14-348R1
Moraitis
4-21-14v1
1

- 1 Birth weight percentile and the risk of term perinatal death not due to congenital
- 2 anomaly

3

- 4 Alexandros A. Moraitis, MSc^a
- 5 Angela M. Wood, PhD^b
- 6 Michael Fleming, MSc^c
- 7 Gordon C.S. Smith, PhD, DSc, FMedSci^a

- ⁹ ^aDepartment of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Cambridge; NIHR Cambridge
- 10 Comprehensive Biomedical Research Centre, CB2 2SW, UK.
- ¹¹ ^bDepartment of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, CB1 8RN, UK.
- ^cInstitute of Health and Wellbeing, University of Glasgow, 1 Lilybank Gardens, Glasgow G12
 8RZ, United Kingdom.
- 14

- Prof GCS Smith, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Cambridge, The
- 17 Rosie Hospital, Cambridge, CB2 2SW, UK.
- 18 Tel: 01223 763888/763890; Fax: 01223 763889;
- 19 E-mail: gcss2@cam.ac.uk
- 20
- 21 Supported by the NIHR Cambridge Comprehensive Biomedical Research Centre.
- 22 Shortened running title: Birth weight percentile and perinatal death at term
- 23 Word count: Text: 2,806 words.
- 24

¹⁵ Correspondence to:

```
14-348R1
Moraitis
4-21-14v1
2
```

25 Précis

- 26 One in 3 antepartum stillbirths and 1 in 6 delivery-related perinatal deaths at term could be
- related to birth weight percentile outside the range 21st to 97th percentile.

29 Abstract

30 **Objective** To estimate the association between birth weight percentile and the risk of 31 perinatal death at term in relation to the cause of death.

Methods. We performed a retrospective cohort study of all term singleton births in delivery units in Scotland between 1992 and 2008 (n=784,576), excluding perinatal deaths ascribed to congenital anomaly.

35 **Results** There were 1,700 perinatal deaths in the cohort which were not due to congenital anomaly (21.7 per 10,000 women at term). We observed a reversed J-shaped association 36 between birth weight percentile and the risk of antepartum stillbirth in all women, but the 37 associations significantly differed (P<.001) according to smoking status. The highest risk 38 (adjusted odds ratio referent to 21st-80th percentile, 95% confidence interval) among 39 nonsmokers was for birth weight $\leq 3^{rd}$ percentile (10.5, 8.2-13.3), but there were also positive 40 associations for birth weight percentiles 4^{th} -10th (3.8, 3.0–4.8), 11th-20th (1.9, 1.5–2.4) and 41 98th-100th (1.8, 1.3–2.4). Among smokers, the associations with being small were weaker 42 43 and the associations with being large were stronger. We also observed a reversed J-shaped association between birth weight percentile and the risk of delivery-related perinatal death 44 (i.e. intrapartum stillbirth or neonatal death), but there was no interaction with smoking. The 45 highest risk was for birth weight >97th percentile (2.3, 1.6–3.3), but there were also 46 associations with ≤3rd percentile (2.1, 1.4–3.1), 4th-10th (1.8, 1.4–2.4) and 11th-20th (1.5, 1.2– 47 2.0). Analysis of the attributable fraction indicated that approximately 1 in 3 antepartum 48 stillbirths and 1 in 6 delivery-related deaths at term could be related to birth weight percentile 49 outside the range 21st to 97th percentile. 50

51 Conclusions Effective detection of variation in fetal size at term has potential as a screening
52 test for the risk of perinatal death.

53 Level of evidence: II

54 Introduction

Approximately 5 to 6 per 1,000 pregnancies end in stillbirth in the United States and the 55 UK(1,2), with some of the variability due to different definitions. Multiple maternal and 56 obstetric characteristics are associated with the risk of stillbirth but, collectively, they explain 57 less than 20% of the variance in the incidence of stillbirth(3). Hence, making significant 58 59 impact into overall rates of stillbirth will likely require better methods of screening and intervention in the general population. Approximately one third of all stillbirths and neonatal 60 deaths occur at term(2). Previous studies have shown that growth restricted fetuses are at 61 increased risk of stillbirth(4,5). One potential approach to population based screening for 62 stillbirth would be to assess fetal size prior to term. Women who are found to have growth 63 restricted fetuses could then be offered increased surveillance, with the ultimate intervention 64 of earlier delivery for those thought to be high risk. However, it has been argued that being 65 growth restricted is not a major determinant of the risk of perinatal morbidity and mortality at 66 term(6). Moreover, studies that have described associations between SGA and the risk of 67 perinatal death at term have generally lacked detailed information on the cause of death. 68 69 The aim of the present study was to estimate the relationship between birth weight percentile 70 at term and the risk of perinatal death. We excluded deaths related to fetal anomaly as these 71 are unlikely to be preventable in the majority of cases.

73 Materials and Methods

The work was approved by the Privacy Advisory Committee of the Information Services Division of NHS Scotland. We linked data from the Scottish Morbidity Record 02 (SMR02), which collects information on clinical and demographic characteristics and outcomes of all patients discharged from Scottish maternity hospitals, to the Scottish Stillbirth and Infant Death Survey (SSBIDS), a national registry which routinely classifies all perinatal deaths in Scotland and is described elsewhere(7).

We conducted a population based, retrospective cohort study composed of all singleton term pregnancies between 1992 and 2008. The exclusion criteria were multiple pregnancy, perinatal death ascribed to congenital abnormality or Rh isoimmunization, delivery outside the range 37 to 43 weeks of gestation, birth weight less than 500 grams, and records with missing values for certain maternal variables (see below).

The prespecified main outcomes were: (i) antepartum stillbirth, both all causes and sub-85 divided by cause (see below); and, (ii) delivery related perinatal death (i.e. intrapartum 86 87 stillbirth or neonatal death), both all causes and subdivided by whether the death was ascribed to intrapartum anoxia. The cause of stillbirth was classified using a modification of 88 the Wigglesworth classification(8) which is a hierarchical system and is described 89 elsewhere(7). Deaths were classified according to direct obstetric causes (in order): 90 91 congenital abnormality, isoimmunization, toxemia (pre-eclampsia/eclampsia), hemorrhage (antepartum), mechanical, maternal, miscellaneous, and unexplained. Intrauterine growth 92 93 restriction is not regarded as a cause of death in this classification system. All deaths were classified by a single, medically qualified individual with access to autopsy results where 94 95 available. The definition of delivery related perinatal death has been described in detail 96 elsewhere(7) and it includes intrapartum stillbirth and neonatal death (i.e. death of a liveborn

97 infant in the first 4 weeks). The definition of anoxia employed is broad and includes hypoxia,
98 acidosis, and asphyxia.

The main exposure variable in our study was birth weight percentile. Sex and gestational 99 age specific percentiles of birth weight were calculated within the cohort and infants were 100 categorized into the following groups: $\leq 3^{rd}$ percentile, 4th to 10th, 11th to 20th, 21st to 80th 101 (referent), 81st to 90th, 91st to 97th and 98th to 100th respectively, as previously described(9). 102 The gestational age at birth was defined as the completed weeks of gestation based on the 103 104 estimated date of delivery in each woman's clinical record and has been confirmed by ultrasound in the first half of the pregnancy in more than 95% of the women in United 105 Kingdom since the early 1990s(10). Maternal age was defined as the age of the mother at 106 107 the time of delivery. Socio-economic status was estimated based on the postcode of residence, using Carstairs socio-economic deprivation categories(11). Finally smoking status 108 109 (current, past, never) was defined by self reported at the first antenatal visit.

Continuous variables were compared using the Kruskal-Wallis test and categorical data 110 were compared using the χ^2 test. All P values are 2-sided, and P<.05 was considered to 111 indicate statistical significance. However, the primary exposure (birth weight percentile) had 112 6 categories and addressed two main outomes (antepartum stillbirth and delivery-related 113 perinatal death). Hence, particular emphasis is placed on results where P<0.004 (Bonferroni 114 corrected for 12 comparisons), although this is extremely conservative given that the groups 115 of 6 categories are not independent. The risk of stillbirth was modeled using univariate and 116 multivariate logistic regression. We assessed interactions using the likelihood-ratio test(12). 117 Given that 5 tests of interaction were performed, the threshold for significance for interaction 118 terms was reduced to P<.01. Multiple imputation was used to impute missing values for 119 120 height, as missing values were likely to be missing at random(13). Individuals with missing values in variables with <1% of missing records were excluded for simplicity. Individuals with 121 missing smoking status were also excluded, since it was inappropriate to impute smoking 122

status due to an interaction with both birth weight percentile and stillbirth. Five imputations 123 were created using a set of appropriate imputation models constructed from all the 124 covariates (including interactions as appropriate) and outcome variables. We estimated 125 attributable fractions using the method by Greenland and Drescher(14). We calculated 126 attributable fractions for those birth weight categories with significant positive 127 associations(15). Analyses were performed at the level of individual pregnancies. As many 128 women had more than one birth in the study period, the assumption of independence of 129 observations was violated. However, we have previously found that correction of standard 130 errors for clustering was without material effect in other analyses of this dataset(7). All 131 statistical analyses were performed using Stata version 12.1 (StataCorp LP, College Station, 132 Texas). 133

134

136 **Results**

137

The linked SMR02 and SSBIDS databases contained 937,739 records of singleton births 138 between 1992 and 2008. We excluded 57,760 records where delivery was before 37 weeks 139 (6.2%). Out of the remaining 879,979 records we excluded 4,700 where delivery was beyond 140 43 weeks (0.5%), 5,001 with birth weight less than 500g or missing (0.6%), 7,664 with 141 missing parity (0.9%), 3,645 with missing maternal age (0.4%), 3,364 with missing 142 deprivation category (0.4%), 3.836 with missing mode of delivery (0.4%), 3.674 with missing 143 infant sex (0.4%), 87,061 with missing smoking status (9.9%), and 1,539 where perinatal 144 145 death was ascribed to congenital abnormality or Rh isoimmunization (0.2%). In total 95,403 records were excluded for one or more missing values (10.8%) leaving a study cohort of 146 784,576. There were 1,157 antepartum stillbirths (0.15%). Out of these, 31 (2.7%) were 147 ascribed to pre-eclampsia or eclampsia, 111 (9.6%) to antepartum hemorrhage, 29 (2.5%) to 148 149 a mechanical cause, 44 (3.8%) to maternal disease (principally diabetes mellitus), 13 (1.1%) to miscellaneous causes and 929 (80.3%) were unexplained. There were 162 intrapartum 150 151 stillbirths (0.02%) and 381 neonatal deaths (0.05%).

The maternal characteristics of the cohort are tabulated by outcome (Table 1). Women with pregnancies resulting in antepartum stillbirth were older, more likely to smoke, and more likely to be nulliparous or in their third or subsequent pregnancy. They also delivered earlier and the birth weight of their infants was significantly smaller than women whose infants survived. Women with pregnancies resulting in delivery related perinatal death were more likely to be nulliparous and to undergo emergency cesarean delivery.

The overall association between birth weight percentile and risk of antepartum stillbirth and delivery related perinatal death had a reverse J-shaped distribution (Figure 1). Very small infants ($\leq 3^{rd}$ percentile) had the highest relative risk of antepartum stillbirth (Table 2) and the absolute risk of stillbirth in this group was approximately 1 in 100. The odds ratio declined

with increasing birth weight but remained significantly elevated for the infants between the 162 11th to 20th birth weight percentile. The trends were similar for stillbirths whether the death 163 was attributed to hemorrhage, toxemia or was unexplained (Figure 2). The risk of stillbirth 164 was also increased where the birth weight percentile was very large for gestational age (98th 165 to 100th percentile). This was particularly marked for stillbirths where the death was 166 attributed to maternal causes (unadjusted odds ratio [OR] 19.0, 95% confidence interval [CI] 167 9.2-32.3), and this was explained by increased losses attributed to maternal diabetes. 168 However, it was also significantly elevated for apparently unexplained stillbirth (OR 1.9, 95%) 169 Cl 1.3–2.6). Deaths ascribed to mechanical or miscellaneous causes were not associated 170 with extreme birth weight percentile (data not shown), although the numbers were too small 171 to exclude clinically important associations. There were also independent and significant 172 associations between antepartum stillbirth and maternal age of ≥35 years, nulliparity and 173 parity greater than 2 (Table 2). 174

The risk of antepartum stillbirth was higher among mothers who smoked compared to 175 nonsmokers. Moreover, there was a significant (P<.001) interaction between smoking and 176 birth weight percentile in relation to the risk of antepartum stillbirth (there were no other 177 178 statistically significant interactions). Hence, we stratified the analysis of birth weight and the risk of antepartum stillbirth by maternal smoking status (Table 2). The adjusted odds ratio for 179 stillbirth for low birth weight percentile ($\leq 3^{rd}$ and $4^{th}-10^{th}$) was almost twice as high in women 180 who were not current smokers compared to smokers. Conversely, a high birth weight 181 percentile (98th–100th percentile) was more strongly associated with stillbirth among smokers 182 than nonsmokers. However, the infants of mothers who smoked were more likely to be small 183 for gestational age than the infants of nonsmokers or ex-smokers. Hence, the attributable 184 185 fractions associated with extremely low birth weight percentiles (1st-3rd) were higher for smokers compared to nonsmokers or ex- smokers (17.2% and 11.5% respectively). The 186 attributable fraction of the 4th-10th, 11th-20th, and 98th-100th birth weight percentile 187

categories was 10.4%, 5.0%, and 2.8% respectively for smokers and 9.3%, 6.2% and 3.5%
respectively for non-/ex- smokers. The sum of the attributable fractions of birth weight
categories significantly associated with antepartum stillbirth was 31.6% (95% CI 27.7–
35.3%; 33.5% for smokers and 30.5% for non-/ex- smokers).

There was also a reversed J shaped relationship between birth weight percentile and the risk 192 of delivery related perinatal death (Figure 3, Table 3). There were no statistically significant 193 interactions between birth weight percentile and any maternal characteristic (including 194 smoking: P=.17) in relation to the risk of delivery-related perinatal death. Infants with a birth 195 weight percentile less than the 20th percentile had an increased risk of delivery related 196 perinatal death. When analyzed by cause, the association between 1st to 20th birth weight 197 percentile and delivery related perinatal death was significant both for deaths attributed to 198 199 intrapartum anoxia and deaths not attributed to intrapartum anoxia. The risk was also higher for infants between the 98th and 100th percentile, but this association was significant only for 200 deaths attributed to intrapartum anoxia. The absolute and relative risks were similar for 201 infants belonging to the bottom and top 3% (Figure 1, Table 3). The overall attributable 202 fraction for delivery related perinatal deaths was 16.7% (95% CI 11.2–23.2%). Other factors 203 204 which were found to be significantly associated with delivery related perinatal deaths were nulliparity and maternal age ≥40 years (both associated with deaths due to intrapartum 205 anoxia, Table 3). 206

207

208 **Discussion**

209

210 The main finding of the current analysis is that approximately 1 in 3 antepartum stillbirths 211 and 1 in 6 delivery-related deaths at term could be attributed to the increased risk of loss among infants with a birth weight percentile outside the range 20th to 97th. There was 212 evidence of a reverse J-shaped association between birth weight percentile and the risk of 213 214 perinatal death, which is consistent with previous studies(16). As our study was focused on term perinatal death it is unlikely that the interval between the time of intrauterine fetal death 215 and the time of delivery would be sufficiently prolonged to bias our analysis of stillbirth risk. 216 Moreover, we also saw the same pattern of association with delivery-related death (i.e. 217 218 intrapartum stillbirth and neonatal death) where post mortem changes in birth weight caused by maceration would have no potential to influence the results. Our findings underline the 219 importance of identifying fetal growth restriction at term, as prenatal identification of 220 abnormal growth could inform interventions which might mitigate the increased risk of 221 222 perinatal death. They also indicate that further research would be justified in order to evaluate the routine assessment of fetal size in an unselected population as a screening test 223 which could be coupled with interventions to reduce the risk of perinatal death at term. 224

We found a complex pattern of association between birth weight percentile, maternal 225 smoking and the risk of antepartum stillbirth. Overall, we found that the risk of term 226 antepartum stillbirth was increased by 60% among mothers who smoked. However, we also 227 228 found that the relative risk of antepartum stillbirth associated with being SGA was lower among women who were current smokers than among women who were not. We interpret 229 these findings as indicating that SGA caused by maternal smoking increases the risk of 230 antepartum stillbirth. However, among the population of SGA infants, the risk of antepartum 231 stillbirth was greater among the infants of non-smoking mothers, which is in keeping with a 232 previous study(17). We speculate that a given degree of smallness is more strongly 233

associated with antepartum stillbirth in nonsmokers because small size due to other
etiologies is a greater risk factor for stillbirth than small size caused by smoking.

The strength of our study is the large, routinely collected database that covers a whole 236 country over a period of 17 years. However, approximately 10% of the records were 237 excluded because of missing values in any of the covariates, mainly smoking status. This 238 rate of missing values is similar to other high quality national pregnancy registries. For 239 example, a recent study(18) using data from the Swedish Medical Birth Registry, which is 240 241 internationally highly regarded, reported a 6.4% rate of missing data for smoking. The marginal advantage of the lower rate of smoking non-ascertainment should be set against 242 the fact that the Swedish registry has much less information on the timing and cause of 243 244 perinatal death.

A Cochrane review evaluated the effect of routine ultrasound at or after 24 weeks gestational 245 age(19) and failed to demonstrate any improvement in outcome, including perinatal 246 mortality. However, a detailed systematic review of the evidence around the diagnostic 247 248 effectiveness of routine ultrasound to detect growth restricted fetuses by the UK National Institute for Clinical Excellence drew the following conclusion: "poor fetal growth is 249 undoubtedly a cause of serious perinatal mortality and morbidity.... unfortunately, the 250 methods by which the condition can be identified antenatally are poorly developed or not 251 tested by rigorous methodology"(20). A more recent review by leading US academics also 252 identified a lack of evidence in this area(21). Hence, the trials of screening were designed in 253 the absence of high quality information on the diagnostic effectiveness of the screening test. 254 Moreover, none of the nine trials included in the meta-analysis had a standardized 255 intervention, other than revealing the result and, in some trials, recommending further scans. 256 257 Furthermore, it has been shown that even the meta-analysis is under powered to detect significant effects on perinatal mortality (see Smith(22) for detailed review). Hence, the 258 negative result of the Cochrane review may reflect the methodological weaknesses of the 259

evidence base and does not justify a view that further evaluation of screening using routineultrasound is futile.

Despite the fact that intervention at early weeks of gestational age at term carries less risk of 262 neonatal morbidity and mortality than preterm delivery, delivery at 37 weeks is still 263 associated with risks, including neonatal mortality(23) and morbidity(24) plus long term 264 effects on the child such as an increased risk of having special educational needs(9). The 265 population of SGA infants is heterogeneous. Many SGA babies are "healthy small". If 266 267 screening for stillbirth risk was based wholly on estimates of fetal size, it is likely that many healthy small babies may be delivered at early term, and that this could cause harm. 268 Conversely, the current findings indicate that identifying infants who are growth restricted but 269 whose birth weight percentile is less extremely deviated from the normal range may be 270 useful (e.g. a baby on the 15th percentile may have been genetically determined to be on the 271 90th percentile and is, in fact, extremely growth restricted). Multiple methods have been 272 described to differentiate between healthy and pathologically growth restricted fetuses, such 273 as assessment of fetal growth velocity(25), analysis of ratios of biometric measurements(26), 274 analysis of utero-placental Doppler flow velocimetry(27), use of customization of 275 measurements for parental characteristics(28), and analysis of placentally derived 276 biomarkers(29). However, many of these have been evaluated in the context of early onset 277 growth restriction. We conclude that further research on existing and novel methods to 278 identify abnormal fetal growth at and near term could yield useful screening tools for 279 population based screening to prevent perinatal death. 280

281

282

283

284

285 **References**

286

- MacDorman MF, Kirmeyer S. Fetal and perinatal mortality, United States, 2005. Natl
 Vital Stat Rep 2009 Jan 28;57(8):1-19.
- Information Services Division NHS National Services Scotland. Scottish Perinatal and
 Infant Mortality and Morbidity Report 2010. Edinburgh, Scotland: 2012.
- 3. The Stillbirth Collaborative Research Network Writing Group. Association between
- stillbirth and risk factors known at pregnancy confirmation. JAMA 2011 Dec

293 14;306(22):2469-79.

- McIntire DD, Bloom SL, Casey BM, Leveno KJ. Birth weight in relation to morbidity and
 mortality among newborn infants. N Engl J Med 1999 Apr 22;340(16):1234-8.
- 296 5. Clausson B, Gardosi J, Francis A, Cnattingius S. Perinatal outcome in SGA births
 297 defined by customised versus population-based birthweight standards. BJOG 2001
 298 Aug;108(8):830-4.
- Chard T, Yoong A, Macintosh M. The myth of fetal growth retardation at term. Br J
 Obstet Gynaecol 1993 Dec;100(12):1076-81.
- 7. Pasupathy D, Wood AM, Pell JP, Fleming M, Smith GCS. Rates of and factors
 associated with delivery-related perinatal death among term infants in Scotland. JAMA
 2009 Aug 12;302(6):660-8.
- Hey EN, Lloyd DJ, Wigglesworth JS. Classifying perinatal death: fetal and neonatal
 factors. BJOG 1986 Dec;93(12):1213-23.

306	9.	MacKay DF, Smith GC, Dobbie R, Pell JP. Gestational age at delivery and special
307		educational need: retrospective cohort study of 407,503 schoolchildren. PLoS Med
308		2010 Jun;7(6):e1000289.
309	10.	Campbell S, Soothill P. Detection and management of intrauterine growth retardation:
310		a British approach. In: Chervenak F IGCS editor. Ultrasound in Obstetrics and
311		Gynaecology ed. In; Chervenak F IGCS editor. Ultrasound in Obstetrics and
312		Gynaecology ed. Boston, Mass: Little Brown; 1993.
313	11.	McLoone P, Boddy FA. Deprivation and mortality in Scotland, 1981 and 1991. BMJ
314		1994 Dec 3;309(6967):1465-70.
315	12.	Hosmer D, Lemeshow S. Applied Logistic Regression. 2nd ed. New York, NY: John
316		Wiley & Sons; 2000.
317	13.	Sterne JA, White IR, Carlin JB, Spratt M, Royston P, Kenward MG, et al. Multiple
318		imputation for missing data in epidemiological and clinical research: potential and
319		pitfalls. BMJ 2009;338:b2393.
320	14.	Greenland S, Drescher K. Maximum likelihood estimation of the attributable fraction
321		from logistic models. Biometrics 1993 Sep;49(3):865-72.
322	15.	Rockhill B, Newman B, Weinberg C. Use and misuse of population attributable
323		fractions. Am J Public Health 1998 Jan;88(1):15-9.
324	16.	Steer P. The management of large and small for gestational age fetuses. Semin
325		Perinatol 2004 Feb;28(1):59-66.
326	17.	Gardosi J, Madurasinghe V, Williams M, Malik A, Francis A. Maternal and fetal risk
327		factors for stillbirth: population based study. BMJ 2013;346:f108.

- 18. Ekeus C, Cnattingius S, Essen B, Hjern A. Stillbirth among foreign-born women in
 Sweden. Eur J Public Health 2011 Dec;21(6):788-92.
- Bricker L, Neilson JP, Dowswell T. Routine ultrasound in late pregnancy (after 24
 weeks' gestation). Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2008;(4):CD001451.
- 332 20. NICE. Clinical guideline 62: Antenatal care. London, UK: National Institute for Health
 and Clinical Excellence; 2008.
- 21. Chauhan SP, Rouse DJ, Ananth CV, Magann EF, Chang E, Dahlke JD, et al.
- 335 Screening for intrauterine growth restriction in uncomplicated pregnancies: time for
- action. Am J Perinatol 2013 Jan;30(1):33-9.
- Smith GCS. Researching new methods of screening for adverse pregnancy outcome:
 lessons from pre-eclampsia. PLoS Med 2012;9(7):e1001274.
- Smith GCS. Life-table analysis of the risk of perinatal death at term and post term in
 singleton pregnancies. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2001 Feb;184(3):489-96.
- 24. Hansen AK, Wisborg K, Uldbjerg N, Henriksen TB. Risk of respiratory morbidity in term
 infants delivered by elective caesarean section: cohort study. BMJ 2008 Jan
 12;336(7635):85-7.
- 25. Deter RL, Rossavik IK, Harrist RB, Hadlock FP. Mathematic modeling of fetal growth:
 development of individual growth curve standards. Obstet Gynecol 1986
 Aug;68(2):156-61.
- al-Riyami N, Walker MG, Proctor LK, Yinon Y, Windrim RC, Kingdom JC. Utility of
 head/abdomen circumference ratio in the evaluation of severe early-onset intrauterine
 growth restriction. J Obstet Gynaecol Can 2011 Jul;33(7):715-9.

- 27. Karsdorp VH, van Vugt JM, van Geijn HP, Kostense PJ, Arduini D, Montenegro N, et
- al. Clinical significance of absent or reversed end diastolic velocity waveforms in
 umbilical artery. Lancet 1994 Dec 17;344(8938):1664-8.
- Johnsen SL, Rasmussen S, Wilsgaard T, Sollien R, Kiserud T. Longitudinal reference
 ranges for estimated fetal weight. Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand 2006;85(3):286-97.
- 29. Smith GCS. Predicting antepartum stillbirth. Clin Obstet Gynecol 2010 Sep;53(3):597-
- **356 606**.
- 357
- 358
- 359
- 360

362 Legends for figures

363	Figure 1 Absolute risk per 10,000 pregnancies (95% binomial confidence intervals) of term
364	perinatal death by birth weight percentile: A. Antepartum stillbirth, and B. Delivery related
365	perinatal death (i.e. intrapartum stillbirths and neonatal deaths).
366	Figure 2 Univariate analysis of the association between birth weight percentile and the risk
367	of antepartum stillbirth ascribed to each cause: A. Unexplained (Odds ratio [OR], 95%
368	confidence intervals), B. Toxemia (No events within the 91 st –97 th and 98 th –100 th birth weight
369	percentile categories), C. Antepartum hemorrhage, and D. Maternal disease (including
370	diabetes).
371	Figure 3 Univariate analysis of the association between birth weight percentile and the risk
372	of delivery related perinatal death by cause: A. All delivery related perinatal deaths, B.
373	Delivery related perinatal deaths ascribed to anoxia, C. Delivery related perinatal deaths
374	ascribed to other causes (non-anoxia)
375	
376	
377	
378	
379	
380	
381	
382	
383	

Table 1. Characteristics of the cohort by pregnancy outcome.

Characteristics	Antepartum stillbirths (n=1,157)	Delivery related perinatal deaths (n=543)	Survived to 4 weeks of age (n=782,876)	P*
Maternal			/- / \	
Age, median (IQR), y	29 (24–34)	28 (24–32)	28 (24–32)	.003
Age category, No. (%)				
<25	292 (25.2)	161 (29.7)	212,041 (27.1)	<.001
25–34	638 (55.2)	302 (55.6)	455,246 (58.1)	
>35	227 (19.6)	80 (14.7)	115,589 (14.8)	
Height, median (IQR), cm	163 (158-167)	162 (157-166)	163 (158-167)	.06
Missing value, No. (%)	179 (15.8)	82 (15.1)	115,428 (14.7)	.76
Smoking status, No. (%)				
Non-smoker	617 (53.3)	310 (57.1)	493,348 (63)	<.001
Smoker	437 (37.8)	179 (33.0)	217,123 (27.7)	
Ex-smoker	103 (8.9)	54 (9.9)	72,405 (9.3)	
Parity, No. (%)				
0	599 (51.8)	300 (55.3)	350,065 (44.7)	<.001
1–2	453 (39.2)	207 (38.1)	382,448 (48.9)	
3–4	85 (7.3)	33 (6.1)	44,575 (5.7)	
>4	20 (1.7)	3 (0.6)	5,788 (0.7)	
Deprivation category, No. (%)				
1–2 (Least deprived)	186 (16.1)	91 (16.7)	152,188 (19.4)	.02
3–5	750 (64.8)	349 (64.3)	482,426 (61.6)	
6–7 (Most deprived)	221 (19.1)	103 (19.0)	148,262 (19.0)	

Fetal/Neonatal Male sex, No. (%)	608 (52.6)	268 (49.4)	399,076 (51.0)	.42
Birth weight, median (IQR), g Gestational age (wk), median (IQR)	3,060 (2,620–3,500) 39 (38–40)	3,280 (2,980–3,770) 40 (39–41)	3,450 (3,130–3,780) 40 (39–41)	<.001 <.001
Gestational age at delivery No. (%)				
37	228 (19.7)	56 (10.3)	40,363 (5.2)	<.001
38	271 (23.4)	77 (14.2)	104,588 (13.3)	
39	244 (21.1)	99 (18.2)	171,611 (21.9)	
40	255 (22.0)	155 (28.6)	251,098 (32.1)	
41	139 (12.0)	128 (23.4)	184,092 (23.5)	
42–43	20 (1.8)	28 (5.1)	31,124 (4.0)	
Obstetric				
Mode of delivery, No. (%)				
Spontaneous vaginal	943 (81.5)	234 (43.1)	537,511 (68.7)	<.001
Assisted vaginal	76 (6.6)	89 (16.4)	96,543 (12.3)	
Breech	35 (3.0)	5 (0.9)	1,719 (0.2)	
Planned cesarean	22 (1.9)	16 (3.0)	58,890 (7.5)	
Emergency cesarean, pre-labor [†]	45 (3.9)	76 (14.0)	18,204 (2.3)	
Emergency cesarean, labor [†]	36 (3.1)	123 (22.6)	70,009 (9.0)	

IQR, interquartile range *Kruskal-Wallis and χ^2 tests, as appropriate [†]Pre-labour: before the onset of labour; Labour: after the onset of labour

Table 2. Univariate and multivariate analysis of risk factors associated with antepartum stillbirth (all causes).

Variables		Univariate			Multivariate*					
					Smokers [†]			Non/Ex smokers		
	•	,157 stillbirt	•		(n=437)			(n=720)		
	OR	95% CI	Р	OR [‡]	95% Cl	Р	OR [‡]	95% CI	Р	
Birth weight percentiles										
1–3	8.0	6.8–9.5	<.001	5.5	4.2–7.2	<.001	10.5	8.2–13.3	<.001	
4–10	3.2	2.7–3.8	<.001	2.4	1.8–3.1	<.001	3.8	3.0-4.8	<.001	
11–20	1.7	1.4–2.1	<.001	1.4	1.1–2.0	.02	1.9	1.5–2.4	<.001	
21–80	Referent			Referent			Referent			
81–90	0.8	0.6–1.0	.10	1.0	0.6–1.7	.89	0.8	0.6–1.0	.08	
91–97	0.7	0.5–1.0	.03	1.3	0.8–2.3	.30	0.6	0.4–0.8	.004	
98–100	2.2	1.7–2.9	<.001	4.7	2.9–7.8	<.001	1.8	1.3–2.4	.001	
Age category										
<20	1.0	0.8–1.3	.97	0.7	0.5–1.0	.05	0.8	0.6–1.1	.21	
20–24	1.0	0.8–1.2	.84	0.8	0.6–1.1	.11	0.9	0.7–1.1	.40	
25–29	Referent			Referent			Referent			
30–34	1.0	0.9–1.2	.93	1.4	1.1–1.8	.01	1.0	0.8–1.2	.63	
35–39	1.4	1.2–1.7	<.001	1.4	1.0–1.9	.08	1.6	1.3–1.9	<.001	
≥40	1.3	0.9–1.9	.12	1.4	0.7–2.8	.29	1.3	0.8–2.0	.28	
Height category, cm										
<150	1.2	0.8–2.1	.39	1.0	0.5–1.9	.95	0.8	0.4–1.6	.46	
150–154	1.0	0.8–1.3	.83	0.7	0.4–1.2	.15	0.9	0.7–1.3	.74	
155–159	1.2	1.0–1.5	.04	1.1	0.8–1.4	.57	1.1	0.9–1.5	.37	
160–164	Referent			Referent			Referent			
165–169	1.2	1.0–1.4	.04	1.0	0.8–1.3	.86	1.5	1.2–1.8	<.001	
170–174	1.0	0.8–1.2	.70	1.0	0.7–1.4	.86	1.2	0.9–1.5	.30	

Moraitis

4-21-14v1

22

≥175	1.1	0.8–1.5	.67	1.0	0.5–1.9	.97	1.4	0.9–2.1	.10
Deprivation									
category									
1 (Least deprived)	0.8	0.6–1.0	.08	0.8	0.4–1.7	.53	0.8	0.6–1.1	.21
2	0.8	0.6–0.9	.01	1.1	0.8–1.6	.56	0.7	0.6–0.9	.008
3	1.0	0.8–1.1	.57	1.0	0.7–1.3	.83	1.0	0.8–1.2	.85
4	Referent			Referent			Referent		
5	1.0	0.8–1.2	.94	1.1	0.8–1.4	.58	0.9	0.7–1.1	.36
6	0.9	0.8–1.2	.56	0.9	0.6–1.2	.41	0.9	0.7–1.2	.59
7 (Most deprived)	0.9	0.7–1.2	.62	1.0	0.7–1.3	.82	0.7	0.5–1.1	.13
Parity									
0	1.4	1.3–1.6	<.001	1.7	1.4–2.2	<.001	1.2	1.0–1.4	.01
1–2	Referent			Referent			Referent		
3–4	1.6	1.3–2.0	<.001	1.2	0.9–1.7	.26	1.5	1.1–2.1	.01
>4	2.9	1.9–4.6	<.001	1.5	0.7–3.1	.26	3.1	1.7–5.6	<.001
Sex									
Female	Referent			Referent			Referent		
Male	1.1	0.9–1.2	.28	1.1	0.9–1.3	.29	1.0	0.9–1.2	.63
Smoking status									
Non smoker	Referent								
Smoker	1.6	1.4–1.8	<.001						
Ex smoker	1.1	0.9–1.4	.23						

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence intervals

* The multivariate analysis was stratified to smokers and non/ex smokers as there is effect modification between smoking and birth weight. [†]There were 217,739 (27.8%) smokers and 566,837 (72.2%) non/ex smokers. [‡]Adjusted for birth weight percentile, age, height, parity, deprivation category,and sex.

Table 3. Multivariate analysis of risk factors associated with delivery related perinatal deaths, subdivided to deaths ascribed to intrapartum anoxia and non-anoxia.

Variables		All			Anoxia			Non-anoxia	
	(n= 543 delivery related perinatal deaths)			(n=311)					
	OR*	95% CI	́Р	OR*	95% CI	Р	OR*	95% CI	Р
Birth weight percentiles									
1–3	2.1	1.4–3.1	<.001	2.2	1.3–3.7	.003	2.0	1.1–3.6	.02
4–10	1.8	1.4–2.4	<.001	1.6	1.1–2.4	.02	2.0	1.3–3.0	.001
11–20	1.5	1.2–2.0	.002	1.5	1.0–2.1	.03	1.6	1.1–2.4	.02
21–80	Referent			Referent			Referent		
81–90	1.0	0.7–1.4	.94	1.2	0.8–1.8	.38	0.8	0.4–1.3	.35
91–97	1.2	0.9–1.7	.22	1.1	0.7–1.8	.64	1.4	0.9–2.4	.17
98–100	2.3	1.6–3.3	<.001	2.9	1.9–4.6	<.001	1.3	0.6–2.8	.49
Age category									
<20	0.9	0.6–1.2	.39	0.8	0.5–1.2	.23	1.0	0.6–1.7	.87
20–24	1.0	0.8–1.3	.95	0.6	0.4–0.9	.008	1.7	1.2–2.3	.005
25–29	Referent			Referent			Referent		
30–34	1.0	0.8–1.3	.72	1.1	0.8–1.5	.57	1.0	0.7–1.4	.90
35–39	1.1	0.8–1.4	.74	1.2	0.8–1.7	.37	0.9	0.5–1.4	.58
≥40	1.7	1.0–2.8	.04	2.4	1.3–4.2	.003	0.7	0.2–2.4	.62
Height category, cm									
<150	1.1	0.5–2.2	.83	0.9	0.3–2.4	.79	1.3	0.5–3.7	.60
150–154	1.2	0.8–1.6	.37	1.2	0.8–1.9	.34	1.1	0.6–1.8	.76
155–159	1.2	0.9–1.5	.27	1.2	0.8–1.7	.30	1.1	0.7–1.7	.64

160–164	Referent			Referent			Referent		
165–169	1.0	0.8–1.3	.89	0.9	0.7–1.3	.58	1.2	0.8–1.7	.45
170–174	0.8	0.6–1.2	.32	1.0	0.7–1.5	.94	0.6	0.3–1.1	.08
≥175	0.7	0.4–1.2	.15	0.7	0.3–1.5	.35	0.6	0.2–1.5	.25
Deprivation									
category									
1 (Least deprived)	0.8	0.5–1.2	.27	0.4	0.2–0.9	.03	1.3	0.8–2.3	.33
2	0.9	0.7–1.2	.35	0.9	0.6–1.4	.73	0.8	0.5–1.3	.32
3	0.9	0.7–1.1	.35	1.0	0.7–1.3	.81	0.8	0.5–1.2	.26
4	Referent			Referent			Referent		
5	1.0	0.8–1.3	.81	1.3	0.9–1.8	.14	0.8	0.5–1.1	.18
6	1.0	0.8–1.3	.97	1.1	0.7–1.6	.67	0.9	0.6–1.4	.67
7 (Most deprived)	0.7	0.5–1.0	.08	0.6	0.3–1.1	.10	0.8	0.5–1.3	.34
Parity									
0	1.6	1.3–1.9	<.001	1.9	1.5–2.5	<.001	1.3	1.0–1.7	.08
1–2	Referent			Referent			Referent		
3–4	1.2	0.9–1.8	.27	1.2	0.8–2.0	.41	1.3	0.7–2.3	.39
>4	0.8	0.3–2.5	.68	1.3	0.4-4.0	.68	0		
Sex									
Female	Referent			Referent			Referent		
Male	0.9	0.8–1.1	.45	1.0	0.8–1.3	.87	0.8	0.6–1.1	.18
Smoking status									
Non smoker	Referent			Referent			Referent		
Smoker	1.2	1.0–1.8	.04	1.1	0.8–1.4	.61	1.4	1.1–1.9	.02
Ex smoker	1.1	0.9–1.5	.37	1.2	0.8–1.7	.31	1.1	0.7–1.7	.84

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence intervals *Adjusted for birth weight percentile, age, height, parity, smoking, sex and deprivation category.