

Antenatal care

routine care for the
healthy pregnant woman

2008 update

National Collaborating Centre for Women's
and Children's Health

Commissioned by the National Institute for
Health and Clinical Excellence

Evidence tables

March 2008



RCOG Press

Evidence tables should be read in conjunction with the main guideline.

Published by the **RCOG Press** at the Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 27 Sussex Place, Regent's Park, London NW1 4RG

www.rcog.org.uk

Registered charity no. 213280

2nd edition © 2008 National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health

1st edition published in 2003

No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored or transmitted in any form or by any means, without the prior written permission of the publisher or, in the case of reprographic reproduction, in accordance with the terms of licences issued by the Copyright Licensing Agency in the UK [www.cla.co.uk]. Enquiries concerning reproduction outside the terms stated here should be sent to the publisher at the UK address printed on this page.

The use of registered names, trademarks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant laws and regulations and therefore for general use.

While every effort has been made to ensure the accuracy of the information contained within this publication, the publisher can give no guarantee for information about drug dosage and application thereof contained in this book. In every individual case the respective user must check current indications and accuracy by consulting other pharmaceutical literature and following the guidelines laid down by the manufacturers of specific products and the relevant authorities in the country in which they are practising.

ISBN 978-1-904752-46-2

RCOG Editor: Andrew Welsh

Original design of main guideline by FiSH Books, London

Typesetting of main guideline by Andrew Welsh

Contents

Abbreviations	6
3 Woman-centred care and informed decision making	10
3.2 Provision of information	10
4 Provision and organisation of care	34
4.6 Gestational age assessment	34
5 Lifestyle considerations	41
5.5 Nutritional supplements	41
8 Screening for haematological problems	54
8.3 Screening for haemoglobinopathies (sickle cell disease and thalassaemia)	54
9 Screening for fetal anomalies	60
9.1 Screening for structural anomalies	60
9.2 Screening for Down's syndrome	71
10 Screening for infections	94
10.3 <i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	94
11 Screening for clinical problems	107
11.1 Gestational diabetes	107
11.2 Pre-eclampsia	119
11.3 Preterm birth	126
12 Fetal growth and wellbeing	145
12.2 and 12.3 Diagnostic accuracy studies	145
14 Antenatal assessment tool	165
References (2003 version)	168
References (2008 update)	185

Abbreviations

AC	abdominal circumference
ACHOIS	Australian Carbohydrate Intolerance Study in Pregnant Women
ACOG	American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists
ACTH	adrenocorticotrophic hormone
ADA	American Diabetes Association
AFG	adequate fetal growth
AFI	amniotic fluid index
AFP	alpha-fetoprotein
AIDS	acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ALPHA	Antenatal Psychosocial Health Assessment
ANC	antenatal care
APEC	Action on Pre-eclampsia
APH	anteartum haemorrhage
ASB	asymptomatic bacteriuria
BD	twice a day
BERR	Department for Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform
BMC	bone mineral content
BMI	body mass index
BP	blood pressure
BPD	biparietal diameter or bronchopulmonary dysplasia
BV	bacterial vaginosis
BW	birthweight
CAMP	Christie, Atkinson, Munch, Peterson test
cBG _{120 min}	capillary blood glucose 120 minutes after glucose load
CDSC	Communicable Disease Surveillance Centre
CEGEN	Confidential Enquiry into Counselling for Genetic Disorders
cFBG	capillary fasting blood glucose
CFGC	customised fetal growth chart
cfu/ml	colony-forming units per millilitre
CHO	carbohydrate
CI	confidence interval
CINAHL	Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health Literature
CMV	cytomegalovirus
CNS	central nervous system
COMA	Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy
CPC	choroid plexus cyst
CRL	crown-rump length
CRP	C-reactive protein
CS	caesarean section
CTG	cardiotocography
DA	direct agglutination test
DARE	Database of Abstracts and Reviews of Effectiveness
df	degrees of freedom
DFA	direct fluorescent antibody test
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DR	detection rate
DS	Down's syndrome
Dx	Diagnosis
eAg	hepatitis e antigen
EB	elementary body
ECV	external cephalic version
EEA	European Economic Area

EFW	estimated fetal weight
EIA	enzyme immunoassay
EL	evidence level
ELISA	enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay
EOGBS	early-onset group B streptococcus
EPDS	Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale
EPIC	external intermittent pneumatic compression
EU	European Union
FBC	full blood count
FFN	fetal fibronectin
FGM	female genital mutilation
FGR	fetal growth restriction
fl	femtolitre (10 ⁻¹⁵ litres)
FL	femur length
FPG	fasting plasma glucose
FPR	false positive rate
FTA-abs	fluorescent treponemal antibody – absorbed test
GA	gestational age
GBS	group B streptococcus
GCT	glucose challenge test
GD	gestational diabetes
GDG	Guideline Development Group
GDM	gestational diabetes mellitus
GPP	good practice point
GTT	glucose tolerance test
H/O	history of
HADS	Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale
Hb	haemoglobin
HBIG	hepatitis B immune globulin
HBsAg	hepatitis B surface antigen
HBV	hepatitis B virus
HC	head circumference
hCG	human chorionic gonadotrophin (can be total or free beta)
β-hCG	beta-human chorionic gonadotrophin
HCV	hepatitis C virus
HDN	haemolytic disease of the newborn
HEED	Health Economic Evaluations Database
HELLP	haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes and low platelet count
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HPA	Health Protection Agency
HPLC	high-performance liquid chromatography
HSI	health sector initiative
HT	hypertension
HTA	Health Technology Assessment
ICD-9	International Classification of Diseases, 9th edition
ICER	incremental cost-effectiveness ratio
IFG	inadequate fetal growth
IGT	impaired glucose tolerance
IL	interleukin
IM	intramuscular(ly)
IMDA	interactive multimedia decision aid
IPC	intrapartum care
IPV	intimate partner violence
IU	international unit
IUGR	intrauterine growth restriction
LA	latex agglutination test
LBW	low birthweight
LCR	ligase chain reaction
LE	leucocyte esterase

LGA	large for gestational age
LMP	last menstrual period
LR	likelihood ratio
LR–	negative likelihood ratio
LR+	positive likelihood ratio
LSHTM	London School of Hygiene & Tropical Medicine
MCH	mean corpuscular haemoglobin
MCV	mean corpuscular volume
MeSH	medical subject headings
MIDIRS	Midwives Information and Resource Service
MMIC	Multidimensional Measure of Informed Choice
MoM	multiples of the median
MOMP	major outer membrane protein
MSAFP	maternal serum alpha-fetoprotein
MSHCG	maternal serum beta-human chorionic gonadotrophin
MSS	maternal serum screening
MSU	midstream urine sample
MTCT	mother-to-child transmission
NCC-WCH	National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health
NCRSP	National Congenital Rubella Surveillance Programme
NEC	necrotising enterocolitis
NFG	normal fetal growth
NHS EED	NHS Economic Evaluations Database
NHS	National Health Service
NICE	National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence
NICU	neonatal intensive care unit
NNT	number needed to treat
NPI	Neonatal Perception Inventory
NPV	negative predictive value
NS	not significant
NSC	(UK) National Screening Committee
NSF	National Service Framework
NT	nuchal translucency
NTD	neural tube defect
OGTT	oral glucose tolerance test
OH	oligohydramnios
25-OHD	25-hydroxyvitamin D
ONS	Office for National Statistics
OR	odds ratio
OTC	over-the-counter
oz	fluid ounce (28.41 ml)
PAI	Prenatal Attachment Inventory
PAPP-A	pregnancy-associated plasma protein-A
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PCT	primary care trust
PE	pre-eclampsia
pg	picogram (10 ⁻¹² grams)
PHLS	Public Health Laboratory Service
PI	pulsatility index
PIH	pregnancy-induced hypertension
PPV	positive predictive value
PROM	preterm rupture of the membranes
PTD	preterm delivery
QID	four times a day
RBC	red blood cell
RBG	random blood glucose
RCOG	Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists
RCT	randomised controlled trial
RhD	rhesis D

RIBA	recombinant immunoblot assay
RNA	ribonucleic acid
ROC	receiver operating characteristic
ROP	retinopathy of prematurity
RPG	random plasma glucose
RPR	rapid plasmin reagin test
RR	relative risk
RST	reagent strip testing
S/D	systolic/diastolic
SACN	Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition
SD	standard deviation
SE	socio-economic(ally)
SFH	symphysis–fundal height
SGA	small for gestational age
SIGN	Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network
SP	specificity
SPD	symphysis pubis dysfunction
SPTB	spontaneous preterm birth
ST	sensitivity
STAI	Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory
T 21/18/13	trisomy 21, 18 or 13
TDS	three times a day
TGA	transposition of the great arteries
TPHA	<i>Treponema pallidum</i> haemagglutination assay
TVS	transvaginal sonography
uE3	unconjugated estriol
UHT	ultra-high-temperature processing
UK	United Kingdom
US CDC	United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
US	ultrasound
USPSTF	US Preventive Services Task Force
USS	ultrasound scan
UTI	urinary tract infection
VDRL	Venereal Disease Research Laboratory (test for syphilis)
VE	vaginal examination
WHO	World Health Organization
WMD	weighted mean difference

3 Woman-centred care and informed decision making

3.2 Provision of information

Clinical question: What, how and when information should be offered during the antenatal period to inform women's decisions about care during pregnancy, labour, birth and the postnatal period?

Effectiveness of information provision

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Dyson <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁶³⁷	7 RCTS involving 1388 women	To examine the interventions that aim to encourage women to breastfeed, to evaluate their effectiveness	The number of women who initiate breastfeeding and any other effects of such interventions.	5 trials involving 582 women showed that breastfeeding education had a significant effect on increasing initiation rates compared to routine care RR 1.53 [95% CI 1.25–1.88].	Cochrane review. The 7 studies suffered from a high overall risk of bias due to unclear or inadequate allocation concealment. 3 of 7 studies reported breastfeeding initiation for all participants, the remaining 4 studies had up to 25% losses to follow up between recruitment and breastfeeding initiation.	Systematic review of RCTs	1+
Fairbank <i>et al.</i> , 2000	⁶³⁸	59 studies of which 14 were RCTs, 16 non-RCTs and 29 before-after studies. Intervention were grouped into categories: health education; health	Evaluation of evidence to identify which promotion programmes are effective at improving breastfeeding rates.	The number of women who start to breastfeed, duration and exclusivity of breastfeeding.	There is limited impact on initiation rates of breastfeeding by giving breastfeeding literature alone, or combined with a more formal, non-interactive method of health education. Small, informal, group health education classes, delivered in the antenatal period, can be an effective intervention to increase initiation rates, and in some cases the duration of breastfeeding, among women from different income or ethnic	Health Technology Assessment	Extensive literature review	1+

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		sector initiatives (HSI) – general; HSI Baby Friendly Hospital Initiative (BFHI); HSI-training of health professionals; HSI – US Department of Agriculture’s Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC); HSI – social support from health professionals; peer support; media campaigns; and multifaceted interventions.			groups. Amedia campaign as a stand-alone intervention, and particularly television commercials, may improve attitudes towards, and increase initiation rates of breastfeeding. Multifaceted interventions comprising a media campaign and/or a peer support programme combined with structural changes to the health sector (HSI) or, in fewer cases, combined with health education activities are effective in increasing initiation rates (and duration and exclusivity of breastfeeding).			
Lavender <i>et al.</i> , 2005	639	Women who expressed a desire to breastfeed at the start of their pregnancy booked at an inner-city teaching hospital. Sample <i>n</i> = 1249	To evaluate the effect of an antenatal breastfeeding intervention on breastfeeding duration (delivered as an extra antenatal class session). Comparison group: usual antenatal classes	Main outcome: proportion of women who fulfilled their expectation of breastfeeding.	No difference between the groups in the proportion of women who attained their expected duration of breastfeeding (OR 1.2, 95% CI 0.89–1.6). There were no differences between the groups in the uptake of breastfeeding on discharge (OR 1.2, 95% CI 0.8–1.7) or exclusively at four months (OR 1.1, 95% CI 0.6–1.8).	UK	Cluster RCT	1–
Mattar <i>et al.</i> , 2007	640	‘Low-risk’ women booked at a tertiary referral centre May 2002 to December 2004. Sample <i>n</i> = 401	To evaluate the impact of breastfeeding educational material and breastfeeding coaching on breastfeeding practice.	Duration of exclusive and predominant breastfeeding.	Women who received simple antenatal instruction with a short, single, individual counselling session combined with educational material were practiced exclusive and predominant breastfeeding more often than women receiving routine care alone at 3 months (odds ratio [OR] 2.6, 95% CI 1.2–5.4) and 6 months (OR 2.4, 95% CI 1.0–5.7) postpartum. More women practiced exclusive and predominant breastfeeding at 6 months among women receiving individual counselling compared with women exposed to educational material alone (OR 2.5, 95% CI 1.0–6.3).	Singapore Note: There was contamination between the groups and women in the control group came to know about the interventions offered to the other groups simply by speaking to women in those groups. The study was	RCT	1–

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Noel-Weiss <i>et al.</i> , 2006	641	Nulliparous women with an uncomplicated pregnancy. Sample $n = 110$	To evaluate the effects of a breastfeeding workshop on breastfeeding self-efficacy and duration.	Maternal breastfeeding self-efficacy (measured with a revised breastfeeding self-efficacy scale) and breastfeeding duration (measured at 4 weeks and 8 weeks postpartum).	Maternal breastfeeding scores increased in both groups. Self-efficacy scores (mean (std. dev.)): At registration: Intervention 42.73 (9.2) vs control 42.02 (9.7); $t = -0.345$ [95% CI -4.76 to 3.35]; $P = 0.731$. At 4 weeks postpartum: Intervention 57.98 (8.6) vs control 53.38 (9.1); $t = -2.32$ [95% CI -8.53 to -0.65]; $P = 0.023$. At 8 weeks postpartum: Intervention 61.70 (5.8) vs control 58.91 (9.1); $t = -1.60$ [95% CI -6.28 to -0.70]; $P = 0.115$. Exclusive breastfeeding at 8 weeks: Intervention 33/47 vs control 26/45; $\chi^2 = 8.41$, $P = 0.135$.	Canada underpowered.	RCT	1-
Reifsnider and Eckhart, 1996	642	Women who expressed a wish to breastfeed and who qualified for the US WIC programme living in rural areas of Oklahoma. Intervention group $n = 14$ Comparison group $n = 17$	To investigate the effects of antenatal breastfeeding education on breastfeeding incidence and duration.	Breastfeeding incidence and duration.	A significantly higher percentage of women still breastfeeding at 3 and 4 months postpartum in the experimental group versus the control group. The control group breastfed for 29.5 ± 43.6 days, while the experimental group breastfed for 76 days ± 104.3 ($P = 0.05$).	USA	Non-randomised trail	1-
Wiles, 1984	643	Nulliparous women expressing a wish to breastfeed. Sample $n = 40$	Evaluation of antenatal breastfeeding education programme.	Woman's own perception of breastfeeding 'success'. Woman's perceptions of her baby (measured using the Neonatal Perception Inventory (NPI)) Outcomes measured 1-2 days postpartum and	At 1-2 days: Intervention group had lower NPI scores than comparison group ($U=125.5$, $P = 0.05$) At 1 month: Intervention group had significantly higher NRI scores than comparison group ($U=94$, $P = 0.01$)	USA	Prospective cohort study	2

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
				1 month postpartum.	18/20 women in intervention group fully breastfeeding vs 6/20 in the comparison group.			
Pugin <i>et al.</i> , 1996	⁶⁴⁴	Women attending university hospital for antenatal care. Intervention (antenatal skills-based session) <i>n</i> = 59 Comparison 1 (5 other breastfeeding interventions) <i>n</i> = 363 Comparison 2 (no interventions) <i>n</i> = 313	Evaluation of the effectiveness of an antenatal skill-based education session for breastfeeding.	Number of women fully breastfeeding at 6 months	Fully breastfeeding at 6 months: Intervention group: 47/59 (80%) Comparison Group 1: 235/363 (65%) Comparison Group 2: 99/313 (32%) χ^2 analysis showed these differences to be statistically significant.	Chile	Prospective cohort study	2
Sheehan <i>et al.</i> , 2003	⁶⁴⁵	Purposive sample of 29 women interviewed antenatally.	To describe women's decision making regarding infant feeding.	What woman's decision is regarding feeding her baby. Influences on the decision to breastfeed. How the woman feels about breastfeeding Woman's expectations of what breastfeeding will feel like.	Thematic analysis revealed the following key themes: 1. Assuming I'll breastfeed 2. Definitely going to breastfeed 3. Playing it by ear 4. Definitely going to bottle-feed	Australia	Qualitative interview-based study	3
Gulick, 1982	⁶⁴⁶	Nulliparous women attending antenatal classes associated with 12 medical centres in both urban and rural areas. Sample <i>n</i> = 251	To investigate whether women with more breastfeeding knowledge antenatally breastfeed for longer than those with less antenatal knowledge.	Breastfeeding for longer than 4 weeks.	Women with more antenatal knowledge were more likely to breastfeed for longer than 4 weeks compared with those with less knowledge ($t=2.72$, $P = 0.004$. Degrees of freedom not reported).	USA	Prospective descriptive study	3
Kramer, 1996	⁶⁵	4 RCTs including 1108 women	To assess the effects of advising pregnant women to increase their energy and protein intakes.	Main outcomes: Dietary intake, gestational weight gain and pregnancy outcomes	Advice to increase energy and protein intakes seems to be successful in achieving those goals, but the increases are lower than those reported in trials of actual protein/energy supplementation. The evidence regarding the effects on pregnancy outcome are not truly representative as available only from one trial with very narrow confidence intervals. None of	Cochrane systematic review	Systematic review	1+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Campbell <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁴⁷	Sample <i>n</i> = 307 (response rate 74.8%). 96% participants were females, 20% were pregnant, and 50% were minorities (African American and other).	Evaluation of effectiveness of interactive CD-ROM consisting of targeted video soap opera, dietary assessment and individualised dietary feedback and strategies to help change.	Total fat and fruit and vegetable intake; knowledge of low-fat; infant feeding knowledge; self-efficacy. Outcomes measured at baseline and then 1–2 months post-intervention.	the trials reported any potential adverse effects that might accompany increased fetal size, such as an increased risk of prolonged labour or caesarean section. Low-fat knowledge (mean (SD)): Intervention group: baseline 1.94 (1.2) vs follow-up 2.76 (0.46); <i>P</i> < 0.05. Control group: baseline 1.86 (1.2) vs follow-up 2.63 (0.55); NS Infant feeding knowledge: Intervention group: baseline 2.29 (0.82) vs follow-up 2.62 (0.62); <i>P</i> < 0.01. Control group: baseline 2.25 (0.86) vs follow-up 2.40 (0.75); NS	USA	RCT	1+
Olsen <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁴⁸	Healthy pregnant women with normal or overweight body mass index. Intervention group <i>n</i> = 179 Comparison group (historical) <i>n</i> = 381	To evaluate the efficacy of an educational intervention aimed at keeping pregnancy weight gain within Institute of Medicine (IOM) recommended limits.	Proportion of women exceeding upper limit of the IOM recommended weight gain range for pregnancy.	Subgroup analysis performed for low-income and high-income groups: Gaining above IOM range: Low income group: OR 0.41 [95% CI 0.20 to 0.81] High income group: OR 1.15 [95% CI 0.69 to 1.93]	USA	Prospective cohort study	2+
Szwajcer <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁶⁴⁹	5 groups of 12 women including women who wanted a child (but not yet pregnant), women in the first, second and third trimester of their first pregnancy and women in the first trimester of their second pregnancy.	Exploration of the nutrition-related information sources and information seeking behaviours of women during pregnancy.	Sources of information used by women and information seeking behaviours.	Women in the first trimester mainly sought nutrition information in the media, such as the internet, books, magazines, 9 month calendars and brochures. In the second trimester, nutrition information was sought from the 9 month calendar (fun and tips) and friends (experienced). Women in the third trimester sought information from friends (information on breastfeeding). Second-time pregnant women relied on their experience, the midwife and books for specific questions.	Netherlands	Qualitative group interview –based study	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Orstead <i>et al.</i> , 1985	⁶⁵⁰	Women attending antenatal clinic at inner-city hospital 1975–1981. Intervention group: <i>n</i> = 114 (1975–1977) Control group <i>n</i> = 86 (1979–1981)	Evaluation of an intensive nutritional education group programme comprising 15 minute film ('Inside my Mom'), basic dietary advice given by dietitian with explanation for increasing intake of particular foods during pregnancy. Leaflets also given out and women invited to meet with dietitian at each subsequent antenatal visit for further counselling and follow-up.	Main outcomes: Maternal weight gain during pregnancy Birthweight Gestational age at birth	Maternal weight gain: Control group 9.5 kg (\pm 0.5) vs intervention group 7.0 (\pm 0.6); <i>P</i> < 0.001. Birthweight: Control group 3130 g (\pm 50) vs intervention group 3231 g (\pm 47) Birthweight < 2500 g: Control group <i>n</i> = 11 vs intervention group <i>n</i> = 5, NS	USA Poor quality study design	Retrospective cross-sectional study	2-
Lumley <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁵¹	Systematic review of 51 RCTs with 20, 931 pregnant women and 6 cluster RCTs with 7,500 pregnant women	Smoking cessation programmes implemented during pregnancy	Continuation of smoking in late pregnancy Birthweight Incidence of low birthweight Incidence of very low birthweight Preterm birth Stillbirths Perinatal mortality	Continuation of smoking in late pregnancy: RR 0.94 [95% CI 0.92 to 0.96] (<i>n</i> = 47 trials) but heterogeneity <i>I</i> ² =59.7% Mean birthweight: RR 33.03 [95% CI 11.32 to 54.74] (<i>n</i> = 16 trials) Heterogeneity <i>I</i> ² =19.8% Incidence of low birthweight (under 2500 g): RR 0.82 [95% CI 0.70 to 0.95] (<i>n</i> = 13 trials) Heterogeneity <i>I</i> ² =0.0% Incidence of very low birthweight (under 1500 g): RR 1.26 [95% CI 0.69 to 2.32] (<i>n</i> = 3 trials) Heterogeneity <i>I</i> ² =0.0% Preterm birth (under 37 or under 36 weeks): RR 0.84 [95% CI 0.72 to 0.98] (<i>n</i> = 11 trials) Heterogeneity <i>I</i> ² =0.0% Stillbirths: RR 1.16 [95% CI 0.71 to 1.88] (<i>n</i> = 5 trials) NS Perinatal mortality: RR 1.13 [95% CI 0.72 to 1.77] (<i>n</i> = 3 trials) NS	Cochrane review	Systematic review	1++
Acharya <i>et al.</i> , 2002	⁶⁵²	Pregnant women	Leaflets and direct counselling given during	Average no. cigarettes	Av. no. cigarettes smoked per day:	UK	Prospective	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		booked at 2 inner-city hospitals who reported smoking during current pregnancy. Sample <i>n</i> = 63	first-trimester booking visit	smoked per day Smoking behaviour of partner Changes in smoking behaviour following booking anti-smoking intervention Whether or not had read the anti-smoking advice leaflet Receipt of smoking counselling	14 [95% CI 12 to 15] Smoking behaviour of partner: 53 women had partners who were also smokers. Changes in smoking behaviour following booking anti-smoking intervention: 53 women (84.1%) made no change 7 (11.1%) reduced smoking by 3–5 cigarettes per day 3 (4%) gave up smoking altogether Whether or not had read the anti-smoking advice leaflet: All women had seen the leaflet Receipt of smoking counselling: 39 active smokers (62%) reported receiving anti-smoking advice		study	
Rigotti <i>et al.</i> , 2006	653	Pregnant smokers 18+ years old, and at or below 26 weeks of pregnancy. Intervention <i>n</i> = 209 Control <i>n</i> = 212	Pregnancy-tailored telephone smoking counselling using motivational counselling compared with a brief counselling session. Phone calls made throughout pregnancy and for 2 months postpartum (mean no. calls=5, mean total contact=68 minutes).	Smoking cessation outcomes Tobacco abstinence (7 days) – cotinine validated and self-report Significant reduction (50% or more)	Cotinine-validated: End of pregnancy OR 1.37 [95% CI 0.69 to 2.70]; <i>P</i> = 0.39 3 months postpartum OR 0.93 [95% CI 0.44 to 1.99]; <i>P</i> = 1.00 Sustained abstinence OR 1.46 [95% CI 0.54 to 3.90]; <i>P</i> = 0.47 Self-report: End of pregnancy OR 1.48 [95% CI 0.88 to 2.48]; <i>P</i> = 0.15 3 months postpartum OR 1.11 [95% CI 0.60 to 2.05]; <i>P</i> = 0.75 Sustained abstinence OR 1.70 [95% CI 0.78 to 3.70]; <i>P</i> = 0.18 Significant reduction: End of pregnancy OR 1.49 [95% CI 0.96 to 2.31]; <i>P</i> = 0.09 3 months postpartum OR 1.11 [95% CI 0.67 to 1.86]; <i>P</i> = 0.69	USA	RCT	1+

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Byrd <i>et al.</i> , 1993	654	<p>Pregnant smokers selected from 2 community-based clinics</p> <p>Sample <i>n</i> = 57</p> <p>Mean age 23 years (range 17–40)</p> <p>79% of women black, 17% white.</p> <p>70% single</p> <p>77% unemployed</p>	Smoking cessation booklet, videotape and nurse counselling	<p>Smoking cessation outcomes (self-report):</p> <p>Quit</p> <p>Quit attempts</p> <p>Daily mean cigarette consumption</p> <p>Measured at 1 month follow-up, ninth month of pregnancy, 1 month postpartum.</p>	<p>1 month follow-up:</p> <p>Quit: 7 (14%)</p> <p>Quit attempt: 31 (54%)</p> <p>Mean cigarette consumption: 6.2 per day</p> <p>Ninth month of pregnancy:</p> <p>Quit: 10 (18%)</p> <p>Quit attempt: 23 (40%)</p> <p>Mean cigarette consumption: 5.7 per day</p> <p>1 month postpartum:</p> <p>Quit: 5(9%)</p> <p>Quit attempt: 21 (37%)</p> <p>Mean cigarette consumption: 8.2 per day</p>	USA	RCT	1+
McLeod <i>et al.</i> , 2004	655	<p>Pregnant women who smoked at the time of conception.</p> <p>Sample <i>n</i> = 283</p> <p>Control group <i>n</i> = 57</p> <p>Breastfeeding education <i>n</i> = 57</p> <p>Smoking cessation education <i>n</i> = 68</p> <p>Combined group <i>n</i> = 101</p>	<p>3 interventions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Programme of education and support for smoking cessation and reduction provided by midwives – Programme of education and support for breastfeeding provided by midwives – Both programmes 	<p>Smoking cessation</p> <p>Smoking reduction</p> <p>Rates of breastfeeding</p> <p>Measured at 28 weeks and 36 weeks of pregnancy, at midwife discharge, 6 weeks and 4 months postpartum</p>	<p>Maintenance of smoking change – Breastfeeding education group (<i>n</i> = 57)</p> <p>28 weeks pregnancy: Adjusted OR 1.52 [95% CI 0.61 to 3.81]</p> <p>36 weeks of pregnancy: Adjusted OR 1.98 [95% CI 0.80 to 4.86]</p> <p>Midwife discharge: Adjusted OR 0.76 [95% CI 0.32 to 1.79]</p> <p>6 weeks postnatal: 0.76 [95% CI 0.27 to 2.16]</p> <p>4 months postnatal: 1.54 [95% CI 0.53 to 4.40]</p> <p>Smoking education group (<i>n</i> = 68)</p> <p>28 weeks pregnancy: Adjusted OR 2.61 [95% CI 1.13 to 6.04]</p> <p>36 weeks of pregnancy: Adjusted OR 2.71 [95% CI 1.17 to 6.28]</p> <p>Midwife discharge: Adjusted OR 1.32 [95% CI 0.60 to 2.93]</p> <p>6 weeks postnatal: 1.81 [95% CI 0.72 to 4.51], 4 months postnatal: 1.95 [95% CI 0.72 to 5.28]</p> <p>Combined group (<i>n</i> = 101)</p> <p>28 weeks pregnancy: Adjusted OR 1.65 [95% CI 0.74 to 3.67]</p> <p>36 weeks of pregnancy: Adjusted OR 2.39</p>	New Zealand	Cluster RCT	1+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					[95% CI 1.08 to 5.31] Midwife discharge: Adjusted OR 0.92 [95% CI 0.43 to 1.95] 6 weeks postnatal: 1.48 [95% CI 0.62 to 3.52], 4 months postnatal: 1.48 [95% CI 0.57 to 3.86]			
Goodson <i>et al.</i> , 1985	⁶⁵⁶	Couples attending antenatal classes at 2 hospitals. Sample <i>n</i> = 136 Intervention group <i>n</i> = 76 Comparison group <i>n</i> = 60	Half hour lecture during antenatal classes including a discussion of car safety, demonstration of use of care restraints and car seats for infants, a film showing outcomes of car impact on unrestrained infants using reconstructions and follow up brochure to take home. For latter phase of study parents also received a postnatal car safety programme including short film and pamphlet to read and take home. Nurses on postnatal ward also encouraged to promote car safety.	Use of care seats and car restraints as tested using a telephone-based questionnaire 4–6 months after birth. Primary questions: 'When riding in a car, how does your child usually ride?' 'The last time you and your baby were in a car, how did your baby ride?'	'How does your child usually ride?': Intervention group: 99% reported use of a child car safety seat. Comparison group: 90% reported use of a child car safety seat. 'The last time you and your baby were in a car, how did your baby ride?': Intervention group: Used a crash-tested car seat: 96.1% (<i>n</i> = 73) Comparison group: Used a crash-tested car seat: 78.3% (<i>n</i> = 47)	USA	Prospective cohort study	2+
Greenberg and Coleman, 1982	⁶⁵⁷	Postnatal women on day of discharge from one hospital. Sample <i>n</i> = 75 couples (completing 1 questionnaire)	Demonstration of car safety using a mannequin and approved car restraint in usual antenatal class plus 5 minute lecture on child mortality and morbidity associated with car accidents. For latter phase of study parents also received a postnatal car safety programme including short film and pamphlet to read and take home. Nurses on postnatal ward also encouraged to promote car safety.	Use of car safety restraints for baby's journey home from hospital.	Of 75 couples: 27 reported receiving only antenatal information re car safety 30 reported receiving both antenatal and postnatal information 11 reported receiving only postnatal information 7 did not recall receiving any information about car safety. 35/75 couples reported using car restraint on baby's first journey home. Nurses' reported observation of couple leaving hospital verified this for 78% of cases.	USA	Prospective cohort study	2-
Waterson and Murray-Lyon, 1990	⁶⁵⁸	Women attending antenatal clinic at an inner city hospital between May 1982 and January 1983. Study 1 Sample at 28 weeks of pregnancy <i>n</i> = 611 (response rate 59%)	Study 1: Written information (leaflet) regarding alcohol consumption during pregnancy including advice on recommended safe levels compared with written information plus verbal advice from doctor during antenatal consultation. Study 2: Written information (leaflet) regarding alcohol consumption during pregnancy including advice on recommended safe levels compared with written information	Self-reported alcohol consumption at 28 weeks of pregnancy and week before giving birth, measured using questionnaire.	No significant difference between groups. Study 1: Written information only: 63% of women reported drinking < 7 units of alcohol per week at both stages of pregnancy. 6% of women reported an increase in pregnancy from pre-pregnancy levels. Written+verbal information: 68% of women reported drinking < 7 units of alcohol per week at both stages of pregnancy. 8% of women reported an increase in pregnancy from pre-pregnancy levels.	UK	Prospective cohort study	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Postpartum sample <i>n</i> = 766 (response rate 74%) Study 2 Sample at 28 weeks of pregnancy <i>n</i> = 532 (response rate 50%) Postpartum sample <i>n</i> = 361 (response rate 34%)	plus verbal advice from doctor during antenatal consultation plus 4 minute video.		Study 2: Written information only: 69% of women reported drinking < 7 units of alcohol per week at both stages of pregnancy. 5% of women reported an increase in pregnancy from pre-pregnancy levels. Written+verbal+video information: 66% of women reported drinking < 7 units of alcohol per week at both stages of pregnancy. 8% of women reported an increase in pregnancy from pre-pregnancy levels.			
Smits <i>et al.</i> , 1995	⁶⁵⁹	Pregnant women with gestational diabetes attending one inner city hospital for antenatal care. Intervention group sample <i>n</i> = 82 Comparison group sample <i>n</i> = 80	An outpatient education programme (known as the nursing intervention) compared with usual care for women with gestational diabetes provided by obstetricians only. Both models include dietary counselling, training and support for self-monitoring of blood glucose and surveillance of fetal development.	'Healthy woman' – defined as: no pregnancy complications, no prematurity or postmaturity, normal birth, postnatal stay of 1–4 days. Abnormal pregnancy outcome – defined as: Polyhydramnios, pre-eclampsia, premature contractions, vaginal bleeding due to placenta praevia, birth at < 37 weeks or > 42 weeks, labour and birth complications such as induction of labour, caesarean section, forceps or vacuum birth, postnatal stay of 5 days or longer. 'Healthy baby' – defined as: APGAR 8–10 at 1 and 4 minutes, birthweight 10th – 90th centile, postnatal stay 1–4 days, no diagnosed complications. Abnormal outcomes for	A logistic regression procedure was used to control for confounding variables such as proportion of nulliparous women and women requiring medication for gestational diabetes since these were found to be significantly different between the 2 study groups. After controlling for confounding factors no significant differences were found between the 2 study groups regarding incidence of abnormal pregnancy or abnormal outcomes for the baby (figures not reported). Confounding variables were found to have a significant impact on outcomes: Nulliparous women had a 3.31 times greater risk of an abnormal pregnancy outcome. Women taking medication for gestational diabetes had a 2.69 times greater risk of an abnormal pregnancy outcome than women with gestational diabetes who were not taking medication. Women with gestational diabetes who experienced complications during pregnancy were found to have a 4.2 times greater risk of having a baby with one or more abnormal outcomes.	USA	Retrospective descriptive study	2-

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
				baby – defined as: APGAR 7 or less at 1 and 5 minutes, birthweight < 10th centile or > 90th centile, postnatal stay of 5 days or longer, hypoglycaemia (blood glucose < 2.1 mmol/litre (37 mg/100 ml), respiratory distress syndrome (requiring oxygen), polycythemia (haematocrit > 65%), birth trauma including shoulder dystocia.				

How information is provided antenatally

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Thornton <i>et al.</i> , 1995	¹²	Women booking before 15 weeks of gestation. Sample <i>n</i> = 1691 <i>n</i> = 567 in control group <i>n</i> = 563 in individual group <i>n</i> = 561 in class group	To compare routine information given in antenatal clinics at booking visit by the doctor or midwife (control group), extra information given individually before 16 weeks or at an extra hospital visit by a research midwife (individual group), and extra information given to a group of 4 to 12 women separate from the routine antenatal clinics (class group)	Attendance at extra information sessions; uptake rates of prenatal tests; levels of anxiety; understanding; satisfaction with decisions taken.	Attendance at the extra sessions was low (overall 52%) and was lower at classes than at individual appointments (adj. OR 0.45, 95% CI 0.35 to 0.58). Uptake of ultrasound at 18 weeks was almost universal (99%) and not affected by either intervention. Low uptake of Down's syndrome screening in the control group improved slightly after the intervention in the individual group (OR 1.45, 95% CI 1.04–2.02) but was not affected by extra information given in classes. High uptake of cystic fibrosis screening at the baseline was lowered both in the individual group (OR 0.44, 95% CI 0.20–0.97) and the class group (OR 0.39, 95% CI 0.18–0.86). Women in the individual group were found to have significantly reduced levels of anxiety at 20 weeks (<i>P</i> = 0.02) compared to the control group, and thereafter anxiety was reduced but not significantly	UK	RCT	1+
Graham <i>et al.</i> , 2000	⁶⁶⁰	Low- and high-risk pregnant women booking appointment for antenatal care Initial sample <i>n</i> = 875 Only 64% of women returned all 3 questionnaires giving final samples of Control group <i>n</i> = 358 Intervention group <i>n</i> = 376	To compare touch screen information provision and information leaflet with leaflet only.	Primary outcome measured was women's informed decision making on prenatal testing as measured by their uptake and understanding of the purpose of 5 screening tests (ultrasound scan at booking, serum screening, detailed anomaly scan, amniocentesis and chorionic villus sampling). Secondary outcomes included woman's satisfaction with the information and their anxiety levels.	More women in the intervention group underwent detailed anomaly scan compared to the control group (94% versus 87%, <i>P</i> = 0.01), but for rest of the screening tests uptake rates were similar. All women in the trial had good baseline knowledge of the screening tests and this increased significantly in both the groups after the intervention, but no apparent greater gain in knowledge was seen among women in the intervention arm compared to the control arm. Levels of anxiety declined significantly among the nulliparous women in the intervention group (<i>P</i> < 0.001). Both groups reported high level of satisfaction with the information leaflets (> 95%), and a similar proportion of women in the intervention group reported that they would recommend the touch screen to other women. T	UK	RCT	1+
O'Cathain <i>et al.</i> , 2002	¹³	12 maternity units each having more than 1000 deliveries annually were grouped into 10 clusters	To assess the effect of 10 evidence-based leaflets on promoting informed choice in pregnant women.	Primary outcome measured was the change in proportion of women who reported exercising informed choice, while secondary outcomes were women's levels of knowledge, satisfaction with information, and possible consequences of informed	Proportion of women who reported exercising informed choice increased slightly after the intervention in both the units, but there was no significant difference in the change between the two groups for either the antenatal or the postnatal sample. A small increase in satisfaction with information was observed in the antenatal sample of the population in the intervention units compared to the control units (OR 1.40, 95% CI	UK	Cluster RCT	1-

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
				choice. Outcomes were assessed using a postal questionnaire	1.05 to 1.88). However due to operational difficulties, just 75% of the women in the intervention units reported receiving at least one of the information leaflets.			
Glazier, 1997	⁶⁶¹	Women with singleton pregnancies less than 18 weeks gestational age, recruited from 6 different sites in both urban and rural areas.	To evaluate use of a pamphlet on triple-marker screening in the intervention group, or similar appearing pamphlet on daily activities during pregnancy in the control group.	The primary outcome was woman's knowledge as tested using the Maternal Serum Screening Knowledge Questionnaire (a validated 14-item scale).	Mean overall knowledge score was significantly higher in the intervention group (0.89 versus 0.52 on a scale from -2 to +2, $P < 0.001$) compared to the control group. Also women receiving pamphlet on triple screening had higher scores for the domains of test characteristics, ancillary tests, and target conditions ($P < 0.001$) but not for the domains of indication and timing of tests	Canada	RCT	1+
Bekker <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁶²	Pregnant women receiving a screen positive maternal serum screening (MSS) test for Down's syndrome (risk ≥ 1 in 250) Intervention $n = 133$ Control $n = 64$	Comparison of a decision analysis consultation using three prompts was employed – a decision tree representing test options and consequences, a utility elicitation question prompting women to choose between the burden of having a child with Down's syndrome and that of pregnancy termination, and a threshold graph identifying the alternatives with usual consultation.	Main outcomes measured were risk perception, test decision, subjective expected utilities, knowledge, informed decision making, conflict in decision making, anxiety, and perceived usefulness of consultation.	Similar proportion of women chose to have a diagnostic test – 47/58 (81%) in the control group versus 48/59 (81%) in the intervention group. Choice of test did not differ by group allocation, but decision analysis women evaluated more information during their consultation both positively and negatively than those in the control group (positive evaluation – mean score 3.18 versus 2.55, $F=6.30$, $P = 0.01$; negative evaluation – mean score 3.00 versus 2.37, $F=5.98$, $P = 0.02$). These women also perceived the risk more realistic ($P = 0.05$) and had a lower decisional conflict over time. Decision analysis consultations lasted about 6 minutes longer but women did not perceive consultations to be any more or less directive, useful or anxiety provoking than the routine ones	UK	RCT	1+
Leung <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁶³	All Chinese women attending a prenatal clinic in a tertiary hospital before 20 weeks of gestation. Intervention $n = 100$ Control $n = 101$	Comparison of information leaflet, 30 minute video and then browsing IMDA (intervention group) or information leaflet and watching 30 minute video only (control group).	Primary outcome evaluated was uptake of the screening test, and secondary outcomes measured were women's initial decision, understanding, and satisfaction with the information that they received.	There were no significant differences in the initial decision for and the final uptake of the screening test between the intervention and the control group (P value for all the tests > 0.05). After watching the video 54.1% of women in the control group and 55.1% in the intervention group reported that they had no more questions. After browsing the IMDA the proportion of women having no more questions increased to 77.0% ($P < 0.001$), and 86.6% of women agreed that IMDA was user-friendly and 78.9% that it was acceptable. A higher proportion of younger women (age < 35 years) accepted IMDA compared to those over 35 years of age ($P = 0.03$), but the difference was not significant after adjusting for confounding variables.	Hong Kong, China	RCT	1+
Hewison <i>et al.</i> , 2001	⁶⁶⁴	Consecutive pregnant women referred for antenatal care.	Comparison of video sent to women at home before the hospital booking visit (intervention group) with the control group who received usual care.	Outcomes evaluated were test uptake (using record linkage), knowledge (multiple-choice	No statistically significant difference was observed in the screening uptake rate between the two groups (64.2% versus 64.7%). Questionnaires were sent at 17–19 weeks only to the first 1200	UK	Quasi RCT	1–

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		<i>n</i> = 993 women in video group <i>n</i> = 1007 in control group		questionnaire with 12 items), worries (multiple-choice questionnaire with 16 items), and anxiety (Hospital Anxiety and Depression scale).	women randomised in the two groups, and after exclusions the sample size was 499 (video group) and 552 (control group). Rate of questionnaire completion was similar between the two groups. Knowledge about screening was increased in the video group with a mean score of 7.3 compared with 6.7 in the controls (<i>P</i> = 0.0005), but there was no difference between the two groups in specific worries about anomalies in the baby, and general anxiety.			
Andersen, 1989	⁶⁶⁵	All women beginning antenatal care by 36 weeks and not at high risk for preterm delivery were enrolled for the study and offered a class. <i>n</i> = 487	Class about recognising the signs and symptoms of preterm labour – 15 minute videotape presentation followed by a 15 minute discussion led by a registered nurse staff member where several printed educational materials were also given.	Outcome evaluated were the rates of preterm delivery and low birthweight.	There were no significant differences between the class attendees and non-attendees for the baseline demographic and obstetric variables. Women attending classes had babies with a higher mean birthweight (<i>P</i> = 0.03) and gestational age (<i>P</i> = 0.12), but improvement in gestational age did not reach statistical significance. The preterm birth rate was reduced by 17% and low birthweight rate by 27% among women attending the classes compared to the non-attendees, but these differences were statistically not significant	USA	Cohort study	2-
Simpson <i>et al.</i> , 1998	⁶⁶⁶	All pregnant women booked in a tertiary hospital in the UK were invited to participate in the trial. Sample <i>n</i> = 3024	Four different combinations of providing information using a leaflet sent with booking information package ('all blood tests information' or 'HIV specific test information') and discussion with a midwife ('Minimal' or 'Comprehensive') were compared.	Main outcomes were uptake of testing and women's knowledge of HIV, satisfaction with consultation, and anxiety.	Uptake rates were 6% for the control group and each of the methods of directly offering the test resulted in a higher uptake than in the control group (χ^2 test, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>P</i> < 0.0001). However there was no significant difference between the four groups where the test was offered directly (χ^2 test, <i>df</i> = 3, <i>P</i> = 0.37). The best independent predictor of uptake was being directly offered the test. General knowledge of HIV was good and did not differ significantly by the method of offering testing, but specific knowledge about HIV and benefits of testing increased with the amount of information given (χ^2 test of linear trend, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>P</i> < 0.001). No significant difference was found regarding anxiety and satisfaction	UK	RCT	1+
Hunt <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁶⁶⁷	Sample <i>n</i> = 50 clinicians <i>n</i> = 40 pregnant women Observation of 101 genetic counselling sessions	To examine how clinicians assure informed consent prior to antenatal genetic testing and communicate information regarding genetics/inheritance and risk calculation.	Information provided during consultation.	Clinicians discussed all the essential elements of information giving in only 59% of the consultations. Elements most consistently covered were that the test is optional, risks of procedure, and risks for the anomaly, while the least covered elements were the nature of anomaly and alternatives to amniocentesis. Patients overall knowledge score averaged about 53% and the elements for which they showed most complete knowledge included reasons for doing amniocentesis, test is optional, nature of the invasive procedure, and what information can this test give. The elements least completely discussed included risk of anomaly,	USA	Qualitative descriptive study	3

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					alternatives to amniocentesis, and nature of the anomaly. But there was no statistical correlation between the completeness of information included in consultant's consultations and the level of knowledge exhibited by the patients during the interviews (Pearson correlation = 0.204, $P = 0.289$).			
Williams <i>et al.</i> , 2002	⁶⁶⁸	Health practitioners whose work was related directly or indirectly to perinatal care Sample $n = 56$	To explore the information given to pregnant women and their partners about Down's syndrome from the perspective of healthcare practitioners	Perceptions of healthcare providers of information given.	Practitioners felt that more time was spent explaining the complexities of the actual screening process rather than the condition being screened. Though many practitioners felt that their way of providing information influenced decision making by pregnant women, they seldom made any positive and realistic statement about the condition. Most practitioners themselves had little time and practical experience of dealing with DS cases. They relied on medical textbooks, leaflets and articles for knowledge and these sources usually focused on the potential problems of the syndrome and its management strategies.	UK	Qualitative descriptive study	3
Stapleton <i>et al.</i> , 2002	14	A total of 886 episodes of consultations with pregnant women were observed – 653 held by midwives, 167 by obstetricians and 66 by the obstetric ultrasonographers. 383 face-to-face interviews were conducted (173 childbearing women, 177 midwives, 28 obstetricians, 12 obstetric ultrasonographers, and 3 obstetric anaesthetists).	To examine the use of evidence-based information leaflets and to understand the social context in which the leaflets were used.	How the leaflets were used and how informed choice and decision making occurred in practice	Though the health professionals were positive about the leaflet and their potential in helping women make informed choices, they were seldom used to maximum effect in clinical practice. The various reasons observed were the time constraint, unavailability of choice in regular practice, disagreement of staff with its content or an option given in it, and their distribution usually in a concealed manner or 'wrapped' up with other advertising material. Health professionals were also observed to influence decision making in pregnant women towards technological intervention by conveying information which either minimised the risk of the intervention or emphasised the potential for harm without the intervention. They reinforced notions of 'right' and 'wrong' choices instead of 'informed choices' and this was promoted by their fear of litigation. A strong hierarchy was observed within the maternity services with the obstetricians at the top, midwives and health professionals other than doctors in the middle, and pregnant women at the bottom.	UK	Qualitative descriptive study	3
Jaques <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁶⁹	Pregnant women	To examine whom women perceived as influencing their decisions about antenatal	Women's reports of who influenced their decision	More than 90% of women in both the groups reported that they themselves had a strong	Australia	Retrospective cohort study	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		<p>from eighteen hospitals in Australia at approximately 24 weeks gestational age and over 37 years of age at the estimated date of delivery.</p> <p><i>n</i> = 539 women undergoing prenatal testing (tested group)</p> <p><i>n</i> = 185 not going for prenatal testing (untested group).</p>	<p>testing for fetal anomalies, with whom they would have liked to have talked more and what sources of information they preferred.</p>	<p>making, who they would have liked to talk with more and preferred sources of information.</p>	<p>influence on their decision to be tested or not, and 70% reported their partner as strongly influencing their decision. Statistically no significant difference was observed between the two groups for the above parameters, but significantly higher proportion of women in the tested group were influenced by their doctor or genetic counsellor ($P < 0.001$ for both) and a friend or a nurse ($P < 0.01$ for both). 35.7% of women in the tested group were more likely to talk to other women who have had the tests as compared to 21% of women in the untested group ($P < 0.001$). Higher proportion of tested women would have preferred to talk to a genetic counsellor (9.5% versus 8.6%, $P = 0.002$), while women in the untested group were more likely to talk to a pastoral carer (2.5% versus 10.6%, $P < 0.001$). There were no significant differences between the groups with respect to a specialist, general practitioner, friend, nurse/midwife or other pregnant women. In both the tested and the untested groups, the preferred source of getting information was face-to-face discussion or counselling (69.1% tested group, 47.4% untested group), and the difference between the two groups was statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). The second preferred choice was pamphlet (48.7% tested group, 42.8% untested group, $P = 0.18$) followed by video (35.2% tested group, 24.9% untested group, $P = 0.01$).</p>			

Women's views of general and specific antenatal information provision

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Bennett <i>et al.</i> , 2006	674	African-American women receiving Medicaid who had given birth in the previous 48 hours Sample <i>n</i> = 237	To explore effects of low literacy level on uptake and perceptions of antenatal care.	Uptake of antenatal care. Women's views and experiences of antenatal care. To determine literacy level women undertook a literacy (reading) assessment as part of the interview (Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine).	Cultural consensus analysis of findings (<i>n</i> = 9 women with low literacy level; <i>n</i> = 31 women with higher literacy) (from most to least salient): Finding out if everything is okay; long wait; questions (communication with carer); needles (blood tests); woman's weight and hearing the baby's heartbeat. Cultural consensus factor analysis returned a single factor (eigenvalue 0.881, SD 0.058) showing a high degree of shared knowledge among participants of lower and higher literacy level. Findings from the focus groups confirmed these salient factors across both subgroups. Items associated with communication between women and their carers were identified as central when women were discussing obstacles to care.	USA	Qualitative study – concurrent mixed methods (including individual face-to-face interviews and focus groups).	3
Vonderheid <i>et al.</i> , 2003	675	African-American and Mexican-American women living on a low income and booked to a 'low-risk' antenatal clinic. Sample <i>n</i> = 159 <i>n</i> = 112 African-American women <i>n</i> = 47 Mexican-American women. 72% younger than 24 years. 65% multiparous. 39% less than 12 years education 45% household incomes of less than \$1000 per month.	To compare issues women to discuss during antenatal consultations with issues actually discussed.	Items identified by women as something they wanted or needed information about and whether or not the topic was discussed (identified from a list of 27 health promotion topics).	Note: Statistical analysis performed using the Sign test for paired data. Although <i>P</i> values are given values for the Sign statistic are not reported. Significantly more women wanted or needed information but did not discuss using seatbelts safely, dealing with stress and conflict, family planning, and caring for the new baby. Women did not want or feel they needed information but discussed taking vitamin/mineral supplements, eating specific food groups, drinking adequate amounts of water, stopping specific substance use. More differences were reported between information wanted or needed and information discussed for African-American women compared with Mexican-American women (adjusted regression analysis $R^2=0.39$, $P < 0.001$).	USA	Cross-sectional interview-based descriptive study.	3
Benn <i>et al.</i> , 1999	676	Volunteer sample of women planning a pregnancy (<i>n</i> = 7); pregnant	Investigation of women's information needs about pregnancy issues.	Identified information needs Sources of information	Information sources: Midwife (37%) Friends (23%) GP (13%).	New Zealand	Cross-sectional questionnaire survey	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		women ($n = 30$ and women in first 3 months postnatally.		Usefulness of information received	<p>The theme of reassurance was prominent amongst women's responses.</p> <p>Topics that pregnant women wanted information about included:</p> <p>Knowing what is normal</p> <p>How to prepare for birth</p> <p>Coping with labour and birth</p> <p>How to look after the baby</p> <p>What to expect after birth. Multiparous women identified some different information needs including:</p> <p>Coping with morning sickness</p> <p>Self care during pregnancy Birth after caesarean section</p> <p>Financial needs and options.</p>			
Ussher <i>et al.</i> , 2006	⁶⁷⁷	Pregnant smokers and pregnant recent ex-smokers. Sample $n = 443$	To identify perceived barriers to and benefits of a smoking cessation course.	Responses to a 20-item decisional-balance measure	<p>Most frequently endorsed barriers to attending a smoking cessation course: 'I am afraid I would disappoint myself' (54.2%), 'I do not tend to seek help for this sort of thing' (40.6%), 'I do not have access to such a course' (40.5%)</p> <p>'I do not have time to attend the appointments' (39.8%).</p> <p>The 2 statements with the least agreement were: 'People that are close to me would not support me attending such a course' (9.8%) and 'Stopping smoking is not particularly important to me' (7.6%).</p> <p>The most frequently endorsed benefits of attending a smoking cessation course were: 'Advice about managing my cigarette cravings would be useful' (74.2%); 'Praise and encouragement with stopping smoking would be helpful' (70.7%); 'Advice about safe medications to help me stop smoking would be useful' (69.2%) and 'Someone my checking my progress would be helpful' (64.5%).</p> <p>Respondents who agreed with the benefits of attending a smoking cessation course were significantly more likely to express an interest in receiving help of this kind (ANOVA, all at $P < 0.01$).</p>	International (mainly UK and USA)	Web-based cross-sectional survey	3
Cates <i>et al.</i> , 2004	⁶⁷⁸	Pregnant women	Evaluation of women's responses to health education messages regarding listeriosis.	Knowledge regarding: Listeriosis infection	Few women reported receiving information about food safety from healthcare professionals	USA	Descriptive study – focus groups	3

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Sample <i>n</i> = 63 64% multiparous 87% caucasian		Food safety Sources of information	contacted during pregnancy, and none remembered receiving information specifically about listeriosis. Commonly cited sources of information about food safety included books and magazines on antenatal care. Women suggested that written information on listeriosis be provided as part of the antenatal booking information package. Participants also felt that knowledge of listeriosis should be improved amongst the general population and suggested using the media to deliver public health food safety messages.			
Orr and Simmons, 1979	679	Women between 34 and 38 weeks of pregnancy. Sample <i>n</i> = 92	Investigation of women's perceptions of dietary information and advice provided during pregnancy.	Women's perceptions of need for dietary advice – generally and personally. Women's satisfaction with dietary advice received.	75% of women felt pregnant women in general needed dietary advice. 50% of women felt they personally needed such advice. The most common reasons for this response was that advice was remembered from a previous pregnancy (39%) or that the woman already had a good knowledge of dietary requirements (35%). Only 11% of women reported that they had acquired dietary information from other sources (eg. books/leaflets). One third of respondents reported that complying with dietary advice worried them 'a lot', with the most common concern being excessive weight gain during pregnancy. A similar proportion of women reported difficulty complying with dietary advice, especially that relating to dietary restrictions. When asked about their satisfaction with dietary information only 3 women reported any shortfall. Only 36 women (39%) were able to recall specific dietary information.	USA	Cross-sectional descriptive interview-based study.	3

The effectiveness of antenatal education/classes

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Gagnon, 2001	²⁷	5 RCTs including 168 women	Any structured educational programme relating to preparation for childbirth, caring for a baby or parenthood.	Knowledge acquisition Anxiety Sense of control Participation in decision making Pain and pain relief Obstetric interventions during labour Breastfeeding Psychological adjustment following childbirth	The only outcomes reported were knowledge acquisition and competencies relating to care of baby. Satisfaction with preparation for motherhood improved following maternal role preparation vs no preparation: WMD 21.59 points [CI 11.23 to 31.95] (1 study, <i>n</i> = 16, response rate 73%). Maternal attachment behaviour more frequent when maternal attachment preparation included in classes: WMD 52.60 points [CI 21.82 to 83.38] (1 study, <i>n</i> = 10). Knowledge acquisition: Fathers' preparation classes vs no classes WMD 9.55 [CI 1.25 to 17.85] (1 study, <i>n</i> = 28) Expanded childbirth education classes vs traditional classes: WMD 1.62 [CI 0.49 to 2.75] (1 study, <i>n</i> = 48)	Meta-analysis not possible due to heterogeneity of studies.	Systematic review of RCTs	1+
Spiby <i>et al.</i> , 2003	⁶⁸⁰	Women who had given birth to their first baby in the preceding 72 hours Sample <i>n</i> = 121	3 coping strategies taught during antenatal classes during labour, and reasons for discontinuing where appropriate.	Women's reports of using and discontinuing the following coping strategies: Breathing technique Postural change Relaxation techniques	88% of women (<i>n</i> = 106) used 'sighing out slowly' breathing, 51% (<i>n</i> = 61) used change of position and 40% (<i>n</i> = 48) used a relaxation technique. Relaxation techniques were reported by 33% of the women who used it as being effective in providing relaxation. Only 12% of women who used this technique reported that it provided a distraction. Change of position was reported by 14% of women as providing a distraction, while only 6% found it relaxing. Change in position was the most effective in terms of pain relief with 22% of women reporting that it provided some pain relief. 19% of women who used 'sighing out slowly' breathing and 12% of those who used relaxation techniques reported that they provided some pain relief.	UK	Retrospective descriptive interview-based survey	3
Maestas L, 2003	⁶⁸¹	Women attending 10 sets of antenatal classes Sample <i>n</i> = 57 pre-test questionnaire Sample <i>n</i> = 42	Antenatal classes.	Women's beliefs and perceptions of childbirth: Fear of childbirth; childbearing locus of control; passive compliance vs active participation in childbirth; personal values about childbearing and childrearing	Women's mean scores for fear of childbirth and passive compliance vs active participation decreased significantly after participation in the antenatal classes: Fear (<i>n</i> = 37) 9.68 vs 8.32, <i>P</i> < 0.05; Compliance vs active participation (<i>n</i> = 38) 3.84 vs 2.89, <i>P</i> < 0.02). No significant change in scores for locus of control (<i>n</i> = 41;	USA	Descriptive before-after study	3

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		post-test questionnaire.			$x=1.98$ vs 1.49) and personal values about childbearing ($n = 39$; $x=4.03$ vs 3.97).			
Hart M, 1994	⁶⁸²	Couples enrolled in antenatal classes at a tertiary hospital. Sample $n = 119$ couples	Antenatal classes.	Self-care agency as measured using the Appraisal of Self-Care Agency scale (Evers, 1986)	Self-care agency was very high in women and men both before and after attendance at a series of antenatal classes. Women: no significant difference between scores obtained before and after antenatal classes (mean score pre-class 97.1; post class 97.5). Men: significant increase following class attendance (mean scores 91.3 and 94.7).	USA	Descriptive before–after study	3
Rolls and Cutts, 2001	⁶⁸³	Couples enrolled in antenatal classes in a public hospital Sept. – Oct. 1998. Sample $n = 70$ couples $n = 34$ participant-led classes (intervention) $n = 34$ traditional classes (comparison)	Participant-led antenatal classes compared with traditional classes	Knowledge of pregnancy issues eg. smoking, alcohol intake, diet; Information for labour eg. birth positions, pain relief, role of the midwife; Postnatal issues eg. body changes after birth, relationships with partner; Infant care eg. bathing, dressing, holding and settling a baby.	Women who attended participant-led antenatal classes reported significantly higher levels of increased knowledge relating to childbirth, baby care and becoming a parent than women attending traditional classes ($F(1, 59)=11.89$, $P < 0.01$). This difference was not evident for men attending the classes ($F(1, 57)=2.59$, NS). Women in the intervention group also reported higher level of preparedness for the experience of pregnancy ($t=3.05$, $P < 0.01$) and for self-care following birth ($t=3.12$, $P < 0.01$). No differences were found for preparedness for labour, birth, mood and lifestyle changes following birth, or caring for the baby.	Australia	Prospective longitudinal before–after study	3
Redman <i>et al.</i> , 1991	⁶⁸⁴	Phase 1: All nulliparous women giving birth in a large teaching hospital in a 4 month period. Sample $n = 325$ women (response rate 91%) Phase 2 : Women and their partners attending classes over a 3 month period. Sample $n = 117$ women (response rate 82%) Sample $n = 82$ men (response rate	Antenatal education programme	Phase 1: Characteristics of attenders Phase 2: Changes in knowledge (eg. what to do when you think you are in labour; care during labour and what to expect during labour; what to expect after the birth) Satisfaction of participants	Phase 1: 82% nulliparous women attended antenatal classes. Women who chose to attend classes were older, of a higher educational level, more likely to be married or living as married, and more likely to have private health insurance than women who chose not to attend. Phase 2: Women's and men's knowledge of issues relating to pregnancy and childbirth increased significantly following attendance at antenatal classes across all topic areas measured. Most of the course components were rated as either 'very' or 'quite' useful by the majority of respondents. Of the 24 items included, 17 were rated as very or quite useful by at least 70% of participants. Items relating to labour were rated as very or quite useful by over 90% of participants. Items with fewer ratings of very or quite useful were: family planning; baby health centres; and nutrition and weight gain.	Australia	Phase 1: Cross-sectional survey Phase 2: Before–after longitudinal questionnaire-based study	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Schmied <i>et al.</i> , 2002	685	<p>First-time parents participating in hospital's antenatal programme (58%).</p> <p>Sample $n = 59$ (21 couples plus 2 single women)</p> <p>Response rate = 64% for the intervention group and 47% for the comparison group.</p>	<p>Expanded course of antenatal classes aimed at preparing couples for parenting and early lifestyle changes following childbirth compared with traditional classes.</p>	<p>Satisfaction with care eg. 'Labour managed as I liked' 'Pain managed as I liked'.</p> <p>Psychological outcomes following birth eg. 'Evaluation of parenting experience'; 'Life change'</p>	<p>Significantly more women in the intervention group stated that their labour had been 'managed as [they] liked' (84% vs 43%; $\chi^2 = 5.4, P < 0.05$).</p> <p>No significant differences were found between the 2 groups regarding women's experience of pain or views of pain relief used during labour (again figures not given).</p> <p>Women in the intervention group were also more likely to rate their parenting experience more highly than women in the control group (mean score on parenting rating scale $x=89.4$ vs $x=83.6; t(31)=2.06, P < 0.05$).</p> <p>No significant difference was seen between the 2 groups regarding adjustment to life change following birth (mean score $x=38.0$ vs $37.0; t(31)=0.36, NS$).</p>	Australia	Descriptive cross-sectional study	3

Women's experiences and views of antenatal classes

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Schneider Z, 2001	⁶⁸⁶	<p>Pregnant women attending antenatal classes</p> <p>Sample <i>n</i> = 13</p> <p>Most women well educated (12/13 had a degree or diploma)</p> <p>11 were in full-time employment.</p> <p>12 of the women were Caucasian and 1 was Australian-Chinese.</p> <p>All were booked for a hospital birth.</p>	Antenatal classes	Women's experience of classes, what they considered to be important and usefulness of information provided.	<p>Most women were satisfied with the amount of information provided about labour and pain relief.</p> <p>For some women the emphasis some antenatal teachers placed on labouring without drugs was a concern.</p> <p>Women were less pleased with the amount of information provided concerning breastfeeding and care of the new baby, and they contrasted this lack of information with the large amount of information given about labour and birth. Women's responses indicated that more practical advice, including practical advice on breastfeeding and what to expect when feeding, would have been welcome.</p> <p>The women felt classes had not prepared them for labour.</p> <p>The preference for more practical information and advice about infant feeding (not just breastfeeding), how to handle and communicate with your baby and general baby care (eg. bathing, playing with your baby) was also commonly expressed. Lack of information about discomfort following birth was also noted.</p>	Australian	Longitudinal qualitative study – grounded theory approach	3
Lee H, 1998	⁶⁸⁷	<p>All women giving birth at the 2 study hospitals in a 1 month period in 1997.</p> <p>143 completed questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 62% (56% of the target population). Of the respondents, 50 had attended antenatal classes (35%).</p> <p>Sample <i>n</i> = 33 women who had attended all sessions.</p>	Antenatal classes	Women's reasons for attending classes, expectations of classes and whether expectations were being met.	<p>All women stated that they attended classes in order to gain information. Other important reasons for attending classes were: 'to reduce anxiety or increase confidence' (94%), 'to have partner present and involved' (85%); and 'to have a more positive emotional experience' (76%).</p> <p>Expectations had been met for the majority of women.</p> <p>Most women reported that they felt the amount of information was right regarding normal labour (97%), pain relief in labour (91%), choices in decision making during childbirth (88%), and complications/interventions during labour and birth (91%).</p> <p>There were 3 areas where a fair proportion of women reported that the amount of information proved was too little: relaxation and breathing for labour (33%), nutrition/diet (27%), and infant care (21%).</p>	Australia	Retrospective cross-sectional questionnaire survey	3
Stewart P, 1993	⁶⁸⁸	All women attending antenatal classes in the study	Antenatal classes including community-based	Women's reasons for not attending early (first-trimester) antenatal classes and women's interest in	3 most common reasons women gave for not attending early pregnancy classes were: insufficient knowledge about the classes (69%); early classes were not considered useful	Canada	Cross-sectional questionnaire survey	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		<p>area during one specified week in 1990.</p> <p>At the time the survey was undertaken 46% of the classes were in the early pregnancy section of the course.</p> <p>Sample $n = 437$, a response rate of 98.9%.</p>	<p>and hospital-based classes, some of which charged a registration fee.</p> <p>All courses included early pregnancy classes which focused on pregnancy and healthy lifestyle issues, although women could choose when to join the course.</p>	attending early classes	<p>(29%); and early classes not convenient (18%) (women were invited to give multiple responses if appropriate).</p> <p>An open-ended question asking for ideas on how to encourage women to attend early classes elicited the following responses: encourage doctors to promote early classes and using a public awareness programme to advertise the content and availability of the classes. Women reported that they would like information in early classes on how the baby develops, signs and symptoms of miscarriage, nutrition and exercise.</p>			

4 Provision and organisation of care

4.6 Gestational age assessment

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of screening methods in determining gestational age?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Alexander, 1995	⁶⁹⁰	A sample size of 150 898 cases that contained both clinical examination- and LMP-based values with a range of 20 to 45 weeks were selected.	Examined the comparability of the LMP-based and the clinical examination of gestational age as collected on one state (South Carolina's) vital records. They also investigated the concordance between these measures and explored whether socio-demographic or delivery hospital characteristics influenced their agreement.		LMP-based measure produced higher percentages of preterm and post-term births. More than 60% of the last menstrual period-based preterm births were classified as preterm by the clinical estimate. The sensitivity of the clinical estimate was 27% for post-term births. The overall concordance (the percentage of cases with the same value for both measures) was 47%, but it varied considerably by gestational age. Between 30 and 35 weeks, the clinical estimate exceeded the last menstrual period-based value by 2 weeks or more for more than 40% of the cases. Concordance also varied by race of mother, hospital delivery size, trimester prenatal care began, and birthweight.		Retrospective study	II
Olesen, 2006	⁶⁹¹	657 spontaneous deliveries were used for analysis, $n = 339$ and 318 in the certain and uncertain LMP groups, respectively. Healthy women who were enrolled at the first visit during their pregnancy underwent ultrasound	compared the predicted date of delivery LMP, CRL and BPD with the actual date of delivery in a population of pregnant women divided into those with certain and those with uncertain LMP		median prediction errors (predicted – actual date of delivery) estimated by ultrasonography in the first and second trimesters and by corrected LMP according to cycle length were 2.32, 0.16, and 3.00 days, respectively,		Prospective study	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		examinations in the first and second trimesters.			in women with certain LMP, and 1.71, 0.00, and 3.00 days, respectively, in women with uncertain LMP. The median gestational age at delivery estimated by ultrasonography in the first and second trimesters and by corrected LMP according to cycle length was 282, 280, and 283 days, respectively, in both groups.			
Taipale, 2001	692	17 221 non-selected singleton pregnancies at 8–16 completed weeks were scanned by ultrasound. The last menstrual period (LMP) was considered certain in 13 541 and uncertain in 3680 cases.	Compared different ultrasound measurements CRL, BPD, and FL, for predicting the day of delivery at 8–16 weeks of gestation. Also compared them to prediction by certain and uncertain LMP		at all gestational ages, ultrasound was superior to certain LMP in predicting the day of delivery to at least 1.7 days. CRL of 15–60 mm was superior to BPD, but at a later gestation BPD (at least 21 mm) was more precise. Regression models using a combination of any two or three ultrasonic variables did not improve accuracy of prediction. When ultrasound was used instead of certain LMP, the number of post-term pregnancies decreased from 10.3% to 2.7% ($P < .001$).		Prospective study	II
Savitz, 2002	53	The women were enrolled at 24 to 29 weeks of gestation. 3147 women had both LMP and early ultrasound scan and were recruited and interviewed in the comparisons of pregnancy dating.	4 algorithms were compared: LMP only, ultrasound scans only, use of LMP except when there was a disparity of ≥ 7 days in the estimated date of confinement in which case ultrasound scanning was used and the use of LMP except when there was a disparity of ≥ 14 days in the estimated date of confinement in which case ultrasound scanning was used.	Accuracy of algorithms for the assignment of gestational age with the use of the last menstrual period and early ultrasound information. There was an evaluation of digit preference in the last menstrual period dates and a comparison of mean gestational age, preterm and post-term categories with the use of kappa statistics, difference between actual and expected delivery date, and birthweight among subgroups with discrepant assignments.	last menstrual period reports showed digit preference, assign gestation 2.8 days longer on average than ultrasound scanning, yield substantially more post-term births (12.1% vs 3.4%), and predict delivery among term births less accurately. Misclassification of births as post-term was more common in younger women, those of non-optimal pre-pregnancy body weight, cigarette smokers, and women who reported last menstrual period using preferred dates of the month.		Prospective cohort study	II
Neufeld, 2006	693	Gestational age at birth was	Regression modelling was used to	Best method for gestational age	Gestational age estimated by	When trained field personnel	Longitudinal	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		determined by an early second-trimester measure of BPD, LMP, the Capurro neonatal examination and symphysis–fundal height (SFH) for 171 woman–infant pairs	determine which method provided the best estimate of gestational age using ultrasound as the reference.	estimation	LMP was within ± 14 days of the ultrasound estimate for 94% of the sample. LMP-estimated gestational age explained 46% of the variance in gestational age estimated by ultrasound whereas the neonatal examination explained only 20%.	assist women to recall their date of LMP, this date provides the best estimate of gestational age. SFH measured during the second trimester may provide a reasonable alternative when LMP is unavailable.	study	
Mustafa, 2001	⁶⁹⁴	476 034 computerised birth records from 20–44 weeks of gestation	Concordance between gestational age data obtained by clinical estimate with data calculated from the date of the last menstrual period (LMP) as recorded on birth certificates		The overall exact concordance of 46% between the two measurements. For +1 week it was 78%, and for +2 weeks it was 87%. The incidence of prematurity with menstrual gestational age was 16%, while it was 12% with the clinical estimate. About 47% of the LMP-based preterm births were classified as term by clinical estimate. 83% of clinically estimated preterm births were also preterm by LMP-based gestation.	Agreement between menstrual and clinical estimates of gestational age occurs most often close to term, with significant disagreement in preterm and post-term births.	Retrospective study	II
Johnsen, 2006	⁶⁹⁵	4179 consecutive women attending the second-trimester routine ultrasound examination at 17–20 weeks of gestation were included	The difference between the time of delivery and the predicted date of delivery calculated with HC and BPD (based on pregnancy duration of 282 days) was noted.	Whether the HC predicts the day of confinement better than BPD	for the group of spontaneous onset of labour ($n = 3336$), 5.6% were post-term (≥ 296 days) according to HC and 5.7% according to BPD. Premature births (< 37 weeks) were 3.9% with HC measurement and 3.6% with BPD method. For the entire group, the median differences between actual and predicted delivery with HC and BPD were 0.9 and 1.2 days, respectively. In the spontaneous onset of labour group the corresponding differences were 0.9 and 1.4 days. The difference between the HC and BPD methods was significant ($P < 0.0001$).		Prospective study	II
Nguyen, 1999	⁶⁹⁶	14 805 spontaneous	Compared the error in the predicted		The average discrepancy	It was found that none of the	Retrospective	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		deliveries with a reliable LMP were included and their predicted dates of delivery were calculated using two assumptions: average length of pregnancy of 280 and of 282 days.	date of delivery using BPD with the error using the LMP		between predicted date of delivery from BPD and LMP and date of spontaneous delivery was 7.96 and 8.63 days, respectively ($P < 0.0001$). Adding 282 instead of 280 days to the first day of the LMP reduced the error of the LMP method from 8.63 to 8.41 days, reduced the percentage of classified post-term deliveries from 7.9 to 5.2% and increased the preterm births from 3.96 to 4.48%.	models of combined use of LMP and BPD were superior to the use of BPD alone.	study	
Rowlands, 1993	⁶⁹⁷	106 women	The two methods compared were: a calculation based on LMP or a prediction based on the measurement by ultrasound scan	Determine the most accurate predictor of the date of delivery for pregnant women in a community-based population	At an error of ± 5 days, the scan prediction is accurate in 52% of cases and last menstrual period in 37%, a difference of 15% (95% CI 4% to 23%).	The scan accuracy is significantly better than LMP accuracy.	Prospective study	II
Okonofua, 1989	⁶⁹⁸	84 Nigerian women who had no complications of pregnancy and delivered infants whose birthweights were appropriate for 40 weeks were assessed		Accuracy of gestational age using the locally produced normogram and compared with predictors based on menstrual dates	ultrasound dating was more accurate than menstrual dating as evident from the number of women who delivered on and within 1 or 2 weeks of predicted delivery dates. 12/84 (14.3%) women delivered on the days predicted by ultrasound whereas only 3/84 (3.6%) delivered on days estimated by LMP. 69/84 (82.1%) ultrasound predictions were correct to within 1 week of predicted dates as compared to 42/84 (50%) predictions based on LMP. The difference reached statistical significance $P < 0.05$.		Prospective study	II
Campbell, 1985	⁶⁹⁹	4257 consecutive pregnancies were scanned in 4246 patients as part of a routine antenatal two-tier ultrasonic screening	The first-tier scans were performed before 20th week of gestation, whereas the second-tier scans were performed between 26 weeks and term. The estimated date of	Determine if a single ultrasonic measurement performed in a technician oriented routine screening programme was more accurately predictive of gestational age than menstrual history.	84.7% patients with optimal menstrual history delivered within ± 2 weeks of the predicted date. Only 69.7% delivered within ± 2 weeks of		Population study	

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		programme.	confinement based on ultrasound measurements was compared with menstrual history in its ability to predict the actual onset of spontaneous labor.	In addition they determined whether a single BPD or CRL measurement was more predictive of gestational age and how the predictive accuracy of these measurements changed throughout pregnancy.	the estimate date of confinement based on suspect menstrual history. CRL measurements were as predictive (84.6%) as optimal menstrual history. BPD measurements done between 12 and 18 weeks of gestation were significantly more accurate in gestational predictions (89.4%) than those based on menstrual history ($P < .001$).			
Kopta, 1983	700	27 women	The actual delivery date was compared with the estimated date of confinement predicted by the CRL and the BPD.	Compared the relative accuracy of estimated dates of confinement predicted by first-trimester CRL versus second-trimester BPD measurements	No difference of mean error between predicting the actual date of delivery by CRL (7.73 days) and BPD (7.65 days). In both methods there was a greater tendency to overestimate the actual date of delivery.		Prospective study	II
Selbing, 1983	701	53 women with regular, 28 day interval menstrual cycles were extracted consecutively from the register of the ultrasound laboratory.		Evaluation of the fetal CRL screening programme	25% of pregnant women had a difference between menstrual age and gestational age estimated on the basis of CRL, exceeding 7 days. Regular menstrual cycles and reliable menstrual history reduced this to 19%. Post-mature deliveries > 294 days were reduced from 1 in 15 to 1 in 300 by using CRL.		Prospective study	II
Bennett KA, 2004	702	Low-risk population	Routine first-trimester ultrasound screening	Induction of labour	5/104 women in the first-trimester screening group and 12/92 women in the second-trimester screening group had labour induced for post-term pregnancy ($P = 0.04$, RR 0.37, 95% CI 0.14–0.96).		RCT	1+
Crowther, 1999	52	648 women attending for their first antenatal visit at less than 17 weeks of gestation with no previous ultrasound scan in	Eligible consenting women were enrolled by telephone randomisation into either the ultrasound at first visit group, who had an ultrasound at the	efficacy of an ultrasound scan at the first antenatal visit	9% of women in the ultrasound at first visit group needed adjustment of their expected date of delivery as a		Randomised clinical trial	1+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		the pregnancy, who were expected to give birth at the hospital, and for whom there was no indication for an ultrasound at their first visit.	time of their first antenatal visit, or the control group in whom no ultrasound assessment was done at their first antenatal visit.		result of the 18 to 20 week ultrasound, compared with 18% of women in the control group (RR 0.52, 95% CI 0.34–0.79; $P = 0.002$). Fewer women in the ultrasound at first visit group reported feeling worried about their pregnancy (RR 0.80, 95% CI 0.65–0.99; $P = 0.04$) or not feeling relaxed about their pregnancy (RR 0.73, 95% CI 0.56–0.96; $P = 0.02$), compared with women in the control group.			
Waldenstrom, 1988	⁷⁰³	4997 women were randomised into a screening group where women had an ultrasound scan at about 15 weeks and a control/non-screening group where women did not have a scan before 19 weeks	All women in the screening group had gestational age and expected date of delivery estimation from BPD with charts derived from a Swedish population. For the control group, last menstrual period with specialty calibrated calendars was used.	effectiveness of one-stage screening in the second trimester in pregnant women with no clear indication for elective scanning	that labour was less often induced among screened women both for all reasons 5.9% vs 9.1%, $P < 0.0001$ and for suspected post-term pregnancy 1.7% vs 3.7%, $P < 0.0001$. Among babies born to screened women, fewer had a birthweight < 2500 g (59 vs 95, $P = 0.005$) and mean birthweight was 42 g higher ($P = 0.008$).		RCT	1+
Eik-Nes, 2000	⁷⁰⁴	825 women were allocated to an ultrasound scan between 18–32 weeks of gestation in addition to receiving routine antenatal care.	Standard antenatal care, but could only be referred for ultrasound examination on clinical indication.	Benefits of the routine use of ultrasound screening in pregnancy	incidence of induced labor due to apparent post-term pregnancies was 70% lower in the ultrasound-screened group. Inductions from all causes were also less frequent among ultrasound-screened women. There were six perinatal deaths among the screened and seven among the controls after excluding three lethal malformations among the controls. The proportion of infants with Apgar score less than 8 after 5 minutes was lower among the screened group ($P = 0.04$). The need for positive pressure		RCT	1+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Morin, 2005	705	46 514 women with both menstrual and early ultrasound-based gestational age estimates.		Association between maternal and fetal characteristics, discrepancy between last normal menstrual period and early (< 20 weeks) ultrasound-based gestational age and the association between discrepancies and pregnancy outcomes	ventilation for more than 1 minute was lower among the screened group ($P = 0.02$). positive discrepancies between LMP and early ultrasound scan were more likely in multiparous mothers and those with diabetes, small stature or high pre-pregnancy body mass index. The proportion of women with discrepancies ≥ 7 days was significantly higher among chromosomally malformed and female fetuses. With increasingly positive differences between LMP and ultrasound scan, the mean birthweight declined and the risk of low birthweight increased. Associations with fetal growth measures were more plausible with early ultrasound estimates.		Cohort study	2++
Neilson, 1999	57	Nine good quality trials were included		Assessed whether routine early pregnancy ultrasound influences the diagnosis of fetal malformations and of multiple pregnancies, the rate of clinical interventions, and the incidence of adverse fetal outcome compared with its selective use.	Routine ultrasound examination significantly reduced the rates of induction of labour for post-term pregnancy (OR 0.61, 95% CI 0.52–0.72).		Systematic review	1+

5 Lifestyle considerations

5.5 Nutritional supplements

Clinical question: What is the effectiveness of antenatal vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy

Stand-alone vitamin D supplementation

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(Brooke <i>et al.</i> 1980) ⁹⁷¹ London (51.5° N), UK RCT Evidence level: 1+ Associated references (Brooke 1981 ⁹⁷⁴ , Maxwell 1981 ⁹⁷³)	Asian pregnant women (Indian, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Mauritius an east Africa) living in Tooting, south London (51.5° N) No significant differences between the two groups in age, parity, height, vegetarian status, country of origin, serum 25-OHD levels (range from undetectable to 92 nmol/litre; 71% of vegetarians and 12% of non-vegetarians had undetectable levels, $P < 0.01$) 126 Asian women Calciferol group: 59 Placebo group: 67 Randomisation by hospital pharmacy on the basis of women's hospital number	Study Question: What are the effects of vitamin D on maternal and infant calcium homeostasis and fetal growth? Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between a treatment group and a placebo group	Vitamin D supplements (calciferol 1000 IU/day[25 microg rams/day]) given during the third trimester vs placebo	Intention-to-treat analysis performed Mothers: Mean plasma 25-OHD concentration (nmol/litre) Calciferol group: 168 ± 96.0 Placebo group: 16.2 ± 22.1 (WMD 151.80, 95% CI 126.74 to 176.86) Results 'pooled' from samples taken in summer months and winter months separately, no significant difference between the two lots of samples, though mean levels were higher in summer months in mothers at 28 weeks, at term and also in cord blood Significant correlation in 25-OHD levels between maternal and cord blood ($r = 0.93$, $P < 0.01$) Mean daily weight gain (g): Calciferol group: 63.3 ± 20.70 Placebo group: 46.4 ± 29.50 (WMD 16.9, 95% CI 8.08 to 25.72) Infants: Mean birthweight (g) Calciferol group: 3157 ± 468.5	Though likely to be applicable to pregnant Asian women in regions of similar latitude and sunlight hours. This is the only RCT assessing the effect of vitamin D in Asian women	This RCT was conducted in 1977 during autumn-winter, throughout 1978 and Spring-summer 1979 Allowance made for seasonal variation No allocation details

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
				<p>Placebo group: 3034 ± 523.9 (WMD 123.0, 95% CI -50.29 to 296.39)</p> <p>No harmful/adverse effects documented No long-term follow-up data</p>		
(Stephens <i>et al.</i> 1981) ⁹⁸³	Asians living in Rochdale with vitamin D deficiency	Study Question: What are the effects of a single dose of ergocalciferol orally or intramuscularly during the autumn on serum 25-OHD?	A single dose of oral ergocalciferol 2.5 mg (100 000 IU) vs. a single dose of intramuscular calciferol given in the Spring for 5 months	<p>Serum 25-OHD before and after vit D treatment (nmol/litre)</p> <p>Pre-treatment (Spring 1980) Oral vit D: 8.3 ± 2.8 IM vit D: 7.3 ± 3.5 (NS)</p> <p>Pre-treatment (Autumn 1980) Oral vitamin D: 16.5 ± 8.5 IM vitamin D: 14.0 ± 7.3 (NS)</p> <p>At 1 month: Oral vitamin D: 52.5 ± 12.0 IM vitamin D: 32.5 ± 13.8 (WMD 20.0, 95% CI 9.65 to 30.35)</p> <p>At 3 months: Oral vitamin D: 29.5 ± 7.0 IM vitamin D: 25.8 ± 8.8 (NS)</p> <p>At 5 months (Spring 1981): Oral vitamin D: 24.5 ± 5.3 IM vitamin D: 23.5 ± 11.6 (NS)</p> <p>Pre-treatment vs 5 months after treatment Oral: WMD 8.00, 95% CI 2.33 to 13.67 IM: WMD 9.50, 95% CI 1.75 to 17.25</p> <p>The range produced by oral vitamin D was much less than the range produced by IM vitamin D (mean 24.5, range 19.3 -34.3 nmol/litre vs mean 23.5, range 12.8-52.3).</p> <p>At 1 year after the study, serum 25-OHD concentrations, every patients had a level above 12.5 nmol/litre</p>	Likely to be applicable to the UK population in regions of similar latitude and sunlight hours	<p>This study was conducted in 1981.</p> <p>Method of randomisation and allocation concealment not reported</p> <p>Small sample size</p> <p>No intention-to-treat analysis</p>
Rochdale (53.6° N), UK	24 Asian men and women					
RCT	Oral vitamin D (<i>n</i> = 12) IM vitamin D (<i>n</i> = 12)	Statistical Analysis: comparison analysis of the two treatment groups				
Evidence level: 1-	Oral group: 2 men and 10 women, aged 15-46 years, mean 32 years					
	IM group: 5 men and 7 women, aged 16-46 years, mean 33 years					
	No sig diff between the two groups in pre-treatment serum 25-OHD levels					
	Subjects were given strict instructions to avoid vit D preparations for the next 6 months					

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(Cockburn, Belton, and Purvis 1980) ⁹⁷⁴	Pregnant women living in Edinburgh	Study Question: Is vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy beneficial to mothers and their infants?	Daily vitamin D 400 IU (10 micrograms) from 12th week of pregnancy (given during the months of September to May) till delivery	Maternal plasma 25-OHD (nmol/litre; values cubed of mean cube root) At 24 weeks: Vitamin D group: 39 (<i>n</i> = 82) Placebo group; 32.5 (<i>n</i> = 82) (<i>P</i> < 0.01) At 34 weeks: Vitamin D group: 44.5 (<i>n</i> = 80) Placebo group; 38.5(<i>n</i> = 80) (<i>P</i> < 0.05) At delivery: Vitamin D group: 42.8 (<i>n</i> = 80) Placebo group; 32.5 (<i>n</i> = 84) (<i>P</i> < 0.001) Infant plasma 25-OHD (nmol/litre; values cubed of mean cube root) At day 6 Vitamin D group: 34.5 (<i>n</i> = 54) Placebo group; 20.3 (<i>n</i> = 86) (<i>P</i> < 0.001) At day 6 Vitamin D group: Breastfed: 25.2 (<i>n</i> = 12) Artificial milk fed: 34.4 (<i>n</i> = 41) (<i>P</i> < 0.01) Placebo group: Breastfed: 15.4 (<i>n</i> = 22) Artificial milk fed: 20.1 (<i>n</i> = 57) (<i>P</i> < 0.01) Estimated dietary vitamin D intake based on recall at 34 weeks (<i>n</i> = 84): 91 IU (2.3 micrograms) /day Significant correlation between maternal and infant plasma 25-OHD (<i>r</i> = 0.71) In both groups, values of plasma 25-OHD 'peaked' during July and August	Maybe applicable to UK populations and setting depending on latitude of regions	This study was conducted in 1980. A non-RCT – subject to sampling bias and confounders (e.g., ethnicity status of the groups was not reported, self-report of dietary vitamin D intake, compliance)
Edinburgh (55.6° N), UK	Both groups comparable for social class, parity and age (no information on ethnicity status)	Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between a treatment group and a placebo group	vs. placebo			
Non-RCT Evidence level: 2+	No information on whether 25-OHD levels were similar in the 2 groups 1139 women and their infants Vitamin D supp (<i>n</i> = 506) Placebo (<i>n</i> = 633)					

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(Pietrek <i>et al.</i> , 1976) ⁹⁸²	Asian families living in Glasgow	Study Question: What are the effects of vitamin D fortified chupatty flour and weekly vitamin D in reducing the incidence of rickets and osteomalacia in the Asian community?	Group 1: no vitamin D supp, no vitamin D fortified chupatty flour (control) vs. Group 2: weekly vitamin D supp 3000 units (administered by health visitor to 3 families, 1 family self-administered) vs. Group 3: vitamin D fortified chupatty flour (6000 units /kg flour) for 6 months	No adverse effects documented Serum 25-OHD concentrations: At baseline (Dec) Group 1 (control): 4.7 ± 0.5 ng/ml Group 2 (weekly vitamin D supp): 6.8 ± 1.1 ng/ml Group 3 (vitamin D fortified flour): 4.0 ± 0.5 ng/ml (Group 2 vs Group 1: WMD 2.10, 95% CI 1.54 to 2.66)(Group 3 vs Group 1: WMD -0.70, 95% CI -1.00 to -0.40) At 3 months (March) Group 1 (control): 3.8 ± 0.5 ng/ml Group 2 (weekly vitamin D supp): 15.5 ± 2.3 ng/ml Group 3 (vitamin D fortified flour): 18.0 ± 1.2 ng/ml (Group 2 vs Group 1: WMD 11.70, 95% CI 10.61 to 12.79)(Group 3 vs Group 1: WMD 14.20, 95% CI 13.72 to 14.68) At 6 months (June) Group 1 (control): 5.1 ± 0.8 ng/ml Group 2 (weekly vitamin D supp): 18.1 ± 2.9 ng/ml Group 3 (vitamin D fortified flour): 19.5 ± 1.2 ng/ml (Group 2 vs Group 1: WMD 13.00, 95% CI 11.60 to 14.40)(Group 3 vs Group 1: WMD 14.40, 95% CI 13.83 to 14.97) Biochemical abnormalities suggestive of rickets: At 6 months Group 1: 2 members Group 2: 1 member Group 3: 0 2 individuals were followed up for 2 years, the serum 25-OHD levels had fallen to pre-study levels (data not available) No adverse events documented	Likely to be applicable in regions of similar latitude in the UK. However, in 1978, the Working Party at COMA concluded that mandatory fortification of any flour, milk or butter with vitamin D was not a practical solution	A non-RCT conducted in 1973 Small sample size Confounders: sampling bias unequal serum 25-OHD concentrations between the 3 groups at baseline attrition compliance
Glasgow (55.9° N), UK Non-RCT Evidence level: 2-	66 members (20 adults and 46 children) of 14 Asian family in 3 groups Group 1: 16 members (4 families) Group 2: 18 members (4 families) Group 3: 32 members (6 families) No sig diff in baseline serum 25-OHD concentration between the 3 groups	Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between treatment groups and the control group				
(Datta <i>et al.</i> , 2002) ⁹⁷⁵	Asian women living in Wales (African, Afro-Caribbean, Asian, Far Eastern, Middle-Eastern) in the third trimester of pregnancy	Study Question: Is prenatal vitamin D supplementation effective in treating vitamin D deficiency in	Vitamin D supplement 800 IU/day or 1600 IU/day depending on serum 25-OHD levels at first	80/120 (50%) women had vitamin D levels < 8 ng/ml and were given vitamin D supplementation Subnormal vitamin D levels found in:	Likely to be applicable in the UK populations and settings	Possible seasonal variation in sunlight exposure but vitamin D status.
Cardiff (51.5° N), UK						

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
Before–after study. Evidence level: 2+	160 women	Asian women? Statistical Analysis: Before and after treatment comparison	antenatal clinic A vitamin D level of < 8 ng/ml (< 20 nmol/litre) taken as the cut-off value for commencing calciferol 800 IU/day	50% of women who had been in the UK for > 3 years 25% of women who have lived in the UK for 3 years 25% of women who were born in the UK Maternal serum 25-OHD concentrations (micrograms/ml): At booking (<i>n</i> = 58): 5.79 ± 0.91 Post-delivery (<i>n</i> = 58): 11.24 ± 6.34 Vitamin D not affected by religion fluency in English or dressing habit		
(Mallet <i>et al.</i> . 1986) ⁹⁷⁶ Rouen (49.4° N), France RCT Evidence level: 1+	White pregnant women living in Rouen 77 women Vitamin D supp 1000 IU/day (<i>n</i> = 21) Single dose of 5 mg (<i>n</i> = 27) control (<i>n</i> = 29) No significant difference between the 3 groups in age, parity, frequency of outings, calcium intake	Study Question: What are the effects of daily vitamin D supp compared with one single dose of vitamin D or no vitamin D on serum 25-OHD in pregnant women? Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between treatment group and placebo group	Vitamin D supplement 1000 IU/day (25 micrograms/day) given during the third trimester vs. Single dose of vitamin D 5 mg (200 000 IU) given at 7th month vs. No vitamin D supplement	Women at delivery Mean serum 25-OHD levels Daily vitamin D: 25.3 ± 7.7 nmol/litre Control: 9.4 ± 4.9 nmol/litre (WMD 15.90, 95% CI 12.15 to 19.65) Single dose vitamin D: 26.0 ± 6.4 nmol/litre Control: 9.4 ± 4.9 nmol/litre (WMD 16.60, 95% CI 13.60 to 19.60) Infants (born in February-March): Mean birthweight Daily vitamin D: 3370 ± 376 g Control: 3460 ± 377 g (WMD -90.00 g, 95% CI -298.48 to 118.48) Single dose of vitamin D: 3210 ± 468 g Control: 3460 ± 377 g (WMD -250.00 g, 95% CI -492.68 to -732) No report of adverse events	May not be applicable to Caucasian women living in the UK which has a different latitude than the study region (NW France), also different food fortification policy of the 2 countries	This RCT was conducted in winter (Feb -March) 1986 Small sample size Randomisation generated by using a table of random numbers – no further details Method of allocation concealment not reported Dairy products not fortified in France. No power calculation.
(Delvin <i>et al.</i> . 1986) ⁹⁷⁷ Lyon (45.7° N), France	Pregnant women (ethnicity unknown) in the third trimester 40 women Data available for:	Study Question: What are the effects of maternal vitamin D nutritional status during the last trimester of pregnancy on maternal	Vitamin D supplement 1000 IU/day (25 micrograms/day) initiated at the third trimester	Serum 25-OHD concentrations (ng/ml) Maternal at delivery (June) Vitamin D: 26 ± 7SD (<i>n</i> = 40) Control: 13 ± 8 SD (<i>n</i> = 40)	Unlikely to be applicable to UK populations: milk and dairy products enriched with vitamin D in the UK, also latitudinal	Neither milk nor dairy products are enriched with vitamin D in France Drop outs:

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
RCT Evidence level: 1+	Vitamin D group (<i>n</i> = 20) no vitamin D group (<i>n</i> = 20) All selections in December and all deliveries in June Both groups comparable in maternal and gestational age, parity and infant birthweight (no data given) Biochemical parameters similar in both groups of women before initiation All infants singletons, breastfed from 6th hour after birth	and neonatal perinatal vitamin D levels? Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between treatment group and control group	vs. no vitamin D supplement Compliance verified by weekly visit by a midwife	(WMD 13.70, 95% CI 10.41 to 16.99) (unclear if SD or SEM used) Cord blood Vitamin D: 18 ± 2 sem (<i>n</i> = 14 pairs) Control: 7 ± 1 sem (<i>n</i> = 13 pairs) (WMD 11.0, 95% CI 6.78 to 15.22) Infants (at day 4): Vitamin D: 13 ± 1 sem (<i>n</i> = 14 pairs) Control: 5 ± 1 sem (<i>n</i> = 12 pairs) (WMD 8.0, 95% CI 5.23 to 10.77) Significant correlation between maternal and venous cord blood calcium and 25-OHD in both groups (<i>P</i> < 0.005)	variation in sunlight availability	Vitamin D group: 5 Control group: 1 Degree of exposure to sunlight and ethnicity of mothers not known
(Ala-Houhala 1985) ⁹⁸⁴ Tempere, Finland (61° N) RCT Evidence level: 1-	Breastfeeding mother–infant pairs Healthy term infants 92 mother–infant pairs (breastfed) Studied in winter (<i>n</i> = 47) Studied in summer (<i>n</i> = 45) Group 1 Maternal vitamin D (1000 IU/day [25 micrograms/day] after delivery)/no infant vitamin D (<i>n</i> = 17 in winter, <i>n</i> = 15 in summer) Group 2 No maternal vitamin D/infant vitamin D 400 IU/day (<i>n</i> = 15 in winter, <i>n</i> = 16 in summer) Group 3 No maternal vitamin D/infant vitamin D 1000 IU/day (<i>n</i> = 15 in winter, <i>n</i> = 14 in summer)	Study Question: What are the effects of vitamin D supp (with or without in mothers and infants) on serum 25-OHD levels during winter and summer? Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between treatment groups	Maternal vitamin D/no infant vitamin D vs. No maternal vitamin D/infant vitamin D 400 vs No maternal vitamin D/infant vitamin D 1000	Serum 25-OHD concentrations Maternal data (absolute data presented graphically) At delivery Sig higher 25-OHD in summer than in winter in all 3 groups of mothers (<i>P</i> < 0.001 in Groups 1 and 2; <i>P</i> < 0.01 in Group 3) At 8 weeks (in winter) Sig higher in Group 1 than in Group 2 and 3 (<i>P</i> < 0.001) In summer No sig diff between Group 1 and 3 In winter groups (<i>n</i> = 47) 12/47(26%) of Groups 1, 2 and 3 at delivery or at 8 weeks had levels < 5 ng/ml and 16/36(44%) of Groups 2 and 3 at 8 weeks had levels < 5 ng/ml but not at 20 weeks after delivery when it was spring No signs of clinical or biochemical rickets seen in the infants with 25-OHD levels In summer group (<i>n</i> = 45) Groups 2 and 3	May not be applicable to UK population due to different regional latitudes, amount of sunlight and food fortification policy	Study conducted in 1985 Different maternal vitamin D supp during pregnancy Small sample size. No power calculation. Applicability uncertain.

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments	
	<p>Half of mothers received no vitamin D supp during pregnancy</p> <p>One-fourth received vitamin D supp 500 IU/day during middle pregnancy</p> <p>One-fourth received vitamin D 500 IU/day during entire pregnancy</p> <p>25-OHD levels comparable in all infants at beginning of study</p>			<p>No women of Groups 1, 2 and 3 at delivery had levels < 5 ng/ml at delivery or at 8 weeks</p> <p>2/29(7%) of Groups 2 and 3 had levels < 5 ng/ml at 20 weeks when winter beginning (December)</p> <p>Infant data (absolute data presented graphically)</p> <p>25-OHD levels sig higher in all summer groups than in all winter groups ($P < 0.001$)</p> <p>In winter no sig diff in levels between the 3 groups in winter (at delivery)</p> <p>In summer, sig lower levels in Group 3 than in Group 1 ($P < 0.05$)</p> <p>In winter At 8 weeks: levels sig lower in Group 1 than Group 2 and Group 3 ($P < 0.001$) 10/18(56%) in Group 1 had levels below risk limit for rickets At 20 weeks (Spring) 2/17 (12%) of Group 1 had levels below risk limit for rickets</p> <p>In summer No sig diff in levels between Group 1 and Group 2 Levels sig lower in Group 1 than in Group 3 ($P < 0.001$)</p> <p>1 infants in Group 1 had levels below risk limit for rickets at 20 weeks when it was December</p> <p>No signs of clinical or biochemical rickets seen in the infant with 25-OHD levels below risk limit for rickets</p> <p>No adverse events documented</p>			
(Greer and Marshall 1989) ⁹⁷⁸	White infants born at term and exclusively breastfed for 6 months	Study Question: What are the effects of vitamin D supp in breastfed white infants on bone mineral content, serum	Vitamin D supplements 400 IU/day (10 micrograms/day) within the first week of	Total serum 25-OHD concentrations (ng/ml) At 6 weeks Group 1: 30.25 ± 9.54 Group 2: 15.76 ± 9.81	May not be applicable to UK population due to difference in regional latitudes: Britain (50–61° N) Massachusetts	83% infants completed the study There were more babies born in winter (33) than in summer	

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(42.4° N), USA	dose unknown)	vitamin D metabolite levels and association of sunlight exposure?	birth vs. daily placebo	Group 3: 30.21 ± 6.08	(42° N)	(13)
RCT Evidence level: 1+	58 infants Vitamin D sup (n = 22) Group 1 Placebo (n = 24) Group 2 Control group (n = 12) Group 3 13 infants born in summer 33 infants born in winter Additional 12 full-term healthy and exclusively formula-fed infants used as a comparison group (no randomisation process) No difference between the groups in sex, gestational age, birthweight and serum 25-OHD levels at start of study. Free from major congenital anomalies, neurologic disorders or gastrointestinal disease	Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis of treatment group and placebo group and an additional convenience control group not subjected to randomisation	(vs a convenience sample of formula-fed infants) Vitamin D free formula given to mothers for emergency situations	At 3 months Group 1: 38.89 ± 10.34 Group 2: 15.72 ± 11.25 Group 3: 37.24 ± 6.08 At 6 months Group 1: 39.96 ± 11.86 Group 2: 23.53 ± 9.94 Group 3: 37.57 ± 8.54 Winter-born infants vs summer-born infants At 6 months Group 1: Winter-born: 36.7 ± 12.9 (n = 12) Summer-born: 37.4 ± 10.9 (n = 7) (NS) Group 2: Winter-born: 25.1 ± 10.2 (n = 13) Summer-born: 20.2 ± 9.3 (n = 6)(NS) Group 2 winter-born infants 13 ± 7.1 at 6 weeks vs. 25.1 ± 10.2 (P < 0.01) Summer-born infants No significant changes in Group 1 and 2 between 6 weeks and 6 months Bone mineral content (measured by photon absorptiometry of the distal radius)(mg/cm) All 3 groups had an increase in BMC during the study At 6 months Group 1: 89.5 ± 12.5 Group 2: 101.0 ± 17.9 (P < 0.05)	Small no of babies were given vitamin D-free formula during the study. Two fathers of infants were non-Caucasian	

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
				<p>Group 2: 101.0 ± 17.9</p> <p>Group 3: 107.4 ± 10.6 ($P < 0.02$)</p> <p>(Change in BMC for Group 3 sig higher than the combined change in BMC for both Groups 1 and 2 [$P < 0.02$])</p> <p>Mean body weight (g)</p> <p>Group 1: 7570 ± 858</p> <p>Group 2: 7752 ± 1182</p> <p>Group 3: 7633 ± 1002 (NS)</p> <p>Maternal mean vitamin D intake (IU/day) of Groups 1 and 2:</p> <p>701 ± 242 at 6 weeks</p> <p>652 ± 181 at 6 months</p> <p>Mean weekly UVB exposure:</p> <p>No sig diff between the 3 groups</p> <p>No adverse events documented</p>		
(Greer, Searcy and Levin 1981) ⁹⁷⁹	Breastfed infants born at term, healthy and of appropriate gestational age (38–40 weeks)	Study Question: What are the effects of supplemental vitamin D on bone mineralisation and serum 25-OHD levels?	Vitamin D supplementation 400 IU/day vs. placebo (vs a convenience sample of formula-fed infants)	<p>Bone mineral content (absolute results reported graphically)</p> <p>At 6 weeks</p> <p>Vitamin D supplement vs placebo (NS)</p> <p>Vitamin D supplement vs formula-fed (sig higher, $P < 0.03$)</p> <p>At 12 weeks</p> <p>Vitamin D supplement vs placebo (sig higher, $P < 0.003$)</p> <p>Vitamin D supplement vs formula-fed (NS)</p>	May not be applicable to UK populations and settings due to difference in regional latitude and food fortification policy	<p>Published in 1982</p> <p>Double blind (mothers and investigators) RCT</p> <p>Small sample size</p> <p>Data details reported graphically</p> <p>Accuracy of BMC scanning</p>
Ohio (40.1° N), USA	18 infants					
RCT	vitamin D supplement ($n = 9$)					
Evidence level 1+	placebo ($n = 9$)	Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis of treatment and control groups				
	Additional comparison with a formula-fed control group ($n = 12$)					
Associated reference (Greer 1982)	No sig diff in their gestational age, birthweight or sunlight exposure between the 2 groups		Compliance estimated by regular enquiries of intake, record of refills, maintained by physicians who dispensed the supp and the placebo	<p>Serum 25-OHD (ng/ml)</p> <p>At 12 weeks</p> <p>Vitamin D supplement: 38</p> <p>placebo: 20 ($P < 0.003$)</p> <p>No signs of clinical rickets</p> <p>Mean maternal vitamin D intakes by dietary recall were similar in the two groups during the study (561 IU/day).</p> <p>Maternal sunshine exposure did not differ in the two groups.</p> <p>Estimated compliance: 85%</p>		
	16 infants born in summer (2 in November)					
	17 Caucasian (1 Asian-Indian)					
	For bone mineral content: Additional control group: term, healthy, exclusively formula-fed infants					

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(Greer <i>et al.</i> 1982) ⁹⁶⁰ Ohio (40.1° N), USA RCT Evidence level: 1+ Associated reference (Greer 1981)	Breastfed infants born at term, healthy and of appropriate gestational age (38–40 weeks) 13 infants vitamin D supplement (<i>n</i> = 6) placebo (<i>n</i> = 7) No sig diff in the gestational age, birthweight or sunlight exposure between the 2 groups At 6 months, the study was unblinded to the mothers of the infants and all infants were allowed solid foods and the placebo group was given daily vitamin D supplement of 400 IU	Study Question: What are the effects of supplemental vitamin D on bone mineralisation and serum 25-OHD levels? A follow-up study at 1 year Statistical Analysis: Comparative analysis between treatment and control groups	Vitamin D supplementation 400 IU/day vs. placebo	Bone mineral content At 26 weeks Vitamin D supp group (<i>n</i> = 6) vs placebo group (<i>n</i> = 7) (NS) Serum 25-OHD concentrations (ng/ml) At 26 weeks Vitamin D supp: 32.7 placebo: 12.9 At 52 weeks Vitamin D supp vs placebo (NS) None of the infants had clinical signs of rickets No adverse events documented	May not be applicable to UK populations and settings (latitude variation) and food fortification policy	Published in 1982 Small sample size Data details reported graphically

Interventions to promote uptake of vitamin D supplements

Authors Year Country Study Design Quality	Study Population	Research Question	Intervention	Main Results	Applicability to UK populations and settings	Confounders and Comments
(Box 1983) ⁹⁷¹	20 pregnant Asian women (Hindu, Muslim and Sikh)	What are the effects of health education and counselling on dietary vitamin D intake and serum 25-OHD levels?	Counselled by health visitor vs. Non-counselled	Mean reported dietary vitamin D intake (mg/day) At 2 months Counselled: 2.8 ± 1.2 Non-counselled: 2.0 ± 0.8 (NS)	Likely to be applicable and generalisable to UK populations depending on regional latitudes and exposure to sunlight	Quasi-RCT: women allocated by alternation at clinic Published in 1983
London (51.5° N), UK	No significant difference in vitamin D intake (2.3 to 2.5 mg/day) and serum 25-OHD (2.5 to 4.0 ng/ml, taken in January-February) between the two groups before intervention	Statistical Analysis Comparative analysis between a treatment and a control group	Counselling by health visitor at 6/8 weeks and at 2/4 months of pregnancy Components of the intervention: 1. Setting: antenatal clinic 2. Advice given: At first visit (6/8 weeks) Food sources rich in vitamin D Reinforce message with samples of food and proprietary brands Maximise exposure to sunlight Serum 25-OHD levels measured	At 4 months Counselled: 4.1 ± 1.5 Non-counselled: 2.7 ± 0.8 ($P < 0.05$)		Small sample Amount of sunlight exposure and body coverage as confounders
Quasi-RCT: women allocated by alternation Evidence level 1—	Counselled by health visitor ($n = 11$ [4 vegetarians]) Non-counselled ($n = 9$ [8 vegetarian women])		At second/third visit (2/4 months) Women questioned about understanding of advice previously given Advice reinforced Serum 25-OHD levels measured at third visit	Mean serum 25-OHD levels (ng/ml) At 4 months (May-June) Counselled: 5.1 ± 1.5 Non-counselled: 4.9 ± 0.8 (NS)		
			3. Strategy Women encouraged to bring their mothers-in-law to clinic, as the latter usually make decision about the family's diet Use of Hindu, Muslim and Sikh-speaking receptionists as interpreters	Difference between first and second sample Counselled: 0.07 ± 0.06 Non-counselled: 0.15 ± 0.07 ($P=0.02$)		

Clinical question: What is the minimum level of alcohol intake associated with fetal alcohol syndrome and other baby outcomes?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Gray, 2006	⁷⁰⁷	10 outcomes with low-to-moderate consumption of alcohol. A total of 11 separate studies examined the effect of binge drinking on the 10 outcomes above.	Determine whether an intake of up to six drinks a week was associated with more risk than total abstinence and whether binge drinking by low-to-moderate drinkers is associated with harm. They also aimed to evaluate a 'safe level'. Two definitions were used in the review:	Fetal effects of low-to-moderate prenatal alcohol exposure and binge drinking	<p>Miscarriage: A total of 8 studies looked at the effects of low-to-moderate alcohol consumption on miscarriage. 5 of these reported a significant effect: 2 had significant limitations, one had significant results among heavy smokers and the remaining 2 were of borderline statistical significance. The highest reported risk was a relative risk of 3.79 (95% CI 1.18 to 12.17) associated with consuming up to 10 units (equivalent to 6.7 drinks).</p> <p>Stillbirth: 5 studies examined stillbirth as the outcome and only one study reported significantly increased rates of stillbirth in babies of women who drank up to 25–60 g per week in pregnancy. Three studies reported higher rates of stillbirth in women who abstained but these were not statistically significant differences and were unadjusted for potential confounders.</p> <p>APH: One study included antepartum haemorrhage (APH) as an outcome and found no increase in risk of APH with low-to-moderate level of alcohol consumption.</p> <p>FGR: 7 studies examined intrauterine growth restriction as an outcome and only one study found a significant association but it was unadjusted for potential confounders. Three studies found low-to-moderate alcohol consumption to be mildly protective but, although of borderline statistical significance, two may have been subject to recall bias.</p> <p>Birthweight: 20 studies included birthweight as an outcome but only one reported a significant increase in the risk of low birthweight with consumption of < 0.1 oz alcohol per day (adjusted RR 3.20, 95% CI 1.87 to 5.46). However, at 0.1 – 0.25 oz per day, the RR was lower at 1.36 (95% CI 0.48 to 3.88). This result was inconsistent as higher levels were not associated with increased risk. It appeared that small amounts of alcohol exerted a mildly protective effect.</p> <p>Preterm birth: One out of a total of 16 studies that examined preterm birth as an outcome reported a significantly increased risk of preterm birth (RR of 2.11 and 2.15 in women consuming < 0.1 oz and 0.1–0.25 oz respectively of absolute alcohol per day at 7 months of gestation). This study suffered from residual confounding as it was unadjusted for socio-economic status.</p> <p>Malformation: None of the 6 studies that examined malformations as the outcome reported a significant association with low-to-moderate alcohol consumption although a trend in that direction was apparent in some studies.</p> <p>HC and birth length: A total of 5 studies looked at head circumference and birth length as the outcome and only one found a higher proportion of low birthweight babies among those whose mothers drank low-to-moderate amounts in pregnancy.</p>		Systematic review	2++

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>However, this study suffered from lack of adjustment for potential confounders. None of the other studies reported any differences at these levels of consumption.</p> <p>Postnatal growth: 2 studies that examined the association between alcohol exposure and postnatal growth differed in their results. One of these studies, which followed children up to age 14, found that children of women who drank small amounts in pregnancy were consistently lighter. However, the other study found that children of abstainers tended to be lighter. Neither of the results was significant.</p> <p>Neurodevelopmental outcome: 7 studies looked at neurodevelopmental outcomes; one was conducted at birth as compared to others that were later in childhood. 1 study found a poorer result in children of low-to-moderate drinkers, however this did not reach statistical significance and the analysis was not adjusted for potential confounders.</p> <p>Out of these 4 studies looked at neurodevelopmental outcomes and showed consistently poorer results in children exposed to binge drinking in pregnancy. The effects although quite small, included an increase in 'disinhibited behaviour', a reduction in verbal IQ and increase in delinquent behaviour, and more learning problems and poorer performance. The studies suffered from a possible overlap between binge drinkers who otherwise drink little and binge drinkers who generally drink substantial amounts. These studies represent the most consistent evidence suggesting that binge drinking in pregnancy may be associated with poor neurodevelopmental outcomes.</p>			
Mariscal, 2006	⁷⁰⁸	Cases ($n = 552$) were mothers delivering a single newborn weighing < 2500 g and controls ($n = 1451$) were selected randomly from all delivering women.	Influence of alcohol drinking during pregnancy. Personal interviews, clinical charts, and prenatal care records were used for obtaining information.	low birthweight	Alcohol consumption of less than 6 g/day decreased the risk for low birthweight (adjusted OR 0.64, 95% CI 0.46–0.88). A similar result was obtained for moderate drinkers (< 12 g/day) on weekends only. The opposite relationship was observed between alcohol consumption on weekdays of 12 g/day or greater (adjusted OR 2.67, 95% CI 1.39–5.12), not observed in those drinking on weekends only.	Alcohol consumption of 12 g/day or greater increased the risk for low birthweight, whereas lower consumption during weekends showed the opposite effect (mainly in nonsmokers).	case–control study	2+
Weatherhead, 2007	⁷⁰⁹	555 cases, women (mean age 31 years, range 16–43) who delivered SGA babies and 1966 controls, women (mean age 31 years, range 14–43) who gave birth at term ($> \text{or} = 37$ weeks of gestation) to healthy infants of normal weight at the hospitals where cases had been identified were included in the study.		Effect of alcohol intake on the risk of SGA birth, preterm or at term, and the potential interaction between alcohol consumption and risk factors for SGA birth	No increase in the risk of SGA birth observed in women drinking one or two drinks/day in pregnancy. The Odds ratios of 3 or more drink per day were 3.2 (1.7–6.2) for ≥ 3 drinks during the first trimester, 2.7 (1.4–5.3) during the second and 2.9 (1.5–5.7) during the third.	an increased risk of SGA births in mothers who drink ≥ 3 units/day of alcohol in pregnancy	case–control study	2+

8 Screening for haematological problems

8.3 Screening for haemoglobinopathies (sickle cell disease and thalassaemia)

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in identifying clinically significant thalassaemia and thalassaemia carrier status (trait): history; family origin, full blood count; Hb electrophoresis; ferritin; mean cell volume?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Rogers <i>et al.</i> , 1995	⁷¹⁴	Pregnant women Sample <i>n</i> = 857	Comparison of mean corpuscular volume (MCV) < 85 fl vs mean corpuscular haemoglobin < 27 pg as cut-off points for thalassaemia screening.	β thalassaemia status	Of 857 women, 606 had both an MCV < 85 fl and an MCH < 27 pg. 56 of these women (6.5%) were β thalassaemia carriers. At a cut-off of MCH < 27 pg would have identified all cases of β thalassaemia carrier status (trait).	UK study	Diagnostic case-control study	III
Bain, 1988	⁷¹⁵	Pregnant women Sample <i>n</i> = 696	Comparison of mean corpuscular volume < 83 fl vs mean corpuscular haemoglobin (MCH) < 27.1 pg as cut-off points for thalassaemia screening.	β thalassaemia status	Of 696 women with an MCV at booking of less than 83 fl. 96 (13.8%) were found to have abnormal haemoglobin. In the other 600 women a HbA ₂ estimation indicated a further 56 women with β thalassaemia carrier status (trait) (8% of total group screened). All MCH values for women with β thalassaemia carrier status (trait) fell below the cut-off point of 27.1 pg.	UK study	Case series	III
Sirichotiyakul, 2005	⁷¹⁶	Pregnant women Sample <i>n</i> = 439	Diagnostic accuracy of mean corpuscular volume < 80 fl as cut-off point for thalassaemia screening.	α thalassaemia-1 and β thalassaemia status	Sensitivity 92.9% (39/42) [95% CI 83.7 to 96.4%]. Specificity 83.9% (333/397) [95% CI 80.8 to 87.6%]. Positive predictive value 37.9% (39/103) [95% CI 33.8 to 42.7%]. Negative predictive value 99.1% (333/336) [95% CI 98.2 to 99.9%].	Thailand	Diagnostic accuracy	III
Ghosh <i>et al.</i> , 1985	⁷¹⁷	Pregnant women at gestation < 24 weeks. Sample <i>n</i> = 299	Diagnostic value of mean corpuscular volume followed by HbA ₂ estimation compared with that of mean corpuscular volume plus ferritin and haemoglobin level followed by HbA ₂ estimation. HbA ₂ > 4.5% was taken to be diagnostic of β thalassaemia carrier status (trait). 8 ng/ml was taken as the lower limit for a	α thalassaemia-1 and β thalassaemia status	18 women (6%) had HbA ₂ levels > 4.5% and were diagnosed to be carrying β thalassaemia. All of these 18 women had an MCV < 75 fl (in 15 the MCV was < 70 fl). 49 women had an MCV < 80 fl, of these women 18 had low ferritin levels (< 8 ng/ml). 2 of these women had HbA ₂ levels over 4.5% and were diagnosed to be carrying β thalassaemia with iron deficiency.	Hong Kong	Diagnostic case-control study	III

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			normal ferritin level. Mean corpuscular volume cut-off point was 80 fl.		<p>37 women were found to have Hb levels < 10 g/100 ml. They included 9 β thalassaemia carriers, 19 women with iron deficiency and 9 presumed α thalassaemia carriers.</p> <p>At a cut-off level MCV < 80 fl all β thalassaemia carriers were detected; false positive rate 63%.</p> <p>At a cut-off level of MCV 75 fl the detection rate remained 100%; false positive rate 47%.</p> <p>At a cut-off of 70 fl the specificity of the test increased to 97% with a sensitivity of 83% and false negative rate of 16%.</p> <p>The study was repeated with a larger sample ($n = 1166$), with similar findings. 61 β thalassaemia carriers were identified (5.2%), all with an MCV < 75 fl.</p>			
Name	718	Pregnant women at booking Sample $n = 5834$	Diagnostic value of mean corpuscular volume ≤ 75 fl as cut-off point for thalassaemia screening.	Thalassaemia status	At a cut-off of MCV < 75 fl 1859 thalassaemia carriers were identified, plus 57 women carrying other haemoglobin variants (86% of those identified by screening test). The number of false positives was 313/2229 (14%).	Hong Kong	Descriptive study (large case-series)	III
Name	719	Pregnant women at booking Sample $n = 3696$	Diagnostic value of mean corpuscular volume ≤ 80 fl as cut-off point for thalassaemia screening.	Thalassaemia status	A cut-off of MCV < 80 fl identified 494/3696 (13.4%) women. Of these women, 56 (11.3%) and 23 (4.7%) were confirmed to be carrying thalassaemia and HbE respectively, giving a false positive rate of 84%.	Singapore	Descriptive study (large case-series)	III
Modell <i>et al.</i> , 2001	720	Women pregnant with a baby affected by β thalassaemia major Sample $n = 136$ records	Women's care regarding screening for β thalassaemia assessed against a minimum standard.	(a) Risk identification and offer of prenatal diagnosis before 23 weeks of a first pregnancy. (b) Offer of prenatal diagnosis in the first trimester in subsequent pregnancies.	50% of at-risk couples were identified and informed of their risk in time for an offer of prenatal diagnosis in the first pregnancy. Risk was identified too late in 11% of pregnancies and not at all in 38% pregnancies. 28% of couples discovered their risk through diagnosis of an affected child.	UK	Retrospective audit	3Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2006	721	Pregnant Pakistani women Sample $n = 43$	Exploration of Pakistani women's views.	Pakistani women's views towards antenatal diagnosis for thalassaemia and termination of pregnancy for β thalassaemia major.	Most women would opt for diagnosis because they would want 'to know', not because they would consider termination of pregnancy. Women's attitudes towards termination of pregnancy for an affected baby did not seem to relate to the woman's carrier status and were influenced by, but not solely dependant upon,	UK	Qualitative interview study	3

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					their religious viewpoint (all women were Muslim). Women's responses suggested that the more severe the perception of thalassaemia major, the more likely the woman was to be in favour of antenatal diagnosis and termination of pregnancy. Some women also expressed the view that termination of pregnancy was only acceptable early in pregnancy.			
Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁷²²	Pregnant Pakistani women Sample <i>n</i> = 146: 110 women who were not carriers for thalassaemia plus 36 women identified as carriers.	Exploration of Pakistani women's attitudes to issues surrounding antenatal thalassaemia carrier status testing.	Pakistani women's attitudes towards informed consent for carrier status testing and perceived pre-test information needs.	113/146 women (77.4%) had not been told about thalassaemia carrier testing, and 97 of these (85.8%) said they would have wanted to have been told before the screening was carried out. Some women mentioned the increased anxiety associated with receiving information prior to screening, most saw this as inevitable part of being pregnant. Women who went on to discover they were thalassaemia carriers felt that prior information would have helped them prepare for this news. Women expressed a desire to know about the condition itself, when the results would be available, the meaning of positive and negative results and possible action following a positive result. This was not universal however, and carrier status affected women's responses with non-carriers being less likely to say they wanted detailed pre-screening information	UK	Qualitative study – 3 questionnaires and interviews.	

Women's views and experiences of thalassaemia screening in pregnancy

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Modell <i>et al.</i> , 2001	⁷²⁰	Women pregnant with a baby affected by β thalassaemia major Sample $n = 136$ records	Women's care regarding screening for β thalassaemia assessed against a minimum standard.	(a) Risk identification and offer of prenatal diagnosis before 23 weeks of a first pregnancy. (b) Offer of prenatal diagnosis in the first trimester in subsequent pregnancies.	50% of at-risk couples were identified and informed of their risk in time for an offer of prenatal diagnosis in the first pregnancy. Risk was identified too late in 11% of pregnancies and not at all in 38% pregnancies. 28% of couples discovered their risk through diagnosis of an affected child.	UK	Retrospective audit	3 Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2006	⁷²¹	Pregnant Pakistani women Sample $n = 43$	Exploration of Pakistani women's views.	Pakistani women's views towards antenatal diagnosis for thalassaemia and termination of pregnancy for β thalassaemia major.	Most women would opt for diagnosis because they would want 'to know', not because they would consider termination of pregnancy. Women's attitudes towards termination of pregnancy for an affected baby did not seem to relate to the woman's carrier status and were influenced by, but not solely dependant upon, their religious viewpoint (all women were Muslim). Women's responses suggested that the more severe the perception of thalassaemia major, the more likely the woman was to be in favour of antenatal diagnosis and termination of pregnancy. Some women also expressed the view that termination of pregnancy was only acceptable early in pregnancy.	UK	Qualitative interview study	3
Ahmed <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁷²²	Pregnant Pakistani women Sample $n = 146$: 110 women who were not carriers for thalassaemia plus 36 women identified as carriers.	Exploration of Pakistani women's attitudes to issues surrounding antenatal thalassaemia carrier status testing.	Pakistani women's attitudes towards informed consent for carrier status testing and perceived pre-test information needs.	113/146 women (77.4%) had not been told about thalassaemia carrier testing, and 97 of these (85.8%) said they would have wanted to have been told before the screening was carried out. Some women mentioned the increased anxiety associated with receiving information prior to screening, most saw this as inevitable part of being pregnant. Women who went on to discover they were thalassaemia carriers felt that prior information would have helped them prepare for this news. Women expressed a desire to know about the condition itself, when the results would be available, the meaning of positive and negative results and possible action following a positive result. This was not universal however, and carrier status affected women's responses with non-carriers being less likely to say they wanted detailed pre-screening information	UK	Qualitative study – questionnaires and interviews.	3

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in identifying clinically important genotypes of sickle cell disease and sickle cell carrier status (trait) including: history taking; family origin; full blood count: Hb electrophoresis; ferritin; mean cell volume; high performance liquid chromatography; sickle solubility testing (Sicklelex)?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Chasen <i>et al.</i> , 1999	⁷¹¹	Pregnant women Sample <i>n</i> = 631	Diagnostic accuracy of Hb electrophoresis with selective use of Hb electrophoresis following sickle cell solubility testing and investigation of red blood cell indices.	Sickle cell disease	Sensitivity 88.9% (32/36) and specificity 79.4% (473/595) for the selective screening model. Positive predictive value = 20.8% Negative predictive value = 99.2%.	USA	Diagnostic accuracy	III

Women's views and experiences of antenatal screening for sickle cell disease/trait

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Durosinmi <i>et al.</i> , 1997	⁷²³	Well-educated, city-dwelling Nigerians, aged 15–50 years. Sample <i>n</i> = 433 (<i>n</i> = 204 males)	Investigation of views of antenatal diagnosis.	Acceptability of antenatal diagnosis of sickle cell disease.	78% of respondents felt antenatal sickle cell diagnosis should be available. 45% reported that they would decide to terminate a baby affected with sickle cell disease. Cross-tabulations showed that neither religion nor educational level significantly affected a person's decision whether or not to terminate an affected pregnancy.	Nigeria	Interview-based descriptive study.	3

Joint screening for sickle cell disease and thalassaemia

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Dyson <i>et al.</i> , 2006	⁷²⁴	Pregnant women at booking Sample <i>n</i> = 4559	Comparison of 2 family origins screening questions: Question A: classification question plus a 'tick all that apply' subsidiary section to record mixed heritage. Question B: 2 parts. Part One: binary question to identify women with ancestors outside the British Isles. Part Two: 5 free text boxes for addition of information regarding ancestry.	Test-retest reliability and proportion of carriers missed.	Question A: 3.2% cases were missing or uninterpretable. Question B: 4.7% cases were missing or uninterpretable. Test-retest error rate for reliability: Question A 4.3% vs Question B 9.5% (CI -8.5% to -1.8%; <i>P</i> = 0.003). Carriers of clinically relevant haemoglobinopathies missed: Question A 7/122 (5.74%). Question B 10/103 (9.7%) (<i>P</i> = 0.026 using a χ^2 test (χ^2 value not reported)).	UK	RCT	1+
Greengross <i>et al.</i> , 1999	⁷²⁵	All women found to be positive for haemoglobinopathy carrier state or disease at universal testing in one tertiary hospital from 1986 to 1995. Sample <i>n</i> = 1444 women referred in 1688 pregnancies	Comparison of unselected laboratory-based antenatal screening for sickle cell trait with antenatal unselected laboratory-based screening for thalassaemia trait.	Gestation at booking Attendance for counselling Partner attendance at counselling Take-up of antenatal diagnosis Take-up of partner testing	Women found to be carrying sickle cell disease booked 2.7 weeks [95% CI 0.14 to 5.1] later in pregnancy than women who were carrying thalassaemia. Women carrying sickle cell disease less likely to choose to receive counselling (83% vs 93%, RR 0.89 [95% CI 0.85 to 0.94]); their partners were less likely to be tested (77% vs 95%, RR 0.81 [95% CI 0.77 to 0.83]); and they were less likely to choose prenatal diagnosis (22% vs 90%, RR 0.37 [95% CI 0.24 to 0.57]) compared with women carrying thalassaemia. Of the tertiary referrals over 99% of women attended counselling and had their partners tested. There was no difference in acceptance of prenatal diagnosis between those at risk of sickle cell disease and those at risk of thalassaemia.	UK	Retrospective descriptive study	3
Thomas <i>et al.</i> , 2005	⁷²⁶	Pregnant women at first screening for haemoglobinopathy Sample total <i>n</i> = 648: <i>n</i> = 241 women from 6 general practices <i>n</i> = 276 from 2 hospital antenatal booking clinics <i>n</i> = 131 women from community midwife clinics	Evaluation of screening for sickle cell and thalassaemia in early pregnancy in UK general practice	Gestation at screening Stakeholder views of screening system and its implementation	General practices that already had a screening system in place were able to screen a high proportion of women (63% – 86%). However, 3 practices without an existing system only managed to screen between 3% and 26% of women. Women who were screened in general practices were screened at an earlier gestation than those screened at their first hospital booking visit (4.05 weeks [95% CI 3.41 to 4.68], <i>P</i> < 0.001) or at midwifery clinics (2.9 weeks [95% CI 2.1 to 3.7], <i>P</i> < 0.001).	UK	Participatory action research	3

9 Screening for fetal anomalies

9.1 Screening for structural anomalies

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in identifying serious structural anomalies?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Chitty 1991 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1988–1989 UK (Luton), District general hospital Unselected <i>n</i> = 8785 (Multiple pregnancies not mentioned)	US done by Radiographers Number of scans not mentioned Scanned at 18– 20 weeks Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Prevalence of anomalous fetuses: 1.50% (130 fetuses) but anomalies not reported. Sensitivity: 71.5% Specificity: 99.98% LR+ 3095.83 LR- 0.44	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Shirley 1991 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1989–1990 UK (Hillingdon), District general hospital Unselected <i>n</i> = 6412 (73 multiple pregnancies)	By Radiographers Number of scans not mentioned Scanned at 19 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 1.40% (89 fetuses), but anomalies not reported False-positive: 1 Sensitivity: 57.3% Specificity: 99.97%	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Levi 1991 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1984–1989 Belgium (Brussels) 5 hospitals Unselected <i>n</i> = 15 654 (? 240 multiple pregnancies)	By obstetricians, technicians and sonographers Scanned at first trimester, 16–20 weeks and third trimester Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and > 24 weeks taking only those defects exposed to scan at 12–24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 2.30% (381 fetuses) and Anomalies: 2.66% (417 anomalies) <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 21.0% Specificity: 100.00% <u>At > 24 weeks</u>	Study reported in systematic review	Prospective	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: (37.2%) Specificity: ? <u>Overall detection</u> False-positive: 8 Sensitivity: 40.4% Specificity: 99.94%			
Luck 1992 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1988–1991 UK (Ascot), District general hospital Unselected <i>n</i> = 8844	By radiographers Scanned at 12– 14 weeks and 19 weeks Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks with results based on number of anomalies	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: Not reported Anomalies: 1.90% (164 anomalies) False-positive: 3 Sensitivity: 85.3% Specificity: 99.90%	Study reported in systematic review	Prospective	II
Crane 1994 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1987–1991 USA (RADIUS) Low-risk primary plus 28 laboratories <i>n</i> = 7575 (Multiple pregnancies not mentioned)	By technicians, physicians, sonologists and radiologists Scanned at 15– 22 weeks and 31– 35 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and > 24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 2.30% (187 fetuses) and Anomalies: (232 anomalies) <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 16.6% Specificity: 99.90% <u>At > 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 18.2% Specificity: ? <u>Overall detection</u> False-positive: 7 Sensitivity: 34.8% Specificity: 99.90%	Study reported in systematic review	RCT	II
Levi 1995 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1990–1992 Belgium (Brussels) 5 hospitals Unselected <i>n</i> = 9601 (? 209 multiple pregnancies)	By obstetricians, technicians, sonographers Scanned at first trimester, 16–20 weeks, and third trimester Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and > 24 weeks, with results based on number of anomalies given in brackets	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 2.45% (235 fetuses) and Anomalies: 2.81% (270 anomalies) <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: (25.6%) Specificity: Not reported <u>At > 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: (40.4%) Specificity: Not reported	Study reported in systematic review	Prospective	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<u>Overall detection</u> False-positive: 9 Sensitivity: 51.0% (65.9%) Specificity: 99.90%			
Skupski 1996 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1990–1994 USA (Texas) Tertiary hospital, single centre Low risk <i>n</i> = 860 (6 twins)	By experienced sonographers Scanned at 18–20 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 1.16% (20 fetuses) but Anomalies not reported False-positive: 1 Sensitivity: 15.0% Specificity: 99.80%	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Magriples 1998 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	? 18 months USA (Connecticut) Tertiary centre, single centre Low risk <i>n</i> = 911 (10 twins)	By sonographers Scanned at 16–19 weeks and third trimester Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 3.07% (28 fetuses), and Anomalies: 40 anomalies False-positive: 5 Sensitivity: 71.4% Specificity: 99.40%	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Lee 1998 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1990–1994 Korea Tertiary hospital, single centre Low risk <i>n</i> = 3004 (twins excluded)	By trained obstetric fellow Scanned at 18–20 weeks and 32–34 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and > 24 weeks with results based on number of anomalies given in brackets	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 0.76% (23 fetuses) and Anomalies: (37 anomalies) <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 13.5% (13.5%) Specificity: 100.00% <u>At > 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 21.7% (16.2%) Specificity: 100.00% <u>Overall detection</u> False-positive: 0 Sensitivity: 34.8% (29.7%) Specificity: 100.00%	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Van Dorsten 1998 Reported in:	297	1993–1996 USA (S.Carolina)	By registered diagnostic medical sonographers	Diagnostic test characteristics at	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 1.30% (21 fetuses), and Anomalies:	Study reported in systematic review	Prospective	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000		Mixed population from two sites Unselected <i>n</i> = 1611 (Twins excluded)	Scanned at 15–22 weeks Soft markers: no	< 24 weeks	(29 anomalies) False-positive: 1 Sensitivity: 47.6% Specificity: 99.90%			
Boyd 1998 Reported in: Bricker L et al, (HTA) 2000	297	1991–1996 UK (Oxford) Tertiary single centre Unselected <i>n</i> = 33 376 (Twins not specified)	Sonographers not mentioned Scanned at 18–22 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Prevalence of Anomalous fetuses: 2.17% (725 fetuses) but Anomalies not reported False-positive: 15 Sensitivity: 41.1% Specificity: 99.90%	Study reported in systematic review	Retrospective	II
Whitelow 1999	300, 743	Not known UK (London) Single university hospital Unselected <i>n</i> = 6443 (77 twins; 4 triplets)	Sonographers: 6 different clinicians Scanned at 11–14 weeks either transabdominally or transvaginally Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 15 weeks and < 24 weeks	Prevalence of anomalous fetuses: 1.4% (92 fetuses), but anomalies: not reported <u>At < 15 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 58.7% Specificity: 99.90% <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 81.0% Specificity: no data		Prospective	II
Eurenius 1999	727	1990–1992 Sweden (Uppsala) Tertiary hospital, single centre Unselected <i>n</i> = 8324 (111 twins, 3 triplets)	By trained midwife Scanned at 15–22 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Anomalous fetuses: 0.74% (145 fetuses) Anomalies: not reported False-positive: 20 Sensitivity: 22.1% Specificity: 99.80%		Prospective	II
Stefos 1999	728	1990–1996 Greece (Ioannina) Tertiary, single centre Unselected	By experienced obstetricians Scanned at 18–22 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Anomalous fetuses: 2.24% (162 fetuses) Anomalies: not reported		Prospective	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		<i>n</i> = 7326 (86 twins)			False-positive: 8 Sensitivity: 80.25% Specificity: 99.88%			
Taipale 2004	729	1994–1996 Finland (Helsinki) Tertiary hospital, single centre Low risk <i>n</i> = 4855 (multiples excluded)	By obstetrician and trained midwives Scanned at 13– 14 weeks transvaginally and 18–22 weeks transabdominally	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Anomalous fetuses: 0.7% (33 fetuses) Anomalies: not reported False-positive: 2 Sensitivity: 48.5% Specificity: 99.96%		Prospective	II
Nakling 2005	730	1989–1999 Norway (Oppland), District general hospitals Unselected <i>n</i> = 18 181 (? Multiples)	By trained midwives and obstetricians Scanned at 13– 24 weeks Soft markers: no	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks	Anomalous fetuses: 1.47% (267 fetuses), but Anomalies: not reported False-positive: 11 Sensitivity: 39.0% Specificity: 99.94%		Prospective	II
Souka 2006	731	2002 Greece (Athens) Unselected Tertiary, single hospital <i>n</i> = 1148 (? Multiples)	By obstetricians Scanned at 11– 14 weeks on Nuchal translucency measurement and at 22–24 weeks Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and overall detection rate	Anomalous fetuses: 1.21% (14 fetuses), but Anomalies: Not reported <u>At < 24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 85.7% <u>Overall detection</u> False-positive: 3 Sensitivity: 92.9% Specificity: 99.74%		Prospective	II
Nikkila 2006	732	1984–1999 Denmark (Malmohus) 5 hospitals Unselected <i>n</i> = 141 240	Sonographers not mentioned Scanned at 18 weeks, some had scan at 33 weeks, as well Soft markers: yes	Diagnostic test characteristics at < 24 weeks and overall detection rate	Anomalous fetuses: 2.56% (3614 fetuses) Anomalies: not reported <u>At < 24 weeks</u>		Retrospective	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>Sensitivity: 38.9%</p> <p>Specificity: Not obtained</p> <p><u>Overall</u></p> <p>False-positive: 265</p> <p>Sensitivity: 28.4%</p> <p>Specificity: 99.81%</p>			
Rustico 1995 Reported in Randall P et al, 2005	749	Italy Tertiary referral centre Low-risk women <i>n</i> = 7024 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 9.3 per 1000	20–22 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts 5/3.5 MHz Results confirmed by neonatal and paediatric examination, autopsy postnatally (neonatal echo and ECG, 24 month follow up)	Diagnostic accuracy results for cardiac defects – major, minor, and all defects. Results for non-structural defects or arrhythmias not reported	<p><u>Sensitivity</u></p> <p>Major defects: 84.6% [95% CI 54.6 to 98.1]</p> <p>Minor defects 23.1% [95% CI 12.5 to 36.8]</p> <p>All defects 35.4% [95% CI 23.9 to 48.2]</p> <p><u>Specificity</u></p> <p>Major defects: 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100]</p> <p>Minor defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100]</p> <p>All defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.8 to 99.9]</p>	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Anandakumar 2002 Reported in Randall P et al, 2005	749	Singapore Tertiary referral centre Unselected women <i>n</i> = 39 808 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 7.6 per 1000	21–22 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts, and Doppler colour-flow mapping if suspected 5/3.5MHz Results confirmed by neonatal examination (6 months follow up)	Diagnostic accuracy results for cardiac defects – major, minor, non-structural / arrhythmias and all defects.	<p><u>Sensitivity</u></p> <p>Major defects: 94.0% [95% CI 84.4 to 98.5]</p> <p>Minor defects 82.1% [95% CI 76.5 to 86.9]</p> <p>Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 95.2% [95% CI 76.2 to 99.9]</p> <p>All defects 85.4% [95% CI 80.9 to 89.2]</p> <p><u>Specificity</u></p> <p>Major defects: 100.0% [95% CI 99.9 to 100]</p> <p>Minor defects</p>	Reported in systematic review	Retrospective	

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 99.9] Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 99.9] All defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 99.9]			
Hafner 1998 Reported in Randall P et al, 2005	749	Austria District general hospital Low-risk women <i>n</i> = 6541 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 13.6 per 1000	22 and 34 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts, and Doppler colour-flow mapping if suspected Results confirmed by neonatal examination (neonatal echo)		<u>Sensitivity</u> Major defects: 87.5% [95% CI 65.1 to 97.9] Minor defects 32.4% [95% CI 21.5 to 44.8] Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 83.3% [95% CI 17.7 to 19.9] All defects 46.1% [95% CI 35.4 to 57.0] <u>Specificity</u> Major defects: 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] Minor defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] All defects 99.6% [95% CI 99.5 to 99.8]	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Achiron 1992 Reported in Randall P et al, 2005	749	Israel Tertiary referral centre Low-risk women <i>n</i> = 5347 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 4.3 per 1000	18–24 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts, and Doppler colour-flow mapping if suspected 5/3.5MHz Results confirmed by neonatal examination and autopsy (Neonatal echo)	Diagnostic accuracy results for cardiac defects – major, minor, non-structural / arrhythmias and all defects	<u>Sensitivity</u> Major defects: 83.3% [95% CI 55.6 to 97.1] Minor defects 50.0% [95% CI 11.8 to 88.2] Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 87.5% [95% CI 28.4 to 99.9] All defects 78.3% [95% CI 56.3 to 92.5] <u>Specificity</u> Major defects:	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] Minor defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] Non-structural defects/ arrhythmias 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100] All defects 99.9% [95% CI 99.9 to 100]			
Stumpflen 1996 Reported in Randall P et al, 2005	749	Austria Tertiary referral centre Low-risk women <i>n</i> = 2181 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 7.8 per 1000	18–28 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts and Doppler colour-flow mapping 3.5MHz Results confirmed by neonatal examination and autopsy (diagnostic investigations)	Diagnostic accuracy results for cardiac defects – major, minor, non-structural / arrhythmias and all defects Results for major, minor, and non-structural / arrhythmias not reported	<u>For All defects only</u> Sensitivity: 86.1% [95% CI 61.9 to 97.6] Specificity: 99.9% [95% CI 99.8 to 100]	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Buskens 1996	750	Netherlands Tertiary referral centre Low-risk women <i>n</i> = 5319 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 8.3 per 1000	16–24 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts 3.5Mhz Results confirmed by neonatal examination and autopsy (Neonatal echo)	Diagnostic accuracy results for all cardiac defects only. Diagnostic accuracy results reported for major and all cardiac defects only.	<u>Major defects</u> Sensitivity: 16.7% [95% CI 2.1 to 48.4] Specificity: Not reported <u>All defects</u> Sensitivity: 4.5% [95% CI 0.6 to 15.0] Specificity: 99.9% [95% CI 99.8 to 100]		Prospective	

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Tegnander 2006	751	Norway Tertiary referral centre Unselected women <i>n</i> = 29 460 Prevalence of congenital heart disease: 14.6 per 1000	16–22 weeks Four-chamber view plus outflow tracts for first 5 years, then four-chamber view plus outflow tract plus venous return for next 5 years 5/3.5Mhz Results confirmed by neonatal examination and autopsy (Neonatal echo)	Results reported for Sensitivities for major, minor and all cardiac defects only.	<u>Sensitivity</u> Major defects: 56.7% [95% CI 46.9 to 66.5] Minor defects 3.6% [95% CI 3.4 to 3.8] All defects 15.6% [95% CI 12.1 to 19.0]		Prospective	
Bilardo 1998 Reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754	<i>n</i> = 1590 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=50	US done at 10–14 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 3.0 mm or greater	Sensitivity: 50% Specificity: 97.2%	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Hafner 1998 Reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754	<i>n</i> = 4214 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=19	US done at 10–13 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 2.5 mm or greater	Sensitivity: 28.6% Specificity: 98.6%	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Josefsson 1998 Reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754	<i>n</i> = 1460 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=0	US done at gestational age of CRL 31–84 mm	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 2.5 mm or greater, and 3.5 mm or greater	<u>NT > 2.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 38.5% Specificity: 91.1% <u>NT > 3.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 0% Specificity: 99.6%	Reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Hyett 1999 Also reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754,763	<i>n</i> = 29 154 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=323	US done at 10–14 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for two thresholds – NT greater than 95th centile or greater than 3.5 mm	<u>NT > 95th centile</u> Sensitivity: 56.0% Specificity: 93.8% <u>NT > 3.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 40.0% Specificity: 99.0%	Also reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Schwarzler 1999 Also reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754,764	<i>n</i> = 4474 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=23	US done at 10–14 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 2.5 mm or greater	Sensitivity: 11.1% Specificity: 97.3%	Also reported in systematic review	Prospective	

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Michailidis 2001 Also reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754,765	<i>n</i> = 6606 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=44	US done at 12–13 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for two thresholds – NT greater than 95th centile or greater than 99th centile	<u>NT > 95th centile</u> Sensitivity: 36.4% Specificity: 96.5% <u>NT > 99th centile</u> Sensitivity: 27.3% Specificity: 98.9%	Also reported in systematic review	Retrospective	
Marides 2001 Also reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754,766	<i>n</i> = 7339 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities, not defined	US done at 10–14 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 2.5 mm or greater, and 3.5 mm or greater	<u>NT > 2.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 15.4% Specificity: 96.5% <u>NT > 3.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 11.5% Specificity: 99.2%	Also reported in systematic review	Prospective	
Orvos 2002 Reported in Makrydimas, 2003	754	<i>n</i> = 3655 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=15	US done at 10–13 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for NT threshold of 3.0 mm or greater	Sensitivity: 51.4% Specificity: 97.7%		Retrospective	
Atzei 2005	756	<i>n</i> = 6921 Chromosomal abnormalities excluded (no number obtained)	US done at 11–13 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for four thresholds – NT greater than 95th centile, 3.5 mm or greater, 4.5 mm or greater, and 5.5 mm or greater.	<u>NT > 95th centile</u> Sensitivity: 79.5% Specificity: 50.9% <u>NT > 3.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 48.5.0% Specificity: 85.1% <u>NT > 4.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 31.1% Specificity: 94.4% <u>NT > 5.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 21.2% Specificity: 97.2%		Prospective	
Bahado-Singh 2005	755	<i>n</i> = 8167 Excluded chromosomal	US done at 10–13 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for three thresholds	<u>NT > 2.0 mm</u> Sensitivity: 38.1%		Retrospective	

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		abnormalities=101		– NT equal to or greater than 2.0 mm, 2.5 mm, and 3.5 mm	Specificity: 82.8% <u>NT > 2.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 14.3% Specificity: 95.4% <u>NT > 3.5 mm</u> Sensitivity: 4.8% Specificity: 99.5%			
Westin 2006	757	<i>n</i> = 16 383 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=80	US done at 12–14 weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for three thresholds – NT greater than 95th centile, 3.0 mm or greater, and 3.5 mm or greater	<u>NT > 2.0 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 15.4% Specificity: 98.4% <u>NT > 2.5 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 13.5% Specificity: 99.4% <u>NT > 3.0 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 9.6% Specificity: 99.7%		Retrospective	
Simpson 2007	758	<i>n</i> = 34 266 Excluded chromosomal abnormalities=104	US done at 10 ^{3/7} to 13 ^{6/7} weeks	Diagnostic accuracy results for three thresholds – NT value 2.0 MoM (98.3rd centile) or greater, 2.5 MoM (99.4TH centile) or greater, and 3.0 MoM (99.7TH centile) or greater	<u>NT > 2.0 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 15.4% Specificity: 98.4% <u>NT > 2.5 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 13.5% Specificity: 99.4% <u>NT > 3.0 MoM</u> Sensitivity: 9.6% Specificity: 99.7%		Retrospective	

9.2 Screening for Down's syndrome

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in identifying babies with Down's Syndrome: blood tests; nuchal translucency; maternal age; ultrasound – soft markers (choroid plexus cyst, thickened nuchal fold, echogenic echocardiatic focus, echogenic bowel, renal pylectasis, humeral and femoral shortening); ultrasound – nasal bone. Different timings include: first trimester; second trimester; integrated. First-trimester screening for Down's syndrome and other chromosomal anomalies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Nicolaides <i>et al.</i> , 2005	768	1998 – 2003 6 hospitals, 1 fetal medicine unit UK Sample size 75 821 (96.7% of study population) Unselected (booked for maternity care) Maternal age: Median – 31 (Range 13 to 49) Exclusions: adequately described	Combined (NT + β -HCG + PAPP-A) Validated reference standard: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records) Risk cut-off ≥ 1 in 300 for all	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 325 (0.43) T 18/13 122 (0.16) Others 97 (0.13) Estimated Detection Rate for FPR 5.2% DS 92.6 T 18/13 88.5 Others 85.6		Cohort study	Ib
Wapner <i>et al.</i> , 2003	769	Unspecified period. 12 prenatal diagnostic centres USA Sample size 8216 (93.2% of study population) Selected (12 diagnostic centres)(small sample) Maternal age: Mean – 34.5 (SD 4.6) Exclusions: adequately described	Combined Validated reference standard: Yes (karyotype – pre/postnatal, pregnancy records) Risk cut-off 1 : 270 for DS, 1 : 150 for T 18	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 61 (0.74) T 18 11 (0.13) Observed Detection Rate and FPR (with 95% CI) DS 85.2 (73.8 to 93.0) with FPR 9.4% (8.8 to 10.1) T 18 90.9 (58.7 to 99.8) with FPR 2% (1.7 to 2.3)		Cohort study	II
Stenhouse <i>et al.</i> , 2004	770	3 years ANC clinic of 1 hospital UK Sample size 5000 (98.3 %of study population) Selected (75% screening uptake, 27% ≥ 35 years) Maternal age: Median 31.5 (Range 14 to 45) Exclusions: adequately described	Combined Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records) Risk cut-off ≥ 1 : 250 for all	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 15 (0.3) All 26 (0.52) Observed Detection Rate DS 93 at FPR 5.9% All 96 at FPR 6.3%		Cohort study	II
Malone <i>et al.</i> , 2005	771	8 months 15 specialist centres USA	Fetal nasal bone (NB)	Diagnostic test	Number of cases (prevalence in		Cohort study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Sample size 6228 (98.5% of study population) Selected (small sample) Maternal age: Mean 30.1 SD 5.7 Range 16 to 47 Exclusions: adequately described	Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	characteristics	<p>Observed detection rate and FPR (with 95% CI)</p> <p>DS 11 (0.18)</p> <p>T 18 2 (0.03)</p> <p>All 13 (0.21)</p> <p>Observed detection rate and FPR (with 95% CI)</p> <p>DS 0 (no case detected)</p> <p>All 7.7 (0.2 to 36) with FPR 0.3 (0.2 to 0.5)</p>			
Cicero <i>et al.</i> , 2006	772	2001 to 2004 1 fetal medicine unit UK 20 418 (96.9% of study population) Selected (Single Centre) Maternal age: 35 Range 18 to 50 Exclusions: adequately described	Combined ± NB Validated reference: Yes (karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	<p>Number of cases (prevalence in %)</p> <p>DS 140 (0.68)</p> <p>T 18 40 (0.13)</p> <p>Others 73 (0.36)</p> <p>Estimated detection rate FOR DS CASES ONLY</p> <p>Combined 90 with 5% FPR</p> <p>Combined + NB 93.6 with 5% FPR</p>		Cohort study	II
Prefumo <i>et al.</i> , 2006	773	2001 to 2003 1 fetal medicine unit UK 7626 (100% of study population) Selected 6.7% Unselected 93.3% (Routine ANC and referrals) Maternal age: Median 31.6 Range 14.5 to 50.2 Exclusions: adequately described	Fetal Nasal Bone (NB) Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	<p>Number of cases (prevalence in %)</p> <p>DS 35 (0.5)</p> <p>Selected 23 (4.5)</p> <p>Unselected 12 (0.2)</p> <p>All 64 (0.8)</p> <p>Observed performance (with 95% CI) FOR DS CASES ONLY</p> <p>Selected</p> <p>Sensit. 47.6 (25.7 – 70.2)</p> <p>Specif. 95.3 (92.9 – 97.1)</p> <p>PPV 33.3 (17.3 – 52.8)</p> <p>NPV 97.4 (95.3 – 98.7)</p> <p>Unselected</p> <p>Sensit. 16.7 (2.1 – 48.4)</p>		Cohort study	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Specif. 97.3 (96.9 – 97.7) PPV 1.1 (0.1 – 4.1) NPV 99.8 (99.7 – 99.9)			
Weingertner <i>et al.</i> , 2006	779	2002 to 2004 1 reference centre France 2044 (91.5% of study population) Selected – 33% Unselected 67% (Single reference centre) Maternal age: Median 32 Range 16 to 47 Exclusions: adequately described	NT ± NB Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (Prevalence in %) DS 30 (1.47) T 18 14 (0.68) Others 35 (1.71) i) Observed performance for DS Risk 1 : 250 (NT), ≤ 0.60 MoM (NB) NT NT + NB ST 88 (86–90) 100 FPR 23 (21–26) 5 (3–6) ii) Performance of only NB ST 32 FPR 10 LR+ 4.4 (2.0 – 9.4)		Cohort study	III
Ramos-Corpas <i>et al.</i> , 2006	774	2003 to 2004 1 fetal medicine unit Spain 1800 (45% of population) Selected (Single centre, only 45% participated) Maternal age: Mean 30.09, SD 5.37 Range 15 to 46 Exclusions: Not described	Fetal nasal bone (NB) Validated reference: Yes (karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 7 (0.39) Others 3 (0.17) Observed performance of NB for DS ST 33.3 (4.3 – 77.7) FPR 1.13 SP 98.9 (98.5 – 99.4) PPV 9.5 (1.2 – 30.4) NPV 99.7 (99.4 – 99.9)		Cohort study	III
Orlandi <i>et al.</i> , 2005	780	Unspecified period. 1 fetal medicine unit Italy 2411 (unspecified % of population) Selected (details not specified) Maternal age: 30.5 SD 4.115 Exclusions: Not described	Combined ± NB Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 15 (0.62) i) Observed performance of NB for DS ST 53.3 (26.6 – 78.7)		Cohort study	III

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL									
					SP 99.5 (99.3 – 99.8) PPV 47.1 (23.3 – 70.8) LR+ 142 (63 – 318) LR- 0.47 (0.27 – 0.80)												
					ii) Estimated performance (Risk 1 : 250) <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Comb.</th> <th>Comb. + NB</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>DR</td> <td>87</td> <td>90</td> </tr> <tr> <td>FPR</td> <td>4.3</td> <td>2.5</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Comb.	Comb. + NB	DR	87	90	FPR	4.3	2.5			
	Comb.	Comb. + NB															
DR	87	90															
FPR	4.3	2.5															
Kozlowski <i>et al.</i> , 2006	965	2002 to 2004 1 prenatal centre Germany 2973 (92.4 % of study population) Selected (single centre, 46% > 35 years) Maternal age: 34 Range 14 to 46 Exclusions: adequately described	Combined ± NB Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 18 (0.60) Others 22 (0.74)		Cohort study	III									
					Estimated performance for DS Risk cut-off 1 : 300 <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Comb.</th> <th>Comb. + NB</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>DR</td> <td>94.4</td> <td>77.8</td> </tr> <tr> <td>FPR</td> <td>5.5</td> <td>2.8</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>		Comb.	Comb. + NB	DR	94.4	77.8	FPR	5.5	2.8			
	Comb.	Comb. + NB															
DR	94.4	77.8															
FPR	5.5	2.8															
Zoppi <i>et al.</i> , 2003	776	2001 to 2002 1 prenatal diagnosis unit Italy 3503 (64.6% of study population) Selected (single study centre) Maternal age: Median 32 Range 15 to 48 Exclusions: adequately described	Fetal nasal bone (NB) Validated reference standard: Incomplete info. For 35% of study population	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 27 (0.77) Others 13 (0.37)		Cohort study	III									
					Observed performance of NB for DS DR 70 FPR ??												
Viora <i>et al.</i> , 2003	777	2001 to 2002 1 prenatal diagnosis unit Italy 1906 (unspecified % of study population) Selected (referred women) Maternal age: 32.2 Range 18 to 47 Exclusions: adequately described	Fetal Nasal Bone (NB) Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 10 (0.57) Others 9 (0.51)		Cohort study	III									
					Observed performance of NB for DS DR 60 FPR 1.4												

First-trimester screening for Down's syndrome only

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Rozenberg <i>et al.</i> , 2006	778	2001 to 2002 10 perinatal units France 14 380 (96.3% of study population) Unselected (in a health authority) Maternal age: Median 30.7 25th to 75th centile – 28 to 33.9 Exclusions: adequately described	Combined Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of DS cases (prevalence in %) 51 (0.34) Observed results (95% CI) Detection rate (%) 79.6 FPR (%) 2.7 Risk cut-off 1 : 250		Cohort study	II
Avgidou <i>et al.</i> , 2005	781	1999 – 2001 1 hospital, 1 fetal medicine unit UK 30 564 (95.8% of study population) Selected (48.5% ≥ 35 years) Maternal age: Median 34 Range 15 to 49 Exclusions: adequately described	Combined Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of DS cases (prevalence in %) 196 (0.64) Estimated results: Detection rate (%) 90.3 FPR (%) 5 (fixed) Risk cut-off 1 : 250		Cohort study	II
Crossley <i>et al.</i> , 2002	767	2 years 15 maternity units UK 17 229 (100% of study population) Unselected (for routine ANC care) Maternal age: Median 29.9 Range 15 to 49 Exclusions: not applicable (100% follow up)	Combined Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of DS cases (prevalence in %) 45 (0.57) Observed results: Detection rate (%) 82 (65 – 93) with 34 cases FPR (%) 5 Risk cut-off 1 : 250		Cohort study	II

Second-trimester screening for Down's syndrome and other chromosomal anomalies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Jaques, 2006	782	1998 – 2000 3 databases Australia 19 143 (99.2% of study population) Sample size for analysis of Down's and T 18 – 16 607 (86.7%) Sample size for analysis of Neural tube defects – 17 288 (90.3%) Maternal age: Mean 30.3 (range 14–51) 20.1% > 35 years	Quadruple test	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 27 (0.16) T 18 8 (0.05) NTD 14 (0.08) Observed results: For DS Quadruple test (Risk ≥ 1 : 250) DR 85 (72 – 99) FPR 6.8 PPV 2		Cohort study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Quadruple test (FPR fixed at 5%) DR 78 FPR 5.0 PPV 2.5 For T 18 Quadruple test (Risk $\geq 1 : 200$) DR 44 (12 – 77) FPR 0.5 PPV 4.7 For NTD (AFP ≥ 2.5 MoM) All NTD DR 73 FPR 1.1 PPV 5.6 Spina bifida DR 50 FPR 1.1 PPV 2.1 Anencephaly DR 100 FPR 1.1 PPV 3.1			

Second-trimester screening for Down's only

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Smith-Bindman, 2001	315	56 english language studies taken from MEDLINE 1980 – 1999 132 295 Exclusion criteria well defined	Ultrasound (US) Validated reference Yes (karyotyping in 53 of the 56 studies)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of DS cases (prevalence in %) 1930 (1.5)		Meta-analysis	II
					Results: Summary measures (with 95% CI) for US markers when seen individually			
					Thickened Nuchal fold			
					ST 0.04 (0.02 – 0.01)			
					SP 0.99 (0.99 – 0.99)			
					LR+ 17 (8 – 38)			
					LR- 0.97 (0.94 – 1.00)			
					Fetal loss per case 0.6			
					Choroid plexus cyst			
					ST 0.01 (0 – 0.03)			
					SP 0.99 (0.97 – 1.00)			
					LR+ 1.00 (0.12 – 9.4)			
					LR- 1.00 (0.97 – 1.00)			
					Fetal loss per case 4.3			
					Femur length			
					ST 0.16 (0.05 – 0.40)			
					SP 0.96 (0.94 – 0.98)			
					LR+ 2.7 (1.2 – 6.0)			
					LR- 0.87 (0.67 – 1.1)			
					Fetal loss per case 1.2			
					Humerus length			
					ST 0.09 (0 – 0.60)			
					SP 0.97 (0.91 – 0.99)			
					LR+ 7.5 (4.7 – 12)			
					LR- 0.87 (0.67 – 1.1)			
					Fetal loss per case 1.9			

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>Echogenic bowel</p> <p>ST 0.04 (0.01 – 0.24)</p> <p>SP 0.99 (0.97 – 1.00)</p> <p>LR+ 6.1 (3.0 – 12.6)</p> <p>LR- 1.00 (0.98 – 1.00)</p> <p>Fetal loss per case 1.0</p> <p>Echogenic intracardiac focus</p> <p>ST 0.11 (0.06 – 0.18)</p> <p>SP 0.96 (0.94 – 0.97)</p> <p>LR+ 2.8 (1.5 – 5.5)</p> <p>LR- 0.95 (0.89 – 1.00)</p> <p>Fetal loss per case 2.0</p> <p>Renal pyelectasis</p> <p>ST 0.02 (0.01 – 0.06)</p> <p>SP 0.99 (0.98 – 1.00)</p> <p>LR+ 1.9 (0.7 – 5.1)</p> <p>LR- 1.00 (1.00 – 1.00)</p> <p>Fetal loss per case 2.6</p>			
Conde-Agudelo, 1998	320	<p>20 cohort studies taken from MEDLINE search from 1966 – November 1996 (English, French or German language)</p> <p>194 326</p> <p>Maternal age: Mean varied between 24.5 and 33.5</p> <p>Inclusion and exclusion criteria well defined</p>	<p>Triple marker screen for DS</p> <p>Validated reference: – 4 studies obtained fetal karyotypes. In other studies CVS or amniocentesis was offered to screen-positive women. Proportion of women accepting prenatal diagnostic testing ranged from 67 to 92.</p> <p>Follow-up information on pregnancy outcome incomplete in 8 studies</p>	Diagnostic test characteristics	<p>Results</p> <p>Cut-offs 1 : 190 – 200</p> <p>Maternal age (MA) \geq 35 years</p> <p>ST (Range) 89 (78 – 100)</p> <p>FPR (Range) 25 (20 – 29)</p> <p>All ages</p> <p>ST 67 (48 – 91)</p> <p>FPR 4 (3 – 7)</p> <p>Cut-offs 1 : 250 – 295</p> <p>MA \geq 35</p> <p>ST 80 (75 – 100)</p> <p>FPR 21 (20 – 21)</p> <p>MA < 35</p> <p>ST 57 (53 – 58)</p> <p>FPR 4 (3 – 6)</p> <p>All ages</p> <p>ST 71 (48 – 80)</p> <p>FPR 6 (4 – 7)</p>		Meta-analysis	III

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>Cut-offs 1 : 350 – 380</p> <p>All ages</p> <p>ST 73 (70 – 80)</p> <p>FPR 8 (7 – 13)</p>			
Sotiriadis, 2003	783	<p>11 studies taken from MEDLINE and EMBASE between 1985 to August 2002 (English, French and German language)</p> <p>51 831</p> <p>Maternal age: Mean ranged between 29 – 35 years</p>	Intracardiac echogenic foci	Diagnostic test characteristics	<p>Data included 51 831 fetuses with 333 Down's syndrome cases ('combined': 27 360 with 321 Down's syndrome cases, 'isolated' – 39 360 with 130 Down's syndrome cases).</p> <p>Results:</p> <p>Random effects model (REM)</p> <p>'Combined Setting'</p> <p>ST 0.26 (0.19 – 0.35)</p> <p>SP 0.963 (0.937 – 0.979)</p> <p>'Isolated setting'</p> <p>ST 0.22 (0.14 – 0.33)</p> <p>SP 0.959 (0.910 – 0.982)</p> <p>All</p> <p>ST 0.26 (0.19 – 0.34)</p> <p>SP 0.958 (0.922 – 0.978)</p> <p>Fixed effects model (FEM)</p> <p>'Combined setting'</p> <p>ST 0.30 (0.25 – 0.36)</p> <p>SP 0.927 (0.924 – 0.931)</p> <p>'Isolated setting'</p> <p>ST 0.22 (0.15 – 0.30)</p> <p>SP 0.964 (0.961 – 0.966)</p> <p>All</p> <p>ST 0.30 (0.25 – 0.36)</p> <p>SP 0.940 (0.937 – 0.942)</p> <p>Further it was estimated that the probability of DS (assuming LR+ of 6.2) after an intracardiac echogenic foci has been detected would be 0.44% in a population with prevalence of 1 : 1400, 0.62% with prevalence of 1 : 1000, and 1.03% with prevalence of 1 : 600</p>		Meta-analysis	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Coco, 2005	784	1998 – 2002 single medical centre Italy 12 672 (77.8% of study population) Maternal age: Mean 27.2 ± 5.5 years	US detection of Fetal pyelectasis as a screening test. Validated reference: Yes (karyotyping, postnatal records, information from mother)	Diagnostic tests characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) DS 11 (0.09) Pyelectasis 367 (2.9%) Only one case of Down's syndrome identified with pyelectasis. Results: Isolated pyelectasis ST 9.1 (1.62 – 37.4) SP 97.6 (97.32 – 97.85) PPV 0.33 NPV 99.9 LR+ 3.8 (0.58 – 24.61) LR- 0.9 (0.77 – 11.2) Pyelectasis + other markers ST 9.1 SP 99.5 PPV 1.6 NPV 99.9 LR+ 19.2		Cohort study	II

First- and second-trimester screening for Down's syndrome only

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Malone <i>et al.</i> , 2005	785	1999 – 2002 15 medical centres USA 33 547 (82% of study population) with complete data from both trimesters Unselected Maternal age: Mean 30.1 SD 5.8 Exclusions: adequately described	All serum tests with NT (Combined, Quadruple, integrated and Serum integrated) Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) 92 (0.27) Results: Detection rate at fixed FPR 5% (95% CI) Combined (11 weeks) – 87 (82 – 92) Quadruple (15–17 weeks) – 81 (70 – 86) Serum integrated – 88 (81 – 92) Fully integrated – 96 (92 – 97)		Cohort study	II
Wald <i>et al.</i> , 2003	316	1996 – 2001 25 maternity centres UK and Austria 43 712 (92% of study population). 98 cases, 490 controls for screening performance. 600 controls added for statistical power Unselected Unspecified maternal age	All serum and urine biochemical markers with NT Validated reference: yes (karyotype – pre/postnatal pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) 101 (0.23) Results: Estimated Detection Rate at fixed FPR 5% first trimester (10 – 13 week) PAPP-A + NT 76 Combined 84 Combined + inhibin A 87 second trimester (15 – 20) Double 71 Triple 77 Quadruple 83 Integrated screening (both first and second trimester) NT (10 weeks) + Quadruple 90 Serum integrated 90 Integrated 93		Nested Case-control (within a cohort)	II
Knight <i>et al.</i> , 2005	786	2001 – 2003 229/260 prenatal care practitioners USA 8773 (78.6% of study population) Selected (61% enrolled for study) Maternal age: Mean – 27.8 SD 5.5	Integrated serum screening Validated reference: Yes (prenatal karyotype, pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) 16 (0.18) Results: Observed screening performance with 95% CI		Cohort study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Triple Risk 1 : 270 DR 67 (43 – 84) FPR 6.4 (5.9 – 6.9)			
					Quadruple Risk 1 : 150 DR 56 (33 – 76) FPR 3.3 (2.9 – 3.7)			
					Serum integrated Risk 1 : 100 DR 79 (55 – 92) FPR 3.2 (2.8 – 3.6)			
Platt <i>et al.</i> , 2004	787	Unspecified period 122 prenatal diagnostic centres USA 4325 <i>first-trimester screen positive</i> 180 (52.7% of study population) <i>first-trimester screen-negative</i> 4145 Selected (low uptake of second-trimester screening) (small sample) Maternal age: Mean 34.5 SD – 4.6	Sequential screening using Triple marker after first-trimester Combined test Validated reference: Yes (karyotype – prenatal pregnancy records)	Diagnostic test characteristics	Number of cases (prevalence in %) 13 (0.30) Results: Observed screening performance with 95% CI among first-trimester screen-negative women Risk 1 : 270 DR 85.7 (42.1 -99.6) FPR 8.9 (8.0 – 9.8)		Cohort study	II

Modelling studies for comparing different Down's syndrome screening tests

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Wright, 2006	789		'Contingent screening', the protocol involves measuring free β -hCG and PAPP-A in all pregnant women at 10 weeks in the first stage. Those with low risk were screened negative at this stage, the remainder underwent NT measurement in the second stage and the risk reassessed (for combined test). After the second stage, those with low risk were screened negative and those with very high risk were offered diagnostic tests. In the third stage, women with intermediate risk received second-trimester quadruple test. Risk was reassessed according to the integrated test and high-risk women were offered diagnosis.	Potential value of three-stage sequential screening for Down's syndrome	With full adherence to a three stage policy, an overall detection rate of nearly 90% and a false positive rate of below 2% can be achieved. About two-thirds of the women can be screened on the basis of first-trimester biochemistry alone and about 80% by the combined test. The DR for first-trimester screening is about 60%. This protocol allows most of the Down's syndrome pregnancies to be detected in the first trimester.		Modelling	III
Wald, 2006	790		compared the integrated test in three policies for screening – i) integrated screening for all women ii) Sequential screening (based on first-trimester tests, high-risk pregnancies to be diagnosed and remaining to undergo integrated test) iii) Contingent screening. Detection and false positive rates were estimated based on the data from a large cohort (nested case-control study) done in the UK.		integrated screening had the best screening performance. As the first-trimester test FPR was decreased, the performance of other two policies approached that of the integrated screen. Setting the first-trimester risk cut-off to ≥ 1 in 300 with a fixed DR of 90%, sequential and contingent screening gave overall FPR's of 2.3% and 2.4% respectively, and 66% of affected pregnancies were detected by the first-trimester tests. The integrated test on all women gave a FPR of 2.2%.	If pregnancies with a first-trimester risk of ≤ 1 in 2000 are classified screen negative and receive no further testing, then 99.5% of women with sequential screening or 30% with contingent screening would proceed to integrated screening.	Modelling	III

Effectiveness of different Down's syndrome screening tests

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Saltvedt, 2005	791	8 Swedish Hospitals 39 572 (19 796 in 12 weeks, 19 776 in 18 weeks)	Comparison of routine ultrasound scan at 12–14 weeks by nuchal translucency <i>versus</i> routine ultrasound at 15–20 weeks by maternal age. Validated reference: yes (karyotyping, pregnancy outcome)	Screening test effectiveness	<p>Number of DS cases (prevalence in %) 98 (0.25)</p> <p>Results: Outcome 12 week group 18 week group <i>P</i> value</p> <p>Prevalence rate 55/19 796 (0.28) 43/19 776 (0.22) 0.18</p> <p>Rate of liveborn DS babies (at > 22 weeks) 10/19 796 (0.05) 16/19 776 (0.08) 0.25</p> <p>Antenatal detection rate (< 22 weeks in living fetus) 42/55 (76) 25/41* (61) 0.12</p> <p>Antenatal detection rate (if karyotyping performed only for defined policy) 39/55 (71) 21/41* (51) 0.06</p> <p>Detection rate (other chromosomal anomalies) 20/35 (57) 25/35 (71) 0.32</p> <p>Terminations done for DS</p>		RCT	1+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>39/19 796 (0.20) 24/19 776 (0.12) 0.08</p> <p>Fetal loss rate in DS fetuses (terminations and miscarriages) 45/19 796 (0.23) 27/19 776 (0.14) 0.04</p> <p>Rate of invasive tests (for karyotyping) 1593/19 796 (8) 2118/19 776 (0.14) < 0.001</p> <p>Spontaneous fetal loss rate after invasive tests in normal fetuses 14/1507 (0.9) 15/2041 (0.7) 0.58</p> <p>No. of invasive tests per one case of DS detected (< 22 weeks)(if karyotyping performed only for defined policy) 16 89</p> <p>* of the 43 cases of DS, diagnosis was made in one case by amniocentesis at < 22 weeks but pregnancy continued, and in other diagnosis made at 35 weeks – leaving 41 cases for calculating DR</p>			
Wald, 2003	316	See Table III	Safety in terms of number of unaffected fetal losses per 100 000 women screened and number of DS pregnancies detected for each procedure related unaffected fetal loss	Screening test effectiveness	<p>Results: FPR (5%) Combined 6.1 Double 13.1 Triple 9.3 Quadruple 6.2 Serum integrated 2.7 Integrated 1.2</p>		Nested case-control	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Unaffected fetal losses per 100 000 women Combined 44 Double 94 Triple 67 Quadruple 45 Serum integrated 19 Integrated 9 DS cases detected for each procedure related fetal loss Combined 3.9 Double 1.8 Triple 2.6 Quadruple 3.8 Serum integrated 9.1 Integrated 19.2			
Biggio, 2004	792	Hypothetical cohort of 1 000 000 women < 35 years	Comparison of 5 screening strategies (1) first-trimester combined screen (2) second-trimester quadruple screen (3) second-trimester triple screen (4) integrated screen (5) sequential screen.	Screening test effectiveness	Prevalence of Down's syndrome at 10 weeks of gestation was estimated as 1 in 595 pregnancies, and baseline live birth rate 1 of 1030 Results: No screening Cost of programme (million US\$) 662 DS cases detected (n) 0 DS live births averted (n) 0 Euploid loss due to procedure 0 Triple screen, no sonogram Cost of programme (million US\$) 497 DS cases detected (n) 529 DS live births averted (n) 366 Euploid loss due to procedure 311 Triple screen, with sonogram Cost of programme (million US\$) 566 DS cases detected (n) 365 DS live births averted (n) 253 Euploid loss due to procedure 25 Quadruple screen, no sonogram		Decision analysis model	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Cost of programme (million US\$) 472 DS cases detected (n) 618 DS live births averted (n) 427 Euploid loss due to procedure 311			
					Quadruple screen, with sonogram Cost of programme (million US\$) 554 DS cases detected (n) 426 DS live births averted (n) 295 Euploid loss due to procedure 25			
					Combined screen Cost of programme (million US\$) 486 DS cases detected (n) 941 DS live births averted (n) 490 Euploid loss due to procedure 559			
					Integrated screen Cost of programme (million US\$) 521 DS cases detected (n) 750 DS live births averted (n) 520 Euploid loss due to procedure 62			
					Sequential screen Cost of programme (million US\$) 455 DS cases detected (n) 1213 DS live births averted (n) 678 Euploid loss due to procedure 859			
Smith-Bindman, 2001	315	For details see Table II B	See table II B	Screening test effectiveness	See table II B	See table II B	See table II B	See table II B
Comstock CH, 2006	793	Analysis of multicentre prospective trial in the USA (FASTER trial) 36 120 Maternal age: ≥ 16 Exclusions: well defined	Determine whether there is a NT measurement above which immediate invasive testing should be offered without waiting for serum testing and computerised aneuploidy risk assessment	Screening test effectiveness	Results (in %) ≥ 2 mm 10 weeks 2.0 11 weeks 1.5 12 weeks 2.5 13 weeks 5.1 Total 3.0			2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					≥ 3 mm 10 weeks 0.4 11 weeks 0.5 12 weeks 0.3 13 weeks 0.4 Total 0.4			
					≥ 4 mm 10 weeks 0.16 11 weeks 0.1 12 weeks 0.1 13 weeks 0.05 Total 0.09			
					≥ 5 mm 10 weeks 0 11 weeks 0.04 12 weeks 0.09 13 weeks 0 Total 0.05			
					<p>On comparison of outcome of pregnancies based on the various nuchal translucencies cut-offs, the following results were observed:</p> ≥ 2 mm Number (%) 1081 (3.0) Aneuploidy 51 T21 39 T 18 5			
					≥ 3 mm Number (%) 128 (0.4) Aneuploidy 22 T21 17 T 18 4			
					≥ 4 mm Number (%) 32 (0.09)			

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Aneuploidy	10		
					T21	6		
					T 18	4		

Women's Views of ultrasound screening for fetal anomalies and Down's Syndrome

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Green, 2004	794	Any genetic screening programme aimed at pregnant women or newborn babies was included. Both comparative and descriptive studies which reported data collected directly from pregnant women or parents were included. There were no geographical or methodological limits except that studies asking hypothetical questions, case reviews and those where US was done to detect structural anomalies only (and not include chromosomal anomalies) were excluded.	5 broad questions concerned with i) knowledge ii) anxiety iii) other emotional aspects iv) factors associated with participation in the programmes and v) long-term sequelae of the results.	Psychosocial aspects of genetic screening of pregnant women and newborns	<p><u>Knowledge and understanding of screening for DS</u> – 30 studies were selected: 7 used pre-test measures only, 6 employed both before and after test measures (ideal for comparing), and 17 employed after test measures only. Eight areas of information as specified in RCOG 1993 professional guidelines were used as a 'validated/gold standard questionnaire' for evaluating knowledge in the selected studies. 30 studies related to knowledge were reviewed, but owing to disparate research aims, poorly operationalised measures for evaluation, and variation in timing of assessment, it was concluded that none of the study evaluated all the 8 areas and hence knowledge was inadequately assessed by all of them.</p> <p><u>Influence on anxiety in prenatal screening for DS</u> – Of the 24 studies measuring anxiety, 13 used a validated scale (mainly State-Trait Anxiety Inventory). Most studies were carried out in the UK. As knowledge influences anxiety and attitudes, the findings from studies represents the feelings and views of many people who are in fact not well informed about the topic under discussion.</p> <p><u>Understanding decision making about screening</u> – Of the 52 studies included, 34 were concerned with DS screening and 11 of them compared differences in those screened with those not screened. Most studies employed questionnaire or interview survey methods.</p>		Systematic review	2++
Rowe HJ, 2006	795	4 antenatal clinics in Australia. pregnant women between 8 and 14 weeks attending at their first prenatal visit	<p>A validated measure, and to compare anxiety levels in women who are well informed versus poorly informed.</p> <p>Written and oral information was provided to all participants as per the existing hospital policy. Informed choice was measured by Multidimensional Measure of Informed Choice (MMIC), a validated measure of informed choice which assesses knowledge and attitude dimensions and also confirms whether woman's participation in screening test matches her attitude. The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) were used to measure anxiety and this scale specifically distinguishes between anxiety</p>	Assess informed choice in pregnant women to participate in second-trimester serum screening	<p>134 recruited women completing the first assessment in the second study, 63.9% returned the second questionnaire and 57.8% the third. The mean age of the sample was 29.1 ± 4.7 years and 89.6% were married. Using MMIC, 48.1% of women were classified as having 'good knowledge' and 87.2% having a 'positive attitude' to screening. Overall only 37.3% of decisions to participate in screening were informed; those who participated in screening were more than twice as likely to have made an informed choice than those who did not participate (47% versus 20%, $P = 0.01$). Informed decisions were not significantly associated with participant's age, gravidity, country of birth, or whether pregnancy was unwelcome or unexpected. No significant association was found between the knowledge levels and attitude to the test ($P = 0.27$). Some important misconceptions were revealed about further testing; 31% did not know that miscarriage was a possible consequence of diagnostic testing subsequent to an increased risk screening result, and only 62% correctly identified that termination of pregnancy would be offered if Down's syndrome was diagnosed. Regarding anxiety, no</p>		Prospective cohort	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			and depression. Both the scales were administered at the booking visit and HADS was repeated at 20 weeks (after participation in the test) and at 30 weeks using postal questionnaires		significant difference was found between the informed and not informed group in psychological outcomes at any of the three assessments, even after adjusting for repeated measures on individual participants.			
Georgsson, 2004	796		The 12 week group was the intervention group and 18 week group acted as the control. The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (validated tool for evaluating general anxiety) and Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (validated for evaluating anxiety in antenatal/postnatal period) were also used. Information was collected at 3 different timings – first questionnaire was filled at the antenatal clinic, second was sent at 24 weeks of gestation (mid-pregnancy), and the last was posted 2 months after delivery. Same instruments were used for all the three questionnaires.	Women's worries about the 'possibility of something being wrong with the baby' was measured by the Swedish version of Cambridge Worry Scale questionnaire including 16 items of common concerns during pregnancy.	82.7% (854/1030) women in 12 week group, and 84.1% (837/996) in the 18 week group respectively who responded to all 3 questionnaires. The demographic characteristics of the two groups were similar. Emotional wellbeing at baseline in early pregnancy was also similar. In the early pregnancy 39.1% of women in 12 week group and 36.0% in 18 week group were worried about something being wrong with the baby, but the difference was not statistically significant. The prevalence decreased to 29.2% versus 27.8% during mid-pregnancy, and finally to 5.2% versus 6.6% at 2 months after delivery in the 2 groups. No statistically significant difference was found between the 2 groups during these periods also. Within both trial groups, there was statistically significant decrease in the levels of major worry about baby's health from early to mid-pregnancy ($P < 0.001$), and from mid-pregnancy to 2 months after delivery ($P < 0.001$).		Qualitative	3
Lawson, 2006	797	Participants included high-risk pregnant women (maternal age > 35 years) who opted for MSS or amniocentesis or did not opt for any testing.	Investigate the relationship between maternal serum screening (MSS) use and maternal attachment to pregnancy following the receipt of favourable results (i.e lowered risk ratio). Informational posters were placed at various places (physician offices, laboratories, maternity stores), and interested women who met the eligibility criteria were enrolled. The instrument used to collect information was a self-administered questionnaire by mail, and prenatal attachment was measured by 21-item Prenatal Attachment Inventory (construct validity and reliability of this scale were established). The three groups were		One-way ANOVA indicated that attachment levels for MSS group (mean 51.7, SD 9.4) were significantly lower than those reported by amniocentesis group (mean 58.5, SD 10.7) and no test group (mean 57.0, SD 8.3) [$t(68) = 0.68$, $P = 0.02$]. Moreover amniocentesis group did not differ in bonding levels compared to the no testing group [$t(67) = 0.66$, $P = 0.51$], thereby proving both the hypothesis. This difference persisted even after removing the influence of maternal age and attitude towards abortion. There was no significant interaction between testing status of the 3 groups and timing of conducting survey (second or third trimester) when they were used as independent variables with PAI as the dependant variable.		Cross-sectional survey	3

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Rowe, 2004	798		<p>compared using ANOVA and ANCOVA for statistical analysis.</p> <p>Studies were assessed in terms of</p> <p>a) utilisation – number of women screened as a proportion of those eligible</p> <p>b) offer – number of women offered screening as a proportion of those eligible, and</p> <p>c) uptake – number of women screened as a proportion of those offered screening</p>	<p>non participation rate and whether the distinction between utilisation, offer and uptake was</p>	<p>these suggested that compared to White women, utilisation of testing was lower in Asian women, two others indicated that both utilisation and uptake was lower, and fourth study found both acceptance and uptake of amniocentesis lower in women from Asia. In the remaining 5 studies, no statistically significant association was found between socio-demographic factors and test utilisation.</p> <p>Four studies reported on the offer of screening or diagnosis for DS. Two of these suggested that Asian women were less likely to be offered amniocentesis, while in the third study fewer Bangladeshi than White women were offered screening, although this result was not statistically significant. The fourth study did not analyse the results according to the social class or ethnic group.</p>		Systematic review	2+
Dormandy, 2005	799	two UK district hospitals	<p>Attitudes towards undergoing the test were assessed by women's responses to a structured question with 4 items. Knowledge about the test was assessed using an 8 item questionnaire deemed important in professional guidelines for informed consent in screening. Choices were classified as 'informed' depending on the consistency between test uptake, women's attitude towards the test, and their knowledge about it.</p>	<p>Reasons for lower uptake of screening tests in women from minority ethnic groups and socio-economically (SE) disadvantaged sections of society. Screening uptake was evaluated from hospital records</p>	<p>a) Screening uptake – overall uptake was 49% (95% CI 47–52). Uptake was higher in white and SE advantaged women.</p> <p>b) Knowledge – Overall the mean knowledge score was above the midpoint of the scale. Knowledge was higher for white, SE advantaged and older women.</p> <p>c) Attitudes towards test: The mean overall score was above the scale midpoint, that is, overall women had positive attitude towards the test. No difference in attitudes was found related to ethnicity, SE status or parity; but older women had more positive attitude than younger ones.</p> <p>d) Uptake-attitude consistency – In women with positive attitudes, white and SE advantaged women were more likely to act in line with their attitudes (76% white women had test compared to 45% South Asian women, $P < 0.001$) and (78% SE advantaged women had test compared with 63% SE disadvantaged women, $P < 0.001$).</p> <p>In women with negative attitude, no difference was found between ethnic or social groups.</p> <p>e) Informed choice – rates of informed choice were higher for white women (56% vs 20% South Asian, $P < 0.001$) and SE advantaged women (59% vs 14% for SE disadvantaged, $P < 0.001$).</p> <p>After controlling for confounding variables (ethnicity, age, SE status, and hospital attended), it was found that both South Asian women and SE disadvantaged women with positive attitudes were less likely to act consistently with their attitudes compared to white and SE advantaged women (OR 0.22, 95% CI 0.10–0.45 for South Asian vs white) and (OR 0.62, 95% CI 0.41–0.93 for social groups).</p>		Qualitative	3
Spencer, 2004	800	6 UK maternity units (3 in	Pregnant women attending	To ascertain by	75% of women selected first-trimester screening (option 1		Cross-	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Scotland, 3 in England)	antenatal clinics were asked to put in order of preference four different approaches for screening (all with FPR of 5%) – (1) first-trimester testing – 90% detection with results available in 1 hour (2) first-trimester testing – 90% detection with results within 2–3 days (combined test) (3) first-trimester plus second-trimester detection, 93% detection and results within 2–3 days of second test (integrated test) (4) second-trimester testing, 75% detection and results available within 2–3 days.	means of a structured questionnaire women's preference for type of screening test	or option 2) as their first choice, with 68.2 % preferring results within 1 hour (option 1) and 6.8% preferring combined test. 24% opted for integrated test and just 1% opted for second-trimester testing as their first choice.		sectional survey	

10 Screening for infections

10.3 *Chlamydia trachomatis*

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in identifying genital Chlamydia: age; uring testing testing; endocervical swab; serum antibody testing; history?

Diagnostic accuracy studies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Smith <i>et al.</i> , 1987	⁸⁰⁵	Pregnant (<i>n</i> = 231) and non-pregnant women (<i>n</i> = 827) below the age of 35 years attending an obstetrics and gynecology clinic in the USA. Prevalence 12.1% in pregnant women	Comparison of ELISA and DFA with culture (blind passage) of the endocervical swabs.	Diagnostic accuracy results for pregnant women only. Reference standard – positive by initial or repeat culture Threshold for positive EIA – optical density 0.100 greater than mean optical density of 3 negative controls Threshold for positive DFA – greater than 10 elementary bodies per slide	EIA (<i>n</i> = 231) Sensitivity: 85.7% Specificity: 95.6% PPV: 72.7% NPV: 98.0% DFA (<i>n</i> = 144) Sensitivity: 84.6% Specificity: 96.6% PPV: 84.6% NPV: 96.6% First culture with blind passage Sensitivity: 82.1% NPV: 98.8% First culture without blind passage Sensitivity: 60.7% NPV: 94.7%	Specimens collected randomly Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Binns <i>et al.</i> , 1988	⁹⁶⁶	Consecutive asymptomatic pregnant women opting for abortion and attending a counselling clinic in Canada	Comparison of ELISA and DFA with culture of the endocervical swabs	Diagnostic accuracy results for two different reference standards– positive culture without blind passage or positive results for any two of the three	Positive culture as reference standard EIA (<i>n</i> = 462) Sensitivity: 96% Specificity: 95%	Blinding not specified Tests not described in details	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		(<i>n</i> = 531). Prevalence 10.8%		tests	PPV: 69% NPV: 99.5% DFA (<i>n</i> = 462) Sensitivity: 89% Specificity: 99% PPV: 78% NPV: 99% Any two positive tests as reference standard Culture (<i>n</i> = 462) Sensitivity: 80% Specificity: 99.8% PPV: 98% NPV: 97% EIA (<i>n</i> = 462) Sensitivity: 98% Specificity: 98% PPV: 87% NPV: 99.8% DFA (<i>n</i> = 462) Sensitivity: 93% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 99%			
Baselski <i>et al.</i> , 1987	806	Indigent pregnant women (<i>n</i> = 255) at high risk of chlamydia and attending a regional medical centre in the USA. Prevalence 21.2%	Comparison of ELISA and DFA of cervical swabs with culture.	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive cell culture Threshold for positive EIA – absorbance > mean value of negative controls plus 0.1 Threshold for positive DFA – presence of one or more typical inclusion bodies	EIA (<i>n</i> = 250) Sensitivity: 96.3% Specificity: 92.9% PPV: 78.8% NPV: 98.9% DFA (<i>n</i> = 247) Sensitivity: 98.1% Specificity: 95.4%	High-risk population Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					PPV: 85.0% NPV: 99.5%			
Stamm <i>et al.</i> , 1984	⁸⁰⁷	A multicentre study in the USA recruited symptomatic men ($n = 576$) and women ($n = 595$) from sexually transmitted disease clinics, and asymptomatic pregnant women attending abortion clinic or prenatal clinic ($n = 225$). Prevalence in asymptomatic women 13.0%	Comparison of DFA cervical swab with culture	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive cell culture on one occasion (done twice) Threshold for positive DFA – two or more elementary bodies.	DFA ($n = 225$) Sensitivity: 86.2% Specificity: 99.0% PPV: 92.6% NPV: 98.0%	Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Garland <i>et al.</i> , 2000	⁸⁰⁸	Consecutive pregnant women going for legal termination of pregnancy at a tertiary hospital in Australia ($n = 1245$) Prevalence 2.8%	Comparison of PCR (endocervical swab, urine, tampon), LCR (endocervical swab, urine, tampon), and cell culture (endocervical swab only)	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive culture and/or at least one other specimen positive by PCR and LCR	Sensitivity for endocervical swab Culture – 45.5% PCR – 81.8% LCR – 87.9% Culture endocervical swab vs PCR and LCR ($n = 1175$) $P < 0.0005$ for both PCR vs LCR ($n = 1175$) For urine $P=0.25$ For tampon $P=0.5$ For endocervical swab $P=0.5$	Representative population Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Andrews <i>et al.</i> , 1997	⁸⁰⁹	Unmarried, publicly funded pregnant women with many having risk factors for Chlamydia infection ($n = 478$, mean age 22.9 ± 5.6 years) Prevalence 20.1%	Comparison of LCR (urine, endocervical swab) with culture endocervical swab	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive culture or negative culture with positive LCR confirmed by further testing with DFA or MOMP-LCR	Culture endocervix Sensitivity: 30.1% Specificity: 100% LCR endocervix Sensitivity: 90.3% Specificity: 100% LCR urine	High-risk population Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: 83.9% Specificity: 99.5%			
Thejls <i>et al.</i> , 1994	⁸¹⁰	Consecutive pregnant women seeking abortion at 3 hospitals in Sweden during a 6 month period ($n = 419$, 41.8 % women < 24 years) Prevalence 4.3%	Comparison of culture, DFA, EIA and PCR of endocervical specimens	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive culture (first time or reculturing) or at least two positive non-culture tests. Threshold for positive DFA – ten or more elementary bodies per slide	Culture ($n = 419$) Sensitivity: 66.7% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 98.5% DFA ($n = 419$) Sensitivity: 61.1% Specificity: 99.8% PPV: 91.7% NPV: 98.3% EIA ($n = 419$) Sensitivity: 64.7% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 98.5% PCR ($n = 381$) Sensitivity: 71.4% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 98.9%	Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II
MacMillan <i>et al.</i> , 2003	⁸¹¹	Consecutive women less than 25 years of age attending abortion, family planning, and antenatal clinics in the UK. Pregnant women 204/303 and prevalence in them 10.8%	Comparison of EIA endocervical swab, LCRs for first void urine sample, vaginal swab and endocervical swab	Diagnostic accuracy Positive EIA confirmed further by DFA, while positive LCR by MOMP-LCR Reference standard – one or more specimens positive by two independent tests	EIA Sensitivity: 82% Specificity: 100% LCR endocervix Sensitivity: 82% Specificity: 100% LCR vagina	Single blinded Test adequately described	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: 100% Specificity: 100% LCR urine Sensitivity: 91% Specificity: 100%			
Renton <i>et al.</i> , 2006	⁸¹²	Pregnant women presenting for termination of pregnancy at a family planning clinic in the UK (<i>n</i> = 863) Prevalence 8.5%	Comparison of LCR and DFA of cervical swab, vaginal swab, and urine	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive test result from any site or positive LCR	Sensitivity with positive test result from any site as reference standard LCR cervical swab 97.0% LCR vaginal swab 94.0% LCR urine 83.0% DFA cervical swab 93.0% DFA vaginal swab 92.0% DFA urine 78.0% Positive LCR as reference standard DFA cervical swab Sensitivity: 93.8% Specificity: 99.9% DFA vaginal swab Sensitivity: 92.1% Specificity: 99.5%	Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Hosein <i>et al.</i> , 1992	⁸¹³	Consecutive low-income pregnant women attending a university medical centre in the USA (<i>n</i> = 322).	Comparison of DNA probe test with culture	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive culture Threshold for positive DNA probe test – one or more fluorescing inclusion	DNA probe test (<i>n</i> = 246) Sensitivity: 93.9% Specificity: 99.1% PPV: 93.9%	Blinding of technicians Test described adequately Drop out rate > 20%	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Prevalence 13.4%		bodies	NPV: 99.1%			
Yang <i>et al.</i> , 1991	⁸¹⁴	Asymptomatic pregnant women attending for routine prenatal care (<i>n</i> = 257), and women with symptoms of lower genital tract infection or history of STD (<i>n</i> = 169) in the USA Prevalence in pregnant women 8.6%	Comparison of DNA probe test with culture	Diagnostic accuracy In case of discrepant results, probe competition assays performed. Reference standard – positive culture or negative culture with positive two non-culture tests.	Culture (<i>n</i> = 257) Sensitivity: 95.4% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 99.6% DNA probe test (<i>n</i> = 257) Sensitivity: 86.4% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 98.7% Diagnostic accuracy of DNA probe test with positive culture as reference standard Sensitivity: 85.7% Specificity: 99.6% PPV: 94.7% NPV: 98.7%	Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Asbill <i>et al.</i> , 2000	⁸¹⁵	Pregnant women at their initial visit to an obstetric clinic or at 36 weeks of gestation in the USA (<i>n</i> = 519, 63% women < 24 years of age) Prevalence 6.8%	Comparison of Gram stain (cervical mucous) with DNA probe test	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive DNA probe test Threshold for a positive gram stain – 10 or more polymorphonuclear leucocytes per high power field	Sensitivity: 91.0% Specificity: 18.0% PPV: 7.5% NPV: 96.7%	Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Spence <i>et al.</i> , 1986	⁸¹⁶	Unselected pregnant women seeking first- or second-trimester termination of pregnancy at a tertiary hospital in the USA (<i>n</i> = 300, mean age 21.4 years) Prevalence 14.3%	Comparison of Pap smear with culture	Diagnostic accuracy Reference standard – positive culture Threshold of positive Pap smear findings – inflammation, consistent with Chlamydia infection, others or negative	Pap smear findings consistent with Chlamydia infection as threshold Sensitivity: 2.3% Specificity: 98.1% Pap smear findings consistent with Chlamydia infection plus inflammation as threshold	Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: 60.5% Specificity: 56.4%			

Effectiveness studies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Martin <i>et al.</i> , 1997	817	Pregnant women at 23–29 weeks with Chlamydia isolated from endocervical specimens by culture and successfully completing a one week placebo run-in ($n = 414$). Population selected from on-going multicentre trial in the USA looking at vaginal infections and premature births.	Treatment with erythromycin base 333 g TDS for 7 days ($n = 205$) compared to placebo ($n = 209$). Repeat cultures obtained 2–4 weeks after starting treatment, and outcomes stratified by study sites for placebo group into high clearance group (repeat culture negative) and low clearance group (repeat culture positive)	Pregnancy outcomes: mean birthweight in g, low birthweight (< 2500 g), preterm delivery (< 37 weeks), PROM, stillbirth, neonatal death	Mean birthweight \pm SD (in grams) 3192 \pm 524 vs 3146 \pm 552 $P > 0.05$ Low birthweight 17/201 (8%) vs 22/199 (11%) $P > 0.05$ Preterm delivery 27/202 (13%) vs 30/203 (15%) $P > 0.05$ PROM 21/196 (11%) vs 25/193 (13%) $P > 0.05$ Stillbirth 2/202 (1%) vs 1/203 (0.5%) $P > 0.05$ Neonatal death 1/202 (0.5%) vs 0/203 $P > 0.05$ Low clearance groups Low birthweight 9/114 (8%) vs 18/105 (17%) $P = 0.04$	Adequate randomisation Concealment of allocation Groups compared Double blinded Intention-to-treat analysis	RCT	1++

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Preterm delivery 15/115 (13%) vs 18/105 (17%) $P = 0.4$			
					High clearance groups Low birthweight 8/87 (9%) vs 4/94 (4%) $P = 0.18$			
					Preterm delivery 12/87 (14%) vs 12/98 (12%) $P = 0.75$			
Ryan <i>et al.</i> , 1990	818	Consecutive new obstetric patients ($n = 11\,544$) in a regional medical centre, USA. Population predominantly urban, black, lower socio-economic status. Group 1 – untreated ($n = 1110$), Group 2 – treated ($n = 1323$) and Group 3 – culture negative ($n = 9111$)	Initially no treatment given to culture positive group, but after 16 months of starting study, erythromycin 500/250 mg QID for 7 days, or sulfisoxazole 1 g QID for 7 days given	PROM (rupture of membranes more than 1 hour before birth), low birthweight infants (< 2500 g), newborn survival (those who left the hospital alive or alive after 28 days of hospitalisation). Confounding variables controlled by logistic regression for PROM and newborn survival	<u>Group 1 vs Group 2</u> PROM 5.2% vs 2.9% $P < 0.001$ low birthweight 19.6% vs 11.0% $P < 0.0001$ newborn survival 97.6% vs 99.4% $P < 0.001$ <i>After adjustment</i> PROM OR 0.56 (0.37–0.85) $P < 0.01$ newborn survival OR 2.21 (0.89–5.49) $P < 0.08$ <u>Group 1 vs Group 3</u> PROM 5.2% vs 2.7% $P < 0.001$	Confounders controlled Blinding not specified Population representative	CH	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					low birthweight 19.6% vs 11.7% $P < 0.0001$			
					newborn survival 97.6% vs 98.5% $P < 0.05$			
					<i>After adjustment</i>			
					PROM OR 2.12 (1.57–2.86) $P < 0.001$			
					newborn survival $P > 0.05$			
					<u>Group 2 vs Group 3</u>			
					PROM 2.9% vs 2.7% $P = 0.556$			
					low birthweight 11.0% vs 11.7% $P = 0.42$			
					newborn survival 99.4% vs 98.5% $P < 0.01$			
					<i>After adjustment</i>			
					PROM $P > 0.05$			
					newborn survival $P > 0.05$			
Cohen <i>et al.</i> , 1990	819	low income, indigent, and urban pregnant women considered at high risk for infection with Chlamydia	Treatment with erythromycin 500 mg QID for 7 days, and repeat culture after	PROM (rupture of membranes before onset of labour), Preterm delivery (labour < 37 weeks), Premature contractions, Small-for gestational age	<u>Group 1 vs Group 2</u> Premature delivery	Groups comparable Blinding not specified Confounders partially	Retrospective	2-

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		trachomatis in the USA (<i>n</i> = 567)	delivery.	(SGA), Stillbirth, Antepartum hemorrhage (APH), Vaginal delivery, Caesarean section, Postpartum endometritis, mean fetal weight, mean gestational age	2.9% vs 13.9% <i>P</i> = 0.00002	controlled		
		Group 1 – successfully treated (<i>n</i> = 244), Group 2 – treated but remained chlamydia positive during pregnancy (<i>n</i> = 79), and Group 3 – Chlamydia negative matched controls (<i>n</i> = 244)			PROM 7.4% vs 20.2% <i>P</i> = 0.02			
		Matching done for age, race, gravidity, parity, marital status, SE status and health habits			Premature contractions 4.1% vs 24.0% <i>P</i> = 0.00001			
					SGA 13.1% vs 25.3% <i>P</i> = 0.001			
					Stillbirth 0.4% vs 0 <i>P</i> > 0.05			
					APH 1.2% vs 2.5% <i>P</i> > 0.05			
					Vaginal delivery 88.9% vs 82.3% <i>P</i> > 0.05			
					Caesarean section 11.1% vs 17.7% <i>P</i> > 0.05			
					Postpartum endometritis 2.9% vs 2.5% <i>P</i> > 0.05			
					Gestational age (mean ± SD) 39.35 ± 2.25 vs 38.76 ± 2.97 <i>P</i> > 0.05			

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Fetal weight (mean \pm SD) 3202.6 \pm 508.6 vs 3002.1 \pm 626.5 $P = 0.004$			
					<u>Group 1 vs Group 3</u>			
					Premature delivery 2.9% vs 11.9% $P = 0.0001$			
					PROM 7.4% vs 7.4% $P > 0.05$			
					Premature contractions 4.1% vs 1.6% $P > 0.05$			
					SGA 13.1% vs 11.9% $P > 0.05$			
					Stillbirth 0.4% vs 0 $P > 0.05$			
					APH 1.2% vs 0% $P > 0.05$			
					Vaginal delivery 88.9% vs 84.4% $P > 0.05$			
					Caesarean section 11.1% vs 15.6% $P > 0.05$			

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Postpartum endometritis 2.9% vs 2.1% $P > 0.05$			
					Gestational age (mean \pm SD) 39.35 \pm 2.25 vs 38.93 \pm 2.42 $P = 0.05$			
					Fetal weight (mean \pm SD) 3202.6 \pm 508.6 vs 3095.1 \pm 577.1 $P = 0.03$			
Black-Payne <i>et al.</i> , 1990	820	Asymptomatic pregnant women with estimated gestational age 28–32 weeks attending a medical centre in the USA ($n = 199$) Chlamydiazyme-positive group ($n = 52$), Chlamydiazyme-negative group ($n = 126$)	To determine if rapid EIA test (Chlamydiazyme) can be used reliably for screening programme by comparing perinatal and neonatal outcomes between two groups. Test positive women treated with erythromycin 500 mg QID for 7 days	Perinatal – ROM, preterm delivery (< 37 weeks), cesarean section rate, postpartum endometritis Neonatal – respiratory tract infections, conjunctivitis in first 6–8 weeks of life	Rupture of membranes < 6 hours, 6–12 hours, and > 12 hours 73% vs 69% 19% vs 27% 8% vs 4% $P > 0.05$ for all Preterm birth 3% vs 6% $P > 0.05$ Cesarean section 20% vs 15% $P > 0.05$ Postpartum endometritis 5% vs 12% $P > 0.05$ Incidence of neonatal respiratory tract infections and conjunctivitis $P > 0.05$ for both	Groups compared Chance of bias	CH	2–
Rivlin <i>et al.</i> , 1997	821	Pregnant women registering consecutively at university	Women with positive DFA test treated with	Maternal complications – abortion, PROM, preterm delivery,	$P > 0.05$ for all maternal, neonatal and infant complications between the two	Groups compared Clinicians blinded to	Retrospective	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		<p>medical centre in the USA ($n = 1350$), but for this study, only women with positive Chlamydia culture taken.</p> <p>Treated group ($n = 23$) Untreated group ($n = 58$)</p>	<p>erythromycin 800 mg QID for 7 days, and those with negative test not treated.</p>	<p>chorioamnionitis, endomyometritis, mastitis.</p> <p>Neonatal complications – stillbirth, premature, RDS, tachypnoea, sepsis</p> <p>Infant complications – conjunctivitis, pneumonia, otitis, URI, bronchitis, diarrhea.</p>	<p>groups</p>	<p>culture results</p>		
McMillan <i>et al.</i> , 1985	822	<p>Pregnant women with positive chlamydia culture at 32–36 weeks cared for in 3 obstetrical clinics in a university hospital in the USA ($n = 85/1082$).</p> <p>Infants of treated group ($n = 16$) Infants of untreated group ($n = 21$)</p>	<p>Women in treated group received erythromycin 500 mg BD for 10 days</p>	<p>Nasopharyngeal or conjunctival culture with episodes of conjunctivitis and pneumonia,</p>	<p>Positive nasopharyngeal or conjunctival culture and symptomatic for neonatal conjunctivitis and pneumonia 0% vs 23% $P < 0.04$</p>	<p>Groups not compared Blinding not specified High risk of bias</p>	CH	2–

11 Screening for clinical problems

11.1 Gestational diabetes

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of screening tests to identify women at risk of diabetes in pregnancy?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Gribble, 1995	494	Pregnant women with at least 2 urinalysis tests during first 2 trimesters were included Women with preexisting DM, multiple gestation excluded Sample size 2965	All women were screened with 50 g GCT at 24–28 weeks. Positive screens (cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml)) started a 3 day CHO load, and fasting 100 g GTT. Categorised into 2 groups, negative or positive glycosuria groups Threshold 2 or more ≥ fasting 105; 1 hour 190; 2 hour 165 and 3 hour 8.1 mmol/litre (145 mg/100 ml) Negative screens comparison of the 2 glycosuria groups in terms of outcomes	Prediction of gestational diabetes	Higher incidence of GDM in women with positive glycosuria in the first two trimesters (12.8% vs 2.9% for negative screens). Sensitivity of glycosuria in first trimester as a predictor of GD was 7.1% Specificity 98.5% PPV 12.8% NPV 97.1%	Routine dipstick urinalysis for glucose can identify pregnant women at increased risk for GD and diagnose them earlier than 24–28 weeks.	Retrospective observational study	II
Watson, 1990	493	Pregnant women, Military dependants, unrestricted access to medical care without monetary cost Those with previous DM excluded Sample size 500	All women given random urinalysis for glucose at each antenatal visit (mean 10.8, SD 2.6). Diagnosis glycosuria if trace, 1+, 2+ or 3+ found on at least 2 visits. Severe glycosuria if ≥ 2+ on two visits At 28 weeks (no range given) 50 g GCT without regard to ingestion state. Threshold ≥ 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) Diagnostic test fasting 100 g GTT, after 3 days high CHO diet Thresholds 2 or more values: fasting 105; 1 hour 190; 2 hour 165 and 3 hour 8.1 mmol/litre (145 mg/100 ml)	Prediction of gestational diabetes	22 (4.4%) incidence of GD 85 (17%) showed glycosuria and 19 (3.8%) severe glycosuria 10 patients with glycosuria with GD (6 glycosuria, 4 severe glycosuria)	Routine random urine testing is a poor screening method but recommend that those classed as severe glycosuria before 24 weeks should have an earlier 50 g GCT	Non randomised population-based study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Ostlund, 2004	837	All pregnant women without diabetes Sample size 3616	Random blood glucose (proposed every 4–6 weeks) and Risk factors (family history of diabetes, obesity, a prior LGA infant or prior GD) assessed. All were offered diagnostic test, 75 g OGTT between 28–32 weeks of gestation	Diagnostic value	61/3616 or 1.7% had GD At a cut-off level of ≥ 8 mmol/litre Sensitivity: 47.5% Specificity: 97%	RBG measurement has the same sensitivity for detecting GD as using traditional risk factors, but reduces the need to carry out the OGTT from 15.8% to 3.8% of the population Traditional risk factors have poor sensitivity for GD.	Prospective population-based study	II
Nasrat, 1988	838	Healthy pregnant women Sample size 250	Random plasma glucose determined in 276 women and 250/276 women given a standard 75 g OGTT	Diagnostic value	3/250 or 1.2% had GD Using Lind and Anderson threshold (7.0 mmol/litre < 2 hour 6.4 mmol/litre > 2 hours) for random plasma glucose Sens: 16% Spec: 96% PPV: 47% Using 90th percentile of study group Sens: 29% Spec: 89% PPV: 38%	Random plasma glucose has limited predictive value	Prospective study	II
Seshiah, 2004	840	Consecutive pregnant women Sample size 1251	1 hour 50 g GCT, 2 hour 75 g OGTT, given to all during second and third trimesters	Diagnostic value	Positive screens 891 168/891 or 18.9% had GD Sens: 79.8%, Spec: 42.7%, PPV: 24.5%, NPV: 90.1%	Using 2 hour plasma glucose ≥ 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) as once step procedure is simple and economical for countries more prone to GD	Prospective consecutive population-based study	II
Perucchini, 1999	499	All pregnant women with singleton pregnancy giving birth after 28 weeks of gestation Exclusion criteria: pre-existing diabetes mellitus, lack of examination before 24 weeks of gestation. 772 eligible 558 consented 520 completed study	FPG, 50 g GCT, 3 hour 100 g OGTT, given to all	Diagnostic value	52/520 or 10.2% had GD FPG at 4.8 mmol/litre, 50 g GCT 7.8 mmol/litre Sens: FPG 81%, 50 g GCT 59% Spec: FPG 76%, 50 g GCT 91%	Sample representative of general population. Measuring FPG is easier than 50 g GCT and allows 70% of women to avoid the GCT.	Prospective population based observational study	
Cetin and Cetin, 1997	841	Pregnant women included if examined < 20 weeks of gestation Exclusion criteria: pre-existing diabetes mellitus, multiple	1 hour 50 g GCT, 100 g OGTT, given to all between 24–28 weeks of gestation	Diagnostic value	17/274 or 6.2% had GD Sens: < 2 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 75%, cut-off 8.22 mmol/litre	Sample too small. Standard cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) Sens 65% Spec 88% PPV 27% Suggested cut-off Sens 59% spec 92% PPV 32%.	Prospective study	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		pregnancy, preterm premature rupture of membranes, pre-eclampsia, birth \leq 28 weeks, regular ingestion of any drug. 291/344 eligible, 274/291 completed study			(148 mg/100 ml) 63% 2-3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 60%, cut-off 7.89 mmol/litre (142 mg/100 ml) 60% > 3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 50%, cut-off 8.33 mmol/litre (150 mg/100 ml) 50% Spec: < 2 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 86%, cut-off 8.22 mmol/litre (148 mg/100 ml) 91% 2-3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 89% cut-off 7.89 mmol/litre (142 mg/100 ml) 92% > 3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 89%, cut-off 8.33 mmol/litre (150 mg/100 ml) 92% PPV: < 2 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 27%, cut-off 8.22 mmol/litre (148 mg/100 ml) 33% 2-3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 30% cut-off 7.89 mmol/litre (142 mg/100 ml) 30% > 3 hour cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 25%, cut-off 8.33 mmol/litre (150 mg/100 ml) 33%			
O'Sullivan, 1973	842	Prenatal women 752/ 986 (76%) eligible	1 hour 50 g GCT, 3 hour OGTT given to all Weeks of gestation not reported	Diagnostic value	1 hour 50 g GCT \geq 130 mg/100 ml cut-off Sens: 78.9% Spec: 87.2% PPV: 13.8%	Timing of testing in relation to stage of pregnancy not reported No quantity of glucose stated for GTT	Cohort study	III

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					NPV: 99.4%	Sample collected between 1956 and 1957		
Buhling, 2003	843	Pregnant women Sample size 193	Comparison of 50 g GCT with five portable meters	Diagnostic value of 5 portable meters	Sens: Accu-Chek 84% EuroFlash 100% GlucoTouch 98% HemoCue 57% OneTouch 92% Precision Plus 90% Spec: Accu-Chek 98% EuroFlash 79% GlucoTouch 86% HemoCue 100% OneTouch 92% Precision Plus 91%	The accuracy of Accu-Chek, GlucoTouch, OneTouch and precision was acceptable for use in GD screening.	Prospective study	II
Murphy, 1994	844	Pregnant women No other data given Sample size 124	3 groups, no control Tested at 24–28 weeks Non-fasting screening test: Group 1: 50 g glucose polymer Group 2: standard 50 g glucose solution Group 3: milk chocolate bar 50 g Blood test at 1 h Diagnostic test: 3 hour 100 g GTT	Serum glucose response, side effects and women's subjective acceptance of the polymer or a candy bar (3 Musketeers, Mars) to the standard d-glucose solution	5/108 or 4.6% diagnosed with GD. Glucose ≥ 7.5 mmol/litre Sens: overall 60% standard glucose 33.3% polymer 100% Spec: overall 84% standard glucose 73.6% polymer 92.8% PPV: overall 16% standard glucose 9% polymer 49%	The polymer is an inexpensive and well tolerated but the use of candy bar needs further research.	Randomised trial with no control	II
Court, 1985	845	Pregnant women Sample size: 100 women randomised to glucose screening test (48) and glucose polymer test (52) glucose polymer test given to additional 178 women so total 230 women received polymer test.	100 g glucose screening test and 100 g glucose polymer screening test, No cut-off value used, Diagnostic test: 3 hour 100 g OGTT	Improvement of screening of GD with the use of glucose polymer rather than glucose	12/230 or 5.2% diagnosed with GD 8 mmol/litre or 144 mg/100 ml, For glucose polymer Sens: 89% Spec: 81% PPV:	The glucose polymer is preferable to glucose for CHO loading in pregnancy because of lower rates of nausea, better reproducibility of test results.	RCT	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Reichelt, 1998	498	Inclusion criteria: women aged ≥ 20 years, with no diagnosis of DM and between 21 and 28 weeks on enrolment Sample size 5,579, 5,010 remaining in the study	FPG Diagnostic test given to all, 2 hour 75 g OGTT	Diagnostic value	29% 379/5,010 or 7.6% diagnosed with GD At cut-off value of 81 mg/100 ml or 4.5 mmol/litre Sens: 94% Spec: 51% PPV: 0.6 NPV: 100 At cut-off value of 85 mg/100 ml or 4.7 mmol/litre Sens: 94% Spec: 66% PPV: 0.9 NPV: 100 At cut-off value of 89 mg/100 ml or 4.9 mmol/litre Sens: 88% Spec: 78% PPV: 1.3 NPV: 100	FPG is a useful screening test for GD, a threshold of 4.94 mmol/litre or 89 mg/100 ml maximises sensitivity and specificity.	Cohort study	II
Fadl, 2006	846	Pregnant women Sample size 3616	Fasting plasma glucose Diagnostic test given to all 2 hour 75 g OGTT between 28–32 weeks	Diagnostic value	55/3616 or 1.52% diagnosed with GD FPG Cut-off values between 4.0 and 5.0 mmol/litre, Sensitivity 87% to 47% Specificity 51% and 96%. LR+ and LR- best at ≥ 5.0 mmol/litre.	Fasting plasma glucose was found to be an acceptable and useful screening test for gestational diabetes	Cross-sectional population based study	II
Lamar, 1999	847	Pregnant women Women with diabetes mellitus were excluded Sample size 160, 136 completed the study	Jelly beans vs standard glucose (randomisation done), Blood glucose ≥ 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml) 3 hour 100 g fasting GTT used as diagnostic test	Diagnostic value using jelly beans	5/136 or 3.7% diagnosed with GD Using cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml), standard glucose: Sens: 80% Spec: 82% PPV: 15% NPV: 99% Jelly beans:	There is no significant difference in screening performance for jelly beans and the standard glucose. Patients report fewer side effects after a jelly bean challenge than after a 50 g glucose beverage test. So jelly beans may be used an alternative to the 50 g glucose	Prospective study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sens: 40% Spec: 85% PPV: 9% NPV: 97%	beverage test.		
Boyd, 1995	848	Pregnant women Exclusion criteria: Insulin dependent diabetics, women with a history of insulin usage for GD in a prior pregnancy and previously diagnosed gestational diabetics Sample size 157	Cola beverage vs Jelly beans, Diagnostic test given to all participants 3 hour 100 g GTT used as diagnostic test	Diagnostic value using jelly beans	13/157 or 8.3% diagnosed with GD Using cut-off 7.78 mmol/litre (140 mg/100 ml for cola beverage Sens: 46% Spec: 81% PPV: 18% Using cut-off 6.67 mmol/litre (120 mg/100 ml) for jelly beans Sens: 54% Spec: 81% PPV: 20%	Patient tolerance was greater for jelly beans as compared with the 50 g cola beverage. Jelly beans may serve as an alternative to a cola beverage containing 50 g of glucose.	Prospective study	II
Griffin, 2000	832	Pregnant women Risk factor group has one or more risk factors for GD	The risk factor group had a 3 hour 100 g OGTT at 32 weeks if any risk factor for GD was present. The universal group had a 50 g GCT and if their plasma glucose at 1 hour was ≥ 7.8 mmol/litre, a formal 3 hour 100 g OGTT was then performed.	Spontaneous vaginal delivery, macrosomia, caesarean section, prematurity, pre-eclampsia and admission to neonatal intensive care unit	Universal screening detected a GD prevalence of 2.7%, significantly 1.45% more than in the risk factor screened group. Universal screening group had higher rates of spontaneous vaginal delivery at term, lower rates of macrosomia, caesarean section, prematurity, pre-eclampsia and admission to neonatal intensive care unit.	Universal screening for GD was found to be superior to risk factor based screening as it detected more cases, facilitated early diagnosis and is associated with improved pregnancy outcomes.	RCT	2+
Schytte, 2004	833	Pregnant women who accepted screening for GD Sample size 1392	Capillary fasting blood glucose measurements between 20 and 32 weeks of gestation If levels ≥ 4.1 mmol/litre and < 6.7 mmol/litre a 3 hour 75 g OGTT was offered	Clinical outcome of pregnant women in relation to separate components of the pre-screening procedure, presence of GD and the capillary blood glucose 120 minutes after glucose load (cBG _{120 min}) concentration after a 75 g glucose load	Screening cFBG of 4.1 mmol/litre unable to predict GD and adverse outcome Best predictor of complicated delivery was a high BMI. Best predictor of fetal adverse outcome was cBG _{120 min} ≥ 9.0 mmol/litre after a 75 g glucose load Identical fraction complications were present in GD and non-GD.	Screening procedure for GD needs to be refined	Retrospective study	2-
Weijers, 2006	834	Pregnant women	The following data were collected for all	Diagnostic value of antepartum clinical	11/168 or 6.6% of women	Early postpartum diabetes is rare	Cross-sectional	2-

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		Sample size 2031	women: age and gestational age at entry into the study; pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI); ethnicity; obstetric and clinical history, including the onset of early postpartum diabetes; pregnancy outcome; level of fasting C-peptide; and glycemic parameters of 50 g 1 hour glucose challenge test and 100 g 3 hour oral glucose tolerance test (diagnostic OGTT)	characteristics	developed early postpartum diabetes. Family history of diabetes showed association with early postpartum diabetes. ROC curve analysis identified all three glucose challenge-test parameters, including fasting glucose concentration, as poor diagnostic tests, with a PPV of 22%, whereas PPV associated with the area under the diagnostic OGTT curve increased progressively over monitoring time from 20.6% to 100%. Using a 3 hour OGTT glucose area threshold of 35.7 mmol-h/l resulted in 100% sensitivity and 100% specificity, identifying the 11 women who developed early postpartum diabetes.	in GD women (6.5%), and that the clinical usefulness of the total area under the diagnostic 3 hour OGTT is superior to all other glycemic parameters for detecting early postpartum diabetes.	study	
Rajab, 1998	849	Pregnant women Sample size 3400	Screening test used was blood glucose 1 hour after 50 g glucose load (GCT) given in fasting state between 28 and 32 weeks. If blood glucose was ≥ 7.7 mmol/litre then 3 hour GTT was given	Pregnancy outcomes were compared for the following groups: A. GCT > 7.7 and < 8.3 mmol/litre (194 women) B. GCT ≥ 8.3 mmol/litre (194 women) C. GCT < 7.7 mmol/litre (194 women matched for age, parity and weight with group B)	197/3400 or 5.8% of women were considered to have abnormal GTT plus 199/3400 or 5.8% had impaired glucose tolerance. There was no significant difference in pregnancy-induced hypertension between groups. Preterm delivery was significantly more in group B. Birthweight > 4.5 kg was 4% in group C, 6% in group A and 9% in group B. The APGAR > 6 at 1 minute found no significant differences between groups.	Study was on a small scale but it suggests that it is possible to raise the cut-off level requiring full GTT from 7.7 to 8.3 mmol/litre without a serious adverse effect on pregnancy outcome	Prospective cohort study	2+
Yogev, 2005	850	Pregnant women Sample size 6854	A 50 g GCT was performed at 24–28 weeks of gestation and a screening value of ≥ 7.22 mmol/litre (130 mg/100 ml) was followed by a 100 g OGTT	Women were categorised by pre-pregnancy BMI and by different GCT thresholds. Maternal outcome was defined by rate of pre-eclampsia, gestational age at delivery, cesarean section (CS) rate and the need for labor induction. Neonatal outcome was defined by fetal size (macrosomia/LGA), arterial cord pH, respiratory complications and neonatal	A positive GCT result (GCT ≥ 7.22 mmol/litre (130 mg/100 ml)) was identified in 2541/6854 or 37% of women. 464/6854 or 6.8% of women were diagnosed with GD. In both groups of screening results (> 7.22 mmol/litre (130 mg/100 ml) and < 7.22 mmol/litre	Fetal size and cesarean section are associated with the degree of carbohydrate intolerance. Obesity remains the main contributor impacting fetal size.	Prospective cohort study	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
				intensive care unit (NICU) admission.	(130 mg/100 ml)), the obese women were significantly older, gained more weight during pregnancy and had a lower rate of nulliparity in comparison with the non obese women. The obese women had higher rates of macrosomia, LGA and induction of labor. No difference was found in mean birthweight, the total rate of cesarean section, preterm delivery, 5 minute Apgar score ≤ 7 , mean arterial cord pH, NICU admission and a need for respiratory support in comparison with non obese women in both groups of screening results. A gradual increase in the rate of macrosomia, LGA and cesarean section was identified in both obese and non-obese women in relation to increasing GCT severity categories.			
Dietrich, 1987	851	Middle-class, healthy, Caucasian pregnant women Sample size 2000	Screening test involved a 50 g GCT followed by a 3 hour OGTT if necessary	Compared the value of routine versus selective diabetes screening ¹ . Those to undergo routine screening between 24 and 28 weeks of gestation 2. Those to be tested selectively in the presence of standard risk factors.	Incidence of GD in the selectively screened group was twice (19/453, 4.2%) that in routinely screened group (21/1000, 2.1%). Glucose intolerance without a risk factor was found in only one case (1/1000, 0.1%) in the routinely screened group.	This assessment has allowed clinical practice to safely eliminate the need for diabetes screening in more than half of their private patients, which reduces office time, patient inconvenience, and expense.	Prospective study	2+
Sun, 1995	852	Pregnant women, no history of diabetes mellitus before pregnancy Sample size 622	50 g GCT and a 75 g OGTT was performed if screening tests value was ≥ 7.78 mmol/litre	Relationship between the 50 g GCT and pregnancy outcomes	103/622 or 16.56% of women underwent the diagnostic test, among whom, 32 were identified as having gestational impaired glucose tolerance (GiGT) and 12 as GD. The sensitivity of 50 gGCT was 42.72% (44/103). The incidences of edema-proteinuria-hypertension syndrome (EPH-syndrome), premature rupture of membranes, fetal macrosomia, operative	50 gGCT is an ideal method of screening for GD and should be performed on all pregnant women.	Prospective randomised study	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Rumbold, 2002	853	Total of 158 women participated in the study whereas 51 women participated after being screened	They tested the hypothesis that women with a positive result on the screen test will experience a reduction in quality of life, their health and that of their baby when compared with women with a normal screening result	Women's experiences of being screened for GD A Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale and Short Form 36 Item Health Survey were used to study the main outcome measures: anxiety, depression, health status, concerns about the health of the baby and perceived health	deliveries and perinatal morbidity were higher in women with GIGT/GD than in women without GIGT/GD. No differences in the levels of anxiety, depression or the women's concerns about the health of their babies. When positively screened women for GD were compared with negatively screened women, the positively screened group had significantly lower health perceptions, were significantly less likely to rate their health as 'much better than one year ago' and were significantly more likely to rate their health as 'fair' rather than 'very good' or 'excellent'.	There is a negative impact on the health perceptions in women screened positive for GD.	Prospective survey	2-
Kerbel, 1997	854	Women between 12 and 14 weeks of gestation with no previous history of diabetes mellitus or GD were included 809 women completed questionnaires at baseline, 32 weeks, and 36 weeks of gestation	50 g glucose challenge test	Whether false positive results of 50 g glucose challenge test for GD are associated with adverse psychological effects.	At 32 weeks, 20% of women with false positive GCT results significantly perceived their health as excellent as compared to 38% of women with negative results or not tested. These results were sustained at 36 weeks. The study showed no significant association between false positive test result and anxiety levels, depression or woman's concern for health of baby. These results were neither significant between baseline and 32 weeks nor at 36 weeks.	False positive screening for GD is associated with a decreased perception of maternal health persisting at 36 weeks of gestation and this should be taken into account when setting a policy of screening all pregnant women for GD.	Prospective cohort study	2+
Naylor, 1997	855	Pregnant women Sample size 3131	3131 women randomly divided into two groups – a derivation group and a validation group. The screening strategies were derived from the derivation group data which were then tested in the validation group by comparing the effectiveness and efficiency with those of usual care. The strategies used were; no screening for low-risk women, usual care for intermediate-risk women, and universal screening with lower thresholds – plasma glucose values of 130 mg per deciliter (7.2 mmol per liter) or 128 mg per	Using clinical characteristics for assessing women's risks of gestational diabetes could enhance the efficiency of screening	There was a 34.6% reduction (95% CI 32.3 to 37.0) in the number of screening tests performed after using the new strategies. The detection rate of gestational diabetes with new strategies was 81.2 to 82.6 % compared with the 78.3% detected through usual care. There was a significant reduction in the percentage of false positive screening tests	The consideration of women's clinical characteristics allows efficient selective screening for gestational diabetes.	Prospective study	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			deciliter (7.1 mmol per liter) – for high-risk women.		from 17.9 % with usual care to 16.0 % or 15.4 % ($P < 0.001$) with the new strategies, depending on the threshold values for high-risk women.			
Scott, 2002	483				Risk factors for gestational diabetes included obesity, advanced maternal age, advanced maternal age, family history of diabetes, minority ethnic background, increased weight gain in early adulthood and current smoker.		Systematic review	2+
Dornhorst, 1992	829			frequency of gestational diabetes according age, BMI, parity and ethnic origin in women without known pre-existing diabetes mellitus and to analyse the influence of risk factors separately for each ethnic group	170/11 205 (1.5%) women were diagnosed with gestational diabetes. Women with gestational diabetes were significantly older (32.3 versus 28.3 years; $P < 0.001$) had higher BMI (27.7 versus 23.8; $P < 0.001$) and more likely to be from an ethnic minority (55.4% versus 15.3%; $P < 0.0001$). Rates of gestational diabetes by ethnicity were: white 0.4% (26/6135), Black 1.5% (29/1977); South East Asian 3.5% (20/572); Indian 4.4% (54/1218). After adjusting for age, BMI and parity the RR (with white as the reference category) was as follows: Black 3.1 (95% CI 1.8 – 5.5); South East Asian 7.6 (95% CI 4.1 – 14.1); Indian 11.3 (95% CI 6.8–18.8).		Retrospective study	2–
Moses, 1995	830			the proportion of women with gestational diabetes missed if testing was confined to risk factors	Women without GD were significantly younger (26.4:28.1, $P < 0.02$) and had a lower BMI (24.2:25.9, $P < 0.05$) than women with GD. 31 women (39.2%) with		Observational study	3

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					GD had no historical risk factors and would have been missed if only selective testing undertaken.			
Ostlund, 2003	835		Traditional risk factors used were family history of diabetes (first-degree relative), obesity (≥ 90 kg), prior large for gestational age baby (≥ 4500 g) or prior GD		Women who did not take the OGTT were more likely to be multiparous and of non-nordic origin but were less likely to have a family history of diabetes, prior macrosomic baby or prior gestational diabetes. 1.7% of women who were given OGTT were diagnosed with gestational diabetes. The risk factors with the strongest association were prior gestational diabetes (12/61, OR 23.6, 95% CI 11.6–48.0) and prior macrosomic baby (9/61, OR 5.59, 95% CI 2.68–11.7). Other risk factors were family history of diabetes (13/61, OR 2.74, CI 1.47–5.11) non-nordic origin (13/61, OR 2.19, 95% CI 1.18–4.08) weight (≥ 90 kg: 8/61, OR 3.33, 95% CI 1.56–7.13) BMI (≥ 30 : 11/61, OR 2.65, 95% CI 1.36–5.14) and age (≥ 25 : 55/61, OR 3.37, 95% CI 1.45–7.85).		Prospective population-based study	2+
Kim, 2007	836	13 studies were included		Recurrence rates and risk factors for gestational diabetes	The recurrence rate of glucose intolerance during subsequent pregnancies varied markedly across studies. The most consistent predictor of future recurrence appeared to be nonwhite race/ethnicity, although the racial breakdowns within a study were not always clearly described. The recurrence rates varied between 30 and 84% after the index pregnancy. The recurrence rates were higher in the		Systematic review	2++

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p>minority populations (52–69%) as compared to lower rates found in non-Hispanic white populations (30–37%). No other risk factors were consistently associated with recurrence of GD across studies. Other risk factors, such as maternal age, parity, BMI, OGTT levels, and insulin use inconsistently predicted development of recurrent GD across studies.</p>			

11.2 Pre-eclampsia

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value of different screening methods in identifying women at risk of developing pre-eclampsia?

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Yaron, 1999	857	Sample size 60 040 Exclusion criteria: structural or chromosomal anomalies Age not reported 14–22 weeks	Reference standard: SBP \geq 140 mmHg or DBP \geq 90 mmHg; presence of proteinuria Index cut-off: Competitive RIA (Sanofi Diagnostics) 2.5 MoM	Diagnostic value of AFP screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 3.2% Sens: 4.3% Spec: 97.4%	Multiple marker screening can be used for the detection of not only fetal anomalies and aneuploidy but also for detection of high-risk pregnancy	Prospective cohort study	II
Pouta, 1998	858	Sample size 637, Inclusion criteria: nulliparas Exclusion criteria: multiple pregnancies, fetal defects 27.7 \pm 4.5 years 15–19 weeks	Reference standard: BP \geq 140/90 mmHg 6 hours apart or rise 30/15 mmHg; Prot. \geq 300 mg/24 hours Index cut-off: time resolved FIA (Wallac) 2.0 MoM	Diagnostic value of AFP screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 5.3% Sens: 3% Spec: 98%	AFP not helpful in predicting pre-eclampsia	Population-based cohort study	II
Cotter, 2004	859	Sample size 264 (88 cases and 176 controls) Inclusion criteria: Normotensive non-proteinuric women, male fetuses Exclusion criteria: aneuploid fetuses 26.1 \pm 5.9 years, 15.7 \pm 3.6 weeks	Reference standard: BP \geq 140/90 mmHg; Prot. \geq 0.3 g/24 hours or 1+/2+ dipstick Index cut-off: fDNA Real-time PCR TaqMan SRY < 10,000 copies/ml < 50,000 > 50,000	Diagnostic value of Fetal DNA screening test	SRY copies/ml < 10,000 Sens: 94.32% Spec: 32.39% LR+: 1.39 < 50,000 Sens: 81.82% Spec: 64.77% LR+: 2.32	Increased fetal DNA is present in the maternal circulation in early pregnancy in women who subsequently develop pre-eclampsia and there appears to be a graded response between the quantity of fetal DNA and the risk of developing pre-eclampsia.	Case-control study (nested and matched)	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					> 50,000 Sens: 38.64% Spec: 90.34% LR+: 4.00			
Leung, 2001	860	Sample size: 51 (18 cases and 33 controls), Inclusion criteria: singleton pregnancies, male fetuses Age n.r. 11–22 weeks	Reference standard: DBP \geq 90 mmHg 2x \geq 4 hours apart or DBP \geq 110 mmHg; Prot. \geq 0.3 g/ 24 hours or 2+ dipstick 2x \geq 4 hours apart, Incidence n.r. Index cut-off: fDNA Real-time PCR TaqMan SRY \geq 33.5 Geq/ml	Diagnostic value of Fetal DNA screening test	SRY \geq 33.5 Geq/ml Sens: 67% Spec: 82% (cant calculate LRs)	Maternal plasma fetal DNA might be used as a marker for predicting pre-eclampsia.	Case-control study (nested and matched)	II
Yaron, 1999	857	Sample size: 45 565, Exclusion criteria: structural or chromosomal anomalies Age n.r. 14–22 weeks	Reference standard: SBP \geq 140 mmHg or DBP \geq 90 mmHg; presence of proteinuria Index cut-off: β -hCG IRMA 2.5 MoM	Diagnostic value of β -hCG screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 3.0% Sens: 5.5% Spec: 96%	Multiple marker screening can be used for the detection of not only fetal anomalies and aneuploidy but also for detection of high-risk pregnancy	Prospective cohort study	II
Lambert-Messerlian, 2000	861	Sample size: 359 (60 cases, 299 controls) IN: singleton pregnancies EX: chronic hypertension, diabetes; 26.9 \pm 7.3 years 15–21 weeks	Reference standard: BP > 140/90 mmHg; Prot. > 300 mg/24 hours or \geq 2+ dipstick, Index cut-off: Total hCG (Serono MAIO Clone) 2.3 MoM	Diagnostic value of β -hCG screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 16.7% With 95% specificity a modeled sensitivity of 15% (cant calculate LRs)	second-trimester serum levels of hCG is a modest predictor of later onset pre-eclampsia.	Case-control study	II
Ashour, 1997	862	Sample size: 6138, IN: singleton pregnancies EX: fetal/ chromosomal abnormalities, diabetes, chronic hypertension 28.1 \pm 5.3 years 15–22 weeks	Reference standard: SBP \geq 140 mmHg or DBP \geq 90 mmHg 2x 6 hours apart; Prot. > 300 mg/24 hours or \geq 1+ dipstick 2x 6 hours apart Index cut-off: β -hCG (IMx Abbott) 2.0 MoM	Diagnostic value of β -hCG screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 3.2%	The utility of an elevated second-trimester β -hCG level as a screening test for pre-eclampsia is limited.	Prospective cohort study	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Sanchez-Ramos, 1991	863	Sample size: 99, Inclusion criteria: Normotensive nulliparas Exclusion criteria: diabetes mellitus, renal disease, chronic hypertension, other chronic medical illnesses 18.7 ± 0.5 years, 10–24 weeks	Reference standard: BP ≥ 140/90 mmHg twice ≥ 6 hours apart or rise SBP ≥ 30 mmHg or DBP ≥ 15 mmHg Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/ 24 hours or ≥ 1+ dipstick Index cut-off: Colorimetric/ colorimetric autoanalyser ≤ 195 mg/24 hours	Diagnostic value of urinary calcium excretion screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 8.1% Sens: 86% Spec: 84% PPV: 46% NPV: 98%	The study suggests a pathophysiologic role for altered urinary calcium excretion in women with pre-eclampsia that may contribute to early identification of patients at risk for the disease.	Prospective longitudinal study	II
Baker, 1994	864	Sample size: 500, Inclusion criteria: Normotensive nulliparas Exclusion criteria: renal disease, chronic hypertension Median 27 years (range 24–31), 18–19 weeks	Reference standard: DBP ≥ 90 mmHg twice ≥ 4 hours apart Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/ 24 hours Index cut-off: Perspective analyser (colorimetric)/ Monarch centrifugal analyser (kinetic) n.r.	Diagnostic value of urinary calcium excretion screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia: 2.6% Sens: 31% Spec: 72% (correctly predicted 71%)		Prospective, non-interventional study	II
Rogers, 1994	865	Sample size: 199, Inclusion criteria: normotensive primigravidas, singleton pregnancies Exclusion criteria: congenital malformations 27.1 ± 3.8 years, 18–26 weeks	Reference standard: BP ≥ 140/90 mmHg ≥ twice Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/l Index cut-off: Cresolphthalein method (American Monitor)/ Beckman Astra-8 analyser 0.3	Diagnostic value of calcium creatinine ratio screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 4.0% Sens: 49% Spec: 90%		Cohort study	II
Conde, 1994	866	Sample size: 387 women, Inclusion criteria: normotensive nulliparas, singleton pregnancies Exclusion criteria: diabetes mellitus, renal disease, proteinuria, chronic hypertension, other chronic medical illnesses 23.8 ± 5.7 years, 20 weeks	Reference standard: SBP ≥ 140 or DBP ≥ 90 mmHg twice ≥ 6 hours apart Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/l Index cut-off: Colorimetric (direct)/ picrato alcalino method 0.07	Diagnostic value of calcium creatinine ratio screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 3.4% Sens: 33% Spec: 78% PPV: 5% NPV: 97%	Poor predictive values suggest that changes in the biochemical and hematologic tests occur only when pre-eclampsia has been established.	Prospective cohort study	II
Kazerooni, 2003	867	Sample size: 102, Inclusion criteria: nulliparas (18–35 years) Exclusion criteria: renal disease, diabetes mellitus, proteinuria, chronic hypertension, other chronic medical illnesses	Reference standard: BP ≥ 140/90 mmHg or rise SBP ≥ 30 mmHg or DBP ≥ 15 mmHg twice ≥ 6 hours apart Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/ 24 hours or ≥ 1+ dipstick Index cut-off:	Diagnostic value of calcium creatinine ratio screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 7.8% Sens: 75% Spec: 77.7% PPV: 20.7% NPV: 97%	Single urine calcium to creatinine ratio may be an effective method for screening women at the greatest risk of pre-eclampsia.	Prospective cross-sectional study	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		22.8 ± 4.5 years, 20–24 weeks	n.r. ≤ 0.01 mmol/litre:mmol/litre (0.229 (mg/100 ml:mg/100 ml)					
Baker, 1994	864	Sample size: 500, Inclusion criteria: Normotensive nulliparas Exclusion criteria: renal disease, chronic hypertension Median 27 years (range 24–31), 18–19 weeks	Reference standard: DBP ≥ 90 mmHg twice ≥ 4 hours apart Prot. ≥ 0.3 g/24 hours Index cut-off Perspective analyser (colorimetric)/ Monarch centrifugal analyser (kinetic) n.r.	Diagnostic value of calcium creatinine ratio screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 2.6% Sens: 31% Spec: 55% (correctly predicted 71%)		Prospective, non- interventional study	II
Papageorghiou, 2001	868	Sample size: 7851, Inclusion criteria: singleton pregnancies, routine antenatal care. Exclusion criteria: fetal abnormalities 29.7 (16–47) yrs, 22–24 weeks	Reference standard: DBP ≥ 90 mmHg twice > 4 hours apart, prot. ≥ 0.3 g/24 hours or ≥ 2+ dipstick twice if no 24 hour collection available Index cut-off: CD+PW, transvaginal Acuson SP-10, Aloka 5000, Aloka 17000, ATL HDI 3000, ATL Hdi 3500, Hitachi, Toshiba, Siemens	Diagnostic value of bilateral notches screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 1.4% Sens: 25.4% Spec: 90.9% PPV: 2.5% NPV: 99.3% LR+: 8.87 LR-: 0.62		Cohort study	II
Harrington, 1997	869	Sample size: 626, Inclusion criteria: Singleton pregnancies, unselected 15–49 years, 12–16 weeks	Reference standard: SBP ≥ 140 or DBP ≥ 90 mmHg, prot > 0.3 g/24 hours Index cut-off: CD+PW, transvaginal Acuson 128	Diagnostic value of bilateral notches screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 4.8% Sens: 92.9% Spec: 85.1% PPV: 23.6% NPV: 99.5%		Cohort study	II
Marchesoni, 2003	870	895 (177 cases and 718 controls) Unselected women 31.7 ± 5.3 years, 20 weeks, 24 weeks	Reference standard: BP > 140/90 mmHg, prot. > 0.3 g/24 hours Index cut-off: CD Acuson Sequoia	Diagnostic value of bilateral notches screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 2.9% Sens: 72% Spec: 94% PPV: 26% NPV: 99%		Case-control study	II
Schwarze, 2005	871	Sample size: 346 women (19– 22 weeks: 215 women) (23–26 weeks- 131 women), Exclusion criteria: essential hypertension, DM, autoimmune disorders, history of PE, FGR, IUD, placental abruption; multiple	Reference standard: RR ≥ 140/90 mmHg, prot. ≥ 0.3 g/24 hours, no UTI Index cut-off: CD Elegra (Siemens), Acuson 128 XP10	Diagnostic value of bilateral notches screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 4.9% 19–22 weeks vs 23–26 weeks Sens: 40% vs 67% Spec: 82% vs 84% PPV: 10% vs 17%	The predictive value of uterine artery Doppler for adverse pregnancy outcome in a low-risk population is of limited diagnostic value. Performing uterine artery Doppler studies at 23–	Prospective study	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		pregnancies, fetal abnormalities 31.4 (17–46) yrs, 19–22 weeks, 23–26 weeks			NPV: 97% vs 98%	26 weeks of gestation increases the predictive value for adverse pregnancy outcomes.		
Emine,2005	872	Sample size: 178, Exclusion criteria: multiple pregnancies, hypertension before 26 weeks, diabetes or pregnancy with prenatal and postnatal diagnosis of a chromosomal/ structural abnormality, previous pregnancy complicated by pre-eclampsia, 28.8 ± 5.1 30.6 ± 4.3, 16–18 weeks 24–26 weeks	Reference standard: BP ≥ 140/90 mmHg and first Dx after 20 weeks, proteinuria ≥ 300 mg/24 hour Index cut-off: Two site enzyme immunoassays, immunometric assays, two site chemiluminescent immunometric assay, ultrasound machines	Diagnostic value of integrated Doppler screening test	Incidence of pre-eclampsia 7.9% Bilateral notch Sens:85.7% Spec: 97.6% Bilateral notch + serum activin Sens: 78.6% Spec: 100% Bilateral notch+ serum inhibin A Sens: 71.4% Spec: 100% Bilateral notch OR serum activin Sens: 100% Spec: 86%	Maternal serum inhibin A and activin A levels and uterine artery Doppler appear to be useful screening tests during the second trimester for pre-eclampsia. However the addition of these hormonal markers to Doppler velocimetry only slightly improves the predictive efficacy.	Prospective study	II
Audibert, 2005	873	Sample size: 2615, EX: multiple pregnancies, without ultrasound between 10–14 weeks, women referred for nuchal translucency, structural anomalies, chromosomal abnormalities, 30.9 ± 4.5 years, 14–18 weeks 18–26 weeks	Reference standard: SBP ≥ 140 mmHg or a DBP ≥ 90 mmHg twice, proteinuria > 0.3 g/24 hour or at least 2+ protein on urine dipstick Index cut-off: Amerlite kit	Diagnostic value of integrated Doppler screening test	Prevalence of PE 1.95% Bilateral notch Sens: 21.56% Spec: 95.94% History of pre-eclampsia or bilateral notch or hCG > 2.5 MoM Sens: 41.17% Spec: 91.61%	Combination of serum markers and abnormal uterine Doppler ultrasound improves the identification of women at risk for subsequent pregnancy complications. The care providers should be encouraged to perform a uterine Doppler ultrasound when serum markers are abnormal. However, the sensitivity of these tests is too low to provide an efficient generalised screening.	Cohort study	II
Skjaerven <i>et al.</i> , 2002	531	Sample size: 551,478 women who had 2 or more singleton deliveries and 209,423 women who had 3 or more	A large registry used in Norway to evaluate the effects on the risk of pre-eclampsia of both the interbirth interval	Time interval between pregnancies	Risk in a second or third pregnancy was directly related to the time elapsed since the previous delivery.	The protective effect of previous pregnancy against pre-eclampsia is	Prospective study	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		singleton deliveries were studied	and a change of partner		The association between risk of pre-eclampsia and interval was more significant than the association between risk and change of partner. When the interval was 10 years or more the risk of pre-eclampsia was about the same as that in nulliparous women. After adjustment for the presence or absence of a change of partner, maternal age, and year of delivery, the probability of pre-eclampsia was increased by 1.12 for each year increase in the interval (odds ratio 1.12, 1.11 to 1.13).	transient.		
Conde-Agudelo <i>et al.</i> , 2000	874	456,889 parous women delivering singleton infants	Impact of interpregnancy interval	Maternal morbidity and mortality	women with more than 59 months between pregnancies had significantly increased risks of pre-eclampsia (RR 1.83, 1.72 to 1.94) compared with women with intervals of 18–23 months	interpregnancy intervals < 6 months and > 59 months are associated with an increased risk of adverse maternal outcomes.	Retrospective cross-sectional study	3
Basso <i>et al.</i> , 2001	875	Danish women with pre-eclampsia in the previous birth (8,401 women) all women with pre-eclampsia in second (but not first) birth together with a sample of women with two births (26,596 women)	Interpregnancy interval	Interpregnancy interval may confound or modify the paternal effect on pre-eclampsia	a long interval between pregnancies was associated with a significantly higher risk of pre-eclampsia in a second pregnancy when pre-eclampsia had not been present in the first pregnancy and paternity had not changed	The interval between births should be taken into consideration when studying the effect of changing partner on pre-eclampsia.	cohort study	2+
Reiss <i>et al.</i> , 1987	876	30 patients met their criteria for pre-eclampsia and were matched for age, race, and parity with normotensive control subjects	Reviewed the outpatient charts of all patients with pre-eclampsia who received prenatal care at their clinics during the past 3 years	Blood pressure at booking	Both systolic and diastolic blood pressures were significantly higher ($P < 0.05$) in the first trimester for women with pre-eclampsia than for normal control subjects beginning in the first trimester.	This difference persisted throughout pregnancy and was also present at the 6 week postpartum visit ($P < 0.025$).	Retrospective study	2–
Sibai <i>et al.</i> , 1995	877	2947 healthy women with a single fetus were prospectively followed up from randomisation at 13 to 27 weeks of gestation to the end of pregnancy	Determine whether any maternal demographic or clinical characteristics are predictive of pre-eclampsia	Blood pressure at booking	Higher systolic and diastolic blood pressures at the first visit were associated with an increased incidence of pre-eclampsia (3.8% in women with diastolic blood pressure of < 55 mmHg, 7.4% in those with diastolic blood pressure 70–84 mmHg). However, their recruitment was limited to women with a first blood pressure reading of $\leq 135/85$ mmHg.	Risk factors should be of value to practitioners counselling women regarding pre-eclampsia.	Clinical trial	1+
Odegard <i>et al.</i> , 2000	878	323 cases of pre-eclampsia and 650 healthy controls were selected	Studied the associations between established risk factors for pre-eclampsia	Clinical manifestations of disease	a systolic blood pressure ≥ 130 mmHg compared with	Nulliparity and hypertension increased	Population based nested case–	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			and different clinical manifestations of the disease		< 110 mmHg at the first visit before 18 weeks was significantly associated with the development of pre-eclampsia later in pregnancy (adjusted OR 3.6 [2.0 to 6.6]). The association with a diastolic pressure \geq 80 mmHg compared with < 60 mmHg was similar but not significant (adjusted OR 1.8 [0.7 to 4.6]).	the risk for each subgroup of pre-eclampsia, but high maternal weight, previous pre-eclampsia and smoking were not consistently associated with each clinical subtype	control	
Stamilio <i>et al.</i> , 2000	530	Cases with severe pre-eclampsia were compared with control subjects with respect to clinical data and multiple-marker screening test results. Patients were assigned a predictive score according to the presence or absence of predictive factors	To develop a clinical prediction rule for severe pre-eclampsia that was based on clinical risk factors and biochemical factors.		The only variables that remained significantly associated with severe pre-eclampsia were nulliparity (RR 3.8, 95% CI, 1.7–8.3), history of pre-eclampsia (RR 5.0, 95% CI, 1.7–17.2), elevated screening mean arterial pressure (RR 3.5, 95% CI, 1.7–7.2), and low unconjugated estriol concentration (RR 1.7, 95% CI, 0.9–3.4). This predictive model for severe pre-eclampsia, which included only these 4 variables, had a sensitivity of 76% and a specificity of 46%.	Even after incorporation of the strongest risk factors, the predictive model had only modest sensitivity and specificity for discrimination of patients at risk for development of severe pre-eclampsia.	Retrospective cohort study	2–
Stettler <i>et al.</i> , 1992	879	65 pregnancies in 53 women with the following criteria: proteinuria exceeding 500 mg per day, no previously known renal disease, no reversible renal dysfunction, and no evidence for pre-eclampsia at discovery were studied.	Evaluated varying degrees of chronic proteinuria as a predictor of pregnancy outcome. Determined the significance of otherwise 'asymptomatic' proteinuria identified during pregnancy	Perinatal outcomes	58% of the women with proteinuria combined with renal insufficiency developed pre-eclampsia. 100% of women with preteinuria combined with chronic hypertension developed pre-eclampsia whereas 77% of women with with all three together developed pre-eclampsia	'Asymptomatic' proteinuria is associated with a number of adverse pregnancy outcomes and serious long-term maternal morbidity.	Retrospective study	2–

11.3 Preterm birth

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Goldenberg <i>et al.</i> , 1998	880	Asymptomatic pregnant women with singleton pregnancies at 22–24 weeks in the USA who already had a dating scan (<i>n</i> = 2929). Mean age 23.7 ± 5.5 years, 63% Black, 42% nulliparous	Predictive value, prevalence, and PAR. Reference standard – postnatal assessment of gestational age. Threshold of positive history – spontaneous previous birth at 20–37 weeks. Threshold for positive FFN test (single sample from posterior vaginal fornix at 24–26 weeks) – levels > 50 ng/ml. Threshold for short cervix on TVS at 24 and 28 weeks – length ≤ 25 mm	Spontaneous preterm delivery at < 32, < 35 and < 37 weeks	<u>For SPTB < 37 weeks</u> H/O previous SPTB (<i>n</i> = 1711) Sensitivity: 42% (35%, 49%) Specificity: 82% (80%, 83%) OR: 2.6 (1.9, 3.6) Positive FFN test (<i>n</i> = 2929) Sensitivity: 19% (14%, 23%) Specificity: 95% (94%, 95%) OR nullipara: 2.9 (1.5, 5.5) OR multipara: 3.4 (2.1, 5.4) Short cervix (<i>n</i> = 2929) Sensitivity: 24% (19%, 28%) Specificity: 93% (92%, 94%) OR nullipara: 4.6 (2.8, 7.5) OR multipara: 2.5 (1.6, 3.8)	Multicentre study Representative population Blinding of outcome assessors Tests described in details	CH	I b
Iams <i>et al.</i> , 1998	881	Asymptomatic parous women with singleton pregnancies at 22–24 weeks in the USA who already had a dating scan, and with H/O previous SPTB (<i>n</i> = 1282)	Estimation of risk of SPTB by H/O previous SPTB (from 18 to 37 weeks), positive FFN test (level > 50 ng/ml) and short cervical length (< 25 mm on TVS)	Spontaneous preterm delivery at < 35 weeks	<u>H/O previous SPTB at 18–26 weeks</u> RR (with short cervix): 0.25 (0.04, 0.72) RR (with short cervix + positive FFN): 0.64 (0.15, 0.95) <u>H/O previous SPTB at 27–31 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 33% (23%, 44%) Specificity: 88% (86%, 89%) RR (with short cervix): 0.25 (0.04, 0.72) RR (with short cervix + positive FFN): 0.64 (0.14, 0.95) <u>H/O previous SPTB at 32–36 weeks</u>	Multicentre study (retrospective analysis of data) Representative population Blinding of outcome assessors Tests described in details	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: 67% (56%, 77%) Specificity: 73% (70%, 76%) RR (with short cervix): 0.25 (0.04, 0.70) RR (with short cervix + positive FFN): 0.63 (0.15, 0.94) <u>H/O previous SPTB at > 37 weeks</u> RR (with short cervix): 0.06 (0.01, 0.25) RR (with short cervix + positive FFN): 0.25 (0.04, 0.71)			
Kristensen <i>et al.</i> , 1995	882	All women with permanent address in Denmark who gave birth to their first singleton infant in 1982 and a second in 1982–87. (<i>n</i> = 13 965). Information obtained from National Medical Birth Register and National Register of Hospital Discharges	Relationship between preterm delivery in first pregnancy (both idiopathic and indicated) and complications in second pregnancy.	Preterm delivery at < 37 weeks (both idiopathic and indicated)	<u>Diagnostic value for H/O idiopathic preterm delivery</u> Sensitivity: 19% (14%, 23%) Specificity: 97% (96%, 97%) <u>Relative risk for preterm delivery by conditions in first pregnancy</u> SGA: 2.7 (2.0, 3.7) LGA: 1.2 (0.6, 2.3) Birthweight < 2500 g: 4.7 (3.8, 5.6) Gest age < 32 weeks: 6.0 (4.1, 8.8) Gest age 32–36 weeks: 4.8 (3.9, 6.0)	Retrospective analysis of data Population representative Blinding not specified Test described in details	CH	II
Iams <i>et al.</i> , 2002	883	Asymptomatic nulli and multiparous women with singleton pregnancies at 22–24 weeks in the USA who already had a dating scan, and with no H/O previous SPTB (<i>n</i> = 2107)	To assess FFN levels (positive test if levels > 50 ng/ml), Bishop score (≥ 4 as threshold, digital examination done 4 times before 35 weeks) and short cervix (≤ 25 mm by TVS) as predictor of preterm delivery	Predictive value for spontaneous preterm delivery at < 35 weeks	<u>Bishop score</u> Sensitivity: 23.4% Specificity: 92.6% PPV: 9.1% NPV: 97.5% RR: 3.6 (2.1, 6.3) <u>Short cervix</u> Sensitivity: 39.1%	Multicentre study (retrospective analysis of data) Representative population Blinding of outcome assessors Tests described in details	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Specificity: 92.5% PPV: 14.0% NPV: 98.0% RR: 6.9 (4.3, 11.1)			
					<u>Positive FFN test</u> Sensitivity: 23.4% Specificity: 97.0% PPV: 19.7% NPV: 98.0% RR: 8.2 (4.8, 13.9)			
Blondel <i>et al.</i> , 1990	884	Women with single pregnancies attending two teaching hospitals in France (<i>n</i> = 7641)	Clinical examination done at 25–28 and 29–31 weeks for 5 signs – (1 cm internal os dilatation, short cervix ≤ 1 cm, mid position of cervix, soft or firm cervix, expansion of lower uterine segment). Two risk scores compared – Score 1 with maternal characteristics and symptoms, Score 2 with maternal characteristics, symptoms and vaginal examination.	Predictive value for spontaneous preterm delivery at < 35 weeks for clinical examination findings, and the two scores	<u>At 25–28 weeks for nulliparaous</u> 1) Cervical dilatation Sensitivity: 13% (8%, 19%) Specificity: 98% (98%, 99%) 2) Short cervix Sensitivity: 14% (9%, 20%) Specificity: 95% (94%, 96%) 3) Score 1 Sensitivity: 45.6% Specificity: 68.4% 3) Score 2 Sensitivity: 53.7% Specificity: 66.4%	Multicentre study Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II
					<u>At 25–28 weeks for multiparaous</u> 1) Cervical dilatation Sensitivity: 15% (9%, 23%) Specificity: 97% (96%, 98%) 2) Short cervix Sensitivity: 11% (6%, 17%) Specificity: 95% (94%, 96%) 3) Score 1 Sensitivity: 48.1% Specificity: 70.8% 3) Score 2 Sensitivity: 57.5% Specificity: 68.5%			

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<u>At 29–31 weeks for nulliparaous</u> 1) Score 1 Sensitivity: 55.0% Specificity: 66.0% 2) Score 2 Sensitivity: 63.3% Specificity: 62.7%			
					<u>At 29–31 weeks for multiparaous</u> 1) Score 1 Sensitivity: 52.1% Specificity: 71.3% 2) Score 2 Sensitivity: 54.9% Specificity: 71.8%			
Chambers <i>et al.</i> , 1990	885	Women with singleton pregnancies and with at least 2 visits to a hospital in France at < 28 weeks of gestation (n = 5758)	Clinical examination done once in two weeks. Threshold for short cervix – length ≤ 1 cm before 28 weeks Threshold for cervical dilatation – length ≥ 1 cm before 37 weeks.	Diagnostic accuracy results and risk for spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks	<u>Short cervix only</u> Sensitivity: 21% (15%, 28%) Specificity: 89% (88%, 90%) RR: 2.15 <u>Cervical dilatation</u> Sensitivity: 37% (30%, 45%) Specificity: 83% (82%, 84%) RR: 2.73 <u>Both together</u> Sensitivity: 21.6% Specificity: 96.5% RR: 6.54	Population not representative Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Parikh and Mehta, 1961	886	Singleton pregnancies attending antenatal clinic of a government hospital in India at 21 weeks or more (n = 655)	Vaginal examination done every 2 weeks from 21–36 weeks Threshold for open os – admit examining finger	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks. Outcome of pregnancy also correlated with parity, character of internal os, and duration of gestation	Sensitivity: 49% (36%, 63%) Specificity: 57% (52%, 62%)	Population not representative. Blinding not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Leveno <i>et al.</i> , 1986	887	Low-risk singleton pregnancies enrolled consecutively in a medical centre in the USA (<i>n</i> = 185)	Single vaginal examination done at 26–30 weeks. Threshold for cervical dilatation – os > 2cm dilated	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 34 weeks.	Sensitivity: 57% (18%, 90%) Specificity: 94% (89%, 98%)	Population not representative Blinding of outcome assessors Test described adequately	CH	II
Heath <i>et al.</i> , 2000	888	Women with singleton pregnancies attending a fetal medicine unit in the UK for routine second-trimester anomaly scan (<i>n</i> = 5146)	Risk ascertained for preterm delivery < 33 weeks for maternal characteristics (smoking, previous delivery at 24–33 weeks), FFN positivity (≥ 50 ng/ml) and cervical length (≤ 15 mm) by TVS. Two swabs taken from posterior vaginal fornix at 22–24 weeks.	Diagnostic value for predicting spontaneous preterm delivery < 34 weeks.	<u>Positive FFN test</u> Sensitivity: 32.6% Specificity: 96.9% PPV: 8.1% NPV: 99.4% <u>Short cervical length</u> Sensitivity: 27.9% Specificity: 99.5% PPV: 30.8% NPV: 99.4% <u>Maternal smoking</u> Sensitivity: 32.6% Specificity: 85.4% PPV: 1.9% NPV: 99.3% <u>Previous delivery at 24–33 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 9.3% Specificity: 98.6% PPV: 5.5% NPV: 99.2%	Representative population Blinding for FFN levels, not for cervical length Test described adequately	CH	I b
Chang <i>et al.</i> , 1997	889	Asymptomatic women at 28 weeks with no risk factors for preterm labour attending an out-patient clinic in Singapore (<i>n</i> = 240)	To evaluate usefulness of FFN as a screening test. Single Dacron swab taken from posterior vaginal fornix at 22–25 weeks. Threshold ≥ 50 ng/ml for a positive test	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 34 and < 37 weeks.	<u>For delivery < 37 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 16.7% Specificity: 99.1% PPV: 60.0% NPV: 93.4% <u>For delivery < 34 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 50.0%	Representative population Blinding of technicians Test described adequately.	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Specificity: 99.1% PPV: 60.0% NPV: 98.7%			
Faron <i>et al.</i> , 1997	890	Consecutive pregnant women attending antenatal clinic of a hospital in Belgium for routine care with known gestational age (<i>n</i> = 170)	To assess accuracy of single FFN test for predicting preterm delivery. Single swab taken from posterior vaginal fornix at 24–33 weeks. Threshold \geq 50 ng/ml for a positive test	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks	<u>Positive FFN test</u> Sensitivity: 26.7% Specificity: 95.7% PPV: 40.0% NPV: 92.4% <u>History of prior preterm delivery</u> (<i>n</i> = 87) Sensitivity: 30% Specificity: 96% PPV: 50.0%	Population representative Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Daskalakis <i>et al.</i> , 2006	891	Singleton pregnancies having anomaly scan at 22–25 weeks in a fetal medicine unit in Greece (<i>n</i> = 1287)	To evaluate incidence of bacterial vaginosis in a low-risk population at 22–25 weeks. Dacron swabs taken from posterior vaginal fornix for FFN levels (level \geq 50 ng/ml for a positive test), bacterial vaginosis (Gram stain score by Nugent' criterion), and culture for Group B streptococcus colonisation. Cervical length was measured by TVS (\leq 20 mm as threshold). Threshold for funneling by TVS not defined.	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks. Comparison of incidence of preterm delivery in women with and without the risk factors (in %), predictive accuracy, and risk association after controlling for confounding variables	<u>FFN levels</u> (<i>n</i> = 718) 13.3% vs 6.1% (<i>P</i> = 0.03) Sensitivity: 13% (5%, 23%) Specificity: 94% (92%, 96%) RR: 2.32 (1.00, 5.54) <u>Bacterial vaginosis</u> (<i>n</i> = 1197) 15.4% vs 7.2% (<i>P</i> = 0.003) Sensitivity: 15% (8%, 22%) Specificity: 93% (91%, 94%) RR: 2.19 (1.21, 3.98) <u>GBS colonisation on culture</u> (<i>n</i> = 1197) 5.8% vs 13.2% (<i>P</i> = 0.03) RR: 0.43 (0.19, 1.00) <u>Short cervix</u> (<i>n</i> = 1197) 4.8% vs 1.1% (<i>P</i> = 0.01) Sensitivity: 5% (1%, 9%) Specificity: 99% (98%, 99%) RR: 3.31 (1.04, 1.98)	Population representative Blinding of technicians for bacterial vaginosis, GBS culture and TVS measurements, not for FFN levels. Test described adequately	CH	I b II (for FFN)

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p><u>Funneling</u> ($n = 1197$) 8.6% vs 3.8% ($P = 0.07$) Sensitivity: 9% (3%, 14%) Specificity: 96% (95%, 97%) RR: 2.07 (0.94, 4.54)</p>			
Crane <i>et al.</i> , 1999	892	Singleton pregnancies at 20–24 weeks recruited from the perinatal centre of a maternity hospital in the USA ($n = 238$)	<p>To evaluate combination of vaginal and cervical FFN, and preterm birth risk score.</p> <p>Threshold of positive FFN test for both cervical and vaginal swabs – levels ≥ 50 ng/ml</p> <p>For Nova Scotia preterm birth risk score – presence of one major or two minor factors</p>	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks	<p><u>Preterm birth risk score</u> ($n = 140$) Sensitivity: 77.8% Specificity: 80.2% PPV: 21.2% NPV: 98.1%</p> <p><u>Positive vaginal FFN levels</u> ($n = 140$) Sensitivity: 55.6% Specificity: 83.2% PPV: 18.5% NPV: 96.5%</p> <p><u>Preterm birth risk score and positive vaginal FFN levels</u> Sensitivity: 44.4% Specificity: 97.7% PPV: 57.1% NPV: 96.2%</p> <p><u>Preterm birth risk score or positive vaginal FFN levels</u> Sensitivity: 88.9% Specificity: 65.7% PPV: 15.1% NPV: 98.9%</p>	Population not representative Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	II
Lockwood <i>et al.</i> , 1994	893	Women with singleton pregnancies attending a single obstetric clinic in the USA ($n = 161$). Study group ($n = 34$) of	<p>To determine if elevated IL-6 in vaginal and cervical secretions are associated with preterm delivery.</p> <p>Vaginal swabs were taken</p>	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks ROC curve used to establish cut-off values for cervical and vaginal IL-6,	<p><u>Single value > 250 pg/ml as positive test</u> Sensitivity: 50.0% Specificity: 85.0%</p>	Nested case–control study Population not representative Blinding of technicians	CC	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		women delivering spontaneously before 37 weeks, and control group ($n = 127$) of consecutive women delivering at term.	serially every 3–4 weeks between 24 and 36 weeks of gestation. Levels > 125 and 250 pg/ml used as threshold using the ROC curve	and diagnostic values calculated. Characteristics of women with preterm deliveries and IL-6 > 250 pg/ml ($n = 17$) compared with those having lower levels ($n = 17$).	PPV: 47.2% NPV: 86.4% <u>Single value > 125 pg/ml as positive test</u> Sensitivity: 45.5% Specificity: 86.6% <u>Comparison of two groups</u> Gestational age at delivery (weeks) 34.2 ± 3.2 vs 35.0 ± 2.5 ($P = 0.44$) Time interval from sampling to delivery (weeks) 1.8 ± 1.3 vs 1.9 ± 0.9 ($P = 0.70$) Birthweight (g) 2341 ± 764 vs 2485 ± 576 ($P = 0.54$)	Test described adequately		
Inglis <i>et al.</i> , 1994	894	Singleton pregnancies between 15 to 40 years at < 37 weeks and with intact membranes attending a medical centre in the USA. Population included asymptomatic women ($n = 73$), and those with threatened preterm labour ($n = 38$).	To determine association of tumor necrosis factor, IL-6 and FFN identified in lower genital tract during pregnancy with preterm delivery. Vaginal swabs collected once at 20–36 weeks (levels > 50 pg/ml for positive IL-6 test, levels > 50 microg/ml for positive FFN test)	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks. Risk of preterm delivery was evaluated for these 3 factors (preterm vs term delivery)	<u>Positive Tumor necrosis factor</u> ($n = 73$) 18.2% vs 16.1% RR: 1.13 (0.28, 4.46) <u>Positive IL-6 factor</u> ($n = 73$) 9.1% vs 16.1% RR: 0.56 (0.08, 3.97) <u>Positive FFN levels</u> ($n = 73$) 18.2% vs 17.7% RR: 1.02 (0.26, 4.01)	Population not representative Blinding of technicians Test described adequately	CH	II
Goepfert <i>et al.</i> , 2001	895	Cohort of asymptomatic pregnant women ($n = 2929$) with singleton pregnancies at 22–24 weeks in the USA	To evaluate association between cervical IL-6, FFN and preterm birth. Single vaginal swab taken	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 32 and < 35 weeks. Predictive accuracy	<u>For delivery < 35 weeks</u> IL-6 positive only Sensitivity: 20%	Case-control study nested within the multicentre prospective cohort study (data analysed)	CC	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		and with a dating scan Cases: women with preterm delivery < 35 weeks and cervical specimen available for IL-6 assay (<i>n</i> = 125) Controls: women with term deliveries and matched for race, parity and centre (<i>n</i> = 125)	at 22–24 weeks. Levels > 305 pg/ml for positive IL-6 test, and > 50 ng/ml for positive FFN test.	calculated for < 29, < 32, and < 35 weeks.	Specificity: 90% FFN positive only Sensitivity: 23% Specificity: 97% Both IL-6 and FFN positive Sensitivity: 8% Specificity: 98% Either IL-6 or FFN positive Sensitivity: 35% Specificity: 90%	retrospectively) Population not representative Blinding of technicians Test described adequately		
Sakai <i>et al.</i> , 2004	896	Singleton pregnancies who had perinatal care and delivery in 10 hospitals in Japan (<i>n</i> = 13 299)	Association between IL-8 and cervical length with preterm birth and preterm PROM. Swabs taken serially from cervical canal – once a month in 20–23 weeks and then once biweekly in 24–28 weeks. Levels > 360 ng/ml for a positive test for IL-8, and length < 25 mm for short cervix on TVS	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 32, < 34 and < 37 weeks Comparison of risk of preterm delivery between women with positive IL-8 test (<i>n</i> = 845) vs negative test (<i>n</i> = 3358), and those with short cervix (85) vs not short cervix (<i>n</i> = 4118).	<u>For IL-8 levels</u> < 32 weeks 0.9% vs 0.4% OR: 2.5 (1.0, 6.8) <i>P</i> = 0.037 < 34 weeks 1.5% vs 0.5% OR: 3.2 (1.5, 6.9) <i>P</i> = 0.0015 < 37 weeks 4.9% vs 3.3% OR: 1.5 (1.0, 2.2) <i>P</i> = 0.02 <u>For short cervix</u> < 32 weeks 5.9% vs 0.3% OR: 18.6 (11.1, 31.3) <i>P</i> < 0.0001 < 34 weeks 11.8% vs 0.4%	Population representative Blinding of technicians not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					OR: 28.5 (13.4, 60.4) $P < 0.0001$			
					< 37 weeks 43.5% vs 2.5% OR: 17.6 (12.9, 23.9) $P < 0.0001$			
Sakai <i>et al.</i> , 2004	897	Women with single pregnancy receiving prenatal care in outpatient clinic of a university hospital in Japan ($n = 501$)	Relationship between vaginal pathogens and IL-8 in cervical mucus studied in relationship to preterm delivery. Single cervical specimen collected at 20–24 weeks. Threshold of a positive IL-8 test 377 ng/ml, and culture done for bacterial pathogens	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks. Comparison of pathogens between high IL-8 group ($n = 84$) and normal IL-8 group ($n = 417$). Also risk of premature births compared for IL-8 levels and Lactobacillus presence/absence	<u>Comparison of pathogens</u> Lactobacillus 56.0% vs 84.7% $P < 0.0001$ Anaerobic 83.3% vs 43.9% $P < 0.0001$ Aerobic 47.6% vs 52.3% $P = 0.43$ Candida 17.9% vs 12.7% $P = 0.21$ <u>Premature birth rates</u> For IL-8 levels 13.1% vs 3.6% OR: 4.0 (1.78, 14.0) $P = 0.0003$ For Lactobacillus 11.9% vs 3.5% OR: 3.7 (1.66, 8.31) $P = 0.0007$	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Simpson <i>et al.</i> , 1995	898	Singleton pregnancies attending a regional medical centre in the USA. Population mainly from lower socio-economic group, 80% black and 20%	To evaluate if second and third-trimester maternal serum AFP levels (taken at 15–20 and 24–36 weeks) predicts adverse pregnancy outcomes.	Detection rates (DR), false positive rates (FPR), and odds ratios for four pregnancy complications – preterm birth (< 37 weeks), preterm PROM, FGR (< 10th centile), and LBW (AT 15–20 WEEKS ($n = 650$) <u>Preterm birth</u> DR: 19% FPR: 6.3%	Population representative Blinding of clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		white. (<i>n</i> = 753)	Threshold for a positive test – AFP level \geq 2.0 MoM.	< 2500 g)	OR: 3.5 (1.4, 8.7)			
					<u>Preterm PROM</u> DR: 40% FPR: 6.0% OR: 10.4 (3.6, 29.4)			
					<u>FGR</u> DR: 16.7% FPR: 6.8% OR: 2.7 (0.8, 10.6)			
					<u>LBW</u> DR: 14.7% FPR: 6.2% OR: 2.6 (1.1, 5.8)			
Dugoff <i>et al.</i> , 2005	899	Women \geq 16 years age confirmed to have singleton pregnancies between 10–14 weeks gestational age, and attending one of the 14 study centres (<i>n</i> = 33 145)	To estimate predictive relationship between second-trimester levels (at 15–19 weeks) of AFP, HCG, unconjugated estriol (UE-3), and inhibin A, and obstetric complications. Threshold levels for AFP, HCG and inhibin A \geq 2.0 MoM, and for UE-3 \leq 0.5 MoM.	Comparison of incidence and association (OR after adjusting for confounding variables) of adverse complications – preterm delivery < 32 weeks, LBW < 10th centile, Fetal loss < 24 weeks, and Fetal demise > 24 weeks, between positive and negative serum levels	<u>Preterm delivery</u> AFP 3.4% vs 0.7% <i>P</i> < 0.001 OR: 1.76 (0.81, 3.84) HCG 1.5% vs 0.7% <i>P</i> < 0.001 OR: 0.83 (0.43, 1.58) UE-3 1.14% vs 0.8% <i>P</i> = 0.4 OR: 1.68 (0.61, 4.64) inhibin A 3.1% vs 0.65% <i>P</i> < 0.001 OR: 2.38 (1.4, 3.95)	Retrospective analysis of data from FASTER trial Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Morssink <i>et al.</i> , 1995	900	Singleton pregnancies who underwent screening for Down's or neural tube defects in Netherlands (<i>n</i> = 10 305)	To examine association between second-trimester AFP and HCG levels (at 15–20 weeks) and preterm delivery. Threshold for abnormal test – levels of AFP and HCG \geq 2.5 MoM	Comparison of prevalence of outcomes (preterm delivery < 37 weeks, SGA < 10th centile) between elevated levels vs normal levels.	<u>Preterm delivery</u> (<i>n</i> = 7992) AFP levels 14.3% vs 5.9% <i>P</i> < 0.01 RR: 2.4 HCG levels 8.6% vs 5.9% <i>P</i> > 0.05 Both AFP and HCG levels raised 15.4% vs 6.0% <i>P</i> > 0.05	Retrospective analysis of data Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Ong <i>et al.</i> , 2000	901	Singleton pregnancies without fetal and chromosomal anomalies attending antenatal clinics of two hospitals in the UK (<i>n</i> = 5548)	To evaluate first trimester (10–14 weeks) maternal HCG and PAPP-A as predictors of pregnancy complications. Different thresholds – < 5th centile, < 10th centile, and < median values	Sensitivity of HCG and PAPP-A below 5th and 10th centile in the prediction of outcomes (spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 and < 34 weeks, birthweight < 10th centile, miscarriage).	<u>Preterm delivery < 37 weeks</u> (<i>n</i> = 5297) HCG < 5th centile Sensitivity: 5.7% Specificity: 95% PAPP-A < 5th centile Sensitivity: 7.8% <u>Preterm delivery < 34 weeks</u> HCG < 5th centile Sensitivity: 8.5% PAPP-A < 5th centile Sensitivity: 14.9%	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Yaron <i>et al.</i> , 2002	902	Consecutive singleton pregnancies undergoing first-trimester screening for Down's syndrome at prenatal diagnosis unit in Israel (<i>n</i> = 1722)	To evaluate whether abnormal HCG in first trimester (10–13 weeks) is predictive of abnormal pregnancy outcomes. Different levels of HCG used as cut-off (< 1.00, 1.01–2.00, 2.01–3.00,	Complication rates for outcomes – spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks, birthweight < 5th centile, spontaneous miscarriage	<u>For preterm delivery</u> (<i>n</i> = 1622) HCG (threshold \leq 2.0 MoM) Sensitivity: 73% (60%, 85%) Specificity: 21% (19%, 23%)	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			3.01–4.00, 4.01–5.00, > 5.01 MoM)					
Hvilsom <i>et al.</i> , 2002	903	Pregnant women presenting for antenatal care at a university hospital in Denmark (<i>n</i> = 2846). Cases: women with idiopathic spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks (<i>n</i> = 84) Controls: randomly selected women who had term delivery (<i>n</i> = 400)	To examine association between CRP levels and preterm delivery. Maternal CRP levels measured at 14–19 weeks (median 16.3 weeks). Threshold 7.6 ng/ml for a positive test.	Association (OR) between preterm delivery and CRP levels (cases vs controls) at various cut-off values.	<u>CRP levels (5.6 mg/l) or cut-off 75th centile</u> 7.35% vs 7.24% OR: 1.7 (1.0, 2.7) <u>CRP levels (7.6 mg/l) or cut-off 85th centile</u> 2.26% vs 8.14% OR: 2.0 (1.2, 3.5) <u>CRP levels (16.4 mg/l) or cut-off 95th centile</u> 5.9% vs 1.5% OR: 1.9 (0.8, 4.4)	Nested case-control study Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CC	III
Karinen <i>et al.</i> , 2005	904	Women with a history of at least 1 delivery and data available on first pregnancy from the Northern Finland 1966 Birth Cohort (<i>n</i> = 2309) Cases: women with idiopathic spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks (<i>n</i> = 104) Controls: randomly selected women who had term delivery matched on age and parity (<i>n</i> = 402)	To evaluate association between Chlamydia trachomatis antibodies and CRP levels to preterm delivery. Serum samples collected at first trimester (mean age 10.4 weeks) obtained from serum bank. Threshold for positive CRP – levels > 4.3 ng/ml, and Chlamydia trachomatis IgG positive in 1 : 8 dilutions	Spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks. Comparison of test results (OR) in cases vs controls for preterm delivery	<u>Positive CRP only</u> 20.2% vs 18.4% OR: 1.3 (0.7, 2.3) <u>Positive Chlamydia trachomatis IgG levels only</u> 14.4% vs 16.7% OR: 1.0 (0.5, 2.0) <u>Both CRP and Chlamydia trachomatis IgG positive</u> 14.4% vs 4.0% OR: 4.3 (2.0, 9.3)	Nested case-control study Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CC	III
Wren <i>et al.</i> , 1969	905	All pregnant women booking at an antenatal clinic in Australia (<i>n</i> = 3604)	To evaluate association between asymptomatic bacteriuria and pregnancy complications Mid-stream urine culture done at first visit, and repeated if positive.	Comparison of cases of untreated bacilluria (<i>n</i> = 90) and non-bacilluria controls (<i>n</i> = 3009) for pregnancy complications (abortion, birthweight < 2500 g, delivery < 37 weeks,	<u>Abortion</u> 6.7% vs 2.8% <u>Birthweight < 2500 g</u> 15.5% vs 4.6%	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			Threshold not specified	stillbirths, neonatal death)	<u>Delivery < 37 weeks</u> 27.8% vs 6.8% <u>Stillbirths</u> 3.3% vs 0.4% <u>Neonatal deaths</u> 3.3% vs 1%			
Robertson <i>et al.</i> , 1969	906	All pregnant women attending the booking antenatal clinic in the UK (<i>n</i> = 8275) Treatment was initiated later in the study for women with positive urine culture.	Investigation into the incidence and consequences of asymptomatic bacteriuria. Mid-stream urine sample obtained during the booking visit, and cultured if initial modified nitrite test was positive. Count > 100,000 for a positive culture	Comparison of incidence of anemia (Hb < 10.gm%), hypertension (BP > 140/90 mmHg on two occasions), prematurity (gestational age < 36 weeks and birthweight < 2500 g) between untreated bacteriuria positive (<i>n</i> = 204) and control group (<i>n</i> = 1980)	<u>Anemia</u> 18.0% vs 8.0% <u>Hypertension</u> 7.0% vs 12.0% <u>Prematurity (gestational age < 36 weeks)</u> 6.0% vs 3.0% <u>Prematurity (birthweight < 2500 g)</u> 8.0% vs 6.0%	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Uncu <i>et al.</i> , 2001	907	All pregnant women up to 32 weeks seen at outpatient obstetrics clinic in Turkey (<i>n</i> = 247)	To determine incidence of asymptomatic bacteriuria and its relation to pregnancy complications. Midstream sample of morning urine obtained for culture, and colony growth > 100,000 bacteria/ml considered positive.	Comparison of incidence of premature labour, PROM, FGR, hypertension, anemia, and other complications between culture positive group (<i>n</i> = 23) and culture negative group (<i>n</i> = 163).	<u>Premature labour</u> 26.0% vs 9.8% <u>PROM</u> 4.3% vs 3.0% <u>FGR</u> 0 vs 0.6% <u>Hypertension</u> 4.3% vs 4.2% <u>Anemia</u> 26.0% vs 21.4%	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Layton 1964	908	All pregnant women attending an antenatal clinic in the UK before 32 weeks of gestation (<i>n</i> = 1000)	To test the reliability of urine culture at first antenatal visit. Midstream urine sample collected and cultured at the booking visit and after 4 weeks of the first visit, and count over 100,000 regarded as significant.	Comparison between bacteriuric group (<i>n</i> = 67) and control group (<i>n</i> = 118) for outcomes – pre-eclamptic toxemia (BP 140/90 + oedema), anaemia (Hb < 7.0 gm%), preterm delivery (< 37 weeks) and LBW (< 5.5 pounds)	<u>Pre-eclamptic toxemia</u> 14.9% vs 9.3% <u>Anemia</u> 31.3% vs 19.5% <u>Preterm delivery</u> 6.3% vs 8.0% <u>LBW</u> 16.9% vs 8.9%	Population representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II
Klebanoff <i>et al.</i> , 2005	909	Pregnant women participating in a multicentre trial in the USA at 8–22 weeks gestational age and with no major medical or obstetric complications, no symptoms of UTI, and not received any antibiotics within past 14 days (<i>n</i> = 15 864)	To find association between timing of detection of BV and preterm delivery. Single vaginal swab taken at 8–22 weeks gestational age. Positive BV defined as vaginal Gram stain Nugent score ≥ 7 in conjunction with vaginal pH > 4.4.	Comparison of incidence of spontaneous preterm delivery < 37 weeks between BV positive (<i>n</i> = 4634) vs BV negative group (<i>n</i> = 8303) at different gestational age	<u>At < 13 weeks</u> 15.6% vs 14.0% <u>At 13–14 weeks</u> 15.3% vs 14.0% <u>At 15–16 weeks</u> 15.5% vs 11.7% <u>At 17–18 weeks</u> 13.3% vs 9.8% <u>At 19–20 weeks</u> 15.4% vs 10.0% <u>At 21–22 weeks</u> 13.2% vs 10.5%	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Hillier <i>et al.</i> , 1995	910	Singleton pregnancies enrolled in one of seven medical centres in the USA for routine prenatal care and at 23–26 gestational age wks (<i>n</i> = 10 397)	To find association between BV and preterm delivery after adjusting for other known risk factors. Single posterior fornix swab taken at 23–26 weeks. Threshold for a positive test	Comparison (OR) of adverse outcomes – preterm delivery (< 37 weeks), LBW (< 2500 g), and PROM (rupture of membranes before regular uterine contractions) between	<u>Mean birthweight (g)</u> 3204 \pm 618 vs 3294 \pm 576 <u>Preterm delivery</u> 6.3% vs 4.2% OR: 1.5 (1.2, 1.9)	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			- vaginal PH above 4.5 and Gram staining score > 7.	women with positive BV vs those with negative BV	<p><u>LBW</u> 9.7% vs 6.6% OR: 1.5 (1.2, 1.9)</p> <p><u>PROM</u> 3.1% vs 2.8% OR: 1.1 (0.8, 1.6)</p>			
Purwar <i>et al.</i> , 2001	911	Randomly selected asymptomatic low-risk pregnant women without vaginal discharge attending a government medical college in India (<i>n</i> = 1006)	To find association of BV with adverse pregnancy outcomes. Single vaginal swab taken at 16–28 weeks, and scored for BV according to Nugent's criterion.	Comparison of spontaneous preterm delivery (< 37 weeks), PROM (spontaneous rupture of membranes before onset of labour), preterm PROM (spontaneous rupture of membranes before onset of labour and before 37 weeks)	<p><u>Preterm delivery</u> 27.8% vs 4.9% RR: 5.7 (4.6, 8.3) <i>P</i> = 0.001</p> <p><u>PROM</u> 22.6% vs 3.4% RR: 6.6 (5.0, 10.0) <i>P</i> = 0.001</p> <p><u>Preterm PROM</u> 8.7% vs 0.7% RR: 11.9 (6.7, 32.4) <i>P</i> = 0.001</p>	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Gratacos <i>et al.</i> , 1998	358	Women with singleton pregnancies at a hospital clinic in Spain at less than 35 weeks gestational age (<i>n</i> = 688)	To evaluate influence of BV on pregnancy complications Sampling done twice from the posterior fornix at < 24 and then < 35 weeks. BV diagnosed on the basis of Nugent criteria	Comparison of preterm delivery (< 37 weeks), PROM (rupture of membranes before 37 weeks or at least 6 hours prior to onset of labour), premature labour (presence of regular contractions in woman with intact membranes)	<p><u>Preterm delivery</u> 15.2% vs 4.7% RR: 3.2 (1.8, 5.7) <i>P</i> < 0.0001</p> <p><u>PROM</u> 18.4% vs 5.4% RR: 3.3 (2.0, 5.6) <i>P</i> < 0.0001</p> <p><u>Premature labour</u> 16.0% vs 5.0% RR: 3.1 (1.8, 5.4)</p>	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					$P < 0.0001$			
Taipale <i>et al.</i> , 1998	912	Consecutive singleton pregnancies screened for routine anomalies by ultrasonography at 18–22 weeks in a hospital in Finland ($n = 4206$)	To evaluate if TVS can predict preterm delivery. TVS done at 18–22 weeks by six different operators, but their prints checked by another operator. Different thresholds used but cervical length ≤ 29 mm was the best threshold identified using ROC curve	Spontaneous preterm delivery at < 35 and < 37 weeks. Diagnostic accuracy results and relative risk calculated for different thresholds.	<u>Preterm delivery < 37 weeks</u> ($n = 3694$) Cx length ≤ 25 mm Sensitivity: 6% Specificity: 100% PPV: 39% RR: 17 (8, 35) Cx length ≤ 27 mm Sensitivity: 8% Specificity: 99% PPV: 23% RR: 10 (5, 20) Cx length ≤ 29 mm Sensitivity: 16% Specificity: 97% PPV: 13% RR: 6 (4, 11) Cx length ≤ 35 mm Sensitivity: 35% Specificity: 73% PPV: 3% RR: 1.5 (1.0, 2.3)	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b
Leung <i>et al.</i> , 2005	913	Ethnic Chinese women with singleton pregnancies with ultrasound measurement at 18–22 weeks in a tertiary obstetric unit in Hong Kong ($n = 2952$)	To examine the predictive value of cervical length and funneling for spontaneous preterm delivery by mid-trimester TVS. Single TVS examination done at 18–22 weeks. Different thresholds used but cervical length	Diagnostic accuracy results for spontaneous preterm delivery at < 34 weeks. ROC curve used for prediction analysis for different percentiles/cut-offs for cervical length and funneling.	<u>Cx length < 25 mm</u> Sensitivity: 26.3% Specificity: 98.3% PPV: 9.4% NPV: 99.5% <u>Cx length < 27 mm</u>	Population representative Blinding of technicians and clinicians Test described adequately	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			≤ 27 mm identified using ROC curve as the best threshold. Funneling defined as protrusion of amniotic membranes > 5 mm into cervical canal.		<p>Sensitivity: 36.8% Specificity: 96.2% PPV: 6.1% NPV: 99.6%</p> <p><u>Cx length < 30 mm</u> Sensitivity: 36.8% Specificity: 96.2% PPV: 6.1% NPV: 99.6%</p> <p><u>Funneling only</u> Sensitivity: 31.6% Specificity: 93.9% PPV: 3.3% NPV: 99.5%</p> <p><u>Cx length < 27 mm + funneling</u> Sensitivity: 26.3% Specificity: 99.0% PPV: 14.7% NPV: 99.5%</p> <p><u>Cx length < 27 mm or funneling</u> Sensitivity: 42.1% Specificity: 91.1% PPV: 3.1% NPV: 99.6%</p>			
Fukami <i>et al.</i> , 2003	914	Women with singleton pregnancies scanned between 16–19 weeks at a medical school hospital in Japan (<i>n</i> = 3367)	To compare shortened cervical length and absence of new parameter 'cervical gland area (CGA)' for predicting preterm delivery. Threshold for shortened cervix – length ≤ 30 mm, and CGA defined as sonographically hyper/hypoechoic zone surrounding the cervical	Predictive accuracy calculated for spontaneous preterm delivery < 32 weeks and at 32–36 weeks	<p><u>For 32–36 weeks</u> (<i>n</i> = 3030) Short cervix Sensitivity: 18.2% Specificity: 98.9% PPV: 33.3% NPV: 97.6%</p> <p>Absence of CGA Sensitivity: 2.3%</p>	Population representative Blinding not done/ not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			canal.		Specificity: 99.7% PPV: 18.2% NPV: 97.2% Short cervix and absence of CGA Sensitivity: 2.3% Specificity: 99.7% PPV: 20.0% NPV: 97.2%			
To <i>et al.</i> , 2001	915	Women with singleton pregnancies attending for routine ANC in a UK hospital, and undergoing 22–24 week cervical assessment using ultrasound scan. (<i>n</i> = 6819)	To establish relationship of cervical length with preterm delivery. Single TVS was done at 22–24 weeks and threshold for funneling was dilatation of internal os \geq 5 mm in width.	Regression analysis used to calculate relationship between cervical length and risk of spontaneous preterm delivery < 33 weeks.	<u>Funneling group (<i>n</i> = 231) vs no funneling group (<i>n</i> = 6103)</u> Preterm delivery 6.9% vs 0.7% $P < 0.0001$ <u>Risk of preterm delivery</u> Short cervix OR: 24.9 ($P < 0.0001$) Funneling OR: 1.8 $P = 0.40$	Population representative Blinding not done/ not specified Test described adequately	CH	II

12 Fetal growth and wellbeing

Clinical question: What is the diagnostic value and effectiveness of the following screening methods in determining fetal growth: symphysis-fundal height (SFH) measurement; ultrasound scanning; use of customised growth charts with SFH measurement; use of customised growth charts with ultrasound scanning; clinical judgement/abdominal palpation?

12.2 and 12.3 Diagnostic accuracy studies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Bais <i>et al.</i> , 2004	916	Retrospective analysis of database of a geographical cohort in Netherlands, and included all low-risk singleton pregnancies at 20 weeks GA confirmed by US (<i>n</i> = 6725)	To evaluate performance of abdominal palpation as a screening test to detect FGR, and US as diagnostic test for women referred with suspected FGR. Abdominal palpation done by midwives after 20 weeks till referral or delivery (frequency not specified, and Threshold by clinical judgement). US done by consulted obstetricians	Predictive performance of abdominal palpation and US calculated for SGA (BW < 10th centile)and severe SGA (BW < 2.3rd centile)	<u>Abdominal palpation (<i>n</i> = 6318)</u> For SGA Prevalence: 8.5% Sensitivity: 21.3% (17.8, 24.7) Specificity: 95.9% (95.4, 96.4) PPV: 32.6% (27.7, 37.5) NPV: 92.9% (92.3, 93.6) For severe SGA Prevalence: 1.5% Sensitivity: 27.9% (19.0, 37.0) Specificity: 94.8% (94.2, 95.4) PPV: 7.4% (4.7, 10.1) NPV: 98.9% (98.6, 99.1) <u>Abdominal palpation + US (<i>n</i> = 6318)</u> For SGA Prevalence: 8.5% Sensitivity: 15.1% (12.1, 18.1) Specificity: 98.9% (98.6, 99.1) PPV: 55.1% (47.1, 63.1)	Retrospective analysis of database of a geographical cohort Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					NPV: 92.6% (92.0, 93.3)			
					For severe SGA Prevalence: 1.5% Sensitivity: 24.7% (15.9, 33.5) Specificity: 98.0% (97.7, 98.4) PPV: 15.6% (9.8, 21.5) NPV: 98.9% (98.6, 99.1)			
Secher <i>et al.</i> , 1990	917	Randomly selected women with singleton pregnancies and confirmed GA by US at 16–18 weeks in a city in Denmark ($n = 199$)	To evaluate measurement of SFH alone and in combination with EFW to detect SGA. SFH measured once a week from 33–36 weeks, EFW calculated and EFW curve generated using modeling. Sample for this study – women with > 3 measurements.	Predictive accuracy and risk calculated for SGA defined as BW < 85% of expected for GA (or < 9.4th centile for GA).	<u>Last EFW value < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 45% Specificity: 91% PPV: 38% NPV: 94% RR: 6.2 <u>EFW curve < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 38% Specificity: 92% PPV: 33% NPV: 93% RR: 4.8 <u>Last SFH value < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 33% Specificity: 93% PPV: 35% NPV: 93% RR: 4.8 <u>Last SFH and EFW value < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 12% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 91%	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	III
Persson <i>et al.</i> , 1986	919	Consecutive singleton pregnancies with regular menstrual cycles and	To graphically illustrate progression of SFH in a sample of women, and use	Predictive accuracy of SFH calculated for BW < 10th centile for GA (SGA),	<u>BW < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 26.6%	Multicentre study Representative population	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		known LMP attending one of three hospitals in Sweden (<i>n</i> = 3197)	it to predict abnormal fetal size. SFH measured about 15 times during entire pregnancy and value < 2 SD of reference curve (generated from 1350 healthy pregnant women) used as threshold.	BW/length ratio below 2 SD, BW > 90th centile (LGA), and BW/length ratio above 2 SD.	<p>Specificity: 88.0% PPV: 18.0% NPV: 92.4%</p> <p><u>BW > 90th centile</u> Sensitivity: 37.5% Specificity: 87.9% PPV: 24.5% NPV: 93.1%</p> <p><u>BW/length ratio < 2 SD</u> Sensitivity: 16.7% Specificity: 86.7% PPV: 1.8% NPV: 98.6%</p> <p><u>BW/length ratio > 2 SD</u> Sensitivity: 31.8% Specificity: 85.7% PPV: 3.3% NPV: 98.8%</p>	Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated		
Harding <i>et al.</i> , 1995	920	Randomly selected group of pregnant women who had approx. 5 scans between 18–38 weeks in a hospital in Australia (<i>n</i> = 1135). This cohort was selected from an ongoing RCT.	To find most appropriate cut-offs (using ROC curve) for detecting SGA at various gestational ages using SFH, AFI, and US measurement of FAC. SFH, AFI and US done 5 times at 18–20, 24, 28, 34, and 38 weeks. Threshold for SFH – single value < 10th centile or 28 cm (28 weeks), 33.5 cm (34 weeks) and 36 cm (38 weeks). For AFI and FAC – single value < 10th centile	BW < 10th centile using charts constructed from Western Australian population.	<p><u>At 28 weeks (<i>n</i> = 760)</u> For SFH Prevalence: 12.3% Sensitivity: 32% Specificity: 88% PPV: 28% NPV: 90%</p> <p>For AFI Prevalence: 12.6% Sensitivity: 21% Specificity: 93% PPV: 21% NPV: 93%</p> <p><u>At 34 weeks (<i>n</i> = 914)</u> For SFH</p>	Representative population but loss to follow up Blinding of technicians Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Prevalence: 11.8% Sensitivity: 31% Specificity: 87% PPV: 24% NPV: 90%			
					For AFI Prevalence: 11.7% Sensitivity: 11% Specificity: 89% PPV: 12% NPV: 88%			
Rosenberg <i>et al.</i> , 1982	918	All women having singleton pregnancies with confirmed GA (by careful history or US) of < 26 weeks attending an antenatal clinic in the UK. (<i>n</i> = 761)	To evaluate efficacy of SFH in identification of growth retardation. SFH measured from 20 weeks till delivery. <i>Threshold:</i> Two consecutive or three isolated SFH values < 10th centile of Reference curve (generated from 478 healthy pregnant women).	Prediction of growth retardation (BW < 10th centile for GA) using different criterion for thresholds	<u>SFH (<i>n</i> = 753)</u> Sensitivity: 56% (42%, 70%) Specificity: 85% (82%, 87%) <u>Threshold – 20% measurements < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 62% False positive rate: 21% <u>Threshold – 30% measurements < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 52% False positive rate: 8%	Retrospective cohort study Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II
Grover <i>et al.</i> , 1991	921	Healthy singleton pregnancies with known GA and absence of obstetric complications attending a tertiary level hospital for antenatal care in India (<i>n</i> = 400)	To analyse usefulness of SFH measurement for predicting altered fetal growth. SFH recorded fortnightly till 30 weeks and then weekly till term. <i>Threshold:</i> SFH value < 1 SD of Reference curve generated from 200 healthy pregnant women.	Predictive accuracy calculated for Small-for-date (BW < 10th centile for GA) and LGA (BW > 90th centile for GA) babies	<u>SFD (<i>n</i> = 350)</u> Sensitivity: 80.8% Specificity: 93.5% PPV: 84% False positive rate: 16% False negative rate: 8% <u>LGA (<i>n</i> = 350)</u> Sensitivity: 79.2% Specificity: 95.2% PPV: 76% False positive rate: 24% False negative rate: 4%	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Rogers <i>et al.</i> , 1985	922	Randomly selected pregnant women attending antenatal clinic of a hospital in the UK ($n = 250$).	To evaluate precision of SFH for predicting FGR. SFH measured in the third trimester, and single value < 3 cm below mean of the sample or 3 consecutive static or declining values taken as the threshold.	Diagnostic accuracy for predicting FGR (BW < 10th centile)	Sensitivity: 73.1% Specificity: 91.9% PPV: 51.3% NPV: 96.7%	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II
Warsof <i>et al.</i> , 1986	923	Consecutive women with ultrasonographically confirmed singleton pregnancies before 24 weeks attending a tertiary level hospital in the UK ($n = 4527$)	US done once in the third trimester at 28, 30, 32, 34 or 36 weeks. Threshold for BPD, HC and AC – values < 25th centile or < 10th centile for GA	Diagnostic accuracy for predicting FGR (BW < 10th centile)	<p><u>For values < 10th centile as threshold</u></p> <p>Only BPD abnormal ($n = 7385$) Sensitivity: 25% Specificity: 93% PPV: 39% NPV: 87%</p> <p>Only HC abnormal ($n = 3308$) Sensitivity: 35% Specificity: 91% PPV: 49% NPV: 86%</p> <p>Only AC abnormal ($n = 4893$) Sensitivity: 48% Specificity: 93% PPV: 61% NPV: 89%</p> <p>Both BPD and AC abnormal ($n = 4789$) Sensitivity: 22% Specificity: 97% PPV: 64% NPV: 86%</p> <p>BPD or AC abnormal ($n = 4789$) Sensitivity: 54% Specificity: 85%</p>	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					PPV: 43% NPV: 90%			
Skovron <i>et al.</i> , 1991	924	Women with singleton gestation who had an US examination for fetal size determination in a medical centre in the USA	US done once between 26 and 34 weeks, and then repeated in some cases. Threshold values for AC and EFW (Shepard's formula) at < 10th and < 25th centile for GA.	Predictive performance calculated for SGA babies (BW < 10th centile for GA) by ROC curve	<u>Single US examination and < 10th centile as threshold</u> AC Sensitivity: 72% Specificity: 69% PPV: 19% EFW Sensitivity: 25% Specificity: 97% PPV: 47% <u>Single US examination and < 25th centile as threshold</u> AC Sensitivity: 83% Specificity: 56% PPV: 16% EFW Sensitivity: 51% Specificity: 80% PPV: 20% <u>Serial US and threshold < 10th centile for both AC measurement</u> Sensitivity: 62% Specificity: 81% PPV: 31%	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II
Lin <i>et al.</i> , 1990	927	Records of all women with singleton pregnancies who had undergone obstetric US at a tertiary hospital in the USA (<i>n</i> = 463)	To determine if oligohydramnios increases the accuracy of prenatal diagnosis of FGR. US done (AC and AFI) twice in the third trimester at an interval of 2–4 weeks. Threshold for AC < 10th centile for GA, and vertical	FGR defined as BW < 10th centile for GA.	<u>For AC < 10th centile</u> Sensitivity: 87.5% Specificity: 77.2% PPV: 38.1% NPV: 97.5% <u>For AC < 5th centile</u>	Retrospective analysis of records Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately	CH	II

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			diameter < 2 cm for largest pocket for AFI.		Sensitivity: 50.0% Specificity: 90.0% PPV: 44.4% NPV: 91.8%	Reference test validated		
					<u>For AC < 10th centile and oligo</u> Sensitivity: 25.0% Specificity: 98.0% PPV: 66.7% NPV: 89.1%			
Hedriana <i>et al.</i> , 1994	926	Women with normal singleton pregnancy and known LMP confirmed by first-trimester physical examination (<i>n</i> = 302)	To determine if two or more US examination is superior to a single scan. Single scan (32–36 weeks) and serial scans (two to five times between 28–42 weeks) <i>Threshold:</i> Slope ± SD calculated for AC and EFW (Shepard's formula) centile using regression analysis.	Diagnostic accuracy of parameters calculated for predicting SGA (BW < 10th centile) and LGA (BW > 90th centile) babies	<u>Single examination for SGA (<i>n</i> = 249)</u> EFW Sensitivity: 100% Specificity: 76% PPV: 25% NPV: 100% AC Sensitivity: 68% Specificity: 88% PPV: 33% NPV: 97% <u>Serial examinations for SGA (<i>n</i> = 247)</u> EFW Sensitivity: 100% Specificity: 75% PPV: 25% NPV: 100% AC Sensitivity: 100% Specificity: 88% PPV: 40% NPV: 100% <u>Single examination for LGA (<i>n</i> = 249)</u>	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					EFW Sensitivity: 48% Specificity: 94% PPV: 63% NPV: 89%			
					AC Sensitivity: 54% Specificity: 89% PPV: 53% NPV: 90%			
					<u>Serial examinations for LGA</u> <u>(n = 247)</u> EFW Sensitivity: 62% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 92%			
					AC Sensitivity: 84% Specificity: 100% PPV: 100% NPV: 97%			
Newnham <i>et al.</i> , 1990	925	Pregnant women with singleton gestation attending a public antenatal clinic of a tertiary hospital in Australia (n = 615)	To evaluate role for US and Doppler US in predicting perinatal complications. Both US performed at 18, 24, 28 and 34 weeks. Threshold for abnormal AC < 5th centile for gestational age, and for abnormal Doppler – S/D ratio > 95th centile for GA	Diagnostic accuracy results for FGR (BW < 10th centile for GA) and fetal hypoxia (operative delivery due to fetal hypoxia with umbilical artery ph < 7.20 or 5 minute Apgar score < 7	<u>FGR at 28 weeks</u> Umb. artery S/D ratio (n = 470) Prevalence: 9.1% Sensitivity: 18.6% Specificity: 95.6% PPV: 29.6% NPV: 92.1% Fetal AC (n = 476) Prevalence: 9.2% Sensitivity: 27.3%	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Specificity: 96.1% PPV: 41.5% NPV: 92.8% <u>FGR at 34 weeks</u> Umb. artery S/D ratio (n = 445) Prevalence: 8.1% Sensitivity: 16.7% Specificity: 95.1% PPV: 23.1% NPV: 92.8% Fetal AC (n = 451) Prevalence: 8.2% Sensitivity: 48.7% Specificity: 94.0% PPV: 41.9% NPV: 95.3%			
Chauhan <i>et al.</i> , 1999	928	Cases: Singleton pregnancies, AFI \leq 5 cm, reliable GA and no known anomalies (n = 162) Controls: Next pregnancy with same GA and AFI between 5.1 to 23.9 cm (n = 162)	To assess predictive accuracy of oligohydramnios for detecting fetal growth restriction. Third-trimester US done within 72 hours of delivery to evaluate for AFI (threshold \leq 5 cm)	Diagnostic accuracy calculated for fetal growth restriction (BW < 10th centile for GA)	Sensitivity: 76% (56%, 89%) Specificity: 95% (90%, 98%) PPV: 78% (59%, 91%) NPV: 94% (89%, 98%)	Population not representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	III
Beattie <i>et al.</i> , 1989	929	Ultrasonically dated singleton pregnancies attending an antenatal clinic in the UK within 7 days of their 28th gestational week (n = 2097)	To assess usefulness of Doppler US as a screening tool for detecting FGR. Doppler US done at 28, 34 and 38 weeks and FGR predicted using pulsatility index, systolic/diastolic ratio, and resistance parameter (threshold value > 90th centile for all)	FGR taken as BW < 5th centile for GA	<u>Pulsatility index at 28 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 28% Specificity: 89% PPV: 11% NPV: 97% <u>S/D ratio at 28 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 31% Specificity: 90% PPV: 12%	Representative population Blinding of US operators Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					NPV: 97%			
					<u>Pulsatility index at 34 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 32% Specificity: 89% PPV: 12% NPV: 97%			
					<u>S/D ratio at 34 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 40% Specificity: 84% PPV: 11% NPV: 97%			
Todros <i>et al.</i> , 1995	930	Singleton pregnancies with no obstetrical risk, pre-pregnancy pathological condition or anomaly attending out-patient clinics of six hospitals in Italy (<i>n</i> = 962).	To assess efficacy of Doppler examination of umbilical and uterine arteries as a screening test for FGR or PIH. Doppler US done twice at 19–24 and 26–31 weeks. <i>Threshold</i> : S/D ratio of 4.5 (at 19–24 weeks) and 3.5 (at 26–31 weeks) derived from ROC curve.	Diagnostic accuracy of Doppler Umbilical arteries for SGA (BW < 10th centile for GA) and PIH (BP > 140/90 mmHg at two measurements 4 hours apart for the first time after 20 weeks GA)	<i>n</i> = 916 for all <u>SGA at 19–24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 46.1% Specificity: 74.1% PPV: 7.8% NPV: 96.7% <u>SGA at 26–31 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 43.2% Specificity: 80.5% PPV: 7.0% NPV: 96.8% <u>PIH at 19–24 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 37.9% Specificity: 73.9% PPV: 4.7% NPV: 97.2% <u>PIH at 26–31 weeks</u> Sensitivity: 37.5% Specificity: 80.2% PPV: 7.0% NPV: 96.9%	Multicentre study Representative population Blinding of US operators Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Sijmons <i>et al.</i> , 1989	931	Randomly selected singleton pregnancies from a university hospital population in Netherlands ($n = 400$).	To assess validity of umbilical artery Doppler as a screening tool at 28 and 34 weeks for predicting SGA infants. <i>Threshold:</i> Pulsatility index > 95th centile for GA in the study population.	Diagnostic accuracy of Doppler for predicting SGA (BW < 10th or 2.3rd centile) and low weight for length infants (ponderal index < 10th or 3rd centile)	<p><u>SGA (BW < 10th centile) at 28 weeks ($n = 394$)</u> Prevalence: 22.6% Sensitivity: 16.9% Specificity: 95.1% PPV: 50.1% NPV: 79.6%</p> <p><u>Low weight for length (ponderal index < 10th centile) at 28 weeks ($n = 352$)</u> Prevalence: 10.2% Sensitivity: 19.4% Specificity: 94.9% PPV: 30.4% NPV: 91.2%</p> <p><u>SGA (BW < 10th centile) at 34 weeks ($n = 368$)</u> Prevalence: 22.2% Sensitivity: 22.0% Specificity: 94.4% PPV: 52.9% NPV: 80.8%</p> <p><u>Low weight for length (ponderal index < 10th centile) at 34 weeks ($n = 330$)</u> Prevalence: 8.8% Sensitivity: 24.1% Specificity: 92.7% PPV: 23.3% NPV: 92.7%</p>	Representative population Blinding of US operators Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b
Atkinson <i>et al.</i> , 1994	932	Low-risk nulliparous women with singleton pregnancies enrolled in a double-blind trial of low dose aspirin for pre-eclampsia prevention in the USA ($n = 565$)	To evaluate usefulness of umbilical artery Doppler for predicting FGR or pre-eclampsia at 20–26, 27–31, 32–36 and 37–42 weeks. <i>Threshold:</i> S/D ratio > 90th centile for GA in study population	Diagnostic accuracy for predicting SGA (BW < 10th centile for GA) and pre-eclampsia	<p><u>SGA at 20–26 weeks ($n = 490$)</u> Sensitivity: 18% Specificity: 91% PPV: 13% NPV: 94%</p>	Representative population Blinding of US operators Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	I b

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<p><u>SGA at 27–31 weeks (n = 475)</u> Sensitivity: 20% Specificity: 91% PPV: 15% NPV: 93%</p> <p><u>SGA at 32–36 weeks (n = 439)</u> Sensitivity: 24% Specificity: 91% PPV: 17% NPV: 94%</p>			
Owens <i>et al.</i> , 2003	933	Women with singleton pregnancies and confirmed GA < 85 days in a hospital in the UK (n = 330)	To compare two methods of predicting FGR. Third-trimester US done at 2 weekly intervals to calculate EFW (using BPD, abd. area, FL) and the last EFW prior to delivery used to obtain customised fetal weight centile. <i>Threshold:</i> Centile < 5th and < 10th for estimated values.	FGR defined as ponderal index < 25th centile. Other outcomes - skinfold thickness < 10th centile and mid-arm to occipito-frontal circumference ratio < 1SD.	<p><u>For customised EFW < 5th centile and ponderal index < 25th centile (n = 258)</u> Sensitivity: 19% Specificity: 97% PPV: 54% NPV: 87%</p> <p><u>For customised EFW < 10th centile and ponderal index < 25th centile (n = 258)</u> Sensitivity: 42% Specificity: 90% PPV: 41% NPV: 90%</p>	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	II
Okonofua <i>et al.</i> , 1986	934	Singleton uncomplicated pregnancies attending a hospital antenatal clinic in the UK, and who were sure of their LMP (n = 100)	To compare SFH and US biometry in predicting SGA and LGA babies. SFH and US biometry done after 20 weeks in the third trimester. <i>Threshold:</i> Two consecutive values for SFH, BPD or AC > 90th centile of reference curve (generated from sample of 30 healthy uncomplicated singleton pregnancies)	SGA defined with BW < 10th centile, and LGA with BW > 90th centile	<p><u>SGA by SFH</u> Sensitivity: 71.4% Specificity: 85% PPV: 50%</p> <p><u>LGA by SFH</u> Sensitivity: 33.3% Specificity: 85% PPV: 31.3%</p> <p><u>SGA by US biometry</u></p>	Representative population Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	III

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Sensitivity: 85.7% Specificity: 95.4% PPV: 66.7% <u>LGA by US biometry</u> Sensitivity: 66.7% Specificity: 95.4% PPV: 75%			
Ott <i>et al.</i> , 1984	935	Pregnant women undergoing US examination within 72 hours of delivery in a medical centre in the USA (<i>n</i> = 595)	To evaluate US biometry for detecting altered fetal growth. BPD and AC measured by US and EFW (Shepard's formula) calculated. <i>Threshold:</i> EFW > 1.5 SD for the reference curve.	Diagnostic accuracy results for predicting SGA (BW < 10th centile for GA) and LGA (BW > 90th centile for GA) babies	<u>For SGA</u> Sensitivity: 89.9% Specificity: 78.8% PPV: 63.2% <u>For LGA</u> Sensitivity: 73.5% Specificity: 78.8% PPV: 59.6%	Retrospective study, population not representative Blinding not done/specified Test described adequately Reference test validated	CH	III

Effectiveness studies

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Neilson JP	566	Pregnant women around 14 weeks of pregnancy randomly allocated to the experimental or control group using sealed, opaque and unnumbered envelopes (<i>n</i> = 1639, 1 trial)	Tape measurement of SFH routinely measured after 28 weeks and plotted on a locally derived centile chart	<u>Primary:</u> complications associated with FGR or FGR (intrauterine death, asphyxia hypoglycaemia) complications associated with macrosomia (CPD, caesarean for failure to progress, shoulder dystocia) complications associated with multiple pregnancy (preterm delivery, perinatal mortality) <u>Secondary:</u> other indices of maternal and perinatal mortality and morbidity, and indices of obstetric care including admission to hospital.	<u>Peto Odds ratio with 95% CI</u> Perinatal mortality 1.25 (0.38 – 4.08) Apgar score < 4 at 1 minute 0.93 (0.38 – 2.31) Apgar score < 4 at 5 minutes 1.04 (0.26 – 4.17) Labour induction for FGR 0.84 (0.44 – 1.59) Caesarean section for FGR 0.72 (0.31 – 1.67) Birthweight < 10th centile 1.34 (0.91 – 1.98) Admission neonatal unit 1.07 (0.69 – 1.65)	Methodology explained in detail Only 1 trial included	SR	1+
Smith-Bindman <i>et al.</i> , 2002	936	Study population selected from a cohort of 1836 singleton pregnancies attending a medical centre in the USA, and included all those who underwent two or more US examinations 2–17 weeks apart during the study period (<i>n</i> = 321)	To determine if fetal growth measured at serial US examination can predict neonatal morbidity. Results of US fetal biometry measurements obtained from computerised database and EFW calculated using HC, AC and FL	Comparison of risk between FGR group (<i>n</i> = 24) and Normal FG (<i>n</i> = 212) for – LBW (BW < 2500 g, < 1500 g, < 5th centile and < 3rd centile for GA), preterm birth (< 37 weeks), long hospital stay (> 4 days), admission in neonatal intensive care unit, and assisted ventilation required at birth. Risk was also calculated after adjustment for confounding variables (maternal age, weight, height, race, parity, fetal sex, EFW)	<u>LBW (BW < 2500 g)</u> 63% vs 16% RR: 3.9 (2.5, 6.0) Adj. OR: 16.9 (4.2, 68.1) <u>LBW (BW < 1500 g)</u> 25% vs 3% RR: 8.8 (3.1, 25.2) Adj. OR: 17.6 (2.6, 122.0) <u>LBW (BW < 5th centile)</u> 25% vs 1% RR: 17.7 (4.7, 66.1) Adj. OR: 36.1 (3.9, 336.7)	Retrospective analysis of hospital database Blinding not specified Confounding variables controlled	CH	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<u>Preterm birth</u> 50% vs 22% RR: 2.3 (1.4, 3.7) Adj. OR: 4.1 (1.2, 14.1)			
					<u>Long hospital stay</u> 50% vs 19% RR: 2.6 (1.6, 4.2) Adj. OR: 6.2 (1.7, 22.6)			
					<u>Admission in NICU</u> 46% vs 13% RR: 3.6 (2.1, 6.3) Adj. OR: 5.7 (1.5, 21.9)			
Stratton <i>et al.</i> , 1995	937	Unselected mothers with singleton pregnancies and confirmed GA by a second-trimester scan referred for third-trimester US examination to a hospital in the UK ($n = 285$)	To compare outcomes in fetuses with US evidence of inadequate growth but born with BW > 10th centile for GA (Inadequate fetal growth group, $n = 75$) with infants with normal US for fetal growth (Adequate fetal growth group, $n = 121$).	Abnormal Doppler, induction of labour, meconium staining, need for intrapartum fetal blood sampling, operative vaginal delivery, caesarean section, Apgar score < 7 at 5 minutes and need for admission to neonatal ICU.	<u>Meconium staining</u> 23% vs 17% OR: 1.40 (0.64, 3.03) $P = 0.36$ <u>Admission to neonatal ICU</u> 20% vs 7% OR: 3.11 (1.19, 8.52) $P < 0.05$	Baseline characteristics of groups not compared Confounding variables not adjusted Blinding not done/specified	CH	2-
					<u>Abnormal Doppler</u> 7% vs 9% $P > 0.05$			
					<u>Induction of labour</u> 35% vs 34% $P > 0.05$			
					<u>Cesarean section</u> 16% vs 16% $P > 0.05$			
Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2004	938	English speaking women more than 18 years of age with singleton pregnancy, known LMP and GA	To examine fetal growth and perinatal outcomes in pregnancies with isolated oligohydramnios (defined	Preterm delivery (< 37 weks), caesarean delivery, Apgar score < 7 at 1 and 5 minutes, Duration of	<u>Group 1</u> <u>Preterm delivery</u> 24.4% vs 13.2%	Baseline characteristics of two groups similar Blinding of outcome assessor	CH	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
		< 18 weeks in the screening arm of the RADIUS trial (multicentre trial) in the USA, and who underwent US screening twice at 15–22 and 31–35 weeks (<i>n</i> = 7549)	as AFI ≤ 5 cm). Comparison made between OH and Normal AFI in two groups – Group 1 with associated maternal/fetal conditions like PROM, HT, DM, and Group 2 without such associated conditions	NICU stay, perinatal mortality, moderate and severe morbidity	RR: 1.9 (1.2, 3.1) <u>Caesarean section</u> 24% vs 29% RR: 0.9 (0.6, 1.3) <u>Apgar < 7 at 5 minutes</u> 7.7% vs 3.1% RR: 2.2 (1.1, 4.7) <u>Perinatal mortality</u> 5.1% vs 1.2% RR: 4.1 (1.3, 13.4) <u>Severe morbidity</u> 7.7% vs 5.3% RR: 1.5 (0.5, 3.8) <u>Group 2</u> <u>Preterm delivery</u> 3.5% vs 4.1% RR: 0.9 (0.3, 2.7) <u>Caesarean section</u> 19% vs 14% RR: 1.4 (0.8, 2.4) <u>Apgar < 7 at 5 minutes</u> 1.2% vs 1.2% RR: 1.0 (0.1, 7.0) <u>Perinatal mortality</u> 0% vs 0.5% RR: 0 <u>Severe morbidity</u> 1.2% vs 0.8% RR: 1.4 (0.2, 10.3)	Confounding variables controlled		

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Biggio <i>et al.</i> , 1995	939	Review of all computerised records of a tertiary hospital in the USA (<i>n</i> = 40 065) Cases: pregnancies complicated by hydramnios after 20 weeks of gestation (<i>n</i> = 370) Controls: all singleton pregnancies having normal AF volume on US after 20 weeks (<i>n</i> = 36 425)	Hydramnios taken as AFI \geq 25 cm or depth more than 8 cm measured in a single vertical pocket or sonographers subjective impression.	Comparison made for adverse perinatal outcomes (Perinatal mortality rate (PMR) per 1000 births, fetal anomalies, FGR, caesarean section, and diabetes), and confounding variables known to influence perinatal outcomes adjusted using regression model.	<u>PMR (per 1000 births)</u> 49 vs 14 RR: 3.4 (2.2, 5.4) Adj RR: 3.8 (1.9, 7.3) <u>Fetal anomalies</u> 8.4% vs 0.3% RR: 25.4 (17.4, 37.2) Adj. RR: 18.2 (8.7, 38.2) <u>FGR</u> 3.8% vs 6.7% RR: 0.6 (0.3, 0.9) Adj. RR: 0.5 (0.2, 1.1) <u>Caesarean</u> 47.0% vs 16.4% RR: 2.9 (2.6, 3.2)	Nested case-control Minimal chance of bias Blinding not specified Confounding variables controlled	CC	2+
Bricker and Neilson,	575	The review includes all randomised and quasi-randomised controlled trials where routine Doppler US of umbilical artery and/or uterine artery was done in both unselected and low-risk pregnant women (<i>n</i> = 14 338, 5 trials)	To assess the effectiveness of routine Doppler US on obstetric practice and pregnancy outcomes in unselected and low-risk pregnancies	Primary outcome measures were induction of labour, caesarean section, preterm delivery < 28 and < 34 weeks, all deaths (perinatal, neonatal, and infant), neurodevelopment at 2 years of age, and maternal psychological effects	<u>Routine Doppler US vs no/concealed/selective Doppler US</u> Meta-analysis (4 trials) – no differences between the two groups in antenatal admissions or other tests of fetal wellbeing, induction of labour, instrumental deliveries, caesarean section, neonatal interventions and perinatal mortality. 3 trials report perinatal mortality for fetuses/neonates without congenital anomalies, but there was heterogeneity of results (χ^2 10.44, P < 0.025) with one trial finding increased perinatal mortality in screened group (OR 3.31, 95% CI 1.37–2.53). <u>Serial US and Doppler US versus selective US</u> Single trial compared the two groups and no difference was found between them for all the primary outcomes. More babies in the screened group were of BW < 10th	Cochrane review Well addressed question and methodology explained in detail	SR	1++

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results and < 3rd centile	Comments	Study type	EL
Gardosi and Francis, 1999	567	Two similar catchment areas (distance from hospital, ethnicity and socio-economic background of population, number of referrals per year) of a tertiary hospital in the UK served by separate and non-overlapping groups of community midwives and GP's. <i>Study group:</i> singleton pregnancies (<i>n</i> = 667) booked before 22 weeks GA and issued CFGC, <i>Control group:</i> consecutive singleton pregnancies (<i>n</i> = 605) booked before 22 weeks and delivered in the hospital	To evaluate the effect of a policy using serial SFH measurements plotted on CFGC (study group) compared with routine antenatal care policy of recording SFH against women's GA (control group)	Primary outcomes: number of SGA (< 10th centile) and LGA (> 90th centile) babies detected antenatally in each group. Secondary outcomes: total number of investigations performed in each group including referrals to US department/pregnancy assessment unit, and admissions to the ward.	<u>Number of SGA detected antenatally</u> 47.9% vs 29.2% OR: 2.23 (1.12, 4.45) <u>Number of LGA detected antenatally</u> 45.7% vs 24.2% OR: 2.63 (1.27, 5.45) <u>Induction of labour</u> 15.7% vs 16.7% OR: 0.93 (0.69, 1.26) <u>Preterm birth</u> 7.8% vs 6.4% OR: 1.23 (0.80, 1.88) <u>Admissions to SCBU</u> 3.3% vs 2.6% OR: 1.26 (0.65, 2.41) <u>Resuscitation at birth</u> 16.5% vs 14.4% OR: 1.18 (0.87, 1.56) <u>Fetal abnormality</u> 1.0% vs 1.5% OR: 0.70 (0.26, 1.90)	Non-RCT Incomplete data for calculating diagnostic accuracy Blinding not specified		1-
Clausson <i>et al.</i> , 2001	940	Details of all the live births recorded in the Swedish Birth Register between 1992–1995 after excluding those with congenital malformations, unknown gestational age, and insufficient information for calculating customised birthweight centile. (<i>n</i> = 326,377)	To determine if CFGC improves detection of SGA babies and association with adverse perinatal outcomes. Two standards for estimating birthweight constructed from database – a population one based on gender and gestational length, and an individually customised one with adjustment for maternal	Risks of stillbirth, neonatal death and Apgar score < 4 at 5 minutes compared in infants classified as SGA by the two standards to that of non-SGA infants. SGA defined as the lowest 10%, 5% or 2.5% of birthweights in the population.	<u>SGA (pop) vs non-SGA (cust.)</u> Stillbirth OR: 1.2 (0.8, 1.9) Neonatal death OR: 0.9 (0.3, 2.3) Apgar < 4 at 5 minutes OR: 1.2 (0.9, 1.5)	Population based cohort Baseline characteristics of two groups similar Confounding variables not controlled	CH	2+

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
			height, weight, parity and ethnic group.		<u>SGA (cust.) vs non-SGA (pop.)</u> Stillbirth OR: 6.1 (5.0, 7.5) Neonatal death OR: 4.1 (2.5, 6.6) Apgar < 4 at 5 minutes OR: 2.2 (1.9, 2.7) <u>SGA (cust.) vs SGA (pop.)</u> Stillbirth OR: 5.1 (4.3, 5.9) Neonatal death OR: 3.4 (2.4, 4.8) Apgar < 4 at 5 minutes OR: 2.0 (1.7, 2.3)			
Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2007	941	All recorded births with complete data for a period of 10 years (1992–2001) in the Swedish Birth Register. Apart from excluding those with congenital malformations, unknown gestational age, and insufficient information for calculating customised birthweight centile (as in previous study), it also excluded births with GA < 28 weeks. (<i>n</i> = 782,303)	To critically examine potential biases and artifacts underlying the use of CFGC. All the births were classified as non-SGA (both standards), SGA (cust.), SGA (pop.), or SGA (both), using the same standards as the above study	Risks of stillbirth, neonatal death and Apgar score < 4 at 5 minutes compared in infants classified as SGA by the two standards to that of non-SGA infants after controlling for confounding variables (gestational age and pre-pregnancy BMI)	<u>SGA (pop) vs non-SGA (cust.)</u> Stillbirth OR: 1.4 (1.1, 1.9) Adj. OR: 1.8 (1.3, 2.4) Neonatal death OR: 1.3 (0.9, 2.0) Adj. OR: 1.6 (1.0, 2.4) <u>SGA (cust.) vs non-SGA (pop.)</u> Stillbirth OR: 7.8 (6.9, 8.9) Adj. OR: 2.3 (2.0, 2.6) Neonatal death OR: 6.7 (5.5, 8.1) Adj. OR: 2.0 (1.6, 2.5)	Retrospective analysis of data from the population based cohort Baseline characteristics of two groups similar Confounding variables controlled	CH	2+

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Intervention	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					<u>SGA (cust.) vs SGA (pop.)</u>			
					Stillbirth			
					OR: 5.7 (5.2, 6.2)			
					Adj. OR: 4.9 (4.4, 5.4)			
					Neonatal death			
					OR: 5.7 (4.9, 6.5)			
					Adj. OR: 4.9 (4.3, 5.7)			

14 Antenatal assessment tool

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
Nelson et al, 2007	2004	Pregnant women on a low income (95% defined as being below poverty level – US) Total number of pregnant women in 4 reported studies = 2026	To describe and compare different screening assessment tools used to identify intimate partner violence.	Detection rate of intimate partner violence (IPV) (one tool compared with another)	4 simple questionnaire-based screening tools gave similar results when used to detect women suffering IPV (3-item Abuse Assessment Screen; 30-item Index of Spouse Abuse; 19-item Conflict Tactic Scale and the Domestic Abuse Screen). The 5-item Abuse-Assessment Screen scored higher than social services interview. However a nurse conducted interview was found to be better at detecting IC than a 4-item questionnaire.	Review contained 4 studies where the population was pregnant women. Quality ratings for studies: one good, one fair and two poor. Country: US	Systematic review	III
Anderson, 2002	1008	Pregnant women Intervention group n=21 healthcare providers. Comparison group n=27 healthcare providers.	To compare detection of psychosocial risk factors using the Antenatal Psychosocial Health Assessment (ALPHA) with detection through usual antenatal consultations.	Detection of psychosocial problems.	ALPHA group health care providers identified 115 psychosocial problems in sub-sample of 98 women. Usual care providers identified 96 psychosocial problems in sub-sample of 129 women. OR 1.8, 95% CI 1.1 to 3.0). Providers in ALPHA group signif. more likely to express a high level of concern about psychosocial issues compared with providers in comparison group: 11.2% vs. 2.3%; p=0.0006).	Low response rate – 44% in intervention group and 56% in comparison group. Country: Canada	RCT	1-
McDonnell et al, 2006	1005	Pregnant women N=478	To determine the acceptability of antenatal enquiry about partner violence.	Women's views of acceptability	Most women (99.4%) found questions about IPV acceptable during antenatal consultations. 61 women (12.9%) reported experiencing IPV within the previous year.	Country: Eire	Cross-sectional survey	III
Webster and Holt, 2004	1007	Antenatal records N=937	Compare detection rate of IPV using 6-item self-completion Maternity Social Support Scale checklist and 4-item Domestic Violence Initiative form (questions asked by health care provider).	Detection of IPV	More partner violence was detected by the 6-item Maternity Social Support Scale checklist than by the Domestic Violence Initiative form. On 107 occasions partner violence was detected by the Maternity Social Support Scale and not by the Domestic Violence Initiative form.	Country: Australia	Retrospective audit of records	III
Lu et al, 2003	1001	Systematic review of 15 studies.	To investigate effectiveness and diagnostic accuracy of antenatal risk assessment, health promotion and psychosocial interventions in preventing low birthweight.	Prevention and detection of low birthweight.	None of the risk assessments reviewed were able to identify more than two-thirds of women who went on to give birth pre-term. Most tools predicted less than 50% of pre-term births.	International	Systematic review	III

Antenatal care: evidence tables (2008 update)

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
					Findings for one of the most comprehensive risk assessment studies included in the review – the Cardiff Preterm Prediction Study: SSSensitivity: 24% and 18% (nulliparous women and multiparous women respectively) PPV: 29% and 33% (nulliparous women and multiparous women respectively)			
Caroli et al, 2001	1009	Systematic review of 7 studies.	To investigate the accuracy and effectiveness of antenatal risk assessment in preventing maternal mortality and serious morbidity.	Prediction of serious maternal morbidity.	Review of 5 studies of individual risk scoring showed that only 10-30% of women allocated to high risk groups experienced the adverse outcome that the risk assessment had identified. Review of 2 studies based on more complex scoring systems did not provide sufficient data to enable accuracy or effectiveness to be determined. Overall conclusion: scoring systems poor at discriminating between women at high risk and those at low risk.	Low income countries.	Systematic review	III
Gueorgieva et al, 2003	1002	Review of 166 372 medical records.	Evaluation of weighted risk scoring system in predicting very low birthweight babies compared with the Healthy Start screening tool.	Prediction of very low birthweight.	Positive likelihood ratio values for risk scoring systems: 1.34 to 2.95.	Country: US	Retrospective cross-sectional study	III
Gomez and Young, 2002	1003	N=782 pregnant women	Evaluation of risk scoring system, the Risk Index, used at each AN visit.	Maternal and neonatal outcomes including: Low birthweight Caesarean section Low 5 minute Apgar score	Incidence of low birthweight: 13% in high-risk group vs. 1.4% in low-risk group; RR: 2.27, 95% CI 1.57 to 4.59. Sensitivity 40% Specificity 81% Caesarean section: 51% in high risk group vs. 23% in low-risk group; RR 2.2, 95% CI 1.77 to 2.70. Sensitivity 35% Specificity 86% Low Apgar score at 5 minutes: RR 4.1, 95% CI 1.2 to 13.9. Sensitivity: 50% Specificity: 81%	Country: US	Prospective evaluation	III
Stahl and Hundley, 2003	2010	N=111 pregnant women	To investigate the effect of being labelled as "high risk" on women's psychological state during pregnancy.	Score on psychometric questionnaire to gauge psychological state during pregnancy.	Group labelled as "high risk" significantly poorer psychological scores than women labelled as "low risk" after adjusting for age difference: $R^2 = 0.07$, $F = 7.592$, 1 df, $p=0.007$.	Group labelled as "high risk" were significantly older than group labelled as "low risk". Country:	Prospective cross-sectional study	III

Study	Ref.	Population	Aim of study	Outcomes	Results	Comments	Study type	EL
						Germany		

References

(2003 version)

1. Expert Maternity Group. Woman centred care. In: Department of Health. *Changing Childbirth. Report of the Expert Maternity Group*. London: HMSO; 1993. p. 5–8.
2. Garcia J, Loftus-Hills A (National Perinatal Epidemiology Unit: Oxford University). An overview of research on women's views of antenatal care. Personal communication 2001.
3. Singh D, Newburn M, editors. *Access to Maternity Information and Support; the Experiences and Needs of Women Before and After Giving Support*. London: National Childbirth Trust; 2000.
4. Cochrane AL. *Effectiveness and efficiency. Random reflections on health services*. London: Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust; 1972.
5. Department of Health. Screening for infectious diseases in pregnancy: standards to support the UK antenatal screening programme. [In preparation]. 2003.
6. National Institute for Clinical Excellence. *Information for national collaborating centres and guideline development groups*. Guideline development process series 3. London: Oaktree Press; 2001.
7. Henderson J, McCandlish R, Kumiega L, Petrou S. Systematic review of economic aspects of alternative modes of delivery. *BJOG* 2001;108:149–57.
8. Bekker H, Thornton JG, Airey CM, Connelly JB, Hewison J, Robinson MB, et al. Informed decision making: An annotated bibliography and systematic review. *Health Technology Assessment* 1999;3(1):1–156.
9. Department of Health. *Changing childbirth. Report of the Expert Maternity Group*. London: HMSO; 1993.
10. Audit Commission for Local Authorities, NHS in England and Wales. *First class delivery: improving maternity services in England and Wales*. London: Audit Commission Publications; 1997. p. 1–98.
11. Murray J, Cuckle H, Sehmi I, Wilson C, Ellis A. Quality of written information used in Down syndrome screening. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2001;21:138–42.
12. Thornton JG, Hewison J, Lilford RJ, Vail A. A randomised trial of three methods of giving information about prenatal testing. *British Medical Journal* 1995;311:1127–30.
13. O' Cathain A, Walters SJ, Nicholl JP, Thomas KJ, Kirkham M. Use of evidence based leaflets to promote informed choice in maternity care: randomised controlled trial in everyday practice. [comment]. *British Medical Journal* 2002;324:643.
14. Stapleton H. Qualitative study of evidence based leaflets in maternity care. *British Medical Journal* 2002;324:639.
15. Dodds R, Newburn M. Support during screening: an NCT report. *Modern Midwife* 1997;7:23–6.
16. Carroll JC, Brown JB, Reid AJ, Pugh P. Women's experience of maternal serum screening. *Canadian Family Physician* 2000;46:614–20.
17. Marteau TM, Slack J, Kidd J, Shaw, RW. Presenting a routine screening test in antenatal care: practice observed. *Public Health* 1992;106(2):131–41.
18. Smith D, Shaw RW, Marteau T. Lack of knowledge in health professionals: a barrier to providing information to patients. *Quality in Health Care* 1994;3:75–8.
19. Smith DK, Shaw RW, Slack J, Marteau TM. Training obstetricians and midwives to present screening tests: evaluation of two brief interventions. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 1995;15:317–24.
20. Green JM. Serum screening for Down's syndrome: experiences of obstetricians in England and Wales. *British Medical Journal* 1994;309:769–72.
21. Michie S, Marteau TM. Non-response bias in prospective studies of patients and health care professionals. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology* 1999;2:203–12.
22. Marteau TM. Towards informed decisions about prenatal testing: a review. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 1995;15(13):1215–26.
23. National Health Service. *The Pregnancy Book*. London: Health Promotion England; 2001.
24. Bro Taf Health Authority. *Tests for you and your baby during pregnancy*. Cardiff, Wales: Bro Taf Health Authority; 2000.
25. Nolan ML, Hicks C. Aims, processes and problems of antenatal education as identified by three groups of childbirth teachers. *Midwifery* 1997;13:179–88.
26. Johnson R, Slade P. Does fear of childbirth during pregnancy predict emergency caesarean section? *BJOG* 2002;109:1213–21.
27. Gagnon AJ. Individual or group antenatal education for childbirth/parenthood. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(3).
28. Hibbard BM, Robinson JO, Pearson JF, Rosen M, Taylor A. The effectiveness of antenatal education. *Health Education Journal* 1979;38:39–46.
29. Rautava P, Erkkola R, Sillanpaa M. The outcome and experiences of first pregnancy in relation to the mother's childbirth knowledge: The Finnish Family Competence Study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing* 1991;16:1226–32.
30. Lumley J, Brown S. Attenders and nonattenders at childbirth education classes in Australia: how do they and their births differ? *Birth* 1993;20:123–30.
31. Sullivan P. Felt learning needs of pregnant women. *Canadian Nurse* 1993;89:42.
32. Villar J, Khan-Neelofur D. Patterns of routine antenatal care for low-risk pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1).
33. Hodnett ED. Continuity of caregivers for care during pregnancy and childbirth. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(3).
34. Waldenstrom U, Turnbull D. A systematic review comparing continuity of midwifery care with standard maternity services. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;105:1160–70.
35. North Staffordshire Changing Childbirth Research Team. A randomised study of midwifery caseload care and traditional 'shared care'. *Midwifery* 2000;16:295–302.

36. Homer CS, Davis GK, Brodie PM, Sheehan A, Barclay LM, Wills J, et al. Collaboration in maternity care: a randomised controlled trial comparing community-based continuity of care with standard hospital care. *BJOG* 2001;108:16–22.
37. Homer CS, Davis GK, Brodie PM. What do women feel about community-based antenatal care? *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health* 2000;24:590–5.
38. Biro MA, Waldenstrom U. Team midwifery care in a tertiary level obstetric service: a randomized controlled trial. *Birth* 2000;27:168–73.
39. Waldenstrom U. Does team midwife care increase satisfaction with antenatal, intrapartum, and postpartum care? A randomized controlled trial. [see comments.]. *Birth* 2000;27:156–67.
40. Blondel B, Breart G. Home visits for pregnancy complications and management of antenatal care: an overview of three randomized controlled trials. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1992;99:283–6.
41. Lilford RJ, Kelly M, Baines A, Cameron S, Cave M, Guthrie K, et al. Effect of using protocols on medical care: randomised trial of three methods of taking an antenatal history. *British Medical Journal* 1992;305:1181–4.
42. Elbourne D, Richardson M, Chalmers I, Waterhouse I, Holt E. The Newbury Maternity Care Study: a randomized controlled trial to assess a policy of women holding their own obstetric records. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1987;94:612–19.
43. Homer CS, Davis GK, Everitt LS. The introduction of a woman-held record into a hospital antenatal clinic: the bring your own records study. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health* 1999;39:54–7.
44. Lovell A, Zander LI, James CE, Foot S, Swan AV, Reynolds A. The St. Thomas's Hospital maternity case notes study: a randomised controlled trial to assess the effects of giving expectant mothers their own maternity case notes. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology* 1987;1:57–66.
45. Petrou S, Kupek E, Vause S, Maresh M. Antenatal visits and adverse perinatal outcomes: results from a British population-based study. *European Journal of Obstetrics Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 2003;106:40–9.
46. Carroli G, Villar J, Piaggio G, Khan-Neelofur D, Gulmezoglu M, Mugford M, et al. WHO systematic review of randomised controlled trials of routine antenatal care. *Lancet* 2001;357:1565–70.
47. Clement S, Sikorski J, Wilson J, Das S, Smeeton N. Women's satisfaction with traditional and reduced antenatal visit schedules. *Midwifery* 1996;12:120–8.
48. Hildingsson I, Waldenstrom U, Radestad I. Women's expectations on antenatal care as assessed in early pregnancy: Number of visits, continuity of caregiver and general content. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2002;81:118–25.
49. Henderson J, Roberts T, Sikorski J, Wilson J, Clement S. An economic evaluation comparing two schedules of antenatal visits. *Journal of Health Services and Research Policy* 2000;5:69–75.
50. Kaminski M, Blondel B, Breart G. Management of pregnancy and childbirth in England and Wales and in France. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology* 1988;2:13–24.
51. Ryan, M, Ratcliffe, J, Tucker, J. Using willingness to pay to value alternative models of antenatal care. *Social Science and Medicine* 1997;44(3):371–80.
52. Crowther CA, Kornman L, O'Callaghan S, George K, Furness M, Willson K. Is an ultrasound assessment of gestational age at the first antenatal visit of value? A randomised clinical trial. [see comments.]. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106:1273–9.
53. Savitz DA, Terry JW Jr, Dole N, Thorp JM Jr, Siega-Riz AM, Herring AH. Comparison of pregnancy dating by last menstrual period, ultrasound scanning, and their combination. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;187:1660–6.
54. Backe B, Nakling J. Term prediction in routine ultrasound practice. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1994;73:113–8.
55. Tunon K, Eik-Nes SH, Grotttum P. A comparison between ultrasound and a reliable last menstrual period as predictors of the day of delivery in 15000 examinations. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;8:178–85.
56. Blondel B, Morin I, Platt RW, Kramer MS, Usher R, Breart G. Algorithms for combining menstrual and ultrasound estimates of gestational age: consequences for rates of preterm and post-term birth. *BJOG* 2002;109:718–20.
57. Neilson JP. Ultrasound for fetal assessment in early pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 1999;(2).
58. Moutquin J-M, Gagnon R, Rainville C, Giroux L, Amyot G, Bilodeau R, et al. Maternal and neonatal outcome in pregnancies with no risk factors. *Canadian Medical Association Journal* 1987;137:728–32.
59. Mohamed H, Martin C, Haloob R. Can the New Zealand antenatal scoring system be applied in the United Kingdom? *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;22:389–91.
60. Doyle P, Roman E, Beral V, Brookes M. Spontaneous abortion in dry cleaning workers potentially exposed to perchloroethylene. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine* 1997;54:848–53.
61. Kolstad HA, Brandt LP, Rasmussen K. [Chlorinated solvents and fetal damage. Spontaneous abortions, low birth weight and malformations among women employed in the dry-cleaning industry]. [Danish]. *Ugeskrift for Laeger* 1990;152:2481–2.
62. Kyyronen P, Taskinen H, Lindbohm ML, Hemminki K, Heinonen OP. Spontaneous abortions and congenital malformations among women exposed to tetrachloroethylene in dry cleaning. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 1989;43:346–51.
63. Mozurkewich EL, Luke B, Avni M, Wolf FM. Working conditions and adverse pregnancy outcome: A meta-analysis. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;95:623–35.
64. Hanke W, Kalinka J, Makowiec-Dabrowska T, Sobala W. Heavy physical work during pregnancy: a risk factor for small-for-gestational-age babies in Poland. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine* 1999;36:200–5.
65. Kramer, MS. Nutritional advice in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1):1–10.
66. Abramsky L, Botting B, Chapple J, Stone D. Has advice on periconceptional folate supplementation reduced neural-tube defects? *Lancet* 1999;354:998–9.
67. Lumley J, Watson L, Watson M, Bower C. Periconceptional supplementation with folate and/or multivitamins for preventing neural tube defects. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(1).
68. Li Z, Gindler J, Wang H, Berry RJ, Li S, Correa A, et al. Folic acid supplements during early pregnancy and likelihood of multiple births: a population-based cohort study. *Lancet* 2003;361:380–4.
69. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Periconceptual folic acid and food fortification in the prevention of neural tube defects*. Scientific Advisory Committee Opinion Paper No. 4, London: RCOG; 2003.
70. Daly LE, Kirke PN, Molloy A, Weir DG, Scott JM. Folate levels and neural tube defects. Implications for prevention. *JAMA* 1995;274:1698–702.
71. Expert Advisory Group. Department of Health, Scottish office Home and Health Department, Welsh Office, and Department of Health and Social Services, Northern Ireland. *Folic acid and the prevention of neural tube defects*. London: HMSO; 1992.

72. Prevention of neural tube defects: results of the Medical Research Council Vitamin Study. MRC Vitamin Study Research Group [see comments]. *Lancet* 1991;338:131–7.
73. Wald NJ, Law MR, Morris JK, Wald DS. Quantifying the effect of folic acid. *Lancet* 2001;358:2069–73.
74. Mahomed K. Iron and folate supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
75. Hemminki E, Rimpela U. A randomized comparison of routine versus selective iron supplementation during pregnancy. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition* 1991;10:3–10.
76. Mahomed K. Iron supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
77. British Medical Association, Royal Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain. *British National Formulary*. London: March 2003. p. 439–40.
78. van den Broek N, Kulier R, Gulmezoglu AM, Villar J. Vitamin A supplementation during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1):1–21.
79. Dolk HM, Nau H, Hummler H, Barlow SM. Dietary vitamin A and teratogenic risk: European Teratology Society discussion paper. *European Journal Obstetrics and Gynecology Reproductive Biology* 1999;83:31–6.
80. Oakley GP Jr, Erickson JD. Vitamin A and birth defects. Continuing caution is needed. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1995;333:1414–15.
81. Rothman KJ, Moore LL, Singer MR, Nguyen US, Mannino S, Milunsky A. Teratogenicity of high vitamin A intake. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1995;333:1369–73.
82. Mahomed K, Gulmezoglu A. M. Vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2000;(1).
83. Southwick FS, Purich DL. Intracellular pathogenesis of listeriosis. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1996;334:770–6.
84. Public Health Laboratory Service Press Release. Disease Facts: Salmonella. 2001.
85. British Nutrition Foundation. BNF Information. Diet through Life: Pregnancy. 2003. [www.nutrition.org.uk/] Accessed 20 August 2003.
86. Ledward RS. Drugs in pregnancy. In: Studd J, editor *Progress in Obstetrics and Gynaecology*. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 1998. p. 19–46.
87. Fugh-Berman A, Kronenberg F. Complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) in reproductive-age women: a review of randomized controlled trials. *Reproductive Toxicology* 2003;17:137–52.
88. Moore ML. Complementary and alternative therapies. *Journal of Perinatal Education* 2002;11:39–42.
89. Pinn G, Pallett L. Herbal medicine in pregnancy. *Complementary Therapies in Nursing and Midwifery* 2002;8:77–80.
90. Leung K-Y, Lee Y-P, Chan H-Y, Lee C-P, Tang MHY. Are herbal medicinal products less teratogenic than Western pharmaceutical products? *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica* 2002;23:1169–72.
91. Hepner DL, Harnett M, Segal S, Camann W, Bader AM, Tsen LC. Herbal medicine use in parturients. *Anesthesia and Analgesia* 2002;94:690–3.
92. Maats FH, Crowther CA. Patterns of vitamin, mineral and herbal supplement use prior to and during pregnancy. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;42:494–6.
93. Tsui B, Dennehy CE, Tsourounis C. A survey of dietary supplement use during pregnancy at an academic medical center. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;185:433–7.
94. Medicines Control Agency. *Safety of Herbal Medicinal Products*. London; 2002. p. 22–23.
95. Ernst E. Herbal medicinal products during pregnancy: are they safe? *BJOG* 2002;109:227–35.
96. Dove D, Johnson P. Oral evening primrose oil: Its effect on length of pregnancy and selected intrapartum outcomes in low-risk nulliparous women. *Journal of Nurse-Midwifery* 1999;44:320–4.
97. Simpson M. Raspberry leaf in pregnancy; its safety and efficacy in labor. *Journal of Midwifery and Women's Health* 2001;46:51–9.
98. Gallo M, Sarkar M, Au W, Pietrzak K, Comas B, Smith M, et al. Pregnancy outcome following gestational exposure to Echinacea: a prospective controlled study. *Archives of Internal Medicine* 2000;160:3141–3.
99. Goldman RD, Koren G, Motherisk Team. Taking St John's wort during pregnancy. *Canadian Family Physician* 2003;49:29–30.
100. Clapp JF III, Simonian S, Lopez B, Appleby-Wineberg S, Hancar-Sevcik R. The one-year morphometric and neurodevelopmental outcome of the offspring of women who continued to exercise regularly throughout pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;178:594–9.
101. Kramer MS. Aerobic exercise for women during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(4).
102. Camporesi EM. Diving and pregnancy. *Seminars in Perinatology* 1996;20:292–302.
103. Read JS, Klebanoff MA. Sexual intercourse during pregnancy and preterm delivery: effects of vaginal microorganisms. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1993;168:514–19.
104. Klebanoff MA, Nugent RP, Rhoads GG. Coitus during pregnancy: is it safe? *Lancet* 1984;2:914–7.
105. Berghella V, Klebanhoff M, McPherson C. Sexual intercourse association with asymptomatic bacterial vaginosis and *Trichomonas vaginalis* treatment in relationship to preterm birth. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;187:1277–82.
106. Walpole I, Zubrick S, Pontre J. Is there a fetal effect with low to moderate alcohol use before or during pregnancy? *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 1990;44:297–301.
107. Borges G, Lopez-Cervantes M, Medina-Mora ME, Tapia-Conyer R, Garrido F. Alcohol consumption, low birth weight, and preterm delivery in the national addiction survey (Mexico). *International Journal of the Addictions* 1993;28(4):355–68.
108. Holzman C, Paneth N, Little R, Pinto-Martin J. Perinatal brain injury in premature infants born to mothers using alcohol in pregnancy. *Pediatrics* 1995;95:66–73.
109. Aronson M, Hagberg B, Gillberg C. Attention deficits and autistic spectrum problems in children exposed to alcohol during gestation: A follow-up study. *Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology* 1997;39:583–7.
110. Abel EL. Fetal alcohol syndrome: the 'American Paradox'. *Alcohol and Alcoholism* 1998;33:195–201.
111. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Alcohol consumption in pregnancy*. Guideline No. 9. London: RCOG; 1999.
112. Lumley J, Oliver S, Waters E. Interventions for promoting smoking cessation during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2). 2001.
113. Owen L, McNeill A, Callum C. Trends in smoking during pregnancy in England, 1992–7: quota sampling surveys. *British Medical Journal* 1998;317:728.
114. DiFranza JR, Lew, RA. Effect of maternal cigarette smoking on pregnancy complications and sudden infant death syndrome. *Journal of Family Practice* 1995;40:385–394.

115. Ananth CV, Smulian JC, Vintzileos AM. Incidence of placental abruption in relation to cigarette smoking and hypertensive disorders during pregnancy: A meta-analysis of observational studies. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93:622–8.
116. Castles A, Adams EK, Melvin CL, Kelsch C, Boulton ML. Effects of smoking during pregnancy: Five meta-analyses. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine* 1999;16:208–15.
117. Shah NR, Bracken MB. A systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies on the association between maternal cigarette smoking and preterm delivery. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;182:465–72.
118. Wyszynski DF, Duffy DL, Beaty TH. Maternal cigarette smoking and oral clefts: a meta-analysis. *Cleft Palate-Craniofacial Journal* 1997;34:206–10.
119. Conde-Agudelo A, Althabe F, Belizan JM, Kafury-Goeta AC. Cigarette smoking during pregnancy and risk of preeclampsia: a systematic review. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;181:1026–35.
120. Clausson B, Cnattingius S, Axelsson O. Preterm and term births of small for gestational age infants: A population-based study of risk factors among nulliparous women. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;105:1011–7.
121. Raymond EG, Cnattingius S, Kiely JL. Effects of maternal age, parity and smoking on the risk of stillbirth. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1994;101:301–6.
122. Kleinman JC, Pierre MB Jr, Madans JH, Land GH, Schramm WF. The effects of maternal smoking on fetal and infant mortality. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 1988;127:274–82.
123. Lumley J. Stopping smoking. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1987;94:289–92.
124. MacArthur C, Knox EG, Lancashire RJ. Effects at age nine of maternal smoking in pregnancy: experimental and observational findings. *BJOG* 2001;108:67–73.
125. von Kries R, Toschke AM, Koletzko B, Slikker W Jr. Maternal smoking during pregnancy and childhood obesity. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2002;156:954–61.
126. Faden VB, Graubard BI. Maternal substance use during pregnancy and developmental outcome at age three. *Journal of Substance Abuse* 2000;12:329–40.
127. Thorogood M, Hillsdon M, Summerbell C. Changing behaviour: cardiovascular disorders. *Clinical Evidence* 2002;8:37–59.
128. Law M, Tang JL. An analysis of the effectiveness of interventions intended to help people stop smoking. *Archives of Internal Medicine* 1995;155:1933–41.
129. Wisborg K, Henriksen TB, Jespersen LB, Secher NJ. Nicotine patches for pregnant smokers. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;96:967–71.
130. Hajek P, West R, Lee A, Foulds J, Owen L, Eiser JR, et al. Randomized controlled trial of a midwife-delivered brief smoking cessation intervention in pregnancy. *Addiction* 2001;96:485–94.
131. Stotts A, DiClemente CC, Dolan-Mullen P. One-to-one. A motivational intervention for resistant pregnant smokers. *Addictive Behaviors* 2002;27:275–92.
132. Moore L, Campbell R, Whelan A, Mills N, Lupton P, Misselbrook E, et al. Self help smoking cessation in pregnancy: cluster randomised controlled trial. *British Medical Journal* 2002;325:1383–6.
133. Li C, Windsor R, Perkins L, Lowe J, Goldenberg R. The impact on birthweight and gestational age of cotinine validated smoking reduction during pregnancy. *JAMA* 1993;269:1519–24.
134. Windsor R, Li C, Boyd N, Hartmann K. The use of significant reduction rates to evaluate health education methods for pregnant smokers: a new harm reduction – behavioral indicator. *Health Education and Behavior* 1999;26:648–62.
135. Fergusson DM, Horwood LJ, Northstone K, ALSPAC Study Team, Avon Longitudinal Study of Pregnancy and Childhood. Maternal use of cannabis and pregnancy outcome. *BJOG* 2002;109:21–7.
136. English DR, Hulse GK, Milne E, Holman CD, Bower CI. Maternal cannabis use and birth weight: a meta-analysis. *Addiction* 1997;92:1553–60.
137. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. Advice on preventing deep vein thrombosis for pregnant women travelling by air. Scientific Advisory Committee Opinion paper No. 1. London: RCOG; 2001.
138. James KV, Lohr JM, Deshmukh RM, Cranley JJ. Venous thrombotic complications of pregnancy. *Cardiovascular Surgery* 1996;4:777–82.
139. McColl MD, Ramsay JE, Tait RC, Walker ID, McCall F, Conkie JA, et al. Risk factors for pregnancy associated venous thromboembolism. *Thrombosis and Haemostasis* 1997;78:1183–8.
140. Kierkegaard A. Incidence and diagnosis of deep vein thrombosis associated with pregnancy. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1983;62:239–43.
141. Scurr JH, Machin SJ, Bailey-King S, Mackie IJ, McDonald S, Coleridge Smith PD. Frequency and prevention of symptomless deep-vein thrombosis in long-haul flights: a randomised trial. *Lancet* 2001;357:1485–9.
142. World Health Organization. Travellers with special needs. In: Martinez L, editor. *International Travel and Health*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2002.
143. Lewis G, Drife J, editors. *Why mothers die 1997–1999: The fifth report of the Confidential Enquiries into Maternal Deaths in the United Kingdom*. London: RCOG Press; 2001.
144. Johnson HC, Pring DW. Car seatbelts in pregnancy: the practice and knowledge of pregnant women remain causes for concern. *BJOG* 2000;107:644–7.
145. Chang A, Magwene K, Frand E. Increased safety belt use following education in childbirth classes. *Birth* 1987;14:148–52.
146. Klinich KD, Schneider LW, Moore JL, Pearlman MD. Investigations of crashes involving pregnant occupants. *Annual Proceedings, Association for the Advancement of Automotive Medicine* 2000;44:37–55.
147. Crosby WM, Costiloe JP. Safety of lap-belt restraint for pregnant victims of automobile collisions. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1971;284:632–6.
148. Crosby WM, King AI, Stout LC. Fetal survival following impact: improvement with shoulder harness restraint. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1972;112:1101–6.
149. Wolf ME, Alexander BH, Rivara FP, Hickok DE, Maier RV, Starzyk PM. A retrospective cohort study of seatbelt use and pregnancy outcome after a motor vehicle crash. *Journal of Trauma-Injury Infection and Critical Care* 1993;34:116–19.
150. World Health Organization. Special groups. In: Martinez L, editor. *International Travel and Health*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2002.
151. Hurley PA. International travel and the pregnant women. In: Studd J, editor. *Progress in Obstetrics and Gynaecology*. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 2003. p. 45–55.

152. Hurley P. Vaccination in pregnancy. *Current Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;8:169–75.
153. Jothivijayarani A. Travel considerations during pregnancy. *Primary Care Update for Ob/Gyns* 2002;9:36–40.
154. World Health Organization. Treatment of *P. vivax*, *P. ovale* and *P. malariae* infections. In: Martinez L, editor. *International Travel and Health*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2002. [www.who.int/ith/chapter07_04.html] Accessed 4 September 2003.
155. Luxemburger C, McGready R, Kham A, Morison L, Cho T, Chongsuphajaisiddhi T, et al. Effects of malaria during pregnancy on infant mortality in an area of low malaria transition. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2001;154:459–65.
156. World Health Organization. World malaria situation in 1993, Part 1. *Weekly Epidemiological Record* 1996;71:17–24.
157. Linday S, Ansell J, Selman C, Cox V, Hamilton K, Walraven G. Effect of pregnancy on exposure to malaria mosquitoes. *Lancet* 2000;355:1972.
158. Schaefer C, Peters PW. Intrauterine diethyltoluamide exposure and fetal outcome. *Reproductive Toxicology* 1992;6:175–6.
159. Dolan G, ter Kuile FO, Jacoutot V. Bed nets for the prevention of malaria and anaemia in pregnancy. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene* 1993;87:620–6.
160. Pearce G. Travel insurance and the pregnant woman. *MIDIRS Midwifery Digest* 1997;7:164.
161. Brown H, Campbell H. Special considerations for pregnant travellers. *Modern Medicine of Australia* 1999;42:17–20.
162. Tucker R. Ensure pregnant travellers know the risks. *Practice Nurse* 1999;18:458–66.
163. Rose SR. Pregnancy and travel. *Emergency Medicine Clinics of North America* 1997;15:93–111.
164. Baron TH, Ramirez B, Richter JE. Gastrointestinal motility disorders during pregnancy. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 1993;118:366–75.
165. Weigel RM, Weigel MM. Nausea and vomiting of early pregnancy and pregnancy outcome. A meta-analytical review. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1989;96:1312–8.
166. Whitehead SA, Andrews PL, Chamberlain GV. Characterisation of nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy: a survey of 1000 women. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1992;12:364–9.
167. Gadsby R, Barnie-Adshead AM, Jagger C. A prospective study of nausea and vomiting during pregnancy. *British Journal of General Practice* 1993;43:245–8.
168. Feldman M. Nausea and vomiting. In: Sleisenger MH, Fordtran JS, editors. *Gastrointestinal disease*. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1989. p. 229–31.
169. Klebanoff MA, Mills JL. Is vomiting during pregnancy teratogenic? *British Medical Journal* 1986;292:724–6.
170. Smith C, Crowther C, Beilby J, Dandeaux J. The impact of nausea and vomiting on women: a burden of early pregnancy. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2000;40:397–401.
171. Attard CL, Kohli MA, Coleman S, Bradley C, Hux M, Atanackovic G, et al. The burden of illness of severe nausea and vomiting of pregnancy in the United States. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;186:S220–7.
172. Vutyavanich T, Kraisarin T, Ruangsri R. Ginger for nausea and vomiting in pregnancy: randomized, double-masked, placebo-controlled trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;97:577–82.
173. Jewell D, Young G. Interventions for nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
174. Murphy PA. Alternative therapies for nausea and vomiting of pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;91:149–55.
175. Keating A, Chez RA. Ginger syrup as an antiemetic in early pregnancy. *Alternative Therapies in Health and Medicine* 2002;8:89–91.
176. Vickers AJ. Can acupuncture have specific effects on health? A systematic review of acupuncture antiemesis trials. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine* 1996;89:303–11.
177. Norheim AJ, Pedersen EJ, Fonnebo V, Berge L. Acupressure treatment of morning sickness in pregnancy. A randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Scandinavian Journal of Primary Health Care* 2001;19:43–7.
178. Knight B, Mudge C, Openshaw S, White A, Hart A. Effect of acupuncture on nausea of pregnancy: a randomized, controlled trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;97:184–8.
179. Werntoft E, Dykes AK. Effect of acupressure on nausea and vomiting during pregnancy: a randomized, placebo-controlled, pilot study. *Journal of Reproductive Medicine* 2001;46:835–9.
180. Smith C, Crowther C, Beilby J. Acupuncture to treat nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy: a randomized controlled trial. *Birth* 2002;29:1–9.
181. Smith C, Crowther C, Beilby J. Pregnancy outcome following womens' participation in a randomised controlled trial of acupuncture to treat nausea and vomiting in early pregnancy. *Complementary Therapies in Medicine* 2002;10:78–83.
182. Mazzotta P, Magee LA. A risk–benefit assessment of pharmacological and nonpharmacological treatments for nausea and vomiting of pregnancy. *Drugs* 2000;59:781–800.
183. Magee LA, Mazzotta P, Koren G. Evidence-based view of safety and effectiveness of pharmacologic therapy for nausea and vomiting of pregnancy (NVP). *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;186:S256–61.
184. Marrero JM, Goggin PM, Caestecker JS. Determinants of pregnancy heartburn. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1992;99:731–4.
185. Knudsen A, Lebech M, Hansen M. Upper gastrointestinal symptoms in the third trimester of the normal pregnancy. *European Journal of Obstetrics Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 1995;60:29–33.
186. Bainbridge ET, Temple JG, Nicholas SP, Newton JR, Boriah V. Symptomatic gastro-esophageal reflux in pregnancy. A comparative study of white Europeans and Asians in Birmingham. *British Journal of Clinical Practice* 1983;37:53–7.
187. Shaw RW. Randomized controlled trial of Syn-Ergel and an active placebo in the treatment of heartburn of pregnancy. *Journal of International Medical Research* 1978;6:147–51.
188. Lang GD, Dougall A. Comparative study of Algicon suspension and magnesium trisilicate mixture in the treatment of reflux dyspepsia of pregnancy. *British Journal of Clinical Practice* 1989;66:48–51.
189. Association of the British Pharmaceutical Industry. *ABPI Compendium of Data Sheets and Summaries of Product Characteristics. Medicines Compendium*. London: Datapharm Communications; 2001.
190. Atlay RD, Parkinson DJ, Entwistle GD, Weekes AR. Treating heartburn in pregnancy: comparison of acid and alkali mixtures. *British Medical Journal* 1978;2:919–20.
191. Rayburn W, Liles E, Christensen H, Robinson M. Antacids vs. antacids plus non-prescription ranitidine for heartburn during pregnancy. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 1999;66:35–7.
192. Larson JD, Patatianian E, Miner PB Jr, Rayburn WF, Robinson MG. Double-blind, placebo-controlled study of ranitidine for gastroesophageal reflux symptoms during pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;90:83–7.

193. Magee LA, Inocencion G, Kamboj L, Rosetti F, Koren G. Safety of first trimester exposure to histamine H2 blockers. A prospective cohort study. *Digestive Diseases and Sciences* 1996;41:1145–9.
194. Nikfar S, Abdollahi M, Moretti ME, Magee LA, Koren G. Use of proton pump inhibitors during pregnancy and rates of major malformations: a meta-analysis. *Digestive Diseases and Sciences* 2002;47:1526–9.
195. Meyer LC, Peacock JL, Bland JM, Anderson HR. Symptoms and health problems in pregnancy: their association with social factors, smoking, alcohol, caffeine and attitude to pregnancy. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology* 1994;8:145–55.
196. Jewell DJ, Young G. Interventions for treating constipation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1).
197. Abramowitz L, Sobhani I, Benifla JL, Vuagnat A, Darai E, Mignon M, et al. Anal fissure and thrombosed external hemorrhoids before and after delivery. *Diseases of the Colon and Rectum* 2002;45:650–5.
198. Wijayanegara H, Mose JC, Achmad L, Sobarna R, Permadi W. A clinical trial of hydroxyethylrutinosides in the treatment of haemorrhoids of pregnancy. *Journal of International Medical Research* 1992;20:54–60.
199. Buckshee K, Takkar D, Aggarwal N. Micronized flavonoid therapy in internal hemorrhoids of pregnancy. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 1997;57:145–51.
200. Saleeby RG Jr, Rosen L, Stasik JJ, Riether RD, Sheets J, Khubchandani IT. Hemorrhoidectomy during pregnancy: risk or relief? *Diseases of the Colon and Rectum* 1991;3445:260–1.
201. Thaler E, Huch R, Huch A, Zimmermann R. Compression stockings prophylaxis of emergent varicose veins in pregnancy: A prospective randomised controlled study. *Swiss Medical Weekly* 2001;131:659–62.
202. Gulmezoglu, AM. Interventions for trichomoniasis in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3). CD000220.
203. French JL, McGregor JA, Draper D, Parker R, McFee J. Gestational bleeding, bacterial vaginosis, and common reproductive tract infections: risk for preterm birth and benefit of treatment. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93:715–24.
204. Young GL, Jewell MD. Topical treatment for vaginal candidiasis in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
205. Greenwood CJ, Stainton MC. Back pain/discomfort in pregnancy: invisible and forgotten. *Journal of Perinatal Education* 2001;10:1–12.
206. Kristiansson P, Svardsudd K, von Schoultz B. Back pain during pregnancy: A prospective study. *Spine* 1996;21:702–9.
207. Ostgaard HC, Andersson GBJ, Karlsson K. Prevalence of back pain in pregnancy. *Spine* 1991;16:549–52.
208. Fast A, Shapiro D, Ducommun EJ, Friedman LW, Bouklas T, Floman Y. Low-back pain in pregnancy. *Spine* 1987;12:368–71.
209. Stapleton DB, MacLennan AH, Kristiansson P. The prevalence of recalled low back pain during and after pregnancy: A South Australian population survey. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;42:482–5.
210. Mantle MJ, Greenwood RM, Currey HL. Backache in pregnancy. *Rheumatology and Rehabilitation* 1977;16:95–101.
211. Young G, Jewell D. Interventions for preventing and treating pelvic and back pain in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1).
212. Field T, Hernandez-Reif M, Hart S, Theakston H, Schanberg S, Kuhn C. Pregnant women benefit from massage therapy. *Journal of Psychosomatic Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;20:31–8.
213. Ostgaard HC, Zetherstrom G, Roos-Hansson E, Svanberg B. Reduction of back and posterior pelvic pain in pregnancy. *Spine* 1994;19:894–900.
214. Noren L, Ostgaard S, Nielsen TF, Ostgaard HC. Reduction of sick leave for lumbar back and posterior pelvic pain in pregnancy. *Spine* 1997;22:2157–60.
215. Tesio L, Raschi A, Meroni M. Autotractor treatment for low-back pain in pregnancy: A pilot study. *Clinical Rehabilitation* 1994;8:314–19.
216. Guadagnino MR III. Spinal manipulative therapy for 12 pregnant patients suffering from low back pain. *Chiropractic Technique* 1999;11:108–11.
217. McIntyre IN, Broadhurst NA. Effective treatment of low back pain in pregnancy. *Australian Family Physician* 1996;25:S65–7.
218. Requejo SM, Barnes R, Kulig K, Landel R, Gonzalez S. The use of a modified classification system in the treatment of low back pain during pregnancy: A case report. *Journal of Orthopaedic and Sports Physical Therapy* 2002;32:318–26.
219. Owens K, Pearson A, Mason G. Symphysis pubis dysfunction: a cause of significant obstetric morbidity. *European Journal of Obstetrics Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 2002;105:143–6.
220. Fry D, Hay-Smith J, Hough J, McIntosh J, Polden M, Shepherd J, et al. National clinic guideline for the care of women with symphysis pubis dysfunction. *Midwives* 1997;110:172–3.
221. Gould JS, Wissinger HA. Carpal tunnel syndrome in pregnancy. *Southern Medical Journal* 1978;71:144–5,154.
222. Voitk AJ, Mueller JC, Farlinger DE, Johnston RU. Carpal tunnel syndrome in pregnancy. *Canadian Medical Association Journal* 1983;128:277–81.
223. Padua L, Aprile I, Caliendo P, Carboni T, Meloni A, Massi S, et al. Symptoms and neurophysiological picture of carpal tunnel syndrome in pregnancy. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 2001;112:1946–51.
224. Courts RB. Splinting for symptoms of carpal tunnel syndrome during pregnancy. *Journal of Hand Therapy* 1995;8:31–4.
225. Ekman-Ordeberg G, Salgeback S, Ordeberg G. Carpal tunnel syndrome in pregnancy. A prospective study. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1987;66:233–5.
226. Stahl S, Blumenfeld Z, Yarnitsky D. Carpal tunnel syndrome in pregnancy: Indications for early surgery. *Journal of the Neurological Sciences* 1996;136:182–4.
227. Dawes MG, Grudzinskas JG. Repeated measurement of maternal weight during pregnancy. Is this a useful practice? *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1991;98:189–94.
228. National Academy of Sciences, Institute of Medicine, Food and Nutrition Board, Committee on Nutritional Status During Pregnancy and Lactation, Subcommittee on Dietary Intake and Nutrient Supplements During Pregnancy, Subcommittee on Nutritional Status and Weight Gain During Pregnancy. *Nutrition during pregnancy*. Washington DC: National Academy Press; 1990.
229. Siega-Riz AM, Adair LS, Hobel CJ. Maternal underweight status and inadequate rate of weight gain during the third trimester of pregnancy increases the risk of preterm delivery. *Journal of Nutrition* 1996;126:146–53.
230. Bergmann MM, Flagg EW, Miracle-McMahill HL, Boeing H. Energy intake and net weight gain in pregnant women according to body mass index (BMI) status. *International Journal of Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders* 1997;21:1010–7.
231. Alexander JM, Grant AM, Campbell MJ. Randomised controlled trial of breast shells and Hoffman's exercises for inverted and non-protractile nipples. *British Medical Journal* 1992;304:1030–2.
232. Pattinson RE. Pelvimetry for fetal cephalic presentations at term. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(3). 2001.

233. Lenihan JP Jr. Relationship of antepartum pelvic examinations to premature rupture of the membranes. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1984;83:33–7.
234. Goffinet F. [Ovarian cyst and pregnancy]. [French]. *Journal de Gynecologie, Obstetrique et Biologie de la Reproduction* 2001;30:4S100–8.
235. O'Donovan P, Gupta JK, Savage J, Thornton JG, Lilford RJ. Is routine antenatal booking vaginal examination necessary for reasons other than cervical cytology if ultrasound examination is planned? *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1988;95:556–9.
236. World Health Organization. *Female genital mutilation*. WHO Information Fact Sheet No. 241. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2000.
237. British Medical Association. *Female genital mutilation: caring for patients and child protection*. London: BMA; 2001.
238. Momoh C, Ladhani S, Lochrie DP, Rymer J. Female genital mutilation: Analysis of the first twelve months of a southeast London specialist clinic. *BJOG* 2001;108:186–91.
239. World Health Organization. *A systematic review of the health complications of female genital mutilation including sequelae in childbirth*. Geneva: WHO; 2000.
240. McCaffrey M, Jankowska A, Gordon H. Management of female genital mutilation: The Northwick Park Hospital experience. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1995;102:787–90.
241. Jordan JA. Female genital mutilation (female circumcision). *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1994;101:94–5.
242. British Medical Association. *Domestic violence: a health care issue?* London: BMA; 1998.
243. Tjaden P, Thoennes N. *Full report of the prevalence, incidence, and consequences of violence against women. Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey*. NCJ 183781, 1–61. Washington DC: US Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice; 2000.
244. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics. *Family violence in Canada: A statistical profile 2002*. 85–224-XIE. Ottawa: Statistics Canada; 2002. [www.statcan.ca/english/IPS/Data/85–224-XIE.htm] Accessed 20 August 2003.
245. Jones AS, Carlson Gielen A, Campbell JC. Annual and lifetimes prevalence of partner abuse in a sample of female HMO enrollees. *Women's Health Issues* 1999;9:295–305.
246. Ballard TJ, Saltzman LE, Gazmararian JA, Spitz AM, Lazorick S, Marks JS. Violence during pregnancy: measurement issues. *American Journal of Public Health* 1998;88:274–6.
247. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Violence against women*. London: RCOG Press; 1997.
248. Johnson JK, Haider F, Ellis K, Hay DM, Lindow SW. The prevalence of domestic violence in pregnant women. *BJOG* 2003;110:272–5.
249. Newberger EH, Barkan SE, Lieberman ES, McCormick MC, Yllo K, Gary LT, et al. Abuse of pregnant women and adverse birth outcome: current knowledge and implications for practice. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 1992;267:2370–2.
250. Murphy CC, Schei B, Myhr TL, Du MJ. Abuse: a risk factor for low birth weight? A systematic review and meta-analysis. [see comments]. *Canadian Medical Association Journal* 2001;164:1567–72.
251. Cokkinides VE, Coker AL, Sanderson M, Addy C, Bethea L. Physical violence during pregnancy: maternal complications and birth outcomes. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93:661–6.
252. Janssen PA, Holt VL, Sugg NK, Emanuel I, Critchlow CM, Henderson AD. Intimate partner violence and adverse pregnancy outcomes: A population-based study. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;188:1341–7.
253. Royal College of Midwives. *Domestic abuse in pregnancy*. London: RCM; 1999.
254. Royal College of Psychiatrists. *Domestic violence*. CR102. London: RCPsych; 2002.
255. Wathen CN, MacMillan HL. Interventions for violence against women. Scientific review. *JAMA* 2003;289:589–600.
256. Ramsay J, Richardson J, Carter YH, Davidson LL, Feder G. Should health professionals screen women for domestic violence? Systematic review. *British Medical Journal* 2002;325:314–18.
257. Cann K, Withnell S, Shakespeare J, Doll H, Thomas J. Domestic violence: a comparative survey of levels of detection, knowledge, and attitudes in healthcare workers. *Public Health* 2001;115:89–95.
258. Department of Health. *Domestic violence: A resource manual for health care professionals*. London: Department of Health; 2000.
259. Wilson LM, Reid AJ, Midmer DK, Biringer A, Carroll JC, Stewart DE. Antenatal psychosocial risk factors associated with adverse postpartum family outcomes. *Canadian Medical Association Journal* 1996;154:785–99.
260. Perkin MR, Bland JM. The effect of anxiety and depression during pregnancy on obstetric complications. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1993;100:629–34.
261. Dayan J, Creveuil C, Herlicoviez M. Role of anxiety and depression in the onset of spontaneous preterm labor. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2002;155:293–301.
262. Lundy BL, Jones NA, Field T. Prenatal depression effects on neonates. *Infant Behavior and Development* 1999;22:119–29.
263. Murray D, Cox JL. Screening for depression during pregnancy with the Edinburgh Depression Scale (EPDS). *Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology* 1990;8:99–107.
264. Bolton HL, Hughes PM, Turton P. Incidence and demographic correlates of depressive symptoms during pregnancy in an inner London population. *Journal of Psychosomatic Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;19:202–9.
265. Evans J, Heron J, Francomb H, Oke S, Golding J. Cohort study of depressed mood during pregnancy and after childbirth. *British Medical Journal* 2001;323:257–60.
266. Austin M-P, Lumley J. Antenatal screening for postnatal depression: a systematic review. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 2003;107:10–17.
267. Hayes BA, Muller R, Bradley BS. Perinatal depression: a randomized controlled trial of an antenatal education intervention for primiparas. *Birth* 2001;28:28–35.
268. Brugha TS, Wheatly S, Taub NA, Culverwell A, Friedman T, Kirwan P. Pragmatic randomized trial of an antenatal intervention to prevent post-natal depression by reducing psychosocial risk factors. *Psychological Medicine* 2000;30:1273–81.
269. Hytten F. Blood volume changes in normal pregnancy. *Clinical Haematology* 1985;14:601–12.
270. Ramsey M, James D, Steer P, Weiner C, Gornik B. *Normal values in pregnancy*. 2nd ed. London: WB Saunders; 2000.
271. Steer P, Alam MA, Wadsworth J, Welch A. Relation between maternal haemoglobin concentration and birth weight in different ethnic groups. *British Medical Journal* 1995;310:489–91.
272. Zhou LM, Yang WW, Hua JZ, Deng CQ, Tao X, Stoltzfus RJ. Relation of hemoglobin measured at different times in pregnancy to preterm birth and low birth weight in Shanghai, China. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 1998;148:998–1006.
273. Breymann C. Iron supplementation during pregnancy. *Fetal and Maternal Medicine Review* 2002;13:1–29.

274. Cuervo LG, Mahomed K. Treatments for iron deficiency anaemia during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
275. Davies SC, Cronin E, Gill M, Greengross P, Hickman M, Normand C. Screening for sickle cell disease and thalassaemia: a systematic review with supplementary research. *Health Technology Assessment* 2000;4:1–119.
276. Modell B, Harris R, Lane B, Khan M, Darlison M, Petrou M, et al. Informed choice in genetic screening for thalassaemia during pregnancy: audit from a national confidential inquiry. *British Medical Journal* 2000;320:337–41.
277. Modell B, Petrou M, Layton M, Varnavides L, Slater C, Ward RH, et al. Audit of prenatal diagnosis for haemoglobin disorders in the United Kingdom: the first 20 years. [see comments]. *British Medical Journal* 1997;315:779–84.
278. Department of Health. *Sickle cell, thalassaemia and other haemoglobinopathies. Report of a Working Party of the Standing Medical Advisory Committee*. London: DoH; 1999.
279. Zeuner D, Ades AE, Karnon J, Brown JE, Dezateux C, Anionwu EN. Antenatal and neonatal haemoglobinopathy screening in the UK: review and economic analysis. *Health Technology Assessment* 1999;3(11):1–186.
280. Streetly A. A national screening policy for sickle cell disease and thalassaemia major for the United Kingdom. Questions are left after two evidence based reports. *British Medical Journal* 2000;320:1353–4.
281. Aspinall PJ, Dyson SM, Anionwu EN. The feasibility of using ethnicity as a primary tool for antenatal selective screening for sickle cell disorders: pointers from the research evidence. *Social Science and Medicine* 2003;56:285–97.
282. Petrou M, Brugiatielli M, Ward RHT, Modell B. Factors affecting the uptake of prenatal diagnosis for sickle cell disease. *Journal of Medical Genetics* 1992;29:820–3.
283. Modell B, Ward RH, Fairweather DV. Effect of introducing antenatal diagnosis on reproductive behaviour of families at risk for thalassaemia major. *British Medical Journal* 1980;280:1347–50.
284. Ahmed S, Saleem M, Sultana N, Raashid Y, Waqar A, Anwar M, et al. Prenatal diagnosis of beta-thalassaemia in Pakistan: experience in a Muslim country. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2000;20:378–83.
285. UK Blood Transfusion Services. *Guidelines for the Blood Transfusion Service*. 6th ed. London: TSO; 2002. [www.transfusionguidelines.org.uk/uk_guidelines/ukbts6_01.html] Accessed 20 August 2003.
286. Whittle MJ. Antenatal serology testing in pregnancy. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1996;103:195–6.
287. Brouwers HA, Overbeeke MA, van E, I, Schaasberg W, Alsbach GP, van der HC, et al. What is the best predictor of the severity of ABO-haemolytic disease of the newborn? *Lancet* 1988;2:641–4.
288. Mollison PL, Engelfriet CP, Contreras M. *Haemolytic disease of the fetus and newborn. Blood transfusion in clinical medicine*. Oxford: Blackwell Science. 1997. p. 390–424.
289. Shanwell A, Sallander S, Bremme K, Westgren M. Clinical evaluation of a solid-phase test for red cell antibody screening of pregnant women. *Transfusion* 1999;39:26–31.
290. Filbey D, Hanson U, Wesstrom G. The prevalence of red cell antibodies in pregnancy correlated to the outcome of the newborn: a 12 year study in central Sweden. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1995;74:687–92.
291. British Committee for Standards in Haematology, Blood Transfusion Task Force. *Guidelines for blood grouping and red cell antibody testing during pregnancy. Transfusion Medicine* 1996;6:71–4.
292. National Institute for Clinical Excellence. *Guidance on the use of routine antenatal anti-D prophylaxis for RhD-negative women. Technology Appraisal Guidance, No. 41*. London: National Institute for Clinical Excellence; 2002. [www.nice.org.uk/pdf/prophylaxisFinalguidance.pdf] Accessed 20 August 2003.
293. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Ultrasound screening for fetal abnormalities: report of the RCOG working party*. London: RCOG Press; 1997.
294. Jepsen RG, Forbes CA, Sowden AJ, Lewis RA. Increasing informed uptake and non-uptake of screening: evidence from a systematic review. *Health Expectations* 2001;4:116–26.
295. Department of Health, social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland, National Assembly for Wales, Scottish Executive, Department of Health. *Second report of the UK National Screening Committee*. London: DoH; 2000. [www.nsc.nhs.uk/pdfs/secondreport.pdf] Accessed 21 August 2003.
296. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Report of the RCOG working party on biochemical markers and the detection of Down's syndrome*. London: Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists; 1993.
297. Bricker L, Garcia J, Henderson J, Mugford M, Neilson J, Roberts T, et al. Ultrasound screening in pregnancy: a systematic review of the clinical effectiveness, cost-effectiveness and women's views. *Health Technology Assessment* 2000;4:1–193.
298. Williamson P, Alberman E, Rodeck C, Fiddler M, Church S, Harris R. Antecedent circumstances surrounding neural tube defect births in 1990–1991. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1997;104:51–6.
299. Saari-Kemppainen A, Karjalainen O, Ylostalo P, Heinonen OP. Fetal anomalies in a controlled one-stage ultrasound screening trial. A report from the Helsinki Ultrasound Trial. *Journal of Perinatal Medicine* 1994;22(4):279–289.
300. Whitlow BJ, Chatzipapas IK, Lazanakis ML, Kadir RA, Economides DL. The value of sonography in early pregnancy for the detection of fetal abnormalities in an unselected population. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106:929–36.
301. National Assembly for Wales/Velindre NHS Trust Antenatal Project Team Steering Board. *Choices: Recommendations for the provision and management of antenatal screening in Wales*. Cardiff: Velindre NHS Trust; March 2002. [www.velindre-tr.wales.nhs.uk/antenatal/consult_doc/choices.pdf] Accessed 21 August 2003.
302. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Routine ultrasound screening in pregnancy, protocols, standards and training. Supplement to ultrasound screening for fetal abnormalities. Report of the RCOG Working Party*. London: RCOG Press; 2000.
303. Office for National Statistics. *Child health statistics*. London: National Statistics; 2000. p. 1–26.
304. Noble J. Natural history of Down's syndrome: a brief review for those involved in antenatal screening. *Journal of Medical Screening* 1998;5:172–7.
305. Marteau TM, Dormandy E. Facilitating informed choice in prenatal testing: how well are we doing? *American Journal of Medical Genetics* 2001;106:185–90.
306. Smith DK, Shaw RW, Marteau TM. Informed consent to undergo serum screening for Down's syndrome: the gap between policy and practice. *British Medical Journal* 1994;309:776.
307. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Amniocentesis. Guideline No. 8*. London: Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists; 2000.
308. Deeks JJ. Systematic reviews of evaluations of diagnostic and screening tests. *British Medical Journal* 2001;323:157–62.

309. Lijmer JG, Mol BW, Heisterkamp S, Bonsel GJ, Prins MH, van der Meulen JH, *et al.* Empirical evidence of design-related bias in studies of diagnostic tests. *JAMA* 1999;282:1061–6.
310. Hook EB. Spontaneous deaths of fetuses with chromosomal abnormalities diagnosed prenatally. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1978;299:1036–8.
311. Morris JK, Mutton DE, Alberman E. Revised estimates of the maternal age specific live birth prevalence of Down's syndrome. *Journal of Medical Screening* 2002;9:2–6.
312. Paranjothy S, Thomas J. National Sentinel Caesarean Section Audit. *MIDIRS Midwifery Digest* 2001;11:S13–15.
313. Wald NJ, Huttly WJ, Hennessy CF. Down's syndrome screening in the UK in 1998. *Lancet* 1999;354:1264.
314. Youings S, Gregson N, Jacobs P. The efficacy of maternal age screening for Down's syndrome in Wessex. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 1991;11:419–25.
315. Smith-Bindman R, Hosmer W, Feldstein VA, Deeks JJ, Goldberg JD. Second-trimester ultrasound to detect fetuses with Down's syndrome. *JAMA* 2001;285:1044–55.
316. Wald NJ, Rodeck C, Hackshaw AK, Walters J, Chitty L, Mackinson AM. First and second trimester antenatal screening for Down's syndrome: the results of the serum, urine and ultrasound screening study (SURUSS). *Health Technology Assessment* 2003;7:1–88.
317. Bindra R, Heath V, Nicolaidis KH. Screening for chromosomal defects by fetal nuchal translucency at 11 to 14 weeks. *Clinical Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;45:661–70.
318. Niemimaa M, Suonpaa M, Perheentupa A, Seppala M, Heinonen S, Laitinen P, *et al.* Evaluation of first trimester maternal serum and ultrasound screening for Down's syndrome in Eastern and Northern Finland. *European Journal of Human Genetics* 2001;9:404–8.
319. Wald NJ, Kennard A, Hackshaw A, McGuire A. Antenatal screening for Down's syndrome. *Health Technology Assessment* 1998;2:1–112.
320. Conde-Agudelo A, Kafury-Goeta AC. Triple-marker test as screening for Down syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Obstetrical and Gynecological Survey* 1998;53:369–76.
321. Wald NJ, Huttly WJ, Hackshaw AK. Antenatal screening for Down's syndrome with the quadruple test. *Lancet* 2003;361:835–6.
322. Spencer K, Spencer CE, Power M, Dawson C, Nicolaidis KH. Screening for chromosomal abnormalities in the first trimester using ultrasound and maternal serum biochemistry in a one-stop clinic: a review of three years prospective experience. *BJOG* 2003;110:281–6.
323. Alfirevic Z, Gosden C, Neilson, JP. Chorion villus sampling versus amniocentesis for prenatal diagnosis. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 1998;(4):1–8.
324. Alfirevic, Z. Early amniocentesis versus transabdominal chorion villus sampling. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2000;(1), 1.
325. Tercyak KP, Johnson SB, Roberts SF, Cruz AC. Psychological response to prenatal genetic counseling and amniocentesis. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2001;43:73–84.
326. Green JM. Women's experiences of prenatal screening and diagnosis. In: Abramsky L, Chapple J, editors. *Prenatal diagnosis: the human side*. London: Chapman and Hall; 1994. p. 37–53.
327. Liu S, Joseph KS, Kramer MS, Allen AC, Sauve R, Rusen ID, *et al.* Relationship of prenatal diagnosis and pregnancy termination to overall infant mortality in Canada. *JAMA* 2002;287:1561–7.
328. Whalley P. Bacteriuria of pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1967;97:723–38.
329. Little PJ. The incidence of urinary infection in 5000 pregnant women. *Lancet* 1966;2:925–8.
330. Campbell-Brown M, McFadyen IR, Seal DV, Stephenson ML. Is screening for bacteriuria in pregnancy worth while? *British Medical Journal* 1987;294:1579–82.
331. Foley ME, Farquharson R, Stronge JM. Is screening for bacteriuria in pregnancy worthwhile? *British Medical Journal* 1987;295:270.
332. LeBlanc AL, McGanity WJ. The impact of bacteriuria in pregnancy: a survey of 1300 pregnant patients. *Biologie Medicale* 1964;22:336–47.
333. Kincaid-Smith P, Bullen M. Bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Lancet* 1965;395–9.
334. Thomsen AC, Morup L, Hansen KB. Antibiotic elimination of group-B streptococci in urine in prevention of preterm labour. *Lancet* 1987;591–3.
335. Elder HA, Santamarina BAG, Smith S, Kass EH. The natural history of asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy: the effect of tetracycline on the clinical course and the outcome of pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1971;111:441–62.
336. Gold EM, Traub FB, Daichman I, Terris M. Asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1966;27:206–9.
337. Mulla N. Bacteriuria in Pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1960;16:89–92.
338. Savage WE, Hajj SN, Kass EH. Demographic and prognostic characteristics of bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Medicine* 1967;46:385–407.
339. Mittendorf R, Williams MA, Kass EH. Prevention of preterm delivery and low birth weight associated with asymptomatic bacteriuria. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* 1992;14:927–32.
340. Patterson TF, Andriole VT. Bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Infectious Disease Clinics of North America* 1987;1:807–22.
341. Screening for asymptomatic bacteriuria, hematuria and proteinuria. The US Preventive Services Task Force. *American Family Physician* 1990;42:389–95.
342. Etherington IJ, James DK. Reagent strip testing of antenatal urine specimens for infection. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1993;100:806–8.
343. Shelton SD, Boggess KA, Kirvan K, Sedor F, Herbert WN. Urinary interleukin-8 with asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;97:583–6.
344. Millar L, Debuque L, Leialoha C, Grandinetti A, Killeen J. Rapid enzymatic urine screening test to detect bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;95:601–4.
345. McNair RD, MacDonald SR, Dooley SL, Peterson LR. Evaluation of the centrifuged and Gram-stained smear, urinalysis, and reagent strip testing to detect asymptomatic bacteriuria in obstetric patients. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;182:1076–9.
346. Robertson AW, Duff P. The nitrite and leukocyte esterase tests for the evaluation of asymptomatic bacteriuria in obstetric patients. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1988;71:878–81.
347. Bachman JW, Heise RH, Naessens JM, Timmerman MG. A study of various tests to detect asymptomatic urinary tract infections in an obstetric population. *JAMA* 1993;270:1971–4.

348. Tincello DG, Richmond DH. Evaluation of reagent strips in detecting asymptomatic bacteriuria in early pregnancy: prospective case series. *British Medical Journal* 1998;316:435–7.
349. Abyad A. Screening for asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy: urinalysis vs. urine culture. *Journal of Family Practice* 1991;33:471–4.
350. Graninger W, Fleischmann D, Schneeweiss B, Aram L, Stockenhuber F. Rapid screening for bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Infection* 1992;20:9–11.
351. Smaill, F. Antibiotic treatment for symptomatic bacteriuria: antibiotic vs. no treatment for asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3):1–5.
352. Villar J, Lydon-Rochelle MT, Gulmezoglu AM. Duration of treatment for asymptomatic bacteriuria during pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
353. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Sexually transmitted diseases treatment guidelines 2002. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2002;51:1–80.
354. Joesoef M, Schmid G. Bacterial vaginosis. *Clinical Evidence* 2002;7:1400–8.
355. Goldenberg RL, Klebanoff MA, Nugent R, Krohn MA, Hilliers S, Andrews WW. Bacterial colonization of the vagina during pregnancy in four ethnic groups. Vaginal Infections and Prematurity Study Group. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;174:1618–21.
356. Hay PE, Morgan DJ, Ison CA, Bhide SA, Romney M, McKenzie P, et al. A longitudinal study of bacterial vaginosis during pregnancy. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1994;101:1048–53.
357. Flynn CA, Helwig AL, Meurer LN. Bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy and the risk of prematurity: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Practice* 1999;48:885–92.
358. Gratacos E, Figueras F, Barranco M, Vila J, Cararach V, Alonso PL, et al. Spontaneous recovery of bacterial vaginosis during pregnancy is not associated with an improved perinatal outcome. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1998;77:37–40.
359. Amsel R, Totten PA, Spiegel CA. Nonspecific vaginitis: diagnostic criteria and microbial and epidemiological associations. *American Journal of Medicine* 1983;74:14–22.
360. Nugent RP, Krohn MA, Hillier SL. Reliability of diagnosing bacterial vaginosis is improved by a standardised methods of Gram stain interpretation. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1991;29:297–301.
361. Thiagarajan M. Evaluation of the use of yogurt in treating bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology* 1998;51:225.
362. McDonald H, Brocklehurst P, Parsons J, Vigneswaran R. Interventions for treating bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(2):1–30.
363. Ugwumadu A, Manyonda I, Reid F, Hay P. Effect of early oral clindamycin on late miscarriage and preterm delivery in asymptomatic women with abnormal vaginal flora and bacterial vaginosis: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2003;361:983–8.
364. Sary A. European guideline for the management of chlamydial infection. *International Journal of STD and AIDS* 2001;12:30–3.
365. Preece PM, Ades A, Thompson RG, Brooks JH. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in late pregnancy: A prospective study. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology* 1989;3:268–77.
366. Goh BT, Morgan-Capner P, Lim KS. Chlamydial screening of pregnant women in a sexually transmitted diseases clinic. *British Journal of Venereal Diseases* 1982;58:327–9.
367. Association of chlamydia trachomatis and mycoplasma hominis with intrauterine growth restriction and preterm delivery. The John Hopkins Study of Cervicitis and Adverse Pregnancy Outcome. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 1989;129:1247–51.
368. Ryan GM, Jr, Abdella TN, McNeeley SG, Baselski VS, Drummond DE. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in pregnancy and effect of treatment on outcome. [see comments.]. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;162:34–9.
369. Brocklehurst P, Rooney G. Interventions for treating genital chlamydia trachomatis infection in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3).
370. Preece PM, Anderson JM, Thompson RG. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in infants: A prospective study. *Archives of Disease in Childhood* 1989;64:525–9.
371. Schachter J, Grossman M, Sweet RL, Holt J, Jordan C, Bishop E. Prospective study of perinatal transmission of Chlamydia trachomatis. *JAMA* 1986;255:3374–7.
372. FitzGerald MR, Welch J, Robinson AJ, Ahmed-Jushuf IH. Clinical guidelines and standards for the management of uncomplicated genital chlamydial infection. *International Journal of STD and AIDS* 1998;9:253–62.
373. Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network. *Management of genital Chlamydia trachomatis* Infection. SIGN Publication No. 42. Edinburgh: Scottish Intercollegiate Guideline Network; 2000.
374. Ryan M, Miller E, Waight P. Cytomegalovirus infection in England and Wales: 1992 and 1993. *Communicable Diseases Report* 1995;5:R74–6.
375. Preece PM, Tookey P, Ades A, Peckham CS. Congenital cytomegalovirus infection: predisposing maternal factors. *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 1986;40:205–9.
376. Peckham CS, Coleman JC, Hurley R, Chin KS, Henderson K, Preece PM. Cytomegalovirus infection in pregnancy: preliminary findings from a prospective study. *Lancet* 1983;1352–5.
377. Bolyard EA, Tablan OC, Williams WW, Pearson ML, Shapiro CN, Deitchmann SD. Guideline for infection control in health care personnel. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology* 1998;19:407–63. Erratum 1998;19:493
378. Stagno S, Whitley RJ. Herpesvirus infections of pregnancy. Part 1: Cytomegalovirus and Epstein-Barr virus infections. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1985;313:1270–4.
379. Boxall E, Skidmore S, Evans C, Nightingale S. The prevalence of hepatitis B and C in an antenatal population of various ethnic origins. *Epidemiology and Infection* 1994;113:523–8.
380. Brook MG, Lever AM, Kelly D, Rutter D, Trompeter RS, Griffiths P, et al. Antenatal screening for hepatitis B is medically and economically effective in the prevention of vertical transmission: three years experience in a London hospital. *Quarterly Journal of Medicine* 1989;71:313–7.
381. Chrystie I, Sumner D, Palmer S, Kenney A, Banatvala J. Screening of pregnant women for evidence of current hepatitis B infection: selective or universal? *Health Trends* 1992;24:13–5.
382. Derso A, Boxall EH, Tarlow MJ, Flewett TH. Transmission of HBsAg from mother to infant in four ethnic groups. *British Medical Journal* 1978;15(6118):949–952.

383. Beasley RP, Trepo C, Stevens CE, Szmuness W. The e antigen and vertical transmission of hepatitis B surface antigen. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 1977;105:94–8.
384. Beasley RP, Hwang L-Y. Epidemiology of hepatocellular carcinoma. In: Vyas GN, Dienstag JL, Hoofnagle JH, editors. *Viral hepatitis and liver disease*. Orlando, FL: Grune and Stratton; 1984. p. 209–24.
385. Ramsay M, Gay N, Balogun K, Collins M. Control of hepatitis B in the United Kingdom. *Vaccine* 1998;16 Suppl:S52–5.
386. Sehgal A, Sehgal R, Gupta I, Bhakoo ON, Ganguly NK. Use of hepatitis B vaccine alone or in combination with hepatitis B immunoglobulin for immunoprophylaxis of perinatal hepatitis B infection. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics* 1992;38:247–51.
387. Wong VC, Ip HM, Reesink HW, Lelie PN, Reerink-Brongers EE, Yeung CY, et al. Prevention of the HBsAg carrier state in newborn infants of mothers who are chronic carriers of HBsAg and HBeAg by administration of hepatitis-B vaccine and hepatitis-B immunoglobulin. Double-blind randomised placebo-controlled study. *Lancet* 1984;1:921–6.
388. Zhu Q. A preliminary study on interruption of HBV transmission in uterus. *Chinese Medical Journal* 1997;110:145–7.
389. Lo K, Tsai Y, Lee S, Yeh C, Wang J, Chiang BN, et al. Combined passive and active immunization for interruption of perinatal transmission of hepatitis B virus in Taiwan. *Hepato-gastroenterology* 1985;32:65–8.
390. Beasley RP, Hwang LY, Lee GC, Lan CC, Roan CH, Huang FY, et al. Prevention of perinatally transmitted hepatitis B virus infections with hepatitis B virus infections with hepatitis B immune globulin and hepatitis B vaccine. *Lancet* 1983;2:1099–102.
391. Nair PV, Weissman JY, Tong MJ, Thursby MW, Paul RH, Henneman CE. Efficacy of hepatitis B immune globulin in prevention of perinatal transmission of the hepatitis B virus. *Gastroenterology* 1984;87:293–8.
392. Xu Z-Y, Liu C-B, Francis DP. Prevention of perinatal acquisition of hepatitis B virus carriage using vaccine: preliminary report of a randomized, double-blind placebo-controlled and comparative trial. *Pediatrics* 1985;76:713–18.
393. Balmer S, Bowens A, Bruce E, Farrar H, Jenkins C, Williams R. *Quality management for screening: report to the National Screening Committee*. Leeds: Nuffield Institute for Health; 2000.
394. Summers PR, Biswas MK, Pastorek JG, Pernoll ML, Smith LG, Bean BE. The pregnant hepatitis B carrier: evidence favoring comprehensive antepartum screening. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1987;69:701–4.
395. Chaita TM, Graham SM, Maxwell SM, Sirivasin W, Sabchareon A, Beeching NJ. Salivary sampling for hepatitis B surface antigen carriage: a sensitive technique suitable for epidemiological studies. *Annals of Tropical Paediatrics* 1995;15:135–9.
396. Pembrey L, Newell ML, Tovo PA. Hepatitis C virus infection in pregnant women and their children. *Italian Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 2000;12:21–8.
397. Whittle M, Peckham C, Anionwu E, et al. Antenatal screening for hepatitis C. Working party report on screening for hepatitis C in the UK. January 2002. [www.nelh.nhs.uk/screening/antenatal_pps/Hep_C_NSC.pdf] Accessed 4 September 2003.
398. Ades AE, Parker S, Walker J, Cubitt WD, Jones R. HCV prevalence in pregnant women in the UK. *Epidemiology and Infection* 2000;125:399–405.
399. Okamoto M, Nagata I, Murakami J, Kaji S, Iitsuka T, Hoshika T, et al. Prospective reevaluation of risk factors in mother-to-child transmission of hepatitis C virus: high virus load, vaginal delivery, and negative anti-NS4 antibody. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2000;182:1511–4.
400. Tajiri H, Miyoshi Y, Funada S, Etani Y, Abe J, Onodera T, et al. Prospective study of mother-to-infant transmission of hepatitis C virus. *Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal* 2001;20:10–4.
401. Paccagnini S, Principi N, Massironi E, Tanzi E, Romano L, Muggiasca ML, et al. Perinatal transmission and manifestation of hepatitis C virus infection in a high risk population. *Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal* 1995;14:195–9.
402. Tovo PA, Pembrey L, Newell M-L. Persistence rate and progression of vertically acquired hepatitis C infection. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2001;181:419–24.
403. Ketzinel-Gilad M, Colodner SL, Hadary R, Granot E, Shouval D, Galun E. Transient transmission of hepatitis C virus from mothers to newborns. *European Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases* 2000;19:267–74.
404. Lin HH, Kao J-H. Effectiveness of second- and third-generation immunoassays for the detection of hepatitis C virus infection in pregnant women. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Research* 2000;26:265–70.
405. Vrieling H, Reesink HW, van den Burg PJ. Performance of three generations of anti-hepatitis C virus enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays in donors and patients. *Vox Sanguinis* 1997;72:67–70.
406. Zaaijer HL, Vrieling H, Van Exel-Oehlers PJ, Cuypers HT, Lelie PN. Confirmation of hepatitis C infection: a comparison of five immunoblot assays. *Transfusion* 1993;33:634–8.
407. Unlinked Anonymous Surveys Steering Group. *Prevalence of HIV and hepatitis infections in the United Kingdom 2001. Annual report of the Unlinked Anonymous Prevalence Monitoring Programme*. London: Department of Health; 2002. [www.doh.gov.uk/hivhepatitis/hivhepatitis2001.pdf] Accessed 21 August 2003.
408. Unlinked Anonymous Surveys Steering Group. *Prevalence of HIV and hepatitis infections in the United Kingdom 2000. Annual report of the Unlinked Anonymous Prevalence Monitoring Programme*. London: Department of Health; 2001. p. 5, 7, 24–30.
409. Connor EM, Sperling RS, Gelber R, Kiselev P, Scott G, O'Sullivan MJ, et al. Reduction of maternal–infant transmission of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 with zidovudine treatment. Pediatric AIDS Clinical Trials Group Protocol 076 Study Group. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1994;331:1173–80.
410. Mandelbrot L, Le Chenadec J, Berrebi A, Bongain A, Benifla J-L, Delfraissy JF, et al. Perinatal HIV-1 transmission. Interaction between zidovudine prophylaxis and mode of delivery in the French perinatal cohort. *JAMA* 1998;280:55–60.
411. Duong T, Ades AE, Gibb DM, Tookey PA, Masters J. Vertical transmission rates for HIV in the British Isles: estimates based on surveillance data. *British Medical Journal* 1999;319:1227–9.
412. AIDS and HIV infection in the United Kingdom: monthly report. *CDR Weekly* 2001;11(17):10–15. [www.phls.org.uk/publications/cdr/PDFfiles/2001/cdr1701.pdf] Accessed 4 September 2003.
413. Samson L, King S. Evidence-based guidelines for universal counselling and offering of HIV testing in pregnancy in Canada. *Canadian Medical Association Journal* 1998;158:1449–57 [erratum appears in *CMAJ* 1999;159(1):22].
414. Van Doornum GJJ, Buimer M, Gobbers E, Bindels PJ, Coutinho RA. Evaluation of an expanded two-ELISA approach for confirmation of reactive serum samples in an HIV-screening programme for pregnant women. *Journal of Medical Virology* 1998;54:285–90.
415. Public Health Laboratory Service AIDS Diagnosis Working Group. Towards error free HIV diagnosis: notes on laboratory practice. *PHLS Microbiology Digest* 1992;9:61–4.
416. Brocklehurst P, Volmink J. Antiretrovirals for reducing the risk of mother-to-child transmission of HIV infection. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3).

417. European Mode of Delivery Collaboration. Elective caesarean-section versus vaginal delivery in prevention of vertical HIV-1 transmission: a randomised clinical trial. The European Mode of Delivery Collaboration. *Lancet* 1999;353:1035–9. [published erratum appears in *Lancet* 1999;353:1714].
418. Ricci E, Parazzini F. Caesarean section and antiretroviral treatment. *Lancet* 2000;355:496.
419. Cunningham CK, Chaix ML, Rekacewicz C, Britto P, Rouzioux C, Gelber RD, et al. Development of resistance mutations in women receiving standard antiretroviral therapy who received intrapartum nevirapine to prevent perinatal human immunodeficiency virus type 1 transmission: a substudy of pediatric AIDS clinical trials group protocol 316. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2002;186:181–8.
420. Palumbo P, Holland B, Dobbs T, Pau CP, Luo CC, Abrams EJ, et al. Antiretroviral resistance mutations among pregnant human immunodeficiency virus type 1-infected women and their newborns in the United States: vertical transmission and clades. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2001;184:1120–6.
421. Control and prevention of rubella: evaluation and management of suspected outbreaks, rubella in pregnant women, and surveillance for congenital rubella syndrome. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2001; 50:1–23.
422. Tookey P. Antenatal screening for rubella. Personal communication; 2002.
423. Miller E, Waight P, Gay N, Ramsay M, Vurdien J, Morgan-Capner P, et al. The epidemiology of rubella in England and Wales before and after the 1994 measles and rubella vaccination campaign: fourth joint report from the PHLS and the National Congenital Rubella Surveillance Programme. *Communicable Diseases Report* 1997;7:R26–32.
424. Tookey PA, Corina-Borja M, Peckham CS. Rubella susceptibility among pregnant women in North London, 1996–1999. *Journal of Public Health Medicine* 2002;24:211–6.
425. Miller E, Cradock-Watson JE, Pollock TM. Consequences of confirmed maternal rubella at successive stages of pregnancy. *Lancet* 1982;2:781–4.
426. Grangeot-Keros L, Enders G. Evaluation of a new enzyme immunoassay based on recombinant Rubella virus-like particles for detection of immunoglobulin M antibodies to Rubella virus. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1997;35:398–401.
427. Morgan-Capner P, Crowcroft NS. Guidelines on the management of, and exposure to, rash illness in pregnancy (including consideration of relevant antibody screening programmes in pregnancy). On behalf of the PHLS joint working party of the advisory committees of virology and vaccines and immunisation. *Communicable Disease and Public Health/PHLS* 2002;5(1):59–71.
428. Grillner L, Forsgren M, Barr B. Outcome of rubella during pregnancy with special reference to the 17th–24th weeks of gestation. *Scandinavian Journal of Infectious Diseases* 1983;Vol 15:321–5.
429. Morgan-Capner P, Hodgson J, Hambling MH. Detection of rubella-specific IgM in subclinical rubella reinfection in pregnancy. *Lancet* 1985;1:244–6.
430. Revised ACIP recommendation for avoiding pregnancy after receiving a rubella-containing vaccine. *MMWR–Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2001;50:1117.
431. Health Protection Agency. Incidence of Group B streptococcal disease in infants aged less than 90 days old. *CDR Weekly* 2002;12(16):3. [193.129.245.226/publications/cdr/archive02/News/news1602.html gpB] Accessed 21 August 2003.
432. Merenstein GB, Todd WA, Brown G. Group B beta-hemolytic streptococcus: Randomized controlled treatment study at term. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1980;55:315–8.
433. Regan JA, Klebanoff MA, Nugent RP. The epidemiology of Group B streptococcal colonization in pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1991;77:604–10.
434. Hastings MJ, Easmon CS, Neill J, Bloxham B, Rivers RP. Group B streptococcal colonisation and the outcome of pregnancy. *Journal of Infection* 1986;12:23–9.
435. Oddie S, Embleton ND. Risk factors for early onset neonatal group B streptococcal sepsis: case–control study. *British Medical Journal* 2002;325:308.
436. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease. Revised Guidelines from CDC. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 2002;51(RR11):1–25. [www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/rr5111a1.htm] Accessed 21 August 2003.
437. Fey R, Stuart J, George R. Neonatal group B streptococcal disease in England and Wales 1981–1997. *Archives of Disease in Childhood* 1999;80:A70.
438. Bignardi GE. Surveillance of neonatal group B streptococcal infection in Sunderland. *Communicable Disease and Public Health/PHLS* 1999;2(1):64–5.
439. Yancey MK, Schuchat A, Brown LK, Ventura VL, Markenson GR. The accuracy of late antenatal screening cultures in predicting genital group B streptococcal colonization at delivery. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;88:811–5.
440. Boyer KM, Gadzala CA, Kelly PD, Burd LI, Gotoff SP. Selective intrapartum chemoprophylaxis of neonatal group B streptococcal early-onset disease. II. Predictive value of prenatal cultures. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 1983;148:802–9.
441. Molnar P, Biringer A, McGeer A, McIsaac W. Can pregnant women obtain their own specimens for group B streptococcus? A comparison of maternal versus physician screening. The Mount Sinai GBS Screening Group. *Family Practice* 1997;14:403–6.
442. Spieker MR, White DG, Quist BK. Self-collection of group B Streptococcus cultures in pregnant women. *Military Medicine* 1999;164:471–4.
443. Schrag SJ, Zell ER, Lynfield R, Roome A, Arnold KE, Craig AS, et al. A population-based comparison of strategies to prevent early-onset group B streptococcal disease in neonates. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2002;347:233–9.
444. Smaill F. Intrapartum antibiotics for group B streptococcal colonisation. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 1999;(3):1–5.
445. Benitz WE, Gould JB, Druzin ML. Antimicrobial prevention of early-onset group B streptococcal sepsis: estimates of risk reduction based on a critical literature review. *Pediatrics* 1999;103:e78.
446. Gibbs RS, McNabb F. Randomized clinical trial of intrapartum clindamycin cream for reduction of group B streptococcal maternal and neonatal colonization. *Infectious Disease in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;41:25–7.
447. Schrag SJ, Zywicki S, Farley MM, Reingold AL. Group B streptococcal disease in the era of intrapartum antibiotic prophylaxis. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2000;342:15–20.
448. Jeffery HE, Moses LM. Eight-year outcome of universal screening and intrapartum antibiotics for maternal group B streptococcal carriers. *Pediatrics* 1998;101:E2.
449. Egglestone SI, Turner AJL. Serological diagnosis of syphilis. *Communicable Disease and Public Health/PHLS* 2000;3:158–62.
450. Doherty L, Fenton KA, Jones J, Paine TC, Higgins SP, Williams D, et al. Syphilis: old problem, new strategy. *British Medical Journal* 2002;325:153–6.

451. Division of STD/HIV Prevention. *Sexually Transmitted Disease Surveillance 1993*. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention;1994.
452. Flowers J, Camilleri-Ferrante. *Antenatal screening for syphilis in East Anglia: a cost-benefit analysis*. Cambridge: Institute of Public Health; 1996.
453. STD Section, HIV and STD Division, PHLS Communicable Disease Surveillance Centre, with the PHLS Syphilis Working Group. Report to the National Screening Committee. *Antenatal Syphilis Screening in the UK: A Systematic Review and National Options Appraisal with Recommendations*. London: PHLS; 1998.
454. Public Health Laboratory Service, DHSS & PS, Scottish ISD D 5 Collaborative Group. *Sexually transmitted infections in the UK: new episodes seen at Genitourinary Medicine Clinics, 1995–2000*. London: PHLS; 2001.
455. Ingraham NR Jr. The value of penicillin alone in the prevention and treatment of congenital syphilis. *Acta Dermato-Venereologica* 1951;31:60–88.
456. Association of Genitourinary Medicine and the Medical Society for the Study of Venereal Diseases, Clinical Effectiveness Group. *UK national guidelines on the management of early syphilis*. London: Medical Society for the Study of Venereal Diseases; 2002. p. 1–18.
457. Goh BT, van Voorst Vader PC. European guideline for the management of syphilis. *International Journal of STD and AIDS* 2001;12:14–26.
458. Fiumara NJ, Fleming WL, Downing JG, Good FL. The incidence of prenatal syphilis at the Boston City Hospital. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1952;247:48–52.
459. Rotchford K, Lombard C, Zuma K, Wilkinson D. Impact on perinatal mortality of missed opportunities to treat maternal syphilis in rural South Africa: baseline results from a clinic randomized controlled trial. *Tropical Medicine and International Health* 2000;5:800–4.
460. Young H, Moyes A, McMillan A, Patterson J. Enzyme immunoassay for anti-treponemal IgG: Screening of confirmatory test? *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1992;45:37–41.
461. Young H, Moyes A, McMillan A, Robertson DHH. Screening for treponemal infection by a new enzyme immunoassay. *Genitourinary Medicine* 1989;65:72–8.
462. Walker, GJA. Antibiotics for syphilis diagnosed during pregnancy [protocol]. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
463. Alexander JM, Sheffield JS, Sanchez PJ, Mayfield J, Wendel GD Jr. Efficacy of treatment for syphilis in pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93:5–8.
464. Watson-Jones D, Gumodoka B, Weiss H, Changalucha J, Todd J, Mugeye K, et al. Syphilis in pregnancy in Tanzania. II. The effectiveness of antenatal syphilis screening and single-dose benzathine penicillin treatment for the prevention of adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Journal of Infectious Diseases* 2002;186:948–57.
465. Hashisaki P, Wertzberger GG, Conrad GL, Nicholes CR. Erythromycin failure in the treatment of syphilis in a pregnant woman. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases* 1983;10:36–8.
466. Eskild A, Oxman A, Magnus P, Bjorndal A, Bakketeig LS. Screening for toxoplasmosis in pregnancy: what is the evidence of reducing a health problem? *Journal of Medical Screening* 1996;3:188–94.
467. Ades AE, Parker S, Gilbert R, Tookey PA, Berry T, Hjelm M, et al. Maternal prevalence of toxoplasma antibody based on anonymous neonatal serosurvey: a geographical analysis. *Epidemiology and Infection* 1993;110:127–33.
468. Allain JP, Palmer CR, Pearson G. Epidemiological study of latent and recent infection by toxoplasma gondii in pregnant women from a regional population in the UK. *Journal of Infection* 1998;36:189–96.
469. Lebech M, Andersen O, Christensen NC, Hertel J, Nielsen HE, Peitersen B, et al. Feasibility of neonatal screening for toxoplasma infection in the absence of prenatal treatment. *Lancet* 1999;353:1834–7.
470. Cook AJ, Gilbert RE, Buffolano W, Zufferey J, Petersen E, Jenum PA, et al. Sources of toxoplasma infection in pregnant women: European multicentre case–control study. European Research Network on Congenital Toxoplasmosis. *British Medical Journal* 2000;321:142–7.
471. Pratlong F, Boulot P, Villena I, Issert E, Tamby I, Cazenave J, et al. Antenatal diagnosis of congenital toxoplasmosis: evaluation of the biological parameters in a cohort of 286 patients. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1996;103:552–7.
472. Dunn D, Wallon M, Peyron F, Petersen E, Peckham C, Gilbert R. Mother-to-child transmission of toxoplasmosis: risk estimates for clinical counselling. *Lancet* 1999;353:1829–33.
473. Foulon W, Villena I, Stray-Pedersen B, Decoster A, Lappalainen M, Pinon JM, et al. Treatment of toxoplasmosis during pregnancy: a multicenter study of impact on fetal transmission and children's sequelae at age 1 year. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;180:410–5.
474. Cubitt WD, Ades AE, Peckham CS. Evaluation of five commercial assays for screening antenatal sera for antibodies to Toxoplasma gondii. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1992;45:435–8.
475. Gilbert RE, Peckham CS. Congenital toxoplasmosis in the United Kingdom: to screen or not to screen? *Journal of Medical Screening* 2002;9:135–41.
476. Peyron, F, Wallon, M, Liou, C, and Garner, P. Treatments for toxoplasmosis in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3).
477. Wallon M, Liou C, Garner P, Peyron F. Congenital toxoplasmosis: systematic review of evidence of efficacy of treatment in pregnancy. *British Medical Journal* 1999;318:1511–14.
478. Garland SM, O'Reilly MA. The risks and benefits of antimicrobial therapy in pregnancy. *Drug Safety* 1995;13:188–205.
479. Bader TJ, Macones GA, Asch DA. Prenatal screening for toxoplasmosis. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;90:457–64.
480. Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network. Management of diabetes: a national clinical guideline. SIGN Publication No. 55Edinburgh: SIGN; 2001. [www.sign.ac.uk/guidelines/fulltext/55/index.html] Accessed 21 August 2003.
481. World Health Organization, Department of Noncommunicable Disease Surveillance. *Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Report of a WHO consultation. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus*. Geneva: World Health Organization; 1999.
482. Alberti KGMM, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabetic Medicine* 1998;15:539–53.
483. Scott DA, Loveman E, McIntyre L, Waugh N. Screening for gestational diabetes: a systematic review and economic evaluation. *Health Technology Assessment* 2002;6:1–172.
484. World Health Organization. *Prevention of diabetes mellitus: report of a WHO study group*. WHO Technical Report Series No. 844. Geneva: WHO; 1994.

485. Mestman JH, Anderson GV, Guadalupe V. Follow-up study of 360 subjects with abnormal carbohydrate metabolism during pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1972;39:421–5.
486. Jensen DM, Sorensen B, Feilberg-Jorgensen N, Westergaard JG, Beck-Neilsen H. Maternal and perinatal outcomes in 143 Danish women with gestational diabetes mellitus and 143 controls with a similar risk profile. *Diabetic Medicine* 2000;17:281–6.
487. O'Sullivan JB, Charles D, Mahan CM, Dandrow RV. Gestational diabetes and perinatal mortality rate. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1973;116:901–4.
488. Essel JK, Opai-Tetteh ET. Macrosomia: maternal and fetal risk factors. *South African Medical Journal* 1995;85(1):43–6.
489. Vogel N, Burnand B, Vial Y, Ruiz J, Paccaud F, Hohlfeld P. Screening for gestational diabetes: variation in guidelines. *European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 2000;91:29–36.
490. Marquette GP, Klein VR, Niebyl JR. Efficacy of screening for gestational diabetes. *American Journal of Perinatology* 1985;2:7–9.
491. O'Sullivan JB, Mahan CM, Charles D, Dandrow RV. Screening criteria for high-risk gestational diabetic patients. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1973;116:895–900.
492. Wen SW, Liu S, Kramer MS, Joseph KS, Levitt C, Marcoux S, et al. Impact of prenatal glucose screening on the diagnosis of gestational diabetes and on pregnancy outcomes. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2000;152:1009–14.
493. Watson WJ. Screening for glycosuria during pregnancy. *Southern Medical Journal* 1990;83:156–6.
494. Gribble RK, Meier PR, Berg RL. The value of urine screening for glucose at each prenatal visit. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;86:405–10.
495. Hooper DE. Detecting GD and preeclampsia. Effectiveness of routine urine screening for glucose and protein. *Journal of Reproductive Medicine* 1996;41:885–8.
496. McElduff A, Goldring J, Gordon P, Wyndham L. A direct comparison of the measurement of a random plasma glucose and a post-50 g glucose load glucose, in the detection of gestational diabetes. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1994;34:28–30.
497. Jowett NI, Samanta AK, Burden AC. Screening for diabetes in pregnancy: is a random blood glucose enough? *Diabetic Medicine* 1987;4:160–3.
498. Reichelt AJ, Spichler ER, Branchtein L, Nucci LB, Franco LJ, Schmidt MI. Fasting plasma glucose is a useful test for the detection of gestational diabetes. Brazilian Study of Gestational Diabetes (EBDG) Working Group. *Diabetes Care* 1998;21:1246–9.
499. Perucchini D, Fischer U, Spinaz GA, Huch R, Huch A, Lehmann R. Using fasting plasma glucose concentrations to screen for gestational diabetes mellitus: prospective population based study. *British Medical Journal* 1999;319:812–5.
500. Lewis GF, McNally C, Blackman JD, Polonsky KS, Barron WM. Prior feeding alters the response to the 50 g glucose challenge test in pregnancy. The Staub-Traugott Effect revisited. *Diabetes Care* 1993;16:1551–6.
501. Watson WJ. Serial changes in the 50-g oral glucose test in pregnancy: implications for screening. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1989;74:40–3.
502. Jovanovic L, Peterson CM. Screening for gestational diabetes. Optimum timing and criteria for retesting. *Diabetes* 1985;34:21–3.
503. Expert Committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus Report of the expert committee on the diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 2000;26 Supplement 1:S5–S20.
504. Walkinshaw SA. Dietary regulation for 'gestational diabetes'. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2000;(2).
505. Persson B, Stangenberg M, Hansson U, Nordlander E. Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM). Comparative evaluation of two treatment regimens, diet versus insulin and diet. *Diabetes* 1985;34:101–4.
506. Naylor CD, Sermer M, Chen E, Sykora K. Cesarean delivery in relation to birth weight and gestational glucose tolerance. Pathophysiology or practice style? *JAMA* 1996;275:1165–70.
507. Avery MD, Leon AS, Kopher RA. Effects of a partially home-based exercise program for women with gestational diabetes. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;89:10–5.
508. Goldberg JD, Franklin B, Lasser D, Jornsay DL, Hausknecht RU, Ginsberg-Fellner F, et al. Gestational diabetes: impact of home glucose monitoring on neonatal birth weight. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1986;154:546–50.
509. Roberts JM, Redman CW. Pre-eclampsia: more than pregnancy-induced hypertension. *Lancet* 1993;341:1447–51.
510. Douglas KA, Redman CW. Eclampsia in the United Kingdom. *British Medical Journal* 1994;309:1395–400.
- 511a. National High Blood Pressure Education Programme. Working Group Report on high blood pressure in pregnancy. NIH Publication 00–3029. Bethesda, MD: National Institutes of Health, National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute; 2000.
- 511b. National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group. Report on high blood pressure in pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;163:1691–712.
512. Duckitt, K. Risk factors for pre-eclampsia that can be assessed at the antenatal booking visit: a systematic review. Presented at the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy Conference, 24–25 July 2003, Glasgow. 2003.
513. Friedman EA. *Blood pressure, edema and proteinuria in pregnancy*. Oxford: Elsevier Scientific; 1976.
514. Redman CW. Hypertension in pregnancy. pp 182–225. 1995.
515. Barton JR, O'Brien JM, Bergauer NK, Jacques DL, Sibai BM. Mild gestational hypertension remote from term: progression and outcome. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2001;184:979–83.
- 516a. Page EW, Christianson R. The impact of mean arterial pressure in the middle trimester upon the outcome of pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1976;125:740–6.
- 516b. Page EW, Christianson R. Influence of blood pressure changes with and without proteinuria upon outcome of pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1976;126:821–33.
517. Greer IA. Hypertension. In Dunlop W, Calder AA, editors. *High risk pregnancy*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann; 1992. p. 30–93.
518. Redman CW, Jefferies M. Revised definition of pre-eclampsia. *Lancet* 1988;1:809–12.
519. North RA, Taylor RS, Schellenberg JC. Evaluation of a definition of pre-eclampsia. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106:767–73.
520. Levine RJ. Should the definition of preeclampsia include a rise in diastolic blood pressure > 15 mmHg to a level < 90 mmHg in association with proteinuria? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;183:787–92.
521. Perry IJ, Wilkinson LS, Shinton RA, Beevers DG. Conflicting views on the measurement of blood pressure in pregnancy. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1991;98:241–3.

522. Frohlich ED, Grim C, Labarthe DR, Maxwell MH, Perloff D, Weidman WH. Recommendations for human blood pressure determination by sphygmomanometers: Report of a special task force appointed by the Steering Committee, American Heart Association. *Hypertension* 1988;11:210A–22A.
523. Petrie JC, O'Brien ET, Littler WA, de Swiet M. Recommendations on blood pressure measurement. *British Medical Journal* 1986;293:611–5.
524. Shennan AH, Halligan AWF. Measuring blood pressure in normal and hypertensive pregnancy. *Baillieres Clinical Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;13(1):1–26.
525. Cuckson AC, Golaro M, Reinders A, Shennan AH. Accuracy of automated devices in pregnancy and pre-eclampsia: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;22:S43.
526. Mattoo TK. Arm cuff in the measurement of blood pressure. *American Journal of Hypertension* 2002;15:675–85.
527. Brown MA, Buddle ML, Farrell T, Davis G, Jones M. Randomised trial of management of hypertensive pregnancies by Korotkoff phase IV or phase V. *Lancet* 1998;352:777–81.
528. Shennan A, Gupta M, Halligan A, Taylor DJ, de Swiet M. Lack of reproducibility in pregnancy of Korotkoff phase IV as measured by mercury sphygmomanometry. *Lancet* 1996;347:139–42.
529. MacGillivray I. *Pre-eclampsia. The hypertensive disease of pregnancy*. London: WB Saunders; 1983.
530. Stamilio DM, Sehdev HM, Morgan MA, Probert K, Macones GA. Can antenatal clinical and biochemical markers predict the development of severe preeclampsia? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;182:589–94.
531. Skjaerven R, Wilcox AJ, Lie RT. The interval between pregnancies and the risk of preeclampsia. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2002;346:33–8.
532. Taylor DJ. The epidemiology of hypertension during pregnancy. In: Rubin PC, editor. *Hypertension in pregnancy*. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science; 1988. p. 223–40.
533. Salonen-Ros H, Lichtenstein P, Lipworth W. Genetic effects on the liability of developing pre-eclampsia and gestational hypertension. *American Journal of Medical Genetics* 2000;91:256–60.
534. Sibai BM, Caritis S, Hauth J. Risks of preeclampsia and adverse neonatal outcomes among women with progesterational diabetes mellitus. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;182:364–9.
535. Davey DA, MacGillivray I. The classification and definition of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1988;158(4):892–898.
536. Murray N, Homer LS, Davis GK, Curtis J, Manzos G, Brown MA. The clinical utility of routine urinalysis in pregnancy: a prospective study. *Medical Journal of Australia* 2002;177:477–80.
537. Shennan AH, Waugh JJS. The measurement of blood pressure and proteinuria. In: Critchley H, MacLean AB, Poston L, Walker JJ, editors. *Pre-eclampsia*. London: RCOG Press; 2003. p. 305–24.
538. Rodriguez-Thompson D, Lieberman ES. Use of a random urinary protein-to-creatinine ratio for the diagnosis of significant proteinuria during pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;185:808–11.
539. Ferrazzani S, Caruso A, De Carolis S, Martino IV, Mancuso S. Proteinuria and outcome of 444 pregnancies complicated by hypertension. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;162:366–71.
540. Waugh JJS, Clark TJ, Divakaran TG, Khan KS, Kilby MD. A systematic review and meta-analysis comparing protein/creatinine ratio measurements and dipstick urinalysis in predicting significant proteinuria in pregnancy. Presented at the British Maternal and Fetal Medicine Society, University of York, 20–21 March 2003.
541. Chamberlain G, Morgan M. *ABC of Antenatal Care*. London: BMJ Publishing; 2002.
542. Buekens P, Alexander S, Boutsen M, Blondel B, Kaminski M, Reid M. Randomised controlled trial of routine cervical examinations in pregnancy. European Community Collaborative Study Group on Prenatal Screening. *Lancet* 1994;344:841–4.
543. Iams JD, Goldenberg RL, Meis PJ. The length of the cervix and the risk of spontaneous premature delivery. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1996;334:567–72.
544. Goldenberg RL, Klebanoff M, Carey JC. Vaginal fetal fibronectin measurements from 8 to 22 weeks' gestation and subsequent spontaneous preterm birth. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;183:469–75.
545. Goldenberg RL, Mercer BM, Meis PJ, Copper RL, Das A, McNellis D. The preterm prediction study: fetal fibronectin testing predicts early spontaneous birth. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;87:643–8.
546. Mercer BM, Goldenberg RL, Das A. The preterm prediction study: a clinical risk assessment system. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;174:1885–95.
547. Newton ER, Barss V, Cetrulo CL. The epidemiology and clinical history of asymptomatic midtrimester placenta previa. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1984;148:743–8.
548. Lauria MR, Smith RS, Treadwell MC, Comstock CH, Kirk JS, Lee W, et al. The use of second-trimester transvaginal sonography to predict placenta previa. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1996;8:337–40.
549. Leerentveld RA, Gilberts EC, Arnold MJ, Wladimiroff JW. Accuracy and safety of transvaginal sonographic placental localization. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;76:759–62.
550. Oppenheimer L, Holmes P, Simpson N, Dabrowski A. Diagnosis of low-lying placenta: can migration in the third trimester predict outcome? *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;18:100–2.
551. Sherman SJ, Carlson DE, Platt LD, Medearis AL. Transvaginal ultrasound: does it help in the diagnosis of placenta previa? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1991;164:344.
552. Farine D, Peisner DB, Timor-Tritsch IE. Placenta previa: is the traditional diagnostic approach satisfactory? *Journal of Clinical Ultrasound* 1990;18:328–30.
553. Taipale P, Hiilesmaa V, Ylostalo P. Diagnosis of placenta previa by transvaginal sonographic screening at 12–16 weeks in a nonselected population. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;89:364–7.
554. Taipale P, Hiilesmaa V, Ylostalo P. Transvaginal ultrasonography at 18–23 weeks in predicting placenta previa at delivery. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;12:422–5.
555. Hill LM, DiNofrio DM, Chenevey P. Transvaginal sonographic evaluation of first-trimester placenta previa. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;5:301–3.
556. Dashe JS, McIntire DD, Ramus RM. Persistence of placenta previa according to gestational age at ultrasound detection. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;99:692–7.
557. Groo KM, Paterson-Brown S. Placenta praevia and placenta praevia accreta: A review of aetiology, diagnosis and management. *Fetal and Maternal Medicine Review* 2001;12:41–66.

558. Ananth CV, Smulian JC, Vintzileos AM. The association of placenta previa with history of cesarean delivery and abortion: a metaanalysis. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;177:1071–8.
559. Ananth CV, Demissie K, Smulian JC. Placenta previa in singleton and twin births in the United States, 1989 through 1998: a comparison of risk factor profiles and associated conditions. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;188:275–81.
560. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Placenta praevia: diagnosis and management*. Guideline No. 27. London: RCOG; 2001.
561. Neilson JP. Interventions for suspected placenta praevia. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1):1–19.
562. McFarlin BL, Engstrom JL, Sampson MB, Cattledge F. Concurrent validity of Leopold's maneuvers in determining fetal presentation and position. *Journal of Nurse-Midwifery* 1985;30:280–4.
563. Vause S, Hornbuckle J, Thornton JG. Palpation or ultrasound for detecting breech babies? *British Journal of Midwifery* 1997;5:318–9.
564. Thorp JM Jr, Jenkins T, Watson W. Utility of Leopold maneuvers in screening for malpresentation. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1991;78:394–6.
565. Olsen K. Midwife to midwife. 'Now just pop up here, dear...' revisiting the art of antenatal abdominal palpation. *Practising Midwife* 1999;2:13–5.
566. Neilson JP. Symphysis-fundal height measurement in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
567. Gardosi J, Francis A. Controlled trial of fundal height measurement plotted on customised antenatal growth charts. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106:309–317.
568. Macones GA, Depp R. Fetal monitoring. In: Wildschut HJ, Weiner CP, Peters TJ, editors. *When to screen in obstetrics and gynaecology*. London: WB Saunders; 1996. p. 202–18.
569. Grant A, Elbourne D, Valentin L, Alexander S. Routine formal fetal movement counting and risk of antepartum late death in normally formed singletons. *Lancet* 1989;ii:345–9.
570. Divanovic E, Buchmann EJ. Routine heart and lung auscultation in prenatal care. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 1999;64:247–51.
571. Sharif K, Whittle M. Routine antenatal fetal heart rate auscultation: is it necessary? *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1993;13:111–3.
572. Garcia J, Corry M, MacDonald D, Elbourne D, Grant A. Mothers' views of continuous electronic fetal heart monitoring and intermittent auscultation in a randomized controlled trial. *Birth* 1985;12:79–86.
573. Pattison N, McCowan L. Cardiotocography for antepartum fetal assessment. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
574. Bricker L, Neilson JP. Routine ultrasound in late pregnancy (> 24 weeks gestation). *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
575. Bricker L, Neilson JP. Routine Doppler ultrasound in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
576. Chien PF, Arnott N, Gordon A, Owen P, Khan KS. How useful is uterine artery Doppler flow velocimetry in the prediction of pre-eclampsia, intrauterine growth retardation and perinatal death? An overview. *BJOG* 2000;107:196–208.
577. Hilder L, Costeloe K, Thilaganathan B. Prolonged pregnancy: evaluating gestation-specific risks of fetal and infant mortality. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;105:169–73.
578. Crowley, P. Interventions for preventing or improving the outcome of delivery at or beyond term. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1).
579. Boulvain M, Fraser WD, Marcoux S, Fontaine JY, Bazin S, Pinault JJ, Blouin D. Does sweeping of the membranes reduce the need for formal induction of labour? A randomised controlled trial. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;105:34–40.
580. Melzack R. The short-form McGill pain questionnaire. *Pain* 1987;30:191–7.
581. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, Clinical Effectiveness Support Unit. *National Sentinel Caesarean Section Audit Report*. London: RCOG Press; 2001.
582. Nelson KB, Ellenberg JH. Antecedents of cerebral palsy. Multivariate analysis of risk. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1986;315:81–6.
583. Kitchen WH, Yu VY, Orgill AA, Ford G, Rickards A, Astbury J, et al. Infants born before 29 weeks gestation: survival and morbidity at 2 years of age. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1982;89:887–91.
584. Lau TK, Lo KW, Rogers M. Pregnancy outcome after successful external cephalic version for breech presentation at term. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;176:218–23.
585. Brocks V, Philipson T, Secher NJ. A randomized trial of external cephalic version with tocolysis in late pregnancy. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1984;91:653–6.
586. Van Veelan AJ, Van Cappellen AW, Flu PK, Straub MJPF, Wallenburg HC. Effect of external cephalic version in late pregnancy on presentation at delivery: a randomized controlled trial. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1989;96:916–21.
587. Dugoff L, Stamm CA, Jones OW, Mohling SI, Hawkins JL. The effect of spinal anesthesia on the success rate of external cephalic version: a randomized trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93:345–9.
588. Van Dorsten JP, Schifrin BS, Wallace RL. Randomized control trial of external cephalic version with tocolysis in late pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1981;141:417–24.
589. Hofmeyer GJ. External cephalic version for breech presentation before term. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
590. Hofmeyer GJ. External cephalic version facilitation for breech presentation at term. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2001;(2).
591. Mahomed K, Seeras R, Coulson R. External cephalic version at term. A randomized controlled trial using tocolysis. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1991;98:8–13.
592. Hofmeyr GJ. Effect of external cephalic version in late pregnancy on breech presentation and caesarean section rate: a controlled trial. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1983;90:392–9.
593. Mushambi M. External cephalic version: new interest and old concerns. *International Journal of Obstetric Anesthesia* 2001;10:263–6.
594. Hofmeyr GJ. Interventions to help external cephalic version for breech presentation at term. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(4).
595. van Loon AJ, Mantingh A, Serlier EK, Kroon G, Mooyaart EL, Huisjes HJ. Randomised controlled trial of magnetic-resonance pelvimetry in breech presentation at term. *Lancet* 1997;350:1799–804.
596. Walkinshaw SA. Pelvimetry and breech at term. *Lancet* 2002;350:1791–2.

597. Hofmeyr GJ, Kulier, R. Cephalic version by postural management for breech presentation. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2003;(1).
598. Cardini F, Weixin H. Moxibustion for correction of breech presentation: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 1998;280:1580–4.
599. Li Q. Clinical observation on correcting malposition of fetus by electro-acupuncture. *Journal of Traditional Chinese Medicine* 1996;16:260–2.
600. Rouse DJ, Andrews WW, Goldenberg RL, Owen J. Screening and treatment of asymptomatic bacteriuria of pregnancy to prevent pyelonephritis: a cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit analysis. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;86:119–23.
601. Petrou S, Sach T, Davidson L. The long-term costs of preterm birth and low birth weight: results of a systematic review. *Child: Care, Health and Development* 2001;27:97–115.
602. Connor N, Roberts J, Nicoll A. Strategic options for antenatal screening for syphilis in the United Kingdom: a cost effectiveness analysis. *Journal of Medical Screening* 2000;7:7–13.
603. Read JS, Klebanoff MA. Sexual intercourse during pregnancy and preterm delivery: effects of vaginal microorganisms. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1993;168:514–19.
604. Raymond EG, Cnattingius S, Kiely JL. Effects of maternal age, parity, and smoking on the risk of stillbirth. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1994;101:301–6.
605. Ho KY, Kang JY, Viegas OA. Symptomatic gastro-oesophageal reflux in pregnancy: a prospective study among Singaporean women. *Journal of Gastroenterology and Hepatology* 1998;13:1020–6.
606. Kovacs GT, Campbell J, Francis D, Hill D, Adena A. Is Mucaïne an appropriate medication for the relief of heartburn during pregnancy? *Asia-Oceania Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1990;16:357–62.
607. Briggs DW, Hart DM. Heartburn of pregnancy. A continuation study. *British Journal of Clinical Practice* 1972;26:167–9.
608. Dick PT, with the Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. Prenatal screening and diagnosis of Down Syndrome. 84–98. 1994. [www.ctfphc.org/Full_Text/Ch08full.htm] Accessed 4 September 2003.
609. Bindra R, Heath V, Liao A, Spencer K, Nicolaidis KH. One-stop clinic for assessment of risk for trisomy 21 at 11–14 weeks: a prospective study of 15030 pregnancies. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;20:219–25.
610. Mastrobattista JM, Bishop KD, Newton ER. Wet smear compared with gram stain diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis in asymptomatic pregnant women. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;96:504–6.
611. Krohn MA, Hillier SL, Eschenbach DA. Comparison of methods of diagnosing bacterial vaginosis among pregnant women. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1990;27:1266–71.
612. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *Induction of labour*. Evidence-based Clinical Guideline No. 9. London: RCOG Press; 2001.
613. Department of Health. Unlinked Anonymous Prevalence Monitoring Programme in the United Kingdom. *Summary Report from the Unlinked Anonymous Surveys Steering Group. Data to the end of 1998*. London: DoH; 1999.
614. Balano K, Beckerman K, Ng V. Rapid HIV screening during labor. *JAMA* 1998;280:1664.
615. Postma MJ, Beck EJ, Mandalia S, Sherr L, Walters MDS, Houweling H, et al. Universal HIV screening of pregnant women in England: cost effectiveness analysis. *British Medical Journal* 1999;318:1656–60.
616. Shey Wiysonge CU, Brocklehurst P, Sterne JAC. Vaginal disinfection during labor for reducing the risk of mother-to-child transmission of HIV infection. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3).
617. Kind C, Rudin C, Siegrist C, Wyler C, Biedermann K, Lauper U, et al. Prevention of vertical HIV transmission: additive protective effect of elective cesarean section and zidovudine prophylaxis. *AIDS* 1998;12:205–10.
618. Shey Wiysonge CU, Brocklehurst P, Sterne, JAC. Vitamin A supplementation for reducing the risk of mother-to-child transmission of HIV infection. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2002;(3).
619. Stray-Pedersen B. Economic evaluation of different vaccination programmes to prevent congenital rubella. *NIPH Annals* 1982;5:69–83.
620. Hurtig AK, Nicoll A, Carne C, Lissauer T, Connor N, Webster JP, et al. Syphilis in pregnant women and their children in the United Kingdom: results from national clinician reporting surveys 1994–97. *British Medical Journal* 1998;317:1617–19.
621. Ryan M, Hall SM, Barrett NJ, Balfour AH, Holliman RE, Joynson DH. Toxoplasmosis in England and Wales 1981 to 1992. *CDR Review* 1995;5:R13–21.
622. Lappalainen M, Koskiniemi M, Hiilesmaa V, Ammala P, Teramo K, Koskela P, et al. Outcome of children after maternal primary Toxoplasma infection during pregnancy with emphasis on avidity of specific IgG. *Pediatric Infectious Disease Journal* 1995;14:354–61.
623. Danielian PJ, Wang J, Hall MH. Long-term outcome by method of delivery of fetuses in breech presentation at term: population based follow up. *British Medical Journal* 1996;312:1451–3.
624. Krebs L, Topp M, Langhoff-Roos, J. The relation of breech presentation at term to cerebral palsy. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106:943–7.
625. Milsom I, Ladfors L, Thiringer K, Niklasson A, Odeback A, Thornberg E. Influence of maternal, obstetric and fetal risk factors on the prevalence of birth asphyxia at term in a Swedish urban population. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2002;81:907–17.
626. van Loon AJ, Mantingh A, Thijn CJP, Mooyaart EL. Pelvimetry by magnetic resonance imaging in breech presentation. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;163:1256–60.
627. Hofmeyr GJ, Hannah ME. Planned caesarean section for term breech delivery. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2000;(2).
628. Hannah ME, Hannah WJ, Hewson SA, Hodnett ED, Saigal S, Willan AR. Planned caesarean section versus planned vaginal birth for breech presentation at term: a randomised multicentre trial. *Lancet* 2000;356:1375–83.
629. Gimovsky ML, Wallace RL, Schifrin BS, Paul RH. Randomized management of the nonfrank breech presentation at term: a preliminary report. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1983;146:34–40.
630. Collea JV, Chein C, Quilligan EJ. The randomized management of term frank breech presentation: a study of 208 cases. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1980;137:235–44.
631. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. *The Management of Breech Presentation*. Guideline No. 20. London: RCOG; April 2001. [www.rcog.org.uk/guidelines.asp?PageID=106&GuidelineID=19] Accessed 8 September 2003.

References

(2008 update)

632. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. *The Guidelines Manual 2006*. London: NICE; 2006.
633. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. *The Guidelines Manual 2007*. London: NICE; 2007.
634. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health. *Intrapartum Care*. 2007. London, RCOG Press.
635. Department of Health. *Maternity Matters: Choice, Access and Continuity of Care in a Safe Service*. London: Department of Health, 2007.
636. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health. *Diabetes in Pregnancy: Management of Diabetes and its Complications from Preconception to the Postnatal Period*. London: RCOG Press; 2008.
637. Dyson L, McCormick F, Renfrew MJ. Interventions for promoting the initiation of breastfeeding. (Cochrane Review). In: Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, Issue 2, 2007. Chichester: Wiley Interscience.
638. Fairbank L, O'Meara S, Renfrew MJ, et al. A systematic review to evaluate the effectiveness of interventions to promote the initiation of breastfeeding. *Health Technology Assessment* 2000; 4:(25):i-171.
639. Lavender T. Breastfeeding expectations versus reality: a cluster randomised controlled trial. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2005;112(8):1047-53.
640. Mattar CN, Chong YS, Chan YS, et al. Simple antenatal preparation to improve breastfeeding practice: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2007;109(1):73-80.
641. Noel-Weiss J. Randomized controlled trial to determine effects of prenatal breastfeeding workshop on maternal breastfeeding self-efficacy and breastfeeding duration. *JOGNN: Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic, and Neonatal Nursing* 2006;35(5):616-24.
642. Reifsnider E and Eckhart. Prenatal breastfeeding education: its effect on breastfeeding among WIC participants. *Journal of Human Lactation* 1997;13(2):121-5.
643. Wiles LS. The effect of prenatal breastfeeding education on breastfeeding success and maternal perception of the infant. *JOGNN: Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic, and Neonatal Nursing* 1984;13(4):253-7.
644. Pugin E and Valdes. Does prenatal breastfeeding skills group education increase the effectiveness of a comprehensive breastfeeding promotion program? *Journal of Human Lactation* 1996;12(1):15-19.
645. Sheehan A. Australian women's stories of their baby-feeding decisions in pregnancy. *Midwifery* 2003;19(4):259-66.
646. Gulick EE. Informational correlates of successful breast-feeding. *MCN: The American Journal of Maternal/Child Nursing* 1982;7(6):370-5.
647. Campbell MK, Carbone E, Honess-Morreale. Randomized trial of a tailored nutrition education CD-ROM program for women receiving food assistance. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior* 2004;36(2):58-66.
648. Olson CM, Strawderman MS, Reed RG. Efficacy of an intervention to prevent excessive gestational weight gain. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;191(2):530-6.
649. Sz wajc er EM, Hiddink GJ, Koelen MA, et al. Nutrition-related information-seeking behaviours before and throughout the course of pregnancy: consequences for nutrition communication. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2005; 59 Suppl 1:S57-S65.
650. Orstead C. Efficacy of prenatal nutrition counseling: weight gain, infant birth weight, and cost-effectiveness. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* 1985;85(1):40-5.
651. Lumley J, Oliver SS, Chamberlain C, Oakley K. Interventions for promoting smoking cessation during pregnancy. (Cochrane Review). In: Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, Issue 2, 2004. Chichester: Wiley Interscience.
652. Acharya G, Jauniaux E, Sathia L, et al. Evaluation of the impact of current antismoking advice in the UK on women with planned pregnancies. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;22(5):498-500.
653. Rigotti NA, Park ER, Regan S, et al. Efficacy of telephone counseling for pregnant smokers: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;108(1):83-92.
654. Byrd JC. Smoking cessation among pregnant women in an urban setting. *Wisconsin Medical Journal* 1993;92(11):609-12.
655. McLeod D. Can support and education for smoking cessation and reduction be provided effectively by midwives within primary maternity care? *Midwifery* 2004;20(1):37-50.
656. Goodson JG. Prenatal child safety education. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1985;65(3):312-15.
657. Greenberg LW. A prenatal and postpartum safety education program: influence on parental use of infant car restraints. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics* 1982;3(1):32-4.
658. Waterson E and Murray-Lyon IM. Preventing fetal alcohol effects: A trial of three methods of giving information in the antenatal clinic. *Health Education Research* 1990;5(1):53-61.
659. Smits MW, Paulk TH, Kee CC. Assessing the impact of an outpatient education program for patients with gestational diabetes. *Diabetes Educator* 1995;21(2):129-34.
660. Graham W, Smith P, Kamal A, et al. Randomised controlled trial comparing effectiveness of touch screen system with leaflet for providing women with information on prenatal tests. *British Medical Journal* 2000;320(7228):155-60.
661. Glazier R, Goel V, Holzapfel S, et al. Written patient information about triple-marker screening: a randomized, controlled trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;90(5):769-74.
662. Bekker HL. Applying decision analysis to facilitate informed decision making about prenatal diagnosis for Down syndrome: a randomised controlled trial. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2004;24(4):265-75.
663. Leung KY, Lee CP, Chan HY, et al. Randomised trial comparing an interactive multimedia decision aid with a leaflet and a video to give information about prenatal screening for Down syndrome. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2004;24(8):613-18.

664. Hewison J, Cuckle H, Baillie C, et al. Use of videotapes for viewing at home to inform choice in Down syndrome screening: a randomised controlled trial. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2001;21(2):146–9.
665. Andersen HF, Freda MC, Damus. Effectiveness of patient education to reduce preterm delivery among ordinary risk patients. *American Journal of Perinatology* 1989;6(2):214–17.
666. Simpson WM, Johnstone FD, Boyd FM, et al. Uptake and acceptability of antenatal HIV testing: randomised controlled trial of different methods of offering the test. *British Medical Journal* 1998;316(7127):262–7.
667. Hunt LM, de Voogd KB, Castaneda. The routine and the traumatic in prenatal genetic diagnosis: does clinical information inform patient decision-making? *Patient Education and Counseling* 2005;56(3):302–12.
668. Williams C. What constitutes 'balanced' information in the practitioners' portrayals of Down's syndrome? [erratum appears in *Midwifery*. 2003 Mar;19(1):75]. *Midwifery* 2002;18(3):230–7.
669. Jaques AM, Bell RJ, Watson. People who influence women's decisions and preferred sources of information about prenatal testing for birth defects. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2004;44(3):233–8.
670. Soltani H. Exploring women's views on information provided during pregnancy. *British Journal of Midwifery* 2005;13(10):633–6.
671. Lavender T. Research. Do we provide information to women in the best way? *British Journal of Midwifery* 2000;8(12):769–75.
672. Nolan ML. Antenatal education: failing to educate for parenthood. *British Journal of Midwifery* 1997;5(1):21–6.
673. Jacoby A. Mothers' views about information and advice in pregnancy and childbirth: Findings from a national study. *Midwifery* 1988;4(103):110.
674. Bennett I. 'Breaking it down': Patient-clinician communication and prenatal care among African American women of low and higher literacy. *Annals of Family Medicine* 2006;4(4):334–40.
675. Vonderheid SC, Montgomery KS, Norr KF. Ethnicity and prenatal health promotion content. *Western Journal of Nursing Research* 2003;25(4):388–404.
676. Benn C. Women planning and experiencing pregnancy and childbirth: information needs and sources. *Nursing Praxis in New Zealand* 1999;14(3):4–15.
677. Ussher M. Perceived barriers to and benefits of attending a stop smoking course during pregnancy. *Patient Education and Counseling* 2006;61(3):467–72.
678. Cates SC, Carter-Young HL, Conley S, et al. Pregnant women and listeriosis: preferred educational messages and delivery mechanisms. *Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior* 2004;36(3):121–7.
679. Orr RD. Nutritional care in pregnancy: the patient's view. II. Perceptions, satisfaction, and response to dietary advice and treatment. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* 1979;75(2):131–6.
680. Spiby H, Slade P, Escott D, et al. Selected coping strategies in labor: an investigation of women's experiences. *Birth* 2003;30(3):189–94.
681. Maestas LM. The effect of prenatal education on the beliefs and perceptions of childbearing women: 2000 Virginia Larsen Research Grant winner. *International Journal of Childbirth Education* 2003;18(1):17–21.
682. Hart MA. Self-care agency before and after childbirth education classes. *International Orem Society Newsletter* 1998;6(2):10–1.
683. Rolls C. Pregnancy-to-parenting education: creating a new approach. *Birth Issues* 2001;10(2):53–8.
684. Redman S and Oak. Evaluation of an antenatal education programme: characteristics of attenders, changes in knowledge and satisfaction of participants. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1991;31(4):310–16.
685. Schmied V, Myers K, Wills J, et al. Preparing expectant couples for new-parent experiences: a comparison of two models of antenatal education. *Journal of Perinatal Education* 2002;11(3):20–7.
686. Schneider Z. Antenatal education classes in Victoria: what the women said. *Australian Journal of Midwifery* 2001;14(3):14–21.
687. Lee H. Childbirth education: do classes meet consumer expectations? *Birth Issues* 1998;7(4):137–42.
688. Stewart P. Promoting first trimester prenatal classes: a survey. *Canadian Journal of Public Health* 1993;84(5):331–3.
689. Schneider Z. An Australian study of women's experiences of their first pregnancy. *Midwifery* 2002;18(3):238–49.
690. Alexander GR, Tompkins ME, Petersen DJ, et al. Discordance between LMP-based and clinically estimated gestational age: implications for research, programs, and policy. *Public Health Reports* 1995;110(4):395–402.
691. Olesen AW. Prediction of delivery date by sonography in the first and second trimesters. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;28(3):292–7.
692. Taipale P. Predicting delivery date by ultrasound and last menstrual period in early gestation. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;97(2):189–94.
693. Neufeld LM, Haas JD, Grajeda. Last menstrual period provides the best estimate of gestation length for women in rural Guatemala. *Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology* 2006;20(4):290–8.
694. Mustafa G and David RJ. Comparative accuracy of clinical estimate versus menstrual gestational age in computerized birth certificates. *Public Health Reports* 2001;116(1):15–21.
695. Johnsen SL, Rasmussen S, Sollien. Accuracy of second trimester fetal head circumference and biparietal diameter for predicting the time of spontaneous birth. *Journal of Perinatal Medicine* 2006;34(5):367–70.
696. Nguyen TH. Evaluation of ultrasound-estimated date of delivery in 17,450 spontaneous singleton births: do we need to modify Naegele's rule? *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;14(1):23–8.
697. Rowlands S and Royston. Estimated date of delivery from last menstrual period and ultrasound scan: which is more accurate? *British Journal of General Practice* 1993;43(373):322–5.
698. Okonofua FE. Accuracy of prediction of gestational age by ultrasound measurement of biparietal diameter in Nigerian women. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 1989;28(3):217–19.
699. Campbell S, Warsof SL, Little. Routine ultrasound screening for the prediction of gestational age. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1985;65(5):613–20.
700. Kopta MM, May RR, Crane JP. A comparison of the reliability of the estimated date of confinement predicted by crown-rump length and biparietal diameter. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1983;145(5):562–5.
701. Selbing A. The pregnant population and a fetal crown-rump length screening program. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1983;62(2):161–4.
702. Bennett KA, Crane JM, and O'shea. First trimester ultrasound screening is effective in reducing postterm labor induction rates: a randomized controlled trial. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;190(4):1077–81.

703. Waldenstrom U, Axelsson O, Nilsson S, et al. Effects of routine one-stage ultrasound screening in pregnancy: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 1988; 2:585–8.
704. Eik-Nes SH, Salvesen KA, Okland O, et al. Routine ultrasound fetal examination in pregnancy: The 'alesund' randomized controlled trial. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;15(6):473–8.
705. Morin I. Determinants and consequences of discrepancies in menstrual and ultrasonographic gestational age estimates. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2005;112(2):145–52.
706. Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition. Update on Vitamin D. Position statement by the Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition. 2007.
707. Gray R and Henderson J. Review of the fetal effects of prenatal alcohol exposure. Oxford: National Perinatal Epidemiology Unit; 2006.
708. Mariscal M. Pattern of alcohol consumption during pregnancy and risk for low birth weight. *Annals of Epidemiology* 2006;16(6):432–8.
709. Weatherhead SC, Wahie S, Reynolds NJ, et al. An open-label, dose-ranging study of methotrexate for moderate-to-severe adult atopic eczema. *British Journal of Dermatology* 2007;156(2):346–51.
710. Ostrowsky JT, Lippman A, Scriver CR. Cost-benefit analysis of a thalassemia disease prevention program. *American Journal of Public Health* 1985;75(7):732–6.
711. Chasen ST, Loeb-Zeitlin S, Landsberger EJ. Hemoglobinopathy screening in pregnancy: comparison of two protocols. *American Journal of Perinatology* 1999;16(4):175–80.
712. Phelan L, Bain BJ, Roper D, et al. An analysis of relative costs and potential benefits of different policies for antenatal screening for beta thalassaemia trait and variant haemoglobins. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1999;52(9):697–700.
713. Cronin EK, Normand C, Henthorn JS, et al. Organisation and cost-effectiveness of antenatal haemoglobinopathy screening and follow up in a community-based programme. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 2000;107(4):486–91.
714. Rogers M, Phelan L, Bain B. Screening criteria for beta thalassaemia trait in pregnant women. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1995;48(11):1054–6.
715. Bain BJ. Screening of antenatal patients in a multiethnic community for beta thalassaemia trait. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1988;41(5):481–5.
716. Sirichotiyakul S, Maneerat J, Sa-nguanserm Sri T, et al. Sensitivity and specificity of mean corpuscular volume testing for screening for alpha-thalassaemia-1 and beta-thalassaemia traits. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Research* 2005;31(3):198–201.
717. Ghosh A, Woo JS, Wan CW, et al. Evaluation of a prenatal screening procedure for beta-thalassaemia carriers in a Chinese population based on the mean corpuscular volume (MCV). *Prenatal Diagnosis* 1985;5(1):59–65.
718. Sin SY, Ghosh A, Tang LC, et al. Ten years' experience of antenatal mean corpuscular volume screening and prenatal diagnosis for thalassaemias in Hong Kong. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Research* 2000;26(3):203–8.
719. Yeo GS, Tan KH, Liu TC. Screening for beta thalassaemia and HbE traits with the mean red cell volume in pregnant women. *Annals of the Academy of Medicine, Singapore* 1994;23(3):363–6.
720. Modell B, Darlison M, Khan M, et al. Role of genetic diagnosis registers in ongoing consultation with the community. *Community Genetics* 2000;3(3):144–7.
721. Ahmed S, Green JM, Hewison J. Attitudes towards prenatal diagnosis and termination of pregnancy for thalassaemia in pregnant Pakistani women in the North of England. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2006;26(3):248–57.
722. Ahmed S, Green J, Hewison J. Antenatal thalassaemia carrier testing: women's perceptions of "information" and "consent". *Journal of Medical Screening* 2005;12(2):69–77.
723. Durosinmi MA, Odebiyi AI, Akinola NO, et al. Acceptability of prenatal diagnosis of sickle cell anaemia by a sample of the Nigerian population. *African Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences* 1997;26(1–2):55–8.
724. Dyson SM, Culley L, Gill C, et al. Ethnicity questions and antenatal screening for sickle cell/thalassaemia [EQUANS] in England: a randomised controlled trial of two questionnaires. *Ethnicity and Health* 2006;11(2):169–89.
725. Greengross P, Hickman M, Gill M, et al. Outcomes of universal antenatal screening for haemoglobinopathies. *Journal of Medical Screening* 1999;6(1):3–10.
726. Thomas P, Oni L, Alli M, et al. Antenatal screening for haemoglobinopathies in primary care: a whole system participatory action research project. *British Journal of General Practice* 2005;55(515):424–8.
727. Eurenus K, Axelsson O, Cnattingius S, et al. Second trimester ultrasound screening performed by midwives; sensitivity for detection of fetal anomalies. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1999;78(2):98–104.
728. Stefanos T, Plachouras N, Sotiriadis A, et al. Routine obstetrical ultrasound at 18–22 weeks: our experience on 7,236 fetuses. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal Medicine* 1999;8(2):64–9.
729. Taipale P, Ammala M, Salonen R, et al. Two-stage ultrasonography in screening for fetal anomalies at 13–14 and 18–22 weeks of gestation. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2004;83(12):1141–6.
730. Nakling J and Backe B. Routine ultrasound screening and detection of congenital anomalies outside a university setting. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2005;84(11):1042–8.
731. Souka AP, Pilalis A, Kavalakis I, et al. Screening for major structural abnormalities at the 11- to 14-week ultrasound scan. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;194(2):393–6.
732. Nikkila A, Rydhstroem H, Kallen B, et al. Ultrasound screening for fetal anomalies in southern Sweden: a population-based study. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2006;85(6):688–93.
733. Stoll C, Clementi M, and EUROSCAN Study Group. Prenatal diagnosis of dysmorphic syndromes by routine fetal ultrasound examination across Europe. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;21(6):543–51.
734. Grandjean H, Larroque D, Levi S. The performance of routine ultrasonographic screening of pregnancies in the Eurofetus Study. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;181(2):446–54.
735. Levi S, Zhang WH, Alexander S, et al. Short-term outcome of isolated and associated congenital heart defects in relation to antenatal ultrasound screening. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;21(6):532–8.
736. Hughes PF, Agarwal M, Newman P, et al. An evaluation of fructosamine estimation in screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetic Medicine* 1995;12(8):708–12.
737. Zhang WH, Levi S, Alexander S, et al. Sensitivity of ultrasound screening for congenital anomalies in unselected pregnancies. *Revue d'Epidemiologie et de Sante Publique* 2002;50(6):571–80.

738. Smith NC and Hau C. A six year study of the antenatal detection of fetal abnormality in six Scottish health boards. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1999;106(3):206–12.
739. Taipale P, Ammala M, Salonen R, et al. Learning curve in ultrasonographic screening for selected fetal structural anomalies in early pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;101(2):273–8.
740. Carvalho MH, Brizot ML, Lopes LM, et al. Detection of fetal structural abnormalities at the 11–14 week ultrasound scan. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2002;22(1):1–4.
741. Tabor A, Zdravkovic M, Perslev A, et al. Screening for congenital malformations by ultrasonography in the general population of pregnant women: factors affecting the efficacy. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2003;82(12):1092–8.
742. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. Recommendations arising from the 26th Annual RCOG Study Group: Intrapartum Fetal Surveillance. 1998.
743. Whitlow BJ and Economides DL. First trimester detection of fetal abnormalities in an unselected population. *Contemporary Reviews in Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;10(4):245–53.
744. Srisupundit K, Tongsong T, Sirichotiyakul S, et al. Fetal structural anomaly screening at 11–14 weeks of gestation at Maharaj Nakorn Chiang Mai Hospital. *Journal of the Medical Association of Thailand* 2006;89(5):588–93.
745. Cedergren M and Selbing A. Detection of fetal structural abnormalities by an 11–14-week ultrasound dating scan in an unselected Swedish population. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2006;85(8):912–15.
746. Guariglia L and Rosati P. Transvaginal sonographic detection of embryonic-fetal abnormalities in early pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;96(3):328–32.
747. Westin M, Saltvedt S, Bergman G, et al. Routine ultrasound examination at 12 or 18 gestational weeks for prenatal detection of major congenital heart malformations? A randomised controlled trial comprising 36,299 fetuses. *BJOG: an international journal of obstetrics and gynaecology* 2006;113(6):675–82.
748. Saltvedt S, Almstrom H, Kublickas M, et al. Detection of malformations in chromosomally normal fetuses by routine ultrasound at 12 or 18 weeks of gestation—a randomised controlled trial in 39,572 pregnancies. *BJOG: an international journal of obstetrics and gynaecology* 2006;113(6):664–74.
749. Randall P, Brealey S, Hahn S, et al. Accuracy of fetal echocardiography in the routine detection of congenital heart disease among unselected and low risk populations: a systematic review. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2005;112(1):24–30.
750. Buskens E, Grobbee DE, Frohn-Mulder IM, et al. Efficacy of routine fetal ultrasound screening for congenital heart disease in normal pregnancy. *Circulation* 1996;94(1):67–72.
751. Tegnander E and Williams. Prenatal detection of heart defects in a non-selected population of 30,149 fetuses—detection rates and outcome. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;27(3):252–65.
752. Wessel H, Reitmaier P, Dupret A, et al. Deaths among women of reproductive age in Cape Verde: causes and avoidability. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 1999;78(3):225–32.
753. Khoshnood B, De VC, Vodovar V, et al. Trends in prenatal diagnosis, pregnancy termination, and perinatal mortality of newborns with congenital heart disease in France, 1983–2000: A population-based evaluation. *Pediatrics* 2005;115(1):95–101.
754. Makrydimas G, Sotiriadis A, Ioannidis JP. Screening performance of first-trimester nuchal translucency for major cardiac defects: a meta-analysis. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;189(5):1330–5.
755. Bahado-Singh RO, Wapner R, Thom E, et al. Elevated first-trimester nuchal translucency increases the risk of congenital heart defects. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;192(5):1357–61.
756. Atzei A, Gajewska K, Huggon IC, et al. Relationship between nuchal translucency thickness and prevalence of major cardiac defects in fetuses with normal karyotype. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;26(2):154–7.
757. Westin M. Is measurement of nuchal translucency thickness a useful screening tool for heart defects? A study of 16,383 fetuses. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;27(6):632–9.
758. Simpson LL, Malone FD, Bianchi DW, et al. Nuchal translucency and the risk of congenital heart disease. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2007;109(2 Pt 1):376–83.
759. Benn PA, Horne D, Craffey A, et al. Maternal serum screening for birth defects: results of a Connecticut regional program. *Connecticut Medicine* 1996;60(6):323–7.
760. Norem CT, Schoen EJ, Walton DL, et al. Routine ultrasonography compared with maternal serum alpha-fetoprotein for neural tube defect screening. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;106(4):747–52.
761. Cristofalo EA, DiPietro JA, Costigan KA, et al. Women’s response to fetal choroid plexus cysts detected by prenatal ultrasound. *Journal of Perinatology* 2006;26(4):215–23.
762. Kemp J, Davenport M, Pernet A. Antenatally diagnosed surgical anomalies: the psychological effect of parental antenatal counseling. *Journal of Pediatric Surgery* 1998;33(9):1376–9.
763. Hyett J, Perdu M, Sharland G, et al. Using fetal nuchal translucency to screen for major congenital cardiac defects at 10–14 weeks of gestation: population based cohort study. *British Medical Journal* 1999;318(7176):81–5.
764. Schwarzler P, Carvalho JS, Senat MV, et al. Screening for fetal aneuploidies and fetal cardiac abnormalities by nuchal translucency thickness measurement at 10–14 weeks of gestation as part of routine antenatal care in an unselected population. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 1999;106(10):1029–34.
765. Michailidis GD and Economides DL. Nuchal translucency measurement and pregnancy outcome in karyotypically normal fetuses. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;17(2):102–5.
766. Mavrides E, Cobian-Sanchez F, Tekay A, et al. Limitations of using first-trimester nuchal translucency measurement in routine screening for major congenital heart defects. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;17(2):106–10.
767. Crossley JA, Aitken DA, Cameron AD, et al. Combined ultrasound and biochemical screening for Down’s syndrome in the first trimester: a Scottish multicentre study. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 2002;109(6):667–76.
768. Nicolaides KH, Spencer K, Avgidou K, et al. Multicenter study of first-trimester screening for trisomy 21 in 75 821 pregnancies: results and estimation of the potential impact of individual risk-orientated two-stage first-trimester screening. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;25(3):221–6.
769. Wapner R, Thom E, Simpson JL, et al. First-trimester screening for trisomies 21 and 18. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2003;349(15):1405–13.
770. Stenhouse EJ, Crossley JA, Aitken DA, et al. First-trimester combined ultrasound and biochemical screening for Down syndrome in routine clinical practice. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2004;24(10):774–80.

771. Malone FD, Ball RH, Nyberg DA, et al. First-trimester nasal bone evaluation for aneuploidy in the general population. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;104(6):1222–8.
772. Cicero S, Avgidou K, Rembouskos G, et al. Nasal bone in first-trimester screening for trisomy 21. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;195(1):109–14.
773. Prefumo F, Sairam S, Bhide A, et al. First-trimester nuchal translucency, nasal bones, and trisomy 21 in selected and unselected populations. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;194(3):828–33.
774. Ramos-Corp, Santiago JC, Montoya F. Ultrasonographic evaluation of fetal nasal bone in a low-risk population at 11–13 + 6 gestational weeks. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2006;26(2):112–17.
775. Kozlowski P, Knippel AJ, Froehlich S, et al. Additional performance of nasal bone in first trimester screening: Nasal bone in first trimester screening. *Ultraschall in der Medizin* 2006;27(4):336–9.
776. Zoppi MA, Ibba RM, Axiana C, et al. Absence of fetal nasal bone and aneuploidies at first-trimester nuchal translucency screening in unselected pregnancies. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2003;23(6):496–500.
777. Viora E, Masturzo B, Errante G, et al. Ultrasound evaluation of fetal nasal bone at 11 to 14 weeks in a consecutive series of 1906 fetuses. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2003;23(10):784–7.
778. Rozenberg P. Screening for Down syndrome using first-trimester combined screening followed by second-trimester ultrasound examination in an unselected population. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;195(5):1379–87.
779. Weingertner AS, Kohler M, Firtion C, et al. Interest of foetal nasal bone measurement at first trimester trisomy 21 screening. *Fetal Diagnosis and Therapy* 2006;21(5):433–8.
780. Orlandi F, Rossi C, Orlandi E, et al. First-trimester screening for trisomy-21 using a simplified method to assess the presence or absence of the fetal nasal bone. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;192(4):1107–11.
781. Avgidou K, Papageorgiou A, Bindra R, et al. Prospective first-trimester screening for trisomy 21 in 30,564 pregnancies. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;192(6):1761–7.
782. Jaques AM, Collins VR, Haynes K, et al. Using record linkage and manual follow-up to evaluate the Victorian maternal serum screening quadruple test for Down's syndrome, trisomy 18 and neural tube defects. *Journal of Medical Screening* 2006;13(1):8–13.
783. Sotiriadis A, Makrydimas G, Ioannidis JP. Diagnostic performance of intracardiac echogenic foci for Down syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;101(5 Pt 1):1009–16.
784. Coco C and Jeanty P. Isolated fetal pyelectasis and chromosomal abnormalities. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;193(3 Pt 1):732–8.
785. Malone FD, Canick JA, Ball RH, et al. First-trimester or second-trimester screening, or both, for down's syndrome. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2005;353(19):2001–11.
786. Knight GJ, Palomaki GE, Neveux LM, et al. Integrated serum screening for Down syndrome in primary obstetric practice. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2005;25(12):1162–7.
787. Platt LD, Greene N, Johnson A, et al. Sequential pathways of testing after first-trimester screening for trisomy 21. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;104(4):661–6.
788. Gafvels C and Lithner F. Lifestyle as regards physical exercise, smoking and drinking, of adult insulin-treated diabetic people compared with non-diabetic controls. *Scandinavian Journal of Social Medicine* 1997;25(3):168–75.
789. Wright D, Bradbury I, Cuckle H, et al. Three-stage contingent screening for Down syndrome. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2006;26(6):528–34.
790. Wald NJ, Rudnicka AR, Bestwick JP. Sequential and contingent prenatal screening for Down syndrome. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2006;26(9):769–77.
791. Saltvedt S, Almstrom H, Kublickas M, et al. Screening for Down syndrome based on maternal age or fetal nuchal translucency: a randomized controlled trial in 39,572 pregnancies. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;25(6):537–45.
792. Biggio JR, Jr., Morris TC, Owen J, et al. An outcomes analysis of five prenatal screening strategies for trisomy 21 in women younger than 35 years. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;190(3):721–9.
793. Comstock CH, Malone FD, Ball RH, et al. Is there a nuchal translucency millimeter measurement above which there is no added benefit from first trimester serum screening? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;195(3):843–7.
794. Green JM, Hewison J, Bekker HL, et al. Psychosocial aspects of genetic screening of pregnant women and newborns: A systematic review. *Health Technology Assessment (Winchester, England)* 2004;8(33):iii–87.
795. Rowe HJ, Fisher JRW, Quinlivan JA. Are pregnant Australian women well informed about prenatal genetic screening? A systematic investigation using the Multidimensional Measure of Informed Choice. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2006;46(5):433–9.
796. Georgsson OS, Saltvedt S, Grunewald C, et al. Does fetal screening affect women's worries about the health of their baby? A randomized controlled trial of ultrasound screening for Down's syndrome versus routine ultrasound screening. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2004;83(7):634–40.
797. Lawson KL and Turriff-Jonasson SI. Maternal serum screening and psychosocial attachment to pregnancy. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research* 2006;60(4):371–8.
798. Rowe RE, Garcia J, Davidson LL. Social and ethnic inequalities in the offer and uptake of prenatal screening and diagnosis in the UK: a systematic review. *Public Health* 2004;118(3):177–89.
799. Dormandy E, Michie S, Hooper R, et al. Low uptake of prenatal screening for Down syndrome in minority ethnic groups and socially deprived groups: a reflection of women's attitudes or a failure to facilitate informed choices? *International Journal of Epidemiology* 2005;34(2):346–52.
800. Spencer K and Aitken D. Factors affecting women's preference for type of prenatal screening test for chromosomal anomalies. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;24(7):735–9.
801. Wald NJ, Bestwick JP, Morris JK. Cross-trimester marker ratios in prenatal screening for Down syndrome. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2006;26(6):514–23.
802. Gilbert RE, Augood C, Gupta R, et al. Screening for Down's syndrome: effects, safety, and cost effectiveness of first and second trimester strategies. *British Medical Journal* 2001; 323:1–6.
803. Roberts T, Mugford M, Piercy J. Choosing options for ultrasound screening in pregnancy and comparing cost effectiveness: a decision analysis approach. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1998;105(9):960–70.
804. Ritchie K, Bradbury I, Slatery J, et al. Economic modelling of antenatal screening and ultrasound scanning programmes for identification of fetal abnormalities. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2005;112(7):866–74.

805. Smith JW, Rogers RE, Katz BP, et al. Diagnosis of chlamydial infection in women attending antenatal and gynecologic clinics. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* 1987;25(5):868–72.
806. Baselski VS, McNeeley SG, Ryan. A comparison of nonculture-dependent methods for detection of Chlamydia trachomatis infections in pregnant women. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1987;70(1):47–52.
807. Stamm WE, Harrison HR, Alexander ER, et al. Diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis infections by direct immunofluorescence staining of genital secretions. A multicenter trial. *Annals of Internal Medicine* 1984;101(5):638–41.
808. Garland SM, Tabrizi S, Hallo. Assessment of Chlamydia trachomatis prevalence by PCR and LCR in women presenting for termination of pregnancy. *Sexually Transmitted Infections* 2000;76(3):173–6.
809. Andrews WW, Lee HH, Roden WJ, et al. Detection of genitourinary tract Chlamydia trachomatis infection in pregnant women by ligase chain reaction assay. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;89(4):556–60.
810. Thejls H, Gnarpe J, Gnarpe H, et al. Expanded gold standard in the diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis in a low prevalence population: diagnostic efficacy of tissue culture, direct immunofluorescence, enzyme immunoassay, PCR and serology. *Genitourinary Medicine* 1994;70(5):300–3.
811. Macmillan S and McKenzie. Parallel observation of four methods for screening women under 25 years of age for genital infection with Chlamydia trachomatis. *European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Reproductive Biology* 2003;107(1):68–73.
812. Renton A. Chlamydia trachomatis in cervical and vaginal swabs and urine specimens from women undergoing termination of pregnancy. *International Journal of STD and AIDS* 2006;17(7):443–7.
813. Hosein IK, Kaunitz AM, Craft SJ. Detection of cervical Chlamydia trachomatis and Neisseria gonorrhoeae with deoxyribonucleic acid probe assays in obstetric patients. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1992;167(3):588–91.
814. Yang LI, Panke ES, Leist PA, et al. Detection of Chlamydia trachomatis endocervical infection in asymptomatic and symptomatic women: comparison of deoxyribonucleic acid probe test with tissue culture. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1991;165(5 Pt 1):1444–53.
815. Asbill KK, Higgins RV, Bahrani-Mostafavi. Detection of Neisseria gonorrhoeae and Chlamydia trachomatis colonization of the gravid cervix... including commentary by Mammel JB with author response. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2000;183(2):340–6.
816. Spence MR. A correlative study of Papanicolaou smear, fluorescent antibody, and culture for the diagnosis of Chlamydia trachomatis. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1986;68(5):691–5.
817. Martin DH, Eschenbach DA, Cotch MF, et al. Double-blind placebo-controlled treatment trial of chlamydia trachomatis endocervical infections in pregnant women. *Infectious Diseases in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;5(1):10–17.
818. Ryan Jr GM, Abdella TN, McNeeley SG, et al. Chlamydia trachomatis infection in pregnancy and effect of treatment on outcome. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;162(1):34–9.
819. Cohen I, Veille J-C, Calkins BM. Improved pregnancy outcome following successful treatment of chlamydial infection. *JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association* 1990; 263:3160–3.
820. Black-Payne C, Ahrabi MM, Bocchini JA, Jr. et al. Treatment of Chlamydia trachomatis identified with Chlamydiazyme during pregnancy. Impact on perinatal complications and infants. *Journal of Reproductive Medicine* 1990;35(4):362–7.
821. Rivlin ME, Morrison JC, Grossman JH. Comparison of pregnancy outcome between treated and untreated women with chlamydial cervicitis. *Journal of the Mississippi State Medical Association* 1997;38(11):404–7.
822. McMillan JA, Weiner LB, Lamberson HV, et al. Efficacy of maternal screening and therapy in the prevention of chlamydia infection of the newborn. *Infection* 1985;13(6):263–6.
823. American Diabetes Association. Gestational Diabetes Mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 2004;27(SUPPL. 1):S88-S90.
824. Crowther CA, Hiller JE, Moss JR, et al.; Australian Carbohydrate Intolerance Study in Pregnant Women (ACHOIS) Trial Group. Effect of treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus on pregnancy outcomes. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2005;352(24):2477–86.
825. Mires GJ, Williams FL, Harper V. Screening practices for gestational diabetes mellitus in UK obstetric units. *Diabetic Medicine* 1999;16(2):138–41.
826. Nelson-Piercy C and Gale EAM. Do we know how to screen for gestational diabetes? Current practice in one regional health authority. *Diabetic Medicine* 1994;11(5):493–8.
827. Chiaffarino F, Parazzini F, Bortolotti A, et al. Debate over screening for gestational diabetes. Scientific uncertainty is mirrored in clinical practice in Italy. *British Medical Journal* 1998;316(7134):861.
828. Rouse DJ, Owen J, Goldenberg RL, et al. The effectiveness and costs of elective cesarean delivery for fetal macrosomia diagnosed by ultrasound. *JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association* 1996;276(18):1480–6.
829. Dornhorst A, Paterson CM, Nicholls JSD, et al. High prevalence of gestational diabetes in women from ethnic minority groups. *Diabetic Medicine* 1992; 9:820–5.
830. Moses R, Griffiths R, Davis W. Gestational diabetes: do all women need to be tested? *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1995;35(4):387–9.
831. Davey RX and Hamblin PS. Selective versus universal screening for gestational diabetes mellitus: an evaluation of predictive risk factors. *Medical Journal of Australia* 2001;174(3):118–21.
832. Griffin ME, Coffey M, Johnson H, et al. Universal vs. risk factor-based screening for gestational diabetes mellitus: detection rates, gestation at diagnosis and outcome. *Diabetic Medicine* 2000;17(1):26–32.
833. Schytte T, Jorgensen LG, Brandslund I, et al. The clinical impact of screening for gestational diabetes. *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine* 2004;42(9):1036–42.
834. Weijers RN, Bekedam DJ, Goldschmidt HM, et al. The clinical usefulness of glucose tolerance testing in gestational diabetes to predict early postpartum diabetes mellitus. *Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine* 2006;44(1):99–104.
835. Ostlund I and Hanson U. Occurrence of gestational diabetes mellitus and the value of different screening indicators for the oral glucose tolerance test. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2003;82(2):103–8.
836. Kim C, Berger DK, Chamany S. Recurrence of gestational diabetes mellitus: a systematic review. *Diabetes Care* 2007;30(5):1314–19.
837. Ostlund I and Hanson U. Repeated random blood glucose measurements as universal screening test for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2004;83(1):46–51.
838. Nasrat AA, Johnstone FD, Hasan SAM. Is random plasma glucose an efficient screening test for abnormal glucose tolerance in pregnancy? *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 1988; 95:855–60.
839. Lind T. Antenatal screening using random blood glucose values. *Diabetes* 1985; 34 Suppl 2:17–20.

840. Seshiah V, Balaji V, Balaji MS, et al. Gestational diabetes mellitus in India. *Journal of the Association of Physicians of India* 2004; 52:707–11.
841. Cetin M and Cetin A. Time-dependent gestational diabetes screening values. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 1997;56(3):257–61.
842. O'Sullivan JB, Mahan CM, Charles D, et al. Screening criteria for high-risk gestational diabetic patients. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1973;116(7):895–900.
843. Buhling KJ, Henrich W, Kjos SL, et al. Comparison of point-of-care-testing glucose meters with standard laboratory measurement of the 50g-glucose-challenge test (GCT) during pregnancy. *Clinical Biochemistry* 2003;36(5):333–7.
844. Murphy NJ, Meyer BA, O'Kell RT, et al. Carbohydrate sources for gestational diabetes mellitus screening. A comparison. *Journal of Reproductive Medicine* 1994;39(12):977–81.
845. Court DJ, Mann SL, Stone PR, et al. Comparison of glucose polymer and glucose for screening and tolerance tests in pregnancy. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1985;66(4):491–9.
846. Fadl H, Ostlund I, Nilsson K, et al. Fasting capillary glucose as a screening test for gestational diabetes mellitus. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2006;113(9):1067–71.
847. Lamar ME, Kuehl TJ, Cooney AT, et al. Jelly beans as an alternative to a fifty-gram glucose beverage for gestational diabetes screening. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;181(5 Pt 1):1154–7.
848. Boyd KL, Ross EK, Sherman SJ. Jelly beans as an alternative to a cola beverage containing fifty grams of glucose. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;173(6):1889–92.
849. Rajab KE and Mehdi S. Pregnancy outcome among gestational diabetics with blood glucose levels between 7.7 and 8.3 mmol/l. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 1998;63(1):59–61.
850. Yogev Y, Langer O, Xenakis EM, et al. The association between glucose challenge test, obesity and pregnancy outcome in 6390 non-diabetic women. *Journal of Maternal-Fetal and Neonatal Medicine* 2005;17(1):29–34.
851. Dietrich ML, Dolnicek TF, Rayburn WF. Gestational diabetes screening in a private, midwestern American population. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1987;156(6):1403–8.
852. Sun B, Wang X, Song Q, et al. Prospective studies on the relationship between the 50 g glucose challenge test and pregnant outcome. *Chinese Medical Journal* 1995;108(12):910–13.
853. Rumbold AR. Women's experiences of being screened for gestational diabetes mellitus. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2002;42(2):131–7.
854. Kerbel D, Glazier R, Holzapfel S, et al. Adverse effects of screening for gestational diabetes: a prospective cohort study in Toronto, Canada. *Journal of Medical Screening* 1997;4(3):128–32.
855. Naylor CD, Sermer M, Chen E, et al. Selective screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1997;337(22):1591–6.
856. Rayner M, Petersen S, Buckley C, Press V. Coronary heart disease statistics: diabetes supplement. British Heart Foundation; 2001.
857. Yaron Y, Cherry M, Kramer RL, et al. Second-trimester maternal serum marker screening: Maternal serum alpha-fetoprotein, beta-human chorionic gonadotropin, estriol, and their various combinations as predictors of pregnancy outcome. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;181(4):968–74.
858. Pouta AM, Hartikainen AL, Vuolteenaho OJ, et al. Midtrimester N-terminal proatrial natriuretic peptide, free beta hCG, and alpha-fetoprotein in predicting preeclampsia. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;91(6):940–4.
859. Cotter AM, Martin CM, O'leary JJ, et al. Increased fetal DNA in the maternal circulation in early pregnancy is associated with an increased risk of preeclampsia. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2004;191(2):515–20.
860. Leung TN, Zhang J, Lau TK, et al. Increased maternal plasma fetal DNA concentrations in women who eventually develop preeclampsia. *Clinical Chemistry* 2001;47(1):137–9.
861. Lambert-Messerlian GM, Silver HM, Petraglia F, et al. Second-trimester levels of maternal serum human chorionic gonadotropin and inhibin A as predictors of preeclampsia in the third trimester of pregnancy. *Journal of the Society for Gynecologic Investigation* 2000;7(3):170–4.
862. Ashour AM, Lieberman ES, Haug LE, et al. The value of elevated second-trimester beta-human chorionic gonadotropin in predicting development of preeclampsia. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;176(2):438–42.
863. Sanchez-Ramos L, Jones DC, Cullen MT. Urinary calcium as an early marker for preeclampsia. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1991;77(5):685–8.
864. Baker PN and Hackett GA. The use of urinary albumin-creatinine ratios and calcium-creatinine ratios as screening tests for pregnancy-induced hypertension. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994;83(5 Pt 1):745–9.
865. Rogers MS, Chung T, Baldwin S, et al. A comparison of second trimester urinary electrolytes, microalbumin, and N-acetyl-beta-glucosaminidase for prediction of gestational hypertension and preeclampsia. *Hypertension in Pregnancy* 1994;13(2):179–92.
866. Conde-Agudelo A, Belizan JM, Ledo R, et al. Prediction of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy by calcium/creatinine ratio and other laboratory tests. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 1994;47(3):285–6.
867. Kazerooni T and Hamze-Nejadi S. Calcium to creatinine ratio in a spot sample of urine for early prediction of pre-eclampsia. *International Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 2003;80(3):279–83.
868. Papageorghiou AT, Yu CK, Bindra R, et al. Multicenter screening for pre-eclampsia and fetal growth restriction by transvaginal uterine artery Doppler at 23 weeks of gestation. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;18(5):441–9.
869. Harrington K, Carpenter RG, Goldfrad C, et al. Transvaginal Doppler ultrasound of the uteroplacental circulation in the early prediction of pre-eclampsia and intrauterine growth retardation. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1997;104(6):674–81.
870. Marchesoni D, Pezzani I, Springolo F, et al. The use of uterine artery Doppler as a screening test for pre-eclampsia. *Italian Journal of Gynaecology and Obstetrics* 2003;15(1):15–20.
871. Schwarze A, Nelles I, Krapp M, et al. Doppler ultrasound of the uterine artery in the prediction of severe complications during low-risk pregnancies. *Archives of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 2005;271(1):46–52.
872. Ay E, Kavak ZN, Elter K, et al. Screening for pre-eclampsia by using maternal serum inhibin A, activin A, human chorionic gonadotropin, unconjugated estriol, and alpha-fetoprotein levels and uterine artery Doppler in the second trimester of pregnancy. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2005;45(4):283–8.
873. Audibert F, Benchimol Y, Benattar C, et al. Prediction of preeclampsia or intrauterine growth restriction by second trimester serum screening and uterine Doppler velocimetry. *Fetal Diagnosis and Therapy* 2005;20(1):48–53.

874. Conde-Agudelo A and Belizan JM. Maternal morbidity and mortality associated with interpregnancy interval: cross sectional study. *British Medical Journal* 2000;321(7271):1255–9.
875. Basso O, Christensen K, Olsen J. Higher risk of pre-eclampsia after change of partner. An effect of longer interpregnancy intervals? *Epidemiology* 2001;12(6):624–9.
876. Reiss RE, O'Shaughnessy RW, Quilligan TJ, et al. Retrospective comparison of blood pressure course during preeclamptic and matched control pregnancies. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1987;156(4):894–8.
877. Sibai BM, Gordon T, Thom E, et al. Risk factors for preeclampsia in healthy nulliparous women: a prospective multicenter study. The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Network of Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;172(2 Pt 1):642–8.
878. Odegard RA, Vatten LJ, Nilsen ST, et al. Risk factors and clinical manifestations of pre-eclampsia. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 2000;107(11):1410–16.
879. Stettler RW and Cunningham FG. Natural history of chronic proteinuria complicating pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1992;167(5):1219–24.
880. Goldenberg RL. The preterm prediction study: the value of new vs standard risk factors in predicting early and all spontaneous preterm births. NICHD MFMU Network. *American Journal of Public Health* 1998;88(2):233–8.
881. Iams JD, Goldenberg RL, Mercer BM, et al. The Preterm Prediction Study: recurrence risk of spontaneous preterm birth. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units Network. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;178(5):1035–40.
882. Kristensen J, Langhoff-Roos J, Kristensen FB. Implications of idiopathic preterm delivery for previous and subsequent pregnancies. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;86(5):800–4.
883. Iams JD, Goldenberg RL, Mercer BM. The preterm prediction study: can low-risk women destined for spontaneous preterm birth be identified? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001; 184:652–5.
884. Blondel B, Le Coutour X, Kaminski M, et al. Prediction of preterm delivery: is it substantially improved by routine vaginal examinations? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990; 162:1042–8.
885. Chambers S, Pons JC, Richard A, et al. Vaginal infections, cervical ripening and preterm delivery. *European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 1991;38(2):103–8.
886. PARIKH MN and Mehta AC. Internal cervical os during the second half of pregnancy. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology of the British Empire* 1961; 68:818–21.
887. Leveno KJ, Cox K, Roark ML. Cervical dilatation and prematurity revisited. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1986;68(3):434–5.
888. Heath VC, Daskalakis G, Zagaliki A, et al. Cervicovaginal fibronectin and cervical length at 23 weeks of gestation: relative risk of early preterm delivery. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2000;107(10):1276–81.
889. Chang TC, Chew TS, Pang M, et al. Cervicovaginal foetal fibronectin in the prediction of preterm labour in a low-risk population. *Annals of the Academy of Medicine, Singapore* 1997;26(6):776–80.
890. Faron G, Boulvain M, Lescrainier JP, et al. A single cervical fetal fibronectin screening test in a population at low risk for preterm delivery: an improvement on clinical indicators? *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1997;104(6):697–701.
891. Daskalakis G, Papapanagiotou A, Mesogitis S, et al. Bacterial vaginosis and group B streptococcal colonization and preterm delivery in a low-risk population. *Fetal Diagnosis and Therapy* 2006;21(2):172–6.
892. Crane JM, Armson BA, Dodds L, et al. Risk scoring, fetal fibronectin, and bacterial vaginosis to predict preterm delivery. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;93(4):517–22.
893. Lockwood CJ, Ghidini A, Wein R, et al. Increased interleukin-6 concentrations in cervical secretions are associated with preterm delivery. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994;171(4):1097–102.
894. Inglis SR, Jeremias J, Kuno K, et al. Detection of tumor necrosis factor-alpha, interleukin-6, and fetal fibronectin in the lower genital tract during pregnancy: relation to outcome. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994;171(1):5–10.
895. Goepfert AR, Goldenberg RL, Andrews WW, et al. The Preterm Prediction Study: association between cervical interleukin 6 concentration and spontaneous preterm birth. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units Network. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;184(3):483–8.
896. Sakai M, Sasaki Y, Yoneda S, et al. Elevated interleukin-8 in cervical mucus as an indicator for treatment to prevent premature birth and preterm, pre-labor rupture of membranes: a prospective study. *American Journal of Reproductive Immunology* 2004;51(3):220–5.
897. Sakai M, Ishiyama A, Tabata M, et al. Relationship between cervical mucus interleukin-8 concentrations and vaginal bacteria in pregnancy. *American Journal of Reproductive Immunology* 2004;52(2):106–12.
898. Simpson JL, Palomaki GE, Mercer B, et al. Associations between adverse perinatal outcome and serially obtained second- and third-trimester maternal serum alpha-fetoprotein measurements. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;173(6):1742–8.
899. Dugoff L, Hobbins JC, Malone FD, et al. Quad screen as a predictor of adverse pregnancy outcome. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;106(2):260–7.
900. Morsink LP, Kornman LH, Beekhuis JR, et al. Abnormal levels of maternal serum human chorionic gonadotropin and alpha-fetoprotein in the second trimester: relation to fetal weight and preterm delivery.[see comment]. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 1995;15(11):1041–6.
901. Ong CYT, Liao AW, Spencer K, et al. First trimester maternal serum free beta human chorionic gonadotrophin and pregnancy associated plasma protein a as predictors of pregnancy complications. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology* 2000;107(10):1265–70.
902. Yaron Y, Ochshorn Y, Heifetz S, et al. First trimester maternal serum free human chorionic gonadotropin as a predictor of adverse pregnancy outcome. *Fetal Diagnosis and Therapy* 2002;17(6):352–6.
903. Hvilson GB, Thorsen P, Jeune B, et al. C-reactive protein: a serological marker for preterm delivery? *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica* 2002;81(5):424–9.
904. Karinen L, Pouta A, Bloigu A, et al. Serum C-reactive protein and Chlamydia trachomatis antibodies in preterm delivery. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;106(1):73–80.
905. Wren BG. Subclinical renal infection and prematurity. *Medical Journal of Australia* 1969; 1:596–600.
906. Robertson JG, Livingstone JR, Isdale MH. The management and complications of asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. Report of a study on 8,275 patients. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology of the British Commonwealth* 1968;75(1):59–65.
907. Uncu Y, Uncu G, Esmer A, et al. Should asymptomatic bacteriuria be screened in pregnancy? *Clinical and Experimental Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2002;29(4):281–5.

908. LAYTON R. INFECTION OF THE URINARY TRACT IN PREGNANCY: AN INVESTIGATION OF A NEW ROUTINE IN ANTENATAL CARE. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology of the British Commonwealth* 1964; 71:927–33.
909. Klebanoff MA, Hillier SL, Nugent RP, et al. Is bacterial vaginosis a stronger risk factor for preterm birth when it is diagnosed earlier in gestation? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;192(2):470–7.
910. Hillier SL, Nugent RP, Eschenbach DA, et al. Association between bacterial vaginosis and preterm delivery of a low-birth-weight infant. The Vaginal Infections and Prematurity Study Group.[see comment]. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1995;333(26):1737–42.
911. Purwar M, Ughade S, Bhagat B, et al. Bacterial vaginosis in early pregnancy and adverse pregnancy outcome. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology Research* 2001;27(4):175–81.
912. Taipale P and Hiilesmaa V. Sonographic measurement of uterine cervix at 18–22 weeks' gestation and the risk of preterm delivery. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1998;92(6):902–7.
913. Leung TN, Pang MW, Leung TY, et al. Cervical length at 18–22 weeks of gestation for prediction of spontaneous preterm delivery in Hong Kong Chinese women. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2005;26(7):713–17.
914. Fukami T, Ishihara K, Sekiya T, et al. Is transvaginal ultrasonography at mid-trimester useful for predicting early spontaneous preterm birth? *Journal of Nippon Medical School = Nihon Ika Daigaku Zasshi* 2003;70(2):135–40.
915. To MS, Skentou C, Liao AW, et al. Cervical length and funneling at 23 weeks of gestation in the prediction of spontaneous early preterm delivery. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2001;18(3):200–3.
916. Bais JM, Eskes M, Pel M, et al. Effectiveness of detection of intrauterine growth retardation by abdominal palpation as screening test in a low risk population: an observational study. *European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology, and Reproductive Biology* 2004;116(2):164–9.
917. Secher NJ, Lundbye-Christensen S, Qvist. An evaluation of clinical estimation of fetal weight and symphysis fundal distance for detection of SGA infants. *European Journal of Obstetrics Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 1991;38(2):91–6.
918. Rosenberg K. Measurement of fundal height as a screening test for fetal growth retardation. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1982;89(6):447–50.
919. Persson B, Stangenberg M, Lunell NO, Brodin U, Holmberg NG, Vaclavinkova V. Prediction of size of infants at birth by measurement of symphysis fundus height. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1986;93(3):206–11.
920. Harding K. Screening for the small fetus: A study of the relative efficacies of ultrasound biometry and symphysiofundal height. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1995;35(2):160–4.
921. Grover V. Altered fetal growth: Antenatal diagnosis by symphysis-fundal height in India and comparison with western charts. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 1991;35(3):231–4.
922. Rogers MS. Evaluation of fundal height measurement in antenatal care. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1985;25(2):87–90.
923. Warsof SL, Cooper DJ, Little D, Campbell S. Routine ultrasound screening for antenatal detection of intrauterine growth retardation. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1986;67(1):33–9.
924. Skovron ML, Berkowitz GS, Lapinski RH, et al. Evaluation of early third-trimester ultrasound screening for intrauterine growth retardation. *Journal of Ultrasound in Medicine* 1991;10(3):153–9.
925. Newnham JP, Patterson LL, James IR, et al. An evaluation of the efficacy of Doppler flow velocity waveform analysis as a screening test in pregnancy. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;162(2):403–10.
926. Hedriana HL. A comparison of single versus multiple growth ultrasonographic examinations in predicting birth weight. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994;170(6):1600–4.
927. Lin CC. The association between oligohydramnios and intrauterine growth retardation. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1990;76(6):1100–4.
928. Chauhan SP, Scardo JA, Hendrix NW, et al. Accuracy of sonographically estimated fetal weight with and without oligohydramnios. A case-control study. *Journal of Reproductive Medicine* 1999;44(11):969–73.
929. Beattie RB. Antenatal screening for intrauterine growth retardation with umbilical artery Doppler ultrasonography. *British Medical Journal* 1989;298(6674):631–5.
930. Todros T. Performance of Doppler ultrasonography as a screening test in low risk pregnancies: results of a multicentric study. *Journal of Ultrasound in Medicine* 1995;14(5):343–8.
931. Sijmons EA, Reuwer PJ, van BE, et al. The validity of screening for small-for-gestational-age and low-weight-for-length infants by Doppler ultrasound. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1989;96(5):557–61.
932. Atkinson MW, Maher JE, Owen. The predictive value of umbilical artery Doppler studies for preeclampsia or fetal growth retardation in a preeclampsia prevention trial. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994;83(4):609–12.
933. Owen P. Prediction of intrauterine growth restriction with customised estimated fetal weight centiles. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2003;110(4):411–15.
934. Okonofua FE, Ayangade SO, Chan RCW, et al. A prospective comparison of clinical and ultrasonic methods of predicting normal and abnormal fetal growth. *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 1986;24(6):447–51.
935. Ott WJ. Ultrasonic diagnosis of altered fetal growth by use of a normal ultrasonic fetal weight curve. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1984;63(2):201–4.
936. Smith-Bindman R. US evaluation of fetal growth: prediction of neonatal outcomes. *Radiology* 2002;223(1):153–61.
937. Stratton JF, Scanhill SN, Stuart B, et al. Are babies of normal birth weight who fail to reach their growth potential as diagnosed by ultrasound at increased risk? *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1995;5(2):114–18.
938. Zhang J. Isolated oligohydramnios is not associated with adverse perinatal outcomes. *BJOG: an international journal of obstetrics and gynaecology* 2004;111(3):220–5.
939. Biggio JR, Wenstrom KD, Dubard MB, et al. Hydramnios prediction of adverse perinatal outcome. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;94(5 Pt 1):773–7.
940. Clausson B, Gardosi J, Francis A, et al. Perinatal outcome in SGA births defined by customised versus population-based birthweight standards. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2001;108(8):830–4.
941. Zhang X, Platt RW, Cnattingius S, et al. The use of customised versus population-based birthweight standards in predicting perinatal mortality. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2007;114(4):474–7.
942. Confidential Enquiry into Maternal and Child Health. Why Mothers Die 2000 – 2002: the Sixth Report of the Confidential Enquiries into Maternal Deaths in the United Kingdom. London: RCOG Press; 2004.

943. Department of Health. National Service Framework for Children, Young People and Maternity Services – Core Standards. London: Department of Health; 2004.
944. Sullivan ID. Prenatal diagnosis of structural heart disease: does it make a difference to survival? *Heart* 2002;87(5):-6, 2002.
945. Wren C, Birrell G, Hawthorne G. Cardiovascular malformations in infants of diabetic mothers. *Heart* 2003;89(10):1217–20.
946. Smith RS, Comstock CH, Lorenz RP, et al. Maternal diabetes mellitus: which views are essential for fetal echocardiography? *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1997;90(4 Pt 1):575–9.
947. Ogge G, Gaglioti P, Maccanti S, et al. Prenatal screening for congenital heart disease with four-chamber and outflow-tract views: A multicenter study. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;28(6):779–84.
948. Poncet B, Touzet S, Rocher L, et al. Cost-effectiveness analysis of gestational diabetes mellitus screening in France. *European Journal of Obstetrics, Gynecology and Reproductive Biology* 2002;103(2):122–9.
949. Di CG, Volpe L, Casadidio I, et al. Universal screening and intensive metabolic management of gestational diabetes: cost-effectiveness in Italy. *Acta Diabetologica* 2002;39(2):69–73.
950. Nicholson WK, Fleisher LA, Fox HE, et al. Screening for gestational diabetes mellitus: a decision and cost-effectiveness analysis of four screening strategies. *Diabetes Care* 2005;28(6):1482–4.
951. Scott DA, Loveman E, McIntyre L, et al. Screening for gestational diabetes: a systematic review and economic evaluation. *Health Technology Assessment* 2002;6(11):1–172.
952. Reed BD. Screening for gestational diabetes—analysis by screening criteria. *Journal of Family Practice* 1984;19(6):751–5.
953. Massion C, O'Connor PJ, Gorab R, et al. Screening for gestational diabetes in a high-risk population. *Journal of Family Practice* 1987;25(6):569–75.
954. Lavin JP, Barden TP, Miodovnik M. Clinical experience with a screening program for gestational diabetes. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1981;141(5):491–4.
955. Larijani B, Hossein-nezhad A, Vassigh A-R. Effect of varying threshold and selective versus universal strategies on the cost in gestational diabetes mellitus. *Archives of Iranian Medicine* 2004;7(4):267–71.
956. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health. *Fertility: Assessment and Management for People with Fertility Problems*. London: RCOG Press; 2004.
957. Coustan DR. Methods of screening for and diagnosing of gestational diabetes. *Clinics in Perinatology* 1993;20(3):593–602.
958. Weeks JW, Major CA, de Veciana M, et al. Gestational diabetes: Does the presence of risk factors influence perinatal outcome? *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1994; 171:1003–7.
959. Curtis L, Netten A. *Unit Costs of Health and Social Care*. Canterbury: Personal and Social Services Research Unit University of Kent at Canterbury; 2006.
960. Davies LM and Drummond MF. Management of labour: consumer choice and cost implications. *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1991;11(Suppl 1):s28–s33.
961. Langer O, Conway DL, Berkus MD, et al. A comparison of glyburide and insulin in women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2000;343(16):1134–8.
962. Briggs A, Claxton K, Sculpher M. *Decision Modelling for Health Economic Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2006.
963. Goetzl L and Wilkins I. Glyburide compared to insulin for the treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus: A cost analysis. *Journal of Perinatology* 2002;22(5):403–6.
964. UK National Screening Committee. *Antenatal Screening: Working Standards Incorporating Those for the National Down Syndrome Screening Programme for England*. 2004.
965. Rosen DJD, Kedar I, Amiel A, et al. A negative second trimester triple test and absence of specific ultrasonographic markers may decrease the need for genetic amniocentesis in advanced maternal age by 60%. *Prenatal Diagnosis* 2002;22(1):59–63.
966. Binns B. Screening for Chlamydia trachomatis infection in a pregnancy counseling clinic. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1988;159(5):1144–9.
967. National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. *Improving the Nutrition of Pregnant and Breastfeeding Mothers in Low-Income Households*. Public Health Guidance 11. London: NICE; 2008.
968. Matsuoka LY, Wortsman J, Dannenberg MJ, Hollis BW, Lu Z and Holick MF. Clothing prevents ultraviolet-B radiation-dependent photosynthesis of vitamin D3. *Journal of Clinical Endocrinology and Metabolism* 1992;75(4):1099–103.
969. Dunnigan MG, Henderson JB, Hole DJ and Berry JL. Meat consumption reduces the risk of nutritional rickets and osteomalacia. *Brit J Nutr* 2005;94:983–91.
970. Finch PJ, Ang L, Colston KW, Nisbet J and Maxwell JD. Blunted seasonal variation in serum 25-hydroxy vitamin D and increased risk of osteomalacia in vegetarian London Asians. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 1992;46(7):509–15.
971. Brooke OG, Brown IR, Bone CD, Carter ND, Cleeve HJ, Maxwell JD, et al. Vitamin D supplements in pregnant Asian women: effects on calcium status and fetal growth. *British Medical Journal* 1980;280(6216):751–4.
972. Brooke OG, Butters F and Wood C. Intrauterine vitamin D nutrition and postnatal growth in Asian infants. *British Medical Journal* 1981;283:1024.
973. Maxwell JD, Ang L, Brooke OG and Brown IR. Vitamin D supplements enhance weight gain and nutritional status in pregnant Asians. *British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 1981;88:987–91.
974. Cockburn F, Belton NR and Purvis RJ. Maternal vitamin D intake and mineral metabolism in mothers and their newborn infants. *British Medical Journal*. 1980;281(6232):11–14.
975. Datta S, Alfaham M, Davies DP, Dunstan F, Woodhead S, Evans J and Richards B. Vitamin D deficiency in pregnant women from a non-European ethnic minority population—an interventional study. *BJOG* 2002;109(8):905–8.
976. Mallet E, Gugi B, Brunelle P, Henocq A, Basuyau JP and Lemeur H. Vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy: a controlled trial of two methods. *Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1986;68(3):300–4.
977. Delvin EE, Salle BL, Glorieux FH, Adeleine P and David LS. Vitamin D supplementation during pregnancy: effect on neonatal calcium homeostasis. *The Journal of Pediatrics* 1986;109(2):328–34.
978. Greer FR and Marshall S. Bone mineral content, serum vitamin D metabolite concentrations, and ultraviolet B light exposure in infants fed human milk with and without vitamin D2 supplements. *The Journal of Pediatrics* 1989;114(2):204–12.
979. Greer FR, Searcy JE and Levin RS. Bone mineral content and serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration in breast-fed infants with and without supplemental vitamin D. *Journal of Pediatrics* 1981;98(5):696–701.

980. Greer FR, Searcy JE, Levin RS, Steichen JJ, Steichen-Asche PS and Tsang RC. Bone mineral content and serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations in breast-fed infants with and without supplemental vitamin D: one-year follow-up. *Journal of Pediatrics* 1982;100(6):919–22.
981. Congdon P, Horsman A and Kirby PA. Mineral content of the forearms of babies born to Asian and white mothers. *British Medical Journal* 1983;286(6373):1233–5.
982. Pietrek J, Preece MA, Windo J, O’Riordan JL, Dunnigan MG, McIntosh WB and Ford JA. Prevention of vitamin-D deficiency in Asians. *Lancet* 1976;1(7970):1145–8.
983. Stephens WP, Klimiuk PS, Berry JL and Mawer EB. Annual high-dose vitamin D prophylaxis in Asian immigrants. *Lancet* 1981;2(8257):1199–202.
984. Ala-Houhala M. 25-Hydroxyvitamin D levels during breast-feeding with or without maternal or infantile supplementation of vitamin D. *Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition* 1985;4(2):220–6.
985. Greer FR and Marshall S. Bone mineral content, serum vitamin D metabolite concentrations, and ultraviolet B light exposure in infants fed human milk with and without vitamin D2 supplements. *The Journal of Pediatrics* 1989;114(2):204–12.
986. Hollis BW and Wagner CL. Vitamin D requirements during lactation: high-dose maternal supplementation as therapy to prevent hypovitaminosis D for both the mother and the nursing infant. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2004;80(6 Suppl):1752S–8S.
987. Smail F and Vazquez JC. Antibiotics for asymptomatic bacteriuria in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2007;CD000490(2).
988. Crowther CA, Hiller JE, Moss JR, et al. Effect of treatment of gestational diabetes mellitus on pregnancy outcomes. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2005;352(24):2477–86.
989. Joint Formulary Committee. *British National Formulary*. 52nd ed. London: British Medical Association and Royal Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain; 2006.
990. NHS Sickle Cell and Thalassaemia Screening Programme. Personal communication, March 2008.
991. Danilenko-Dixon D, Van Winter J, Nelson R, Ogburn P. Universal versus selective gestational diabetes screening: application of 1997 American Diabetes Association recommendations. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 1999;181:798–802.
992. Williams CB, Iqbal S, Zawacki CM, Yu D, Brown MB, Herman WH. Effect of selective screening for gestational diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 1999;22:418–21.
993. Davies L and Drummond M. *The Costs of Induction of Labour by Prostaglandin E₂ or Oxytocin: Refining the Estimates*. York: University of York; 1993.
994. Redshaw M, Rowe R, Hockley C and Brocklehurst P. *Recorded Delivery: a National Survey of Women’s Experience of Maternity Care*. Oxford: National Perinatal Epidemiology Unit, University of Oxford; 2007.
995. Javaid, MK, Crozier R, Harvey NC, Gale CR, Dennison EM, Boucher BJ, et al.; Princess Anne Hospital Study Group. Maternal vitamin D status during pregnancy and childhood bone mass at age 9 years: a longitudinal study. *Lancet* 2006;367(9504):36–43.
996. Devereux G, Litonjua AA, Turner SW, et al. Maternal vitamin D intake during pregnancy and early childhood wheezing. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2007;85:853–9.
997. Gale CR, Robinson SM, Harvey MC, et al. Maternal vitamin D status during pregnancy and child outcomes. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2007;1–10.
998. Department of Health. *Dietary Reference Values for Food Energy and Nutrients for the United Kingdom*. Report of the panel on dietary reference values of the Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy. London: HMSO; 1991.
999. NCSSG. *New Frontiers: Annual Report of the National Chlamydia Screening Programme in England 2005/06*. London: HPA; 2006.
1000. Streetly A and Dick M. Screening for haemoglobinopathies. *Current Paediatrics* 2005;15(1):32–9.
1001. Lu MC, Tache V, Alexander GR, Kotelchuck M, Halfon N. Preventing low birth weight: is prenatal care the answer? *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2003;13(6):362–80.
1002. Gueorguieva RV, Sarkar NP, Carter RL, Ariet M, Roth J, Resnick MB. A risk assessment screening test for very low birth weight. *Maternal and Child Health Journal* 2003;7(2):127–36.
1003. Gomez JL, Young BK. A weighted risk index for antenatal prediction of perinatal outcome. *J Perinat Med* 2002;30(2):137–42.
1004. Nelson HD, Nygren MA, Mnlnerney Y, Klein J. Screening women and elderly adults for family and intimate partner violence. US Preventive Services Task Force. 2007 [www.ahrq.gov/clinic/3rduspstf/famviolence/famviolrev.htm].
1005. McDonnell E, Geary M, O’Reilly M, Collins C, Holohan M, Ward L. Acceptability of routine enquiry regarding domestic violence in the antenatal clinic. *Ir Med J* 2006;99(4).
1006. Anderson BA, Marshak HH, Hebbeler DL. Identifying intimate partner violence at entry to prenatal care: clustering routine clinical information. *J Midwifery Womens Health* 2002;47(5):353–9.
1007. Webster J, Holt V. Screening for partner violence: direct questioning or self-report? *Obstet Gynecol* 2004;103(2):299–303.
1008. Carroll JC, Reid AJ, Biringer A, Midmer D, Glazier RH, Wilson L et al. Effectiveness of the antenatal psychosocial health assessment (ALPHA) form in detecting psychosocial concerns: A randomized controlled trial. *CMAJ: Canadian Medical Association Journal* 2005;173(3):253–9.
1009. Carroli G, Rooney C, Villar J. How effective is antenatal care in preventing maternal mortality and serious morbidity? An overview of the evidence. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 2001;15 Suppl 1:1–42.
1010. Stahl K, Hundley V. Risk and risk assessment in pregnancy - do we scare because we care? *Midwifery* 2003;19(4):298–309.
1011. Cancer Research UK. *SunSmart: Stay Safe*. 2006 [www.cancerresearchuk.org/sunsmart/staysafe/children/].
1012. NHS Direct. *Cancer of the Skin: Prevention*. 2006. [www.nhsdirect.nhs.uk/articles/article.aspx?articleId=83§ionId=6120].
1013. Zlotkin S. Vitamin D concentrations in Asian children living in England. Limited vitamin D intake and use of sunscreens may lead to rickets. *British Medical Journal* 1999;318(7195):1417.
1014. Hypponen E and Power C. Hypovitaminosis D in British adults at age 45y: nationwide cohort study of diet and lifestyle predictors. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 2007;85:860–8.
1015. Pan W, Wu GP, Li YF, et al. The experience of diagnosis the abnormal fetal heart by fetal echocardiography to 900 fetuses. Guangzhou, China: Guangdong Cardiovascular Institute; undated [available from www.unepso.org/china/ab/1327.HTM; accessed 30 August 2006].
1016. Bonnet D, Coltri A, Butera G, et al. Detection of transposition of the great arteries in fetuses reduces neonatal morbidity and mortality. *Circulation* 1999;99(7):916–18.
1017. Bonnet D, Jouannic JM and Fermont L. Impact of prenatal diagnosis on perinatal care of transposition of the great arteries. *Ultrasound in Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2003;22(S1):66–7.

1018. Kumar RK, Newburger JW, Gauvreau K, *et al.* Comparison of outcome when hypoplastic left heart syndrome and transposition of the great arteries are diagnosed prenatally versus when diagnosis of these two conditions is made only postnatally. *American Journal of Cardiology* 1999;83(12):1649–53.
1019. Streetly A, Maxwell K, Mejia A. *Sickle Cell Disorders in Greater London: a needs assessment of screening and care services*. Fair Shares for London Report. London: United Medical and Dental Schools Department of Public Health Medicine; 1997.
1020. Wilson JM, Jungner G. Principles and practice of screening for disease. *WHO Chronicle* 1968;22(11):473.
1021. Weisz B, Pandya P, Chitty L, *et al.* Practical issues drawn from the implementation of the integrated test for Down Syndrome screening into routine clinical practice. *BJOG: an International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology* 2007;114(4):493–7.
1022. Ego A, Subtil D, Grange G, Thiebaugeorges O, Senat MV, Vayssiere C, Zeitlin J. Customized versus population-based birth weight standards for identifying growth restricted infants: a French multicenter study. *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 2006;194(4):1042–9.
1023. Figueras F, Figueras J, Meler E, Eixarch E, Coll O, Gratacos E, Gardosi J, Carbonell X. Customised birthweight standards accurately predict perinatal morbidity. *Archives of Disease in Childhood Fetal and Neonatal edition* 2007; 92(4): F277-80.