation. Excessive uterine activity, particularly from pharmacologic agents like prostaglandins, can lead to fetal bradycardia or decelerations due to reduced oxygenation²⁹

Other possible complications include:

- Vaginal bleeding
- Meconium-stained amniotic fluid
- Umbilical cord prolapse
- Inadequate pain control
- Perineal trauma
- Postpartum hemorrhage
- Infections like chorioamnionitis or endometritis²⁷

Advantages and Disadvantages of Elective Induction²⁹

Advantages:

- Reduces anxiety about prolonged pregnancy
- Facilitates planned delivery
- Beneficial in certain medical or logistical situations (e.g., history of stillbirth, remote living, maternal comorbidities)

Disadvantages:

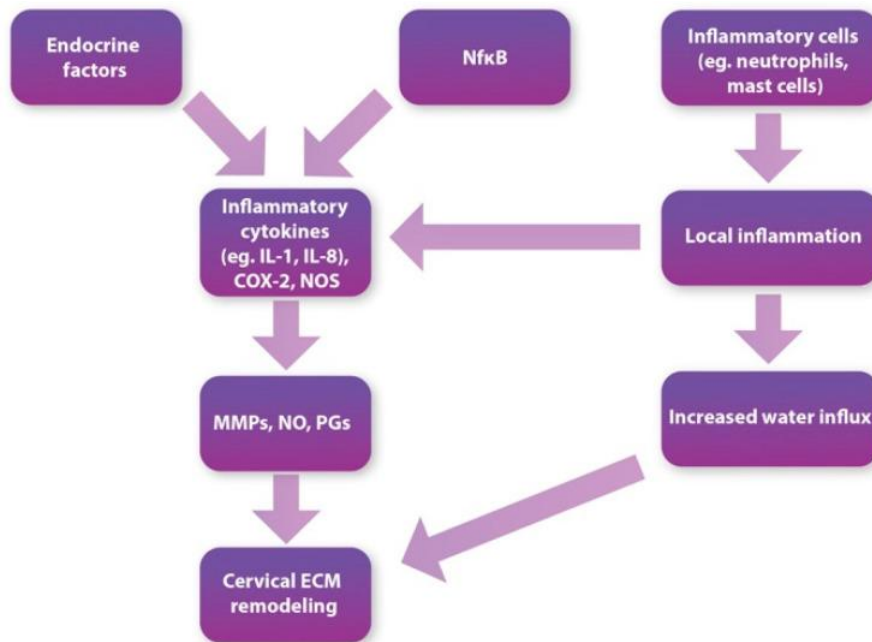
- Potential increase in cesarean or operative deliveries
- Possible rise in perinatal complications (fetal distress, asphyxia)
- Higher epidural use and pain perception
- Limited maternal mobility during labor

While elective IOL isn't universally advised, it may be justified for select clinical or logistical reasons when appropriately counseled.

CERVICAL RIPENING

The cervix undergoes profound remodeling, primarily involving alterations to the extracellular matrix. These changes intensify as term approaches, resulting in a shift from a firm, closed structure to one that is soft and compliant. Key histological and biochemical features of cervical ripening include the breakdown of collagen and elastin fibers, increased hydration of cervical tissue, and activation of localized inflammatory processes (Figure 1).

FIGURE 5



Glycosaminoglycans (GAGs) and Cervical Ripening

During cervical remodeling, there is a marked increase in hyaluronan (HA) production, coupled with reduced collagen gene expression and heightened immune cell presence³⁰ HA, the most abundant GAG in the cervical matrix near term, increases gradually through parturition due to elevated transcription of the enzyme HAS2³¹. Its hydrophilic nature draws water into the tissue, contributing to cervical hydration and dispersion of collagen and elastin fibers—ultimately reducing cervical collagen content by approximately 70%. Interestingly, while total proteoglycan (PG) levels drop, specific types like PG-S1 and PG-L increase. These variants have weaker collagen-binding affinities, further promoting collagen fiber disorganization and tissue softening³²

Matrix Metalloproteinases (MMPs)

MMPs, secreted by cervical stromal and inflammatory cells, are central to cervical ECM degradation³³. Neutrophils and macrophages produce MMP-8 and MMP-1—key enzymes that break down collagen³⁴. MMPs also act on other structural proteins such as laminin, fibronectin, and proteoglycans. These enzymes are initially secreted as inactive zymogens and require proteolytic cleavage for activation. Their expression is upregulated by cytokines and growth factors, while hormones like progesterone and glucocorticoids suppress their activity³⁵

Specific MMPs involved in cervical ripening include MMP-1, MMP-2 (gelatinase A), MMP-8, and MMP-9 (gelatinase B). These enzymes target various types of collagen (I, II, III, IV), reorganizing the collagen architecture into looser, disordered bundles^{36,37}. MMP levels and enzymatic activity rise in both the cervix and lower uterine segment during labor³⁵. Nitric oxide (NO), an effective cervical ripening agent, also enhances MMP activity³⁸.

MMP activity is regulated by natural inhibitors such as β 2-macroglobulin and tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases (TIMPs). TIMPs inhibit enzymes like MMP-2 and MMP-9 by binding to their active sites^{38,39}. The presence of TIMPs in the cervix during pregnancy suggests a regulatory mechanism for collagen breakdown, and their therapeutic potential for preventing preterm cervical ripening warrants further investigation⁴⁰

Inflammatory Response and Immune Cell Infiltration

Cervical ripening exhibits characteristics similar to an inflammatory response, including vasodilation and increased vascular permeability, which contribute to tissue edema⁴¹. Immune cell infiltration—particularly neutrophils, macrophages, and mast cells—becomes prominent near term⁴². Chemokines and adhesion molecules guide

granulocyte migration into cervical tissue⁴³, with higher CXCL8 mRNA levels noted during labor⁴⁴.

Neutrophils are key contributors, releasing cytokines and MMPs that drive ECM remodeling⁴⁵. Macrophages support this process through secretion of MMPs, interleukins (IL-1, IL-6), TNF- α , and NO⁴⁶. Mast cells (MCs) also have a regulatory role in cervical remodeling and labor. Their degranulation releases various mediators, including histamine, serotonin, PGs, proteases, and interleukins (IL-1 β , IL-3, IL-6, TNF- α), which influence myometrial and cervical contractility^{47,48}. Histamine stimulates the phospholipase C pathway via H1 receptors, promoting muscle contractions⁴⁹. Furthermore, allergen-triggered MC activation can lead to preterm labour via type I hypersensitivity.

MIFEPRISTONE

Mifepristone (RUU-486) is a progesterone receptor antagonist that facilitates cervical softening and dilation in early pregnancy and enhances uterine contractility. It has long been utilized for medical termination of early pregnancies⁵⁰. Due to its physiological effects, mifepristone is considered a promising agent for cervical ripening and induction of labour.

A Cochrane review published in 2009 analyzed 10 randomized clinical trials encompassing 1108 participants, comparing mifepristone to placebo in women undergoing labor induction⁵¹. The review found that mifepristone significantly improved cervical favorability at 48 hours (RR 2.41; 95% CI, 1.70–3.42), reduced the need for oxytocin augmentation (RR 0.80; 95% CI, 0.66–0.97), and lowered the risk of cesarean delivery

due to failed induction (RR 0.40; 95% CI, 0.20–0.80). The review suggested that a single 200 mg oral dose was the minimal effective amount, with maximal benefit observed by 72 hours. Although abnormal fetal heart rate patterns occurred more frequently with mifepristone, no adverse neonatal outcomes were reported⁵¹

Further comparisons between mifepristone and mechanical methods such as laminaria and Foley catheters have also been studied. In one trial, mifepristone significantly shortened both the mean (10 vs 16 hours, $P = .01$) and median (7.5 vs 13.4 hours, $P = .01$) induction-to-delivery intervals, and reduced pain during cervical ripening (median pain score 1 vs 6, $P = .001$) compared to laminaria⁵². Outcomes such as delivery mode were similar in both groups.

In women with prior cesarean sections and post-term pregnancies, mifepristone (400 mg oral dose) was compared to Foley catheter insertion. Mifepristone use resulted in a shorter time to labor onset, higher Bishop scores at 24 hours, reduced oxytocin requirement, and fewer cases of failed induction, with no significant difference in cesarean delivery rates⁵³.

When directly compared with other pharmacologic agents, mifepristone appears somewhat less effective. In a prospective trial, Jindal et al. compared 200 mg oral mifepristone to 0.5 mg endocervical dinoprostone gel⁵³. Dinoprostone showed a greater improvement in Bishop score (mean±SD: 6.00±1.83 vs 5.33±1.62; $P = .007$) and significantly reduced the time from induction to active labour (mean±SD: 8.94±3.35 vs 50.98±3.35; $P < .0001$). Delivery outcomes were similar between both groups.

Overall, mifepristone is an effective cervical ripening agent and can serve as a useful adjunct to both mechanical and pharmacological methods, particularly in women

with an unfavorable cervix⁵⁴. Its long half-life (12–72 hours) makes it suitable for pretreatment before active induction begins.

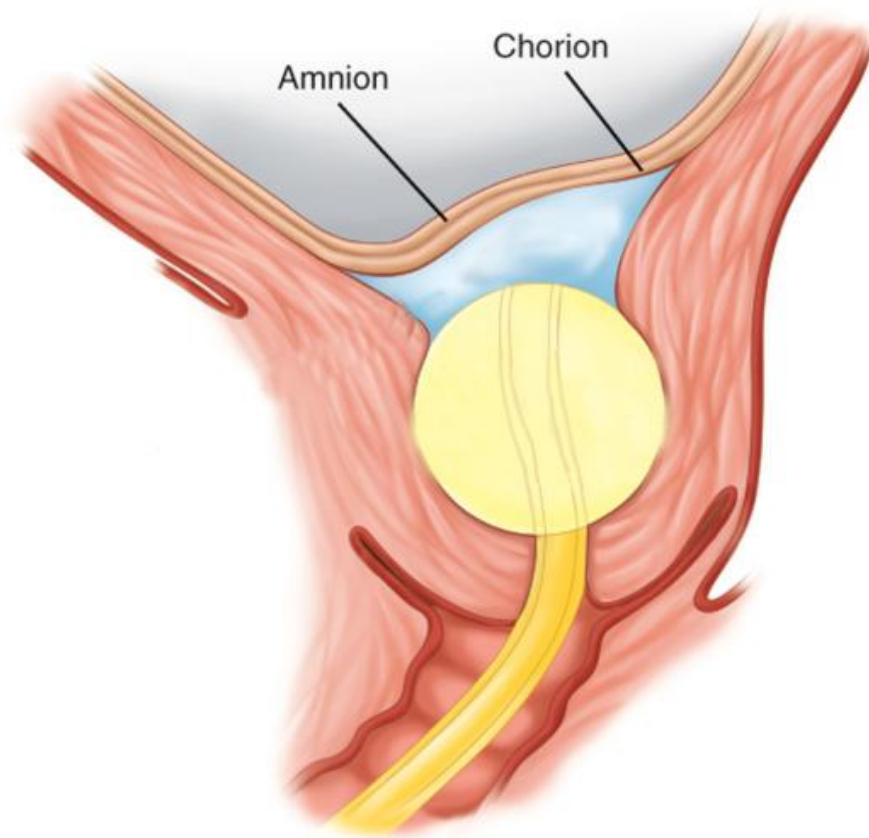
FOLEY CATHETER

The Foley catheter was initially introduced for outpatient cervical ripening in 2001 (Figure 6)⁵⁵. It typically comes in gauges ranging from 16 to 26 and can be inflated with balloon volumes between 30 to 80 mL. The catheter is usually made from latex or silicone rubber, while the Cook catheter, a double-balloon version, is constructed from silicone.

Cervical ripening using mechanical methods like the Foley catheter involves the application of physical pressure to dilate the cervix. This can occur through downward traction or circumferential expansion, depending on the type of device. Additionally, mechanical dilation may stimulate local inflammation and the release of prostaglandins, which contribute further to cervical softening⁵⁶.

One modification to enhance this method includes **extra-amniotic saline infusion (EASI)** through the catheter. This technique may help further separate the decidua from the uterine wall, increasing endogenous prostaglandin release. Combining EASI with a Foley catheter has shown promise in reducing both the time to vaginal delivery and the likelihood of caesarean section⁵⁷.

Figure 6. Single-balloon transcervical Foley catheter



Administration and Application of Foley Catheter

The Foley catheter can be inserted either using a speculum or via digital examination. Studies indicate that digital insertion tends to be less painful for the patient, while both techniques demonstrate comparable effectiveness in achieving cervical ripening. The use of a stylet during insertion has not shown improved success rates and is generally not necessary. After placement, traction is often applied by taping the catheter to the patient's inner thigh. However, evidence suggests that this practice does not enhance the efficacy of cervical ripening or reduce labor duration⁵⁸

Efficacy, Cost, and Safety Profile

The Foley catheter remains a preferred method for cervical ripening due to its affordability and comparable efficacy to more expensive devices like the double-balloon

catheter. Although it is used "off-label" for cervical ripening, it is widely accepted in clinical practice due to its effectiveness and clinician familiarity.

Infection Risk

Concerns have been raised about the potential for mechanical methods to increase infection risk due to their invasive nature. However, the Foley catheter has demonstrated a strong safety profile in this regard. A systematic review and meta-analysis of 26 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) found no significant increase in infection risk with the Foley catheter compared to prostaglandins (8.8% vs. 9%; RR, 0.95; 95% CI, 0.81–1.12)⁵⁹

Use in Ruptured Membranes

The use of the Foley catheter in patients with ruptured membranes has shown mixed results. Two randomized trials found it effective for cervical ripening and induction in this setting. However, one trial reported no elevated risk of chorioamnionitis while the other noted an increased risk⁶⁰.

Impact on Future Pregnancies

Given the physical dilation involved, concerns exist about whether Foley catheter use could lead to cervical damage, increasing the risk of miscarriage or preterm birth in future pregnancies. However, three studies have found no such correlation, supporting its safety in this context^{55,61}

RELATED STUDIES:

1. In a study conducted to compare two methods of labour induction—one involving oral Mifepristone followed by vaginal Misoprostol, and the other using intracervical Foley's catheterization followed by vaginal Misoprostol—the researchers aimed to evaluate the induction-to-delivery interval as the primary outcome, along with

secondary outcomes like mode of delivery, cesarean indications, and neonatal results. The findings indicated a significantly shorter induction-to-delivery interval with the Foley catheter method compared to oral Mifepristone. However, there was no notable difference between the groups regarding delivery route, cesarean rates, or neonatal outcomes. The researchers concluded that while Mifepristone is a viable option for inducing term pregnancies, it does not reduce the induction-delivery time, and its fetal safety profile is similar to that of the Foley catheter method⁶².

2. In a randomized controlled trial aimed at comparing the effectiveness of oral mifepristone with intracervical Foley balloon catheter for outpatient cervical ripening in term pregnancies, the goal was to assess whether mifepristone was not inferior in inducing labour or achieving a favorable Bishop's score within 24 hours. The results showed that 33.3% of women in the mifepristone group and 30.2% in the Foley catheter group reached the primary outcome, but the confidence interval failed to demonstrate non-inferiority. The study concluded that although both methods yielded similar rates of labor onset or cervical ripening, mifepristone could not be confirmed as non-inferior to the Foley balloon catheter⁶².
3. In a retrospective study conducted to compare the safety and effectiveness of two induction methods for midtrimester abortion—one using a combination of intracervical Foley's catheter and misoprostol, and the other using mifepristone with misoprostol—the goal was to evaluate procedural outcomes and patient factors affecting success. Complete fetal expulsion occurred in all Foley catheter cases, while the mifepristone group had an 89.47% success rate. Additionally, the induction-to-abortion interval was significantly shorter with the mechanical-pharmacologic combination. The study concluded that combining Foley's catheter with misoprostol is a safe, effective, and more cost-efficient

alternative that reduces misoprostol dosage, shortens the procedure time, and improves patient comfort.

4. In a retrospective cohort study conducted, the objective was to compare the effectiveness of intracervical balloon catheter and oral mifepristone for labor induction, specifically in women with a Bishop score ≤ 5 . The findings revealed that while overall vaginal delivery rates were slightly higher with mifepristone (76.5%) compared to Foley catheter (74.5%), a greater proportion of patients in the Foley catheter groups delivered within 24 hours of induction initiation. The study concluded that both methods are effective, but Foley catheter may lead to quicker delivery in the early induction window, and overall success is closely tied to cervical ripening status and parity¹⁴.
5. In a random study conducted recently, the objective was to assess whether the use of a stylette during Foley catheter insertion influenced insertion time, patient-reported pain, and insertion failure rates. The findings showed no significant differences between groups in terms of patient demographics or primary outcomes. Although stylette use did not significantly affect outcomes, it showed a trend toward reducing pain variability and insertion failures. The study concluded that Foley catheter placement with or without a stylette results in comparable performance, and both methods are effective⁶³.
6. In a randomized controlled trial, the study aimed to determine whether using an 80 mL transcervical Foley catheter alongside vaginal misoprostol would reduce the induction-to-delivery interval compared to a 60 mL Foley catheter in nulliparous term pregnancies with an unfavorable cervix. The results showed a significantly shorter induction-to-delivery interval and quicker onset of labor in the 80 mL group. Although there were no statistically significant differences in the

mode of delivery or maternal and neonatal morbidity, the likelihood of delivering within 12 hours was significantly higher with the 80 mL catheter. The study concluded that using a larger-volume Foley catheter more effectively shortens labor induction time⁶⁴.

7. In recent randomized controlled trial the objective was to evaluate whether Foley catheter balloon volume—30 mL versus 60 mL—impacts the effectiveness of labor induction in term pregnancies. While overall delivery rates within eight hours after amniotomy did not differ significantly between groups, sub-analyses revealed that multiparous women using the 60 mL catheter had a higher likelihood of early delivery, and nulliparous women in the 30 mL group had a greater cesarean rate. The study concluded that while both catheter volumes were comparable for the primary outcome, the 60 mL volume may offer advantages in certain subgroups, though findings should be interpreted cautiously⁶⁵.
8. In a meta-analysis, the objective was to compare the effectiveness and safety of Foley catheter versus oral misoprostol for inducing labour in women with viable singleton pregnancies. The results indicated that Foley catheter use was slightly less effective in achieving vaginal birth compared to oral misoprostol. However, there was a trend toward fewer adverse perinatal outcomes in the Foley group, although not statistically significant. Maternal outcomes were similar across both groups. The study concluded that while oral misoprostol is more effective for vaginal delivery, Foley catheter induction may be associated with improved perinatal safety⁶⁶.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY DESIGN: Prospective study

DURATION OF STUDY: 18 months (JULY 2023 TO DECEMBER 2024)

STUDY POPULATION: Pregnant women in labour attending department of OBG, RL Jalappa Hospital, Kolar during the study period.

STUDY AREA: RL Jalappa Hospital, Kolar.

SAMPLING METHODS: Consecutive sampling

INCLUSION CRITERIA:

- Term pregnancy
- cephalic presentation.
- Intact membranes.
- Adequate pelvis.
- Hypertension, Diabetes mellitus, Or patients.
- Previous caesarean section.
- Singleton pregnancy
- Delivery can be postponed for 24 hours
- Reactive NST
- Women with unfavourable cervix.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

- Intra uterine fetal demise.
- Intra uterine growth restriction.
- Oligohydramnios.

- Malpresentations.
- Associated medical disorders such as heart disease, Anaemia, thyroid, epilepsy, asthma
- Premature rupture of membranes.
- Placental insufficiency.
- Cephalopelvic disproportion.
- Impaired renal, hepatic, or adrenal function and antepartum hemorrhage.

METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

A prospective study which is hospital based and is conducted in women who meet the inclusion criteria were enrolled for the study which is done in department of obstetrics and gynaecology at R L JALLAPPA HOSPITAL TAAMAKA KOLAR attached to SRI DEVRAJA URS MEDICAL COLLEGE under SRI DEVARAJ URS ACADEMY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND RESEARCH from July 2023 to December 2024. A total of 50 pregnant women selected through convenience sampling constituted the study population. Upon admission, detailed medical, surgical, and obstetric histories were recorded, and eligible participants were enrolled after confirmation of gestational age based on their last menstrual period and ultrasound findings. Informed written consent was obtained from all participants after clearly explaining the risks and benefits of the study. A comprehensive obstetric examination was performed to assess foetal lie, presentation, gestational age, and fetal heart rate. Per vaginal examination was done to evaluate the Modified Bishop's score and pelvic adequacy. All enrolled patients underwent baseline investigations including complete blood count, liver and renal function tests, and fetal ultrasound.

Following consent, participants meeting the inclusion criteria were randomly divided into two groups: Group A received oral Mifepristone 200 mg, while Group B underwent intracervical Foley's balloon catheter insertion for labor induction. Assessment in Group A was done either after 24 hours or upon initiation of contractions, whichever occurred earlier. If the Bishop's score remained less than 8, labor was induced using misoprostol tablets (25 mcg or 50 mcg depending on parity), whereas if the Bishop's score was ≥ 8 , labour was augmented using intravenous oxytocin. In Group B, patients were assessed after expulsion of the Foley catheter. If the Bishop's score was < 8 post-expulsion, misoprostol was administered similarly, while a score ≥ 8 warranted augmentation with oxytocin. In both groups, a maximum of four doses of misoprostol was used. If adequate contractions did not begin thereafter, patients were offered the choice between proceeding with a cesarean section or waiting further for the onset of labor.

STATISTICAL METHODS

Data was collected and compiled in MS Excel. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS for windows version 26.0. The description of data will be in the form of mean (\pm) SD for quantitative data and frequency and proportion for qualitative data. Student t test/ANOVA was used to compare continuous variables and χ^2 test used to compare categorical variables. P value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION

Was estimated by using the difference in Mean Dose of Mifepristone between study group and control group from the study Dr. Shivikaa et al. as 2.14 ± 0.63 and 1.4 ± 0.8 . Using these values at 95% Confidence limit and 90% power

sample size of 22 was obtained in each group by using the below mentioned formula and Medd calcul sample size software. With 10% nonresponse sample size of $22 + 2.22 \approx 25$ minimum subjects will be included in each group.

Sample Size Estimation Formula:

$$N = 2 SD^2 (Z_{\alpha/2} + Z_{\beta})^2 / d^2$$

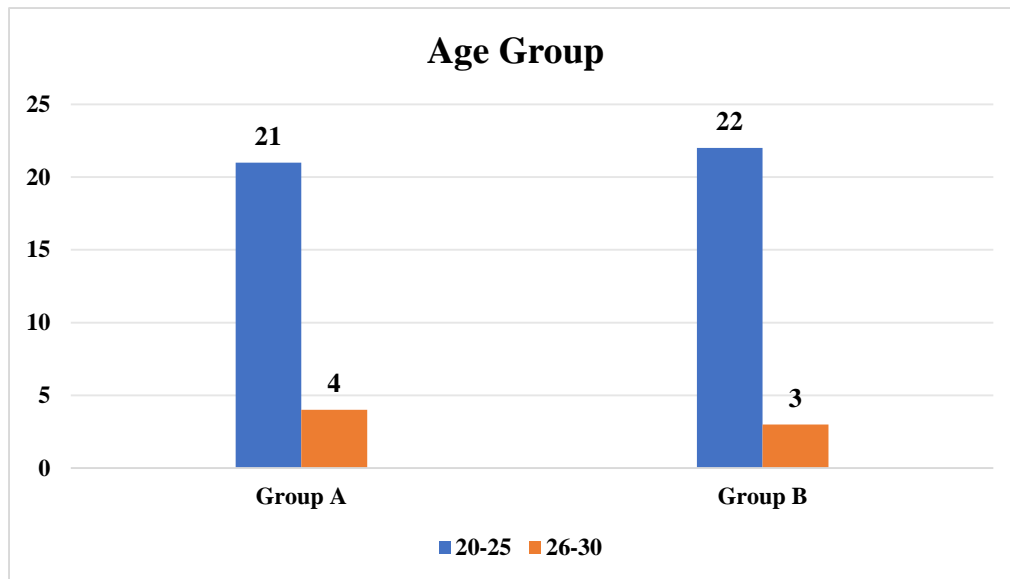
- Where $Z_{\alpha/2}$ is critical value of the Normal distribution at $\alpha/2$ (e.g. for the confidence level of 95%, α is 0.05 and the critical value is 1.96).
- Z_{β} is the critical value of the Normal distribution at β (e.g. for power of 80%, β is 0.2 and the critical value is 0.84),
- Sd is the standard deviation from previous study population variance, and the
- d is the largest difference between two mean

RESULTS:

TABLE 1: AGE CATEGORY

Age Group	Group A	Group B	P Value
20-25	21 (84%)	22 (88%)	0.684
26-30	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 7: AGE CATEGORY

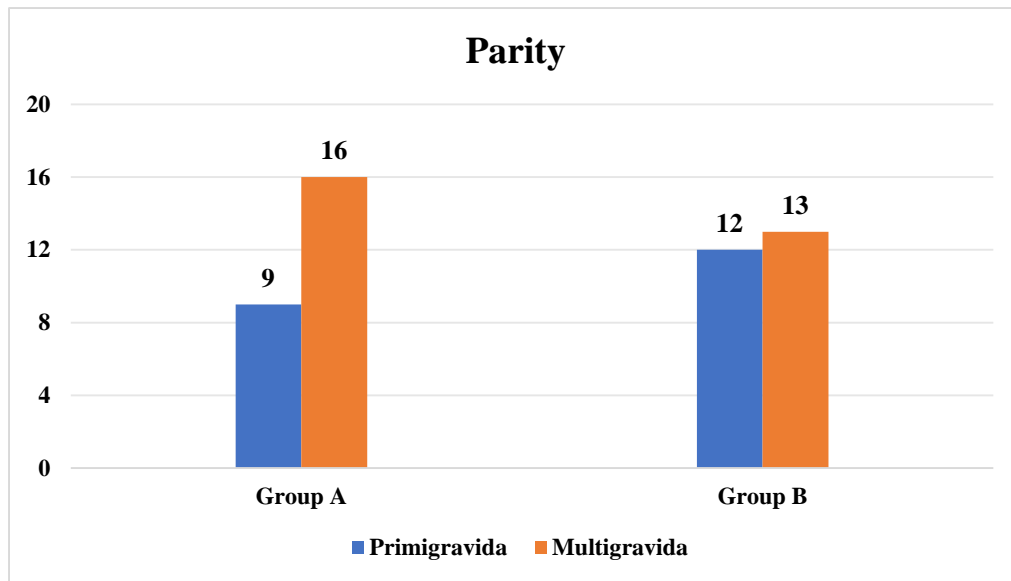


This table categorizes participants by age group. In Group A, which received Mifepristone 200mg orally, 84% (21 participants) were aged between 20–25 years, while 16% (4 participants) were in the 26–30 age range. Similarly, in Group B, which underwent Foley’s balloon catheterisation, 88% (22 participants) were aged 20–25 and 12% (3 participants) were in the 26–30 age group. The *P* value of 0.684 indicates no statistically significant difference in the age distribution between the two groups.

TABLE 2. Parity

Parity	Group A	Group B	P Value
Primigravida	9 (36%)	12 (48%)	0.39
Multigravida	16 (64%)	13 (52%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 8. Parity

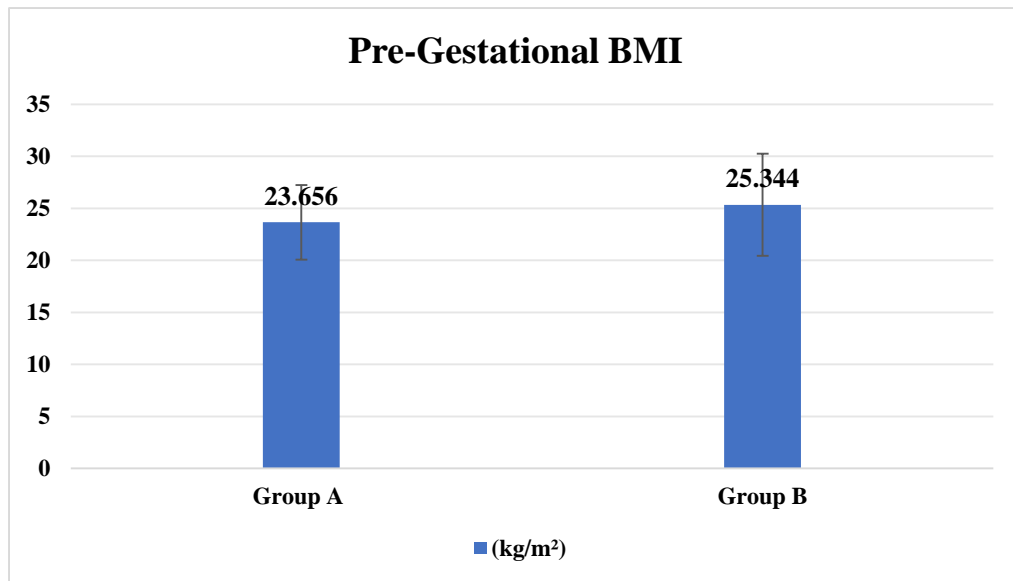


Parity data reveals that in Group A, 64% (16 participants) were multigravida and 36% (9 participants) were primigravida. In Group B, multigravida constituted 52% (13 participants) and primigravida 48% (12 participants). The P value of 0.39 suggests that parity distribution was not significantly different between the groups.

TABLE 3. Pre-Gestational BMI

	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
Pre-Gestational BMI (kg/m ²)	23.656 ± 3.58	25.344 ± 4.91	0.172

FIGURE 9. Pre-Gestational BMI

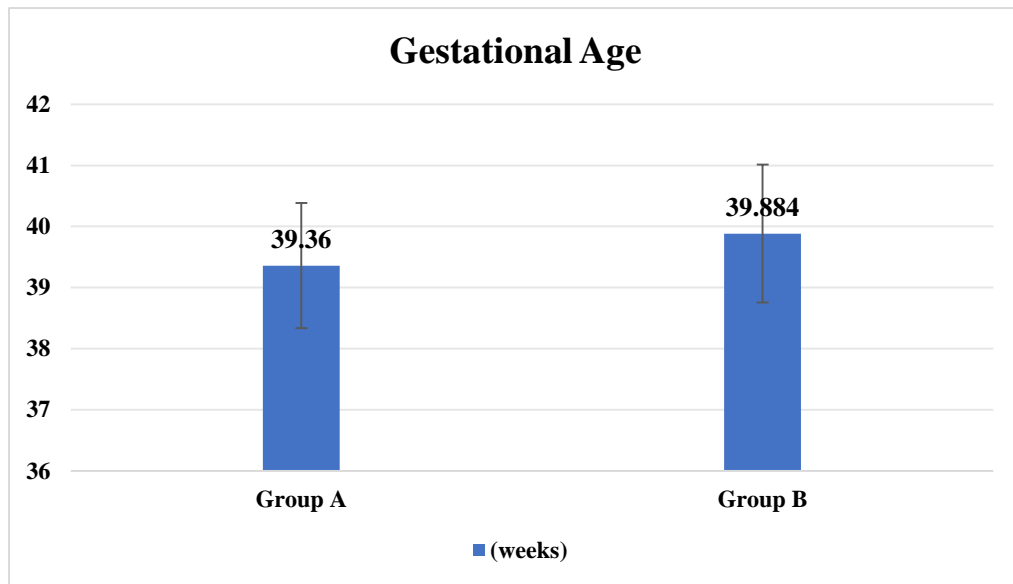


Group A had a mean pre-gestational BMI of 23.656 ± 3.58 kg/m², while Group B's mean was slightly higher at 25.344 ± 4.91 kg/m². The P value of 0.172 indicates no significant difference in baseline BMI between groups.

TABLE 4. Gestational Age

	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
Gestational Age (weeks)	<i>39.36 ± 1.023</i>	<i>39.884 ± 1.13</i>	<i>0.983</i>

FIGURE 10. Gestational Age

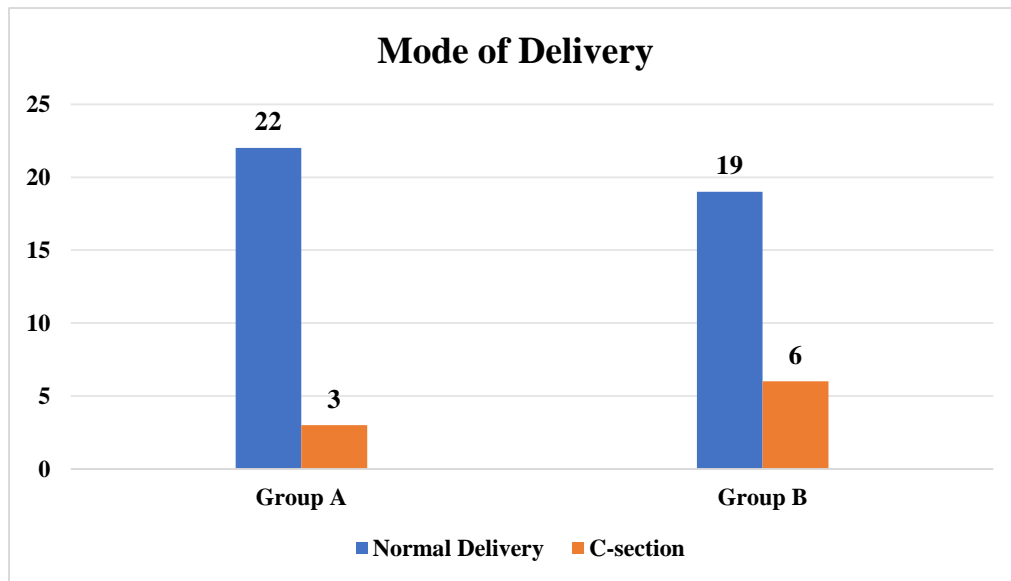


The mean gestational age was 39.36 ± 1.023 weeks in Group A and 39.884 ± 1.13 weeks in Group B. The P value of 0.983 demonstrates that there is no significant variation in gestational age at the time of intervention.

TABLE 5. Mode of Delivery

Mode of Delivery	Group A	Group B	P Value
Normal Delivery	22 (88%)	19 (76%)	0.269
C-section	3 (12%)	6 (24%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 11. Mode of Delivery

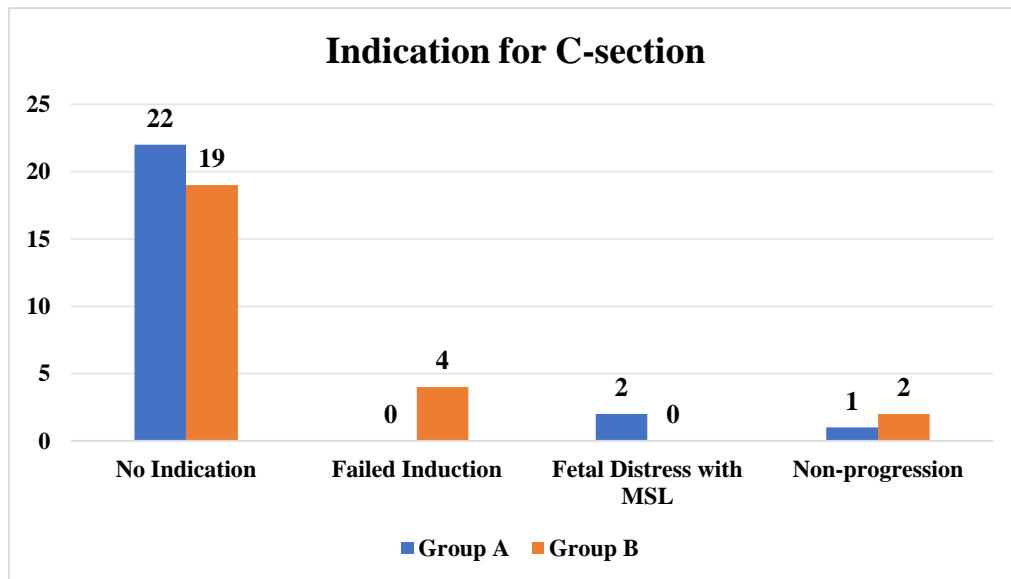


The mode of delivery indicates that 88% (22 participants) in Group A had normal deliveries compared to 76% (19 participants) in Group B. C-section rates were higher in Group B at 24% (6 participants) compared to 12% (3 participants) in Group A. The P value of 0.269 shows that this difference is not statistically significant.

TABLE 6. Indication for C-section

Indication for Caesarean section	Group A	Group B	P Value
No Indication	22 (88%)	19 (76%)	0.088
Failed Induction	0 (0%)	4 (16%)	
Fetal Distress with MSL	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	
Non-progression	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 12. Indication for Caesarean section

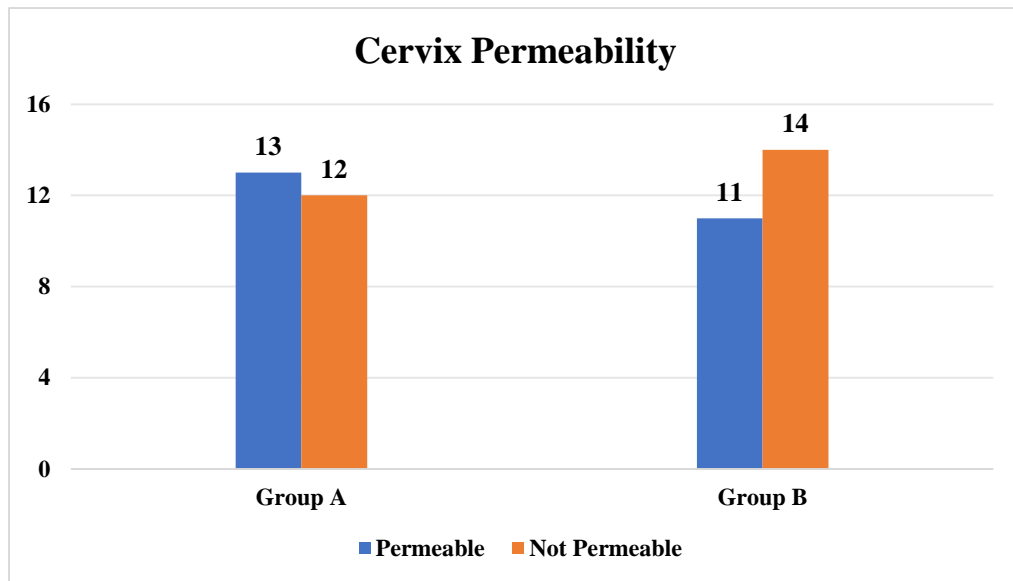


This table breaks down the specific indications for cesarean section. Group A had no cases of failed induction, two cases (8%) of fetal distress with meconium stained liquor (MSL), and one case (4%) of non-progression. In Group B, failed induction accounted for 16% (4 cases), non-progression was 8% (2 cases), and there were no cases of fetal distress with MSL. The proportion of participants with no indication for C-section was higher in Group A (88%) than Group B (76%), with a P value of 0.088, showing borderline significance.

TABLE 7. Cervix Permeability

Cervix Permeability	Group A	Group B	P Value
Permeable	13 (52%)	11 (44%)	0.571
Not Permeable	12 (48%)	14 (56%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 13. Cervix Permeability

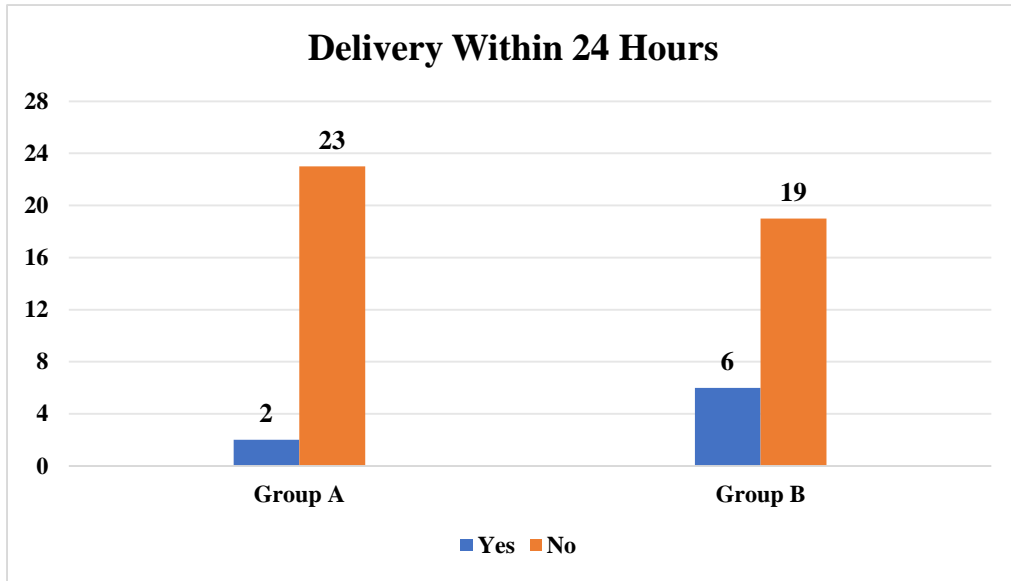


Permeability of the cervix was comparable between groups, with Group A having 52% permeability (13 participants) and Group B slightly lower at 44% (11 participants). Non-permeability was recorded in 48% off Grroup A aand 56% off Grroup B. The P valuee off 0.571 implies no significant difference in cervical status before induction.

TABLE 8. Delivery Within 24 Hours

Delivery Within 24 Hours	Grroup A	Grroup B	P Vaalue
Yes	2 (8%)	6 (24%)	0.023
No	23 (92%)	19 (76%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

TABLE 14. Delivery Within 24 Hours

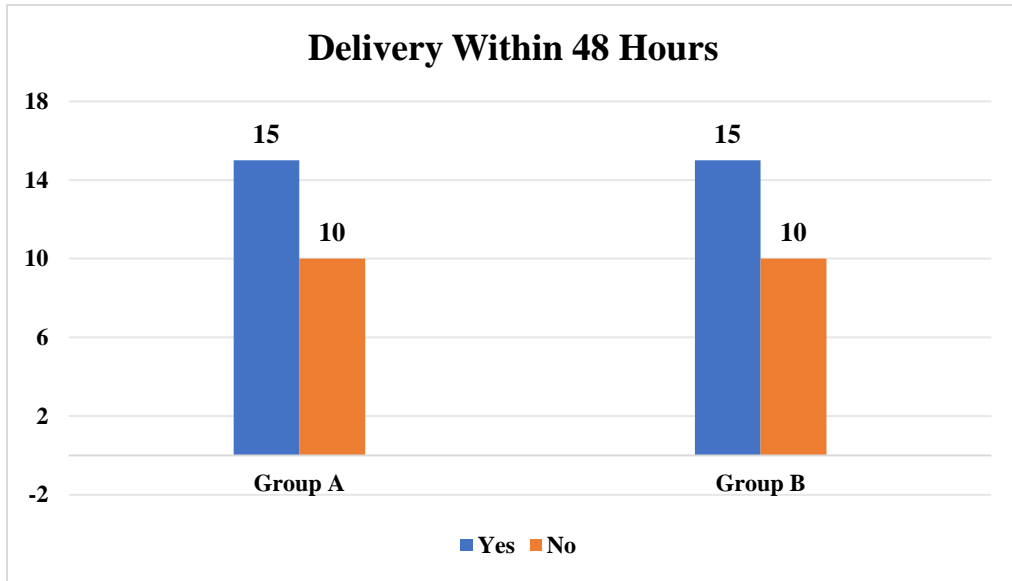


Only 8% (2 participants) of Group A delivered within 24 hours, compared to 24% (6 participants) in Group B. The majority in Group A (92%) and a slightly lower proportion in Group B (76%) did not deliver within this period. The P value of 0.023 indicates a non-significant difference.

TABLE 9. Delivery Within 48 Hours

Delivery Within 48 Hours	Group A	Group B	P Value
Yes	15 (60%)	15 (60%)	1.000
No	10 (40%)	10 (40%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 15. Delivery Within 48 Hours

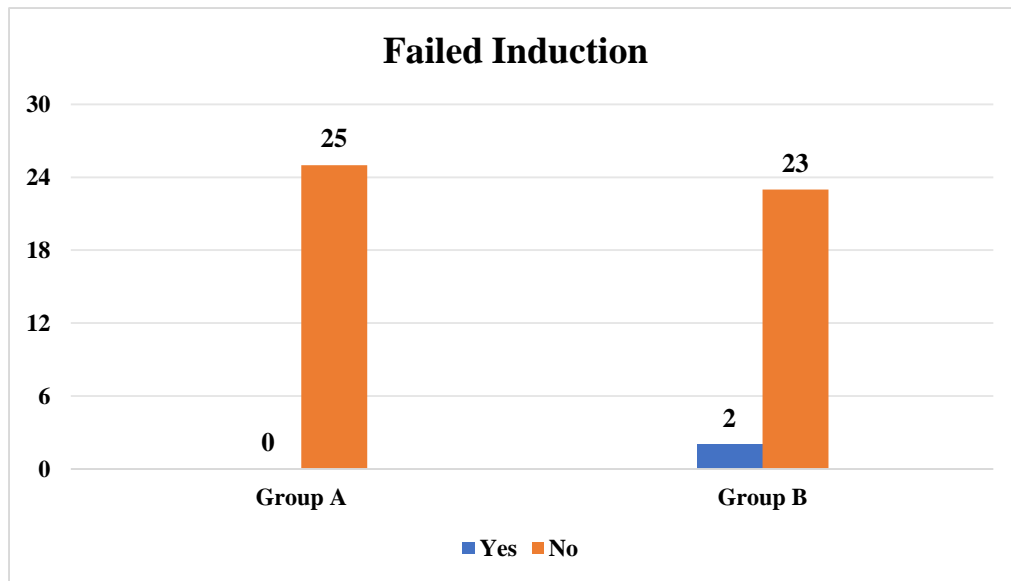


Both groups had identical outcomes for delivery within 48 hours, with 60% (15 participants) in each group delivering in this timeframe. The P value of 1 reflects no statistical difference between the groups in this regard.

TABLE 10. Failed Induction

Failed Induction	Group A	Group B	P Value
Yes	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	0.149
No	25 (100%)	23 (92%)	
Total	25 (100%)	25 (100%)	

FIGURE 16. Failed Induction

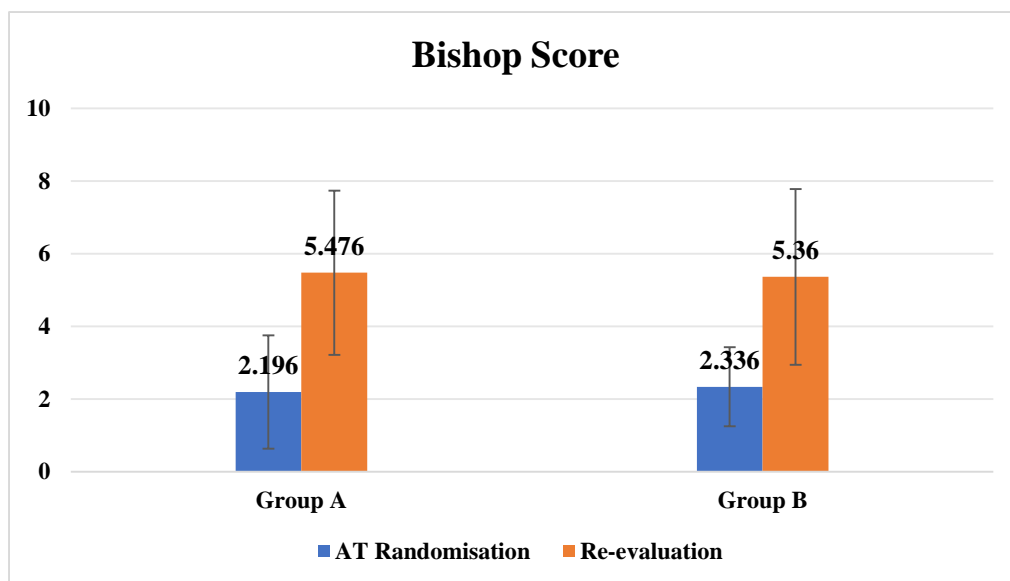


There were no cases of failed induction in Group A, while Group B had 2 cases (8%). All 25 participants in Group A successfully proceeded to delivery, whereas 92% (23 participants) did so in Group B. The difference is not statistically significant with a P value of 0.149.

TABLE 11. Bishop Score

Bishop Score	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
AAT Randomisation	2.196 ± 1.56	2.336 ± 1.09	0.716
Re-evaluation	5.476 ± 2.26	5.36 ± 2.42	0.862

FIGURE 17. Bishop Score

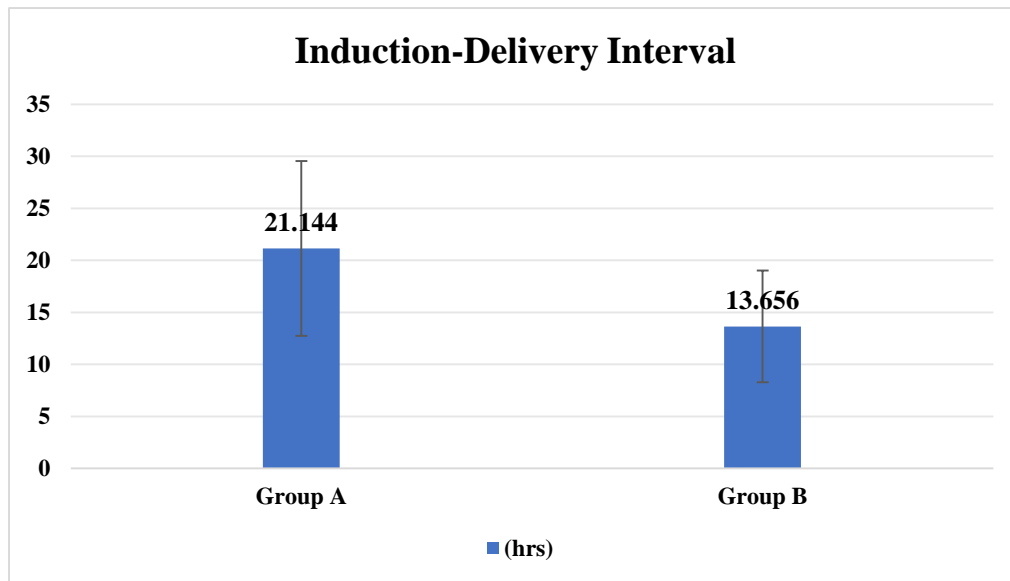


Initial Bishop scores were 2.196 ± 1.56 for Group A and 2.336 ± 1.09 for Group B. Upon re-evaluation, the scores improved to 5.476 ± 2.26 in Group A and 5.36 ± 2.42 in Group B. The P values (0.716 for initial and 0.862 for re-evaluation) show no significant difference in cervical ripening progress between the groups.

TABLE 12. Induction-Delivery Interval

	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
Induction-Delivery Interval (hrs)	21.144 ± 8.39	13.656 ± 5.36	0.001

FIGURE 18. Induction-Delivery Interval

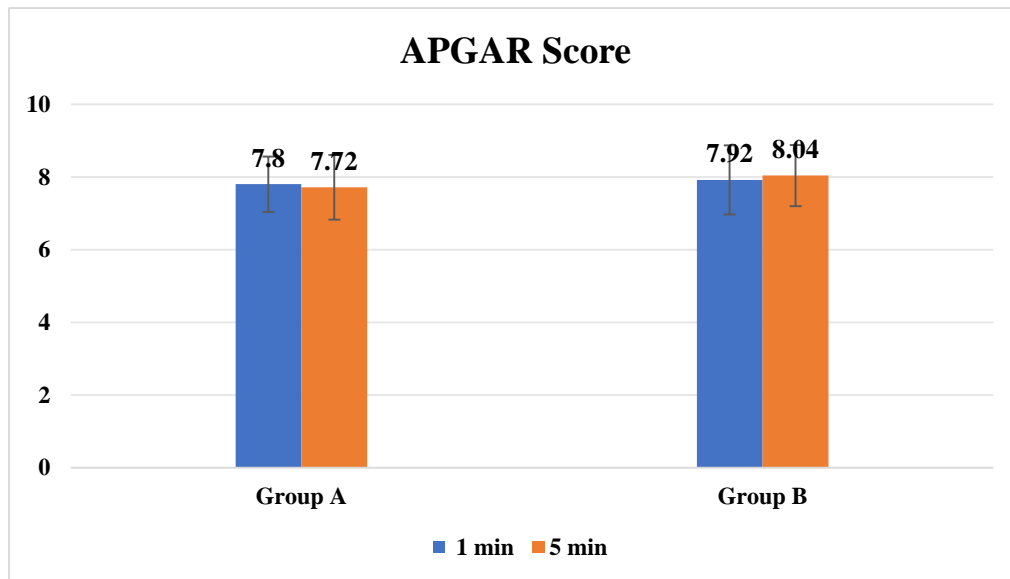


Group A had a significantly longer induction-to-delivery interval of 21.144 ± 8.39 hours, compared to 13.656 ± 5.36 hours in Group B. This difference was statistically significant with a P value of 0.001, suggesting that Foley's catheterization resulted in a quicker delivery process.

TABLE 13. APGAR Score

APGAR Score	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
1 min	7.8 ± 0.76	7.92 ± 0.95	0.626
5 min	7.72 ± 0.89	8.04 ± 0.84	0.198

FIGURE 19. APGAR Score

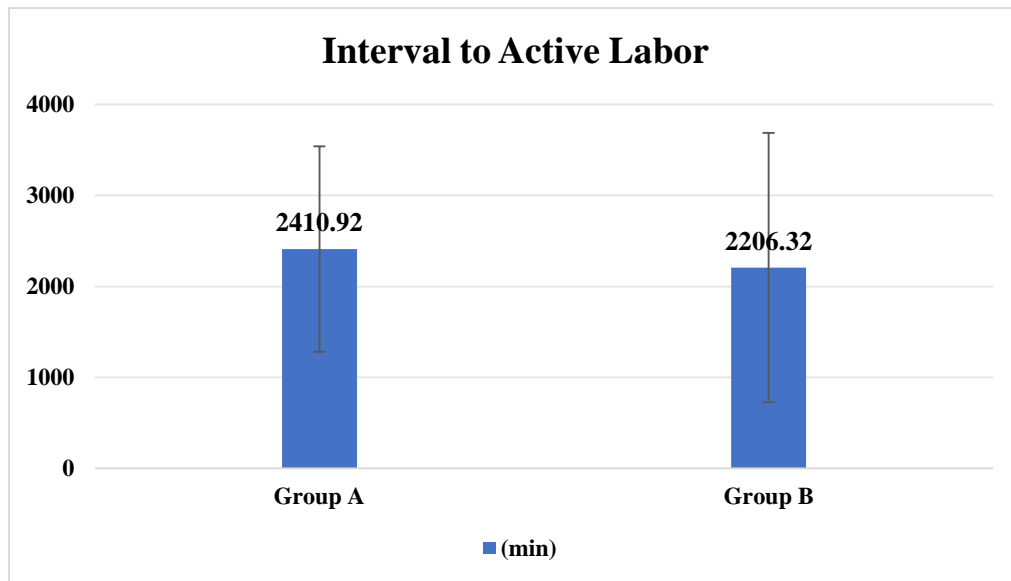


The average 1 minute APGAR score was 7.8 ± 0.76 in Group A and 7.92 ± 0.95 in Group B. At 5 minutes, scores were 7.72 ± 0.89 and 8.04 ± 0.84 respectively. Neither time point showed significant differences, with P values of 0.626 and 0.198, indicating similar neonatal outcomes.

TABLE 14. Interval to Active Labor

	Group A (MEAN + SD)	Group B (MEAN + SD)	P VALUE
Interval to Active Labor (min)	2410.92 ± 1128.7	2206.32 ± 1478.59	0.585

FIGURE 20. Interval to Active Labor



The time to reach active labor was 2410.92 ± 1128.7 minutes in Group A and 2206.32 ± 1478.59 minutes in Group B. The P value of 0.585 indicates no significant difference in this interval between the two groups.

DISCUSSION

The present study was undertaken to evaluate and compare the efficacy and safety of oral mifepristone and transcervical Foley catheter in cervical ripening and labor induction at term. Given the ongoing debate over optimal induction methods—especially in low-resource and VBAC-eligible populations—this study aimed to assess not only clinical effectiveness (in terms of delivery rates, induction intervals, and cervical readiness) but also maternal and neonatal safety outcomes. The findings were interpreted within the broader context of available literature to better understand how our data align with or differ from existing evidence.

To ensure the validity and clinical applicability of our results, comparisons were made with a range of contemporary studies—both randomized controlled trials and observational cohorts—where similar methodologies, outcome measures, and patient profiles were used. Each core parameter has been evaluated against these external sources

to identify trends, discrepancies, and potential explanatory factors. This comparative approach enhances the robustness of our conclusions and provides a multidimensional view of the relative benefits and limitations of both induction methods.

Baseline Characteristics

Age Distribution

In our study, the majority of participants were aged between 20 to 25 years in both groups (84% in the mifepristone group and 88% in the Foley catheter group), with no statistically significant difference ($P = 0.684$). Comparatively, the study reported a slightly older population, with mean ages of 28.65 ± 5.47 years in the mifepristone group and 27.71 ± 4.22 years in the Foley group⁶⁷. Another study conducted where it is observed even higher mean ages around 31 years in both arms⁶². Similarly, another study found mean ages ranging from 25 to 31 years across parity groups⁶⁸. Later studies also documented mean ages in the late twenties across study groups⁶⁹. Across all these studies, age was well-balanced and showed no significant influence on induction outcomes—consistent with our findings.

Parity

Our study demonstrated a higher proportion of multigravida women in the mifepristone group (64%) compared to the Foley group (52%), although this difference was not statistically significant ($P = 0.39$). This trend aligns with findings from various studies, who reported 62.22% multigravidas in the mifepristone group and 52.22% in the Foley group⁷⁰. Recent studies revealed presented a different pattern, with more nulliparous women in the mifepristone group (79.2%) than in the Foley group (67.9%). Studies reported a median parity of one in both arms. Taken together, these

studies indicate that parity was adequately balanced and unlikely to confound induction outcomes across cohorts⁶⁸.

Pre-Gestational BMI

The average pre-gestational BMI in our study was 23.656 ± 3.58 kg/m² in the mifepristone group and 25.344 ± 4.91 kg/m² in the Foley group, with no statistical significance ($P = 0.172$). Similar findings were observed in a study conducted, where BMI was comparable between groups (24.2 vs. 25.1 kg/m², $P = 0.88$), suggesting that BMI does not significantly influence the choice or efficacy of induction methods⁶².

Gestational Age

Gestational age at induction in our study was comparable between groups— 39.36 ± 1.02 weeks in the mifepristone group and 39.88 ± 1.13 weeks in the Foley group ($P = 0.983$). Many studies later reported similar gestational ages in both arms (39.46 vs. 39.51 weeks), and observed that medians of 40.7 and 40.5 weeks⁶². These consistent gestational parameters across studies help confirm the internal comparability of intervention outcomes.

Labor Outcomes and Delivery

Mode of Delivery

In our study, normal vaginal delivery was more frequent in the mifepristone group (88%) compared to the Foley group (76%), though this difference was not statistically significant ($P = 0.269$). Many studies found nearly identical trends⁷⁰ (87.78% vs. 77.78%), whereas few observers identified a statistically significant advantage in vaginal deliveries with mifepristone⁷¹ (61.53% vs. 32.3% , $P < 0.001$). Contrarily, reported higher vaginal delivery rates in the Foley group⁷² (71.7% vs. 56.2%), although this was

not statistically significant. Notably, Radzinsky emphasized that all multiparous women in the mifepristone group delivered vaginally, compared to 69.3% in the Foley group—highlighting a possible advantage for mifepristone in multigravida women¹⁷. Meta-analytic evidence from further supported a slightly reduced likelihood of vaginal delivery with Foley catheter use (RR = 0.95, 95% CI: 0.91–0.99), aligning with our study’s direction⁶⁶.

Indications for Cesarean Section

Our study noted that failed inductions occurred exclusively in the Foley group (16%), while fetal distress with meconium-stained liquor (MSL) was seen only in the mifepristone group (8%). The overall difference was not statistically significant ($P = 0.088$). Other studies documented more cesareans for failed induction and pathological CTG in the Foley group, and found higher rates of scar tenderness (13.33% vs. 3.33%) in the Foley arm⁷⁰. These results suggest that while mifepristone may increase risk of fetal distress, Foley is more often associated with mechanical failure or prolonged induction.

Cervical Permeability

In our study, 52% of participants in the mifepristone group and 44% in the Foley group had a permeable cervix, with no significant difference ($P = 0.571$). Later similarly found near-identical rates (47.2% vs. 47.9%), reinforcing the notion that both methods are comparable in their initial mechanical effect on the cervix⁶².

Time-Based Delivery Metrics

Delivery Within 24 Hours

A significantly higher proportion of women in the Foley group delivered within 24 hours (24%) compared to only 8% in the mifepristone group ($P = 0.023$).

This is supported by other researches,¹⁴ who found 55.7–63.6% 24-hour delivery rates with Foley versus 20.7–23.1% with mifepristone¹⁴. Various reports also reported higher 24-hour delivery rates with misoprostol than Foley (57% vs. 47%, $P = 0.0136$), reinforcing Foley's advantage in shorter induction intervals.

Delivery Within 48 Hours

Both groups in our study had equal 48-hour delivery rates (60%, $P = 1.000$). Local studies reported similar findings, with slightly higher rates in the Foley group (62.3% vs. 54.2%, $P = 0.410$), showing that over extended intervals, the differences between methods tend to diminish⁶².

Failed Induction

In our study, no failed inductions were observed in the mifepristone group, whereas 8% of Foley cases failed to progress ($P = 0.149$). Previous studies similarly reported higher failure rates with Foley catheter. This supports the notion that mifepristone may provide more consistent induction outcomes, especially in cases where mechanical ripening alone may be insufficient⁶².

Induction-to-Delivery Interval

The mean induction-to-delivery interval was significantly shorter in the Foley group (13.65 ± 5.36 hrs) compared to the mifepristone group (21.14 ± 8.39 hrs), with statistical significance ($P = 0.001$). This was corroborated by previous studies who also found significantly shorter intervals with Foley catheter⁷², though studying second-trimester terminations, reported similar findings in favor of Foley in combination settings⁷¹.

Interval to Active Labor

The time to active labor was comparable in our study (2410.92 mins in Group A vs. 2206.32 mins in Group B, $P = 0.585$), and not statistically significant. This aligns with suggestive reported similar times (2422 vs. 2194 mins, $P = 0.381$), reinforcing that while Foley may slightly expedite labor onset, the difference may not always translate into clinical relevance⁷³.

Cervical Readiness

Bishop Score

Our study showed improvements in Bishop scores in both groups, but without significant intergroup difference at baseline or re-evaluation ($P = 0.716$ and 0.862 , respectively). Later studies found a significantly higher Bishop score at 12 hours with Foley ($P = 0.039$), but by 24–36 hours, differences evened out. In contrast, it is found better improvements with mifepristone ($P = 0.002$), along with a higher proportion achieving favorable scores ($P = 0.050$). Similar studies noted improved cervical favorability in Foley-treated primigravidae⁶⁸. These mixed findings suggest that while both agents enhance cervical readiness, their optimal timing and mechanism may differ.

Neonatal Outcome

APGAR Scores

In our study, APGAR scores at 1 and 5 minutes were comparable across groups and not statistically different ($P = 0.626$ and 0.198 , respectively). Primary studies reported similar neonatal scores, confirming both methods are safe in terms of immediate neonatal outcomes⁶⁹. Reports showed fewer abnormal 5-minute APGARs and NICU admissions in the Foley + misoprostol group, suggesting a potential advantage with mechanical support in high-risk contexts⁷⁴.

NICU Admission and Neonatal Safety

We observed no NICU admissions or significant complications.

Our findings align closely with current literature, reaffirming that both mifepristone and Foley catheter are effective and safe for cervical ripening and labor induction. Mifepristone is associated with higher rates of vaginal delivery and fewer induction failures, while Foley catheter offers faster onset of labor and shorter induction-to-delivery intervals. Neonatal outcomes remain comparable between methods. The choice between the two should thus consider clinical urgency, maternal parity, and logistical factors such as time constraints or prior cesarean status.

LIMITATIONS

While the findings of this study contribute meaningfully to the ongoing evaluation of cervical ripening agents, several limitations should be acknowledged:

1. **Sample Size:** The study involved a relatively small cohort, which, while statistically powered for primary outcomes, may not capture rare maternal or neonatal complications or allow robust subgroup analysis (e.g., VBAC, post-term, or primigravida-only cohorts).
2. **Single-Center Design:** As a single-institution study, findings may not be universally generalizable across populations with differing maternal demographics, induction protocols, or health care infrastructure.
3. **Lack of Blinding:** Due to the nature of interventions, blinding was not feasible, potentially introducing observational bias, particularly in subjective outcomes like Bishop score evaluation and pain perception.

4. **Exclusion of Combination Regimens:** Only single-agent regimens (mifepristone alone or Foley alone) were studied. Combination methods, which are increasingly supported in recent literature, were not evaluated.
5. **Neonatal Follow-up:** While immediate neonatal outcomes (e.g., APGAR score, NICU admission) were assessed, long-term neonatal morbidity was not included, limiting comprehensive safety profiling.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. **Larger, Multicenter Trials:** To validate these findings, future studies should involve larger, multicenter cohorts, ideally incorporating diverse patient populations and clinical settings.
2. **Evaluation of Combination Protocols:** Future trials should compare single-agent methods with combination regimens (e.g., Foley + mifepristone or Foley + misoprostol), which have shown synergistic effects in other studies.
3. **Stratified Analysis by Parity and Cervical Status:** Outcomes may differ significantly between primigravidas and multigravidas or based on pre-induction Bishop scores; thus, stratified or subgroup analyses are warranted.
4. **Patient-Centered Outcomes:** Future studies should incorporate patient-reported outcomes, including pain scores, satisfaction, and ease of ambulation during cervical ripening.

5. **Long-Term Neonatal Outcomes:** Incorporating follow-up data on neonatal development and morbidity could provide a more comprehensive safety assessment of these induction methods.

CONCLUSION

This study demonstrated that **oral mifepristone (200 mg)** and **transcervical Foley catheter** are both effective and safe methods for cervical ripening and labor induction at term. **Mifepristone was associated with higher rates of vaginal delivery and fewer induction failures**, while **Foley catheter offered a faster induction-to-delivery interval and a significantly higher rate of delivery within 24 hours**. Cervical readiness and neonatal outcomes were comparable between the two groups, with no significant difference in APGAR scores or NICU admissions. The findings support the clinical utility of both methods, with the choice of agent potentially tailored to individual patient factors such as urgency of induction, prior cesarean, or institutional resources. However, the observed trends and limitations underscore the need for further robust comparative studies, particularly those assessing combination protocols and longer-term maternal and neonatal outcomes.

SUMMARY

This prospective, comparative study was conducted to evaluate and compare the efficacy, cervical ripening potential, delivery outcomes, and neonatal safety of **oral mifepristone (200 mg)** versus **transcervical Foley catheterisation** in term pregnancies requiring labor induction.

Key Findings

- **Age & Demographics:**
 - Most participants in both groups were aged 20–25 years (84% in Group A, 88% in Group B).
 - No significant difference in age, parity, gestational age, or BMI between groups, ensuring well-matched cohorts.
- **Cervical Readiness:**
 - Initial and post-intervention Bishop scores improved significantly in both groups.
 - No statistically significant intergroup difference in Bishop scores at re-evaluation ($P = 0.862$).
- **Induction Efficiency:**
 - **Foley catheter group** had a **shorter induction-to-delivery interval** (13.65 hrs vs. 21.14 hrs; $P = 0.001$).
 - **More women delivered within 24 hours** in the Foley group (24% vs. 8%; $P = 0.023$).
 - **Failed induction occurred only** in the Foley group (8%); none in the mifepristone group.
- **Mode of Delivery:**
 - Vaginal delivery was more frequent in the mifepristone group (88% vs. 76%), but not statistically significant ($P = 0.269$).

- Cesarean section due to failed induction was exclusive to the Foleys group.
- **Cervical Permeability:**
 - Comparable between both groups (52% in Group A vs. 44% in Group B; $P = 0.571$).
- **Neonatal Outcomes:**
 - Mean APGAR scores at 1 and 5 minutes were **similar between groups** ($P = 0.626$, $P = 0.198$).
 - **No NICU admissions** were reported in either group.

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