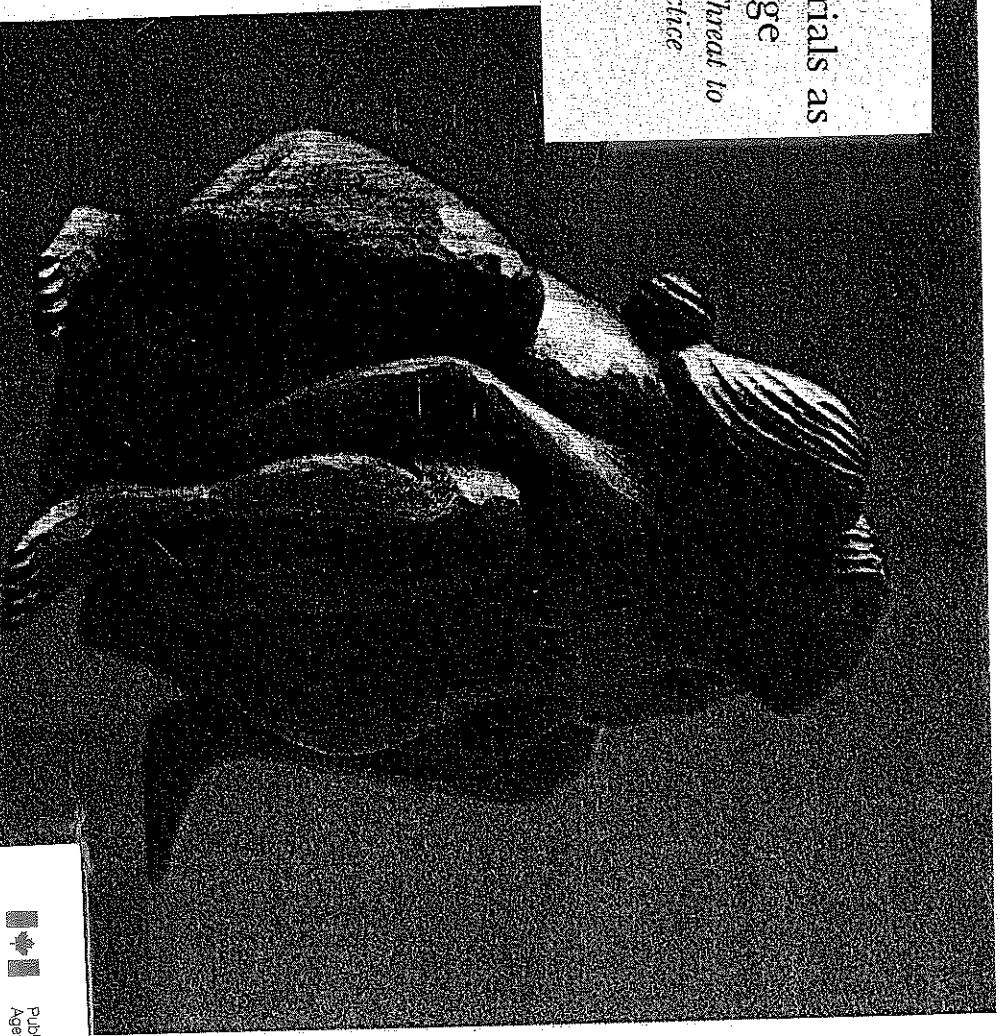


THIRTEEN

Randomized Controlled Trials as Authoritative Knowledge

*Keeping an Ally from Becoming a Threat to
North American Midwifery Practice*

Kenneth C. Johnson



CHILDBIRTH and AUTHORITATIVE KNOWLEDGE

Cross-Cultural Perspectives

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A welcome movement away from belief- and tradition-based "current medical opinion" toward evidence-based care and intervention is occurring in obstetrics. Central to this development have been the increased use of and respect for the randomized controlled trial (RCT) as a research method and the use of meta-analysis as a tool for systematic quantitative summation of existing RCT research. While RCTs in many instances have provided strong support for the midwifery model of woman-centered care, there are important limitations on their ability to assess certain aspects of midwifery care. This chapter discusses the strengths and limitations of the RCT as a tool for evaluating alternative birth practices and presents an example of an observational epidemiologic study of midwifery care that can address issues not amenable to RCT evaluation.

In 1989 a watershed in the development of evidence-based care in obstetrics was reached with the publication of *Effective Care in Pregnancy and Childbirth* (Chalmers, Enkin, and Keirse 1989), which presented systematic, scientific summaries (meta-analyses) focusing on the available RCT-based epidemiologic research concerning almost three hundred care issues in obstetrics. This scientific approach to evaluating care has proven strongly supportive of many aspects of the woman-centered, low-intervention type of midwifery care that has developed in North America over the last quarter century. Highly interventive approaches to the care of high-risk pregnant women and infants have a place. Intensive care of low birth weight infants, in particular, has contributed to substantial reductions in neonatal mortality (deaths in live-born infants in the first twenty-eight days of life) over the last few decades (Paneth 1990). However, it is less clear that this high-intervention approach is optimal for pregnant women without special medical risks or for infants in the normal birth weight range.

Although the RCT-based research has proven generally supportive of midwifery care, there is a danger in depending almost exclusively on RCT-based evidence. The limitations of RCTs need to be understood: there can be scientific, clinical, ethical, and political problems that make it difficult, if not impossible, to use RCTs to evaluate some important components of midwifery practice, particularly practices that are outside the pharmacologic interventionist medical paradigm. Other epidemiologic methods, in particular prospective observational studies, have different strengths than the RCT. They have played and will continue to play an important role in understanding what constitutes effective care.

In this chapter I first describe the important work that has been done using RCTs and meta-analysis to study perinatal management. Then I address various limitations of the RCT for evaluating effective birthing practice. Finally, a Midwives' Alliance of North America (MANA) research project that involves collecting detailed information on midwife-attended births is discussed as an example of a non-RCT epidemiologic study. The research is anticipated to be a valuable complement to the RCT work, particularly for addressing issues beyond the RCT's scope.

THE OXFORD ACCOMPLISHMENT: STRENGTHS OF THE RCT

Effective Care in Pregnancy and Childbirth was a landmark in the development of an authoritative knowledge of birthing practice. The 1,500-page two-volume tome was the culmination of a vision and a decade of work by three obstetricians, Marc Keirse from the Netherlands, Iain Chalmers from England, and Canadian Murray Enkin, in collaboration with a large number of dedicated colleagues. For the first time in any field of medicine, a thorough, systematic review of available research evidence on the effects of care was assembled. The medical literature was systematically and exhaustively searched from 1950 onward, and more than forty thousand obstetricians and pediatricians worldwide were contacted to locate unpublished research. More than one hundred epidemiologists, obstetricians, midwives, and other birth researchers were recruited to evaluate the more than 275 birthing practice issues for which research, in particular, RCTs, had been undertaken.

The overall results of the analyses were the identification of 99 currently used forms of care that reduce negative outcomes of pregnancy; 38 forms of care that appear promising but require further evaluation; 88 forms of care with unknown effects that require further evaluation; and 61 forms of care that should be abandoned in light of available evidence. An inexpensive paperback presenting only the main conclusions of the analyses was also published to allow access to the information by pregnant women, midwives, physicians, and other clinicians (Enkin, Keirse, and Chalmers

1989). The analyses were extended to include care of the newborn and culminated in the publication of *Effective Care of the Newborn Infant* (Sinclair and Bracken 1992).

Science-based evaluation of care has proven strongly supportive of many aspects of the woman-centered, low-intervention midwifery care that has developed in North America over the last quarter century. These evaluations have provided support for midwifery practices such as allowing women to birth in the position of their choice, promoting vaginal birth after cesarean, restricted use of episiotomy, not automatically inducing labor in women who have gone past their due dates, avoiding arbitrary time limits in the second stage of labor, and placing importance on the woman's input to medical decisions.

Associated with this initial evaluation is another innovation, the Cochrane Database, an electronic database that provides a mechanism for regular updating of the existing evaluations as new research is completed. For each meta-analysis, the database contains a concise, consistently formatted summary of the key issues, including limitations, findings, conclusions, graphic presentations summarizing the results of the individual studies, and references for all studies included in the meta-analysis. As well, addresses and telephone numbers are listed for the individual researchers responsible for the review and for keeping it current. The Cochrane Database runs on IBM personal computers or clones, is updated twice yearly, and is available on diskette by subscription.¹

Remarkably, to date this remains the only field of medicine that has received a systematic scientific evaluation of existing research. Recently, the Cochrane Collaboration was formed by Iain Chalmers, who was a driving force in the original effective care collaboration, with the express intent of facilitating similar reviews of research in other clinical medicine fields. The importance of this new authoritative knowledge, based for the first time on the available scientific research and evaluated using the procedures of meta-analysis (a systematic search of the literature, setting criteria for individual study quality that must be met for inclusion, numerical summarization of results, and statistical evaluation of effect), should not be underestimated. The use of meta-analysis has gone a long way toward alleviating the subjectivity of conclusion and lack of quantification associated with the traditional literature review that it replaces. Meta-analysis is particularly useful when the available research suffers from any of the following limitations: (1) the number of individuals enrolled in the individual studies is small, so that the conclusions of individual studies have large statistical uncertainty associated with them; (2) individual studies vary in research quality, so that conclusions from poor research may dilute the conclusions of more carefully undertaken studies; (3) numerous studies have been

completed, so that systematic summarization is necessary to see the bigger picture.

The Oxford accomplishment has helped raise the profile of the RCT in birth issues. The RCT provides an extremely valuable framework for careful evaluation of much clinical practice. First, by randomly allocating subjects to the standard treatment or the experimental treatment, a new treatment can usually be compared to an existing one "without bias that can result from people at different prior risk selectively receiving one of the alternative forms of care being compared" (Enkin, Keirse, and Chalmers 1989). The idea of randomization in a clinical trial is that it will make it likely that the subjects in each group are so similar overall that the observed effects (or lack of them) are the result only of the treatment(s) or lack of them. Second, by carefully controlling who will be allowed into the trial to make sure they are appropriate candidates for the planned interventions, by describing carefully the procedures for how and when interventions will be carried out, and by making explicit the outcome measures that will be used to evaluate the relative success of a new intervention, a well-designed trial provides an opportunity for concise evaluation of a specific treatment question.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RCT

Although the RCT is an extremely useful clinical research tool for evaluating many specific obstetric practices, like all research methods, it has its limitations. David Grimes (1991) has commented on the need to perform and report RCTs properly. Judith Lumley (1987) describes the many stumbling blocks to performing perinatal RCTs, and Samuel Helman and Deborah Helman (1991) address various ethical dilemmas that can arise. Here I focus on a number of important technical and logistic issues that need to be considered in the debate about appropriate birthing practice, particularly in the context of evaluating several central components of woman-centered midwifery care.

Scientific Method

The gold standard in RCTs is the double blind trial, where both the patient and the practitioner are unaware (i.e., blinded) of whether the patient is receiving the standard or experimental intervention. This ideal is most readily attained in a drug trial in which individuals in a study are randomly allocated to receive a drug or an identical-looking placebo and neither patient nor prescriber knows who gets which. This is rarely possible with regard to birth intervention issues; for example, both the practitioner and

the patient know when a woman has been induced or a fetal monitor is being used.

Furthermore, just because a study employs randomization does not mean that the research is good. The question asked may be inappropriate or irrelevant. The study may be unethical (e.g., the use of placebo controls when an effective treatment is proven and available). The advantages of randomization may be undermined by unblinding of allocation or outcome assessment, cointervention(s), biased dropouts or losses to follow-up, or subjective responses. Although the RCT generally minimizes the chance of problems with bias, there are no guarantees—just as is the case in non-RCT research.

Clinical Judgment

When RCTs are used to evaluate birth practices, the criteria for judging outcomes or the need for intervention often depend on practitioners' perception or judgment: Is there fetal distress? Is there a need for intervention in a long second stage of labor? Is there failure to progress? What is the amount of blood loss? What is the newborn infant's physical status? When combined with a lack of blinding, it is possible that the systematic bias that the RCTs have labored to eliminate may creep in. If practitioners participating in the trial are overly optimistic about the new treatment or, conversely, disagree or are uncomfortable with it, it is possible that the observation of the outcome or the pressure to intervene may be skewed. For example, one of the first RCTs in Britain to evaluate active versus physiologic management of the third stage of labor instructed accoucheurs to try to leave the cord attached to the baby until the placenta was delivered. They were unable to comply with this directive in 51 percent of cases, probably because they were unaccustomed to and thus uncomfortable with this procedure. In a recent trial of restricted use of episiotomy (Klein et al. 1992), physicians in the study, when told to do episiotomies only when "absolutely necessary," still perceived a need for them in 25 to 90 percent of the births. In contrast, North American midwives find episiotomies necessary less than 5 percent of the time (Johnson, Daviss, and the Midwives' Alliance of North America Research and Statistics Group 1994).

Evaluating Emotional/Social Issues

The RCT is best suited to study very specific, technical issues with specific, easily measured outcomes (e.g., which type of suture material results in the lowest infection rate). The RCT is much more difficult to undertake for broader and less specific interventions and outcomes such as "satisfaction with care." Ann Oakley (1989) describes in detail the trials, tribulations, and ethical dilemmas for researchers and care providers alike of undertak-

ing an RCT involving randomized allocation of emotional/social support during pregnancy. Furthermore, it is not always clear that evaluating one aspect of care in isolation, removed from the larger context, will provide generalizable or appropriate answers. For example, trying to isolate exactly which components of supportive, personalized, and woman-centered care create a feeling of safety is unlikely to be amenable to RCT evaluation.

Finding Willing Subjects and Practitioners

The RCT can only be used to answer questions when one can get a group of pregnant women and practitioners to agree to choice of intervention based solely on random selection. Important issues like the safety of home versus hospital birth and the short- and long-term benefits of breastfeeding versus formula feeding are not amenable to RCTs.

Efficacy versus Effectiveness

The RCT answers the question, Does a new treatment work better than the existing treatment in an experimental setting? Thus it attempts to answer the question, *Can it work?* This is referred to as the efficacy of the treatment. Equally important is the question, When a new treatment is actually used in the real world, does it result in the expected improvement in outcome—that is, *Does it work?* This is referred to as the treatment's effectiveness. Just because a treatment has been shown to be efficacious does not guarantee that it will necessarily be particularly effective. Evaluations of effectiveness require observational epidemiologic studies, not RCTs. In observational studies data are collected on a specific population—for example, all communities in a certain geographic region, or all infants with a specific birth defect in a state and a comparable sample of healthy babies—and then comparisons of health outcomes within subsets of the study population are made.

RCTs generally involve well-trained and interested practitioners, often in research-oriented progressive teaching hospitals. The subjects eligible for receiving the treatment are carefully selected and are willing to participate, the interventions are performed according to a strict set of rules, and the whole process is carefully documented. In the real world the interventions may be applied incorrectly or by practitioners without the requisite skills, in settings where there is resistance to or undue confidence in the intervention, and thus the interventions may be applied to subjects for which the interventions were never intended or overlooked for subjects who might benefit. Furthermore, the cost of the intervention may not be justified by the derived benefits.

Expense and Funding

RCTs tend to be expensive and therefore can often only be done where significant research resources are available and the question to be resolved would justify the effort to the funding body. Research resources are rarely made available for any therapy not within the Western medical paradigm. If medical research funding is more readily obtained for studies addressing questions considered important within the highly technical, highly interventive approach to childbirth, research into midwifery care will not be readily funded. The situation parallels that of research funding for alternative cancer therapies. Almost all of the extensive resources committed to finding effective cancer therapies continue to be spent on the radiation/chemotherapy/surgery medical model of cancer therapy. Research into alternative therapies has rarely received funding. As a result there is usually no track record of research, proper studies are not undertaken, and the alternatives remain unevaluated and unaccepted.

"The Gold Standard"

Perhaps of more concern is that when RCTs are considered the gold standard of epidemiologic research, other well-respected types of epidemiologic research may be inappropriately devalued. Applied dogmatically, this notion will undermine established research methods that often are the only methods available to address basic, important issues. Furthermore, RCTs always require that prior descriptive epidemiology studies have been performed. It is from these that the RCT study questions often arise. Why are cesarean section rates going up? The postsection infection rate is too high; what interventions are effective in reducing risk? The framing of the study questions, sample size calculations, estimation of potential recruitment, duration and costs of studies, and ultimate feasibility often depend on such data.

Authority

The idea that the RCT is a "medical" technology should be dispelled. Although it has been popularized recently in a medical context, it is a general study design strategy developed in agricultural research and applicable to many fields, including midwifery. It is one of the most powerful designs but has distinct limitations. A much more rational approach to choice of designs is required. One should start with a clearly stated question, examine the literature and anecdotal experience, and then choose the most powerful and feasible design available. This might be a qualitative study, a case-control analysis, a cohort study, a clinical audit, a utilization study, a quality of life assessment, or an RCT.²

When authoritative knowledge becomes based almost exclusively on RCT research, then only techniques or approaches that have been subjected to RCT may be taken as authoritative. Alternative approaches (ones that do not depend on medical technology or prescription drugs) are far less likely to be well studied. For example, there have been a large number of studies evaluating the effectiveness of fetal monitoring (Thacker and Banta 1983) the benefits of which have been shown to be questionable (Leveno et al. 1986; Prentice and Lind 1987; Sly et al. 1990), whereas there have only been five studies reporting on the effectiveness of the "doula" (a woman who provides labor support), whose presence has been shown in the populations studied to result in shortened length of labor, reduced number of medical interventions, and increased maternal satisfaction (Klaus et al. 1992). Furthermore, because of the expense of RCTs and the limited amount of public research money available, more research is likely to become corporately funded, with the likely consequence that funding will be increasingly directed toward marketable, profitable technical interventions such as RCTs of drug interventions funded by drug companies.

AN EXAMPLE OF NON-RCT EPIDEMIOLOGIC RESEARCH: THE MIDWIVES' ALLIANCE OF NORTH AMERICA STUDY

The Midwives' Alliance of North America³ is currently undertaking a large epidemiologic study that could prove useful for furthering knowledge about the details and outcomes of low-intervention midwifery practices in North America. In 1992, MANA adopted a dataform that elicits detailed information about an individual mother's pregnancy, labor, and birth and the midwifery care she receives through pregnancy, birth, and follow-up of mother and baby to six weeks postpartum (see fig. 13.1 at end of this chapter). The form is being used to collect data in a consistent way from more than two hundred midwives from across North America. In the main part of the study, midwives send a registration form listing births they expect to attend in the following three months and then provide complete data-forms for those births as they occur. As of the summer of 1996, midwifery associations in over a dozen states and provinces including California, Oregon, Alaska, and Quebec had adopted the form; more than six thousand midwife-attended home and birth center births have been reported on the dataform and entered into a database for evaluation.

MANA is uniquely placed to carry out such research. First, a number of midwifery practices differ from those found in the regulated and restricted technomedical system. Home birth midwifery practice has evolved over the last quarter century outside of the control of medical authorities, because until recently midwifery has enjoyed an alegal status in much of the United

States and Canada. Second, MANA provides a neutral forum for data collection because it is an organization that has no disciplinary function. Midwives can feel safe about reporting the truth about their management of birth without fear of repercussions or disciplinary action. With a greater respect for and patience with variations in women's laboring, an expanded view of what is normal during birth has developed. Thus this forum also provides an opportunity to document the range of what "normal birth" may actually be.

The care provided by these midwives is focused on being "with women." It includes continuity of a caregiver or caregivers through pregnancy, labor, and the postpartum period, an emphasis on the development of a caring and trusting relationship between mother and midwife, patience during labor, and the use of modern low-tech intervention tools such as sterile gloves, uristicks, and Pinard horns.⁴ Labor and delivery take place in an environment in which a woman feels safe and are attended by midwives who believe in a woman's ability to deal with pain and successfully labor with little intervention. High-quality high-tech obstetrical backup care is available when required.

As an observational study, this research project provides an opportunity to efficiently investigate many different aspects of care and their effects on outcome. Whereas an RCT can be used only to study the practice that has been randomized, an observational study can be used to evaluate many aspects of care. Midwives practice independently and in a variety of ways (e.g., differing methods of perineal support, of using water during labor and birth, of management of second-stage labor, of dealing with delivery of the placenta, of use of herbs during pregnancy, labor, and postpartum, etc.). It should be possible to examine midwifery practices and their relation to pregnancy outcome for issues including the following: the overall approach of woman-centered midwifery care and perinatal mortality rates; not setting arbitrary time limits on the various stages of labor; differing approaches to delivery of the placenta and complications; differing approaches to perineal stretching during the third trimester and perineal tear rates; home versus hospital vaginal birth after cesarean; differing approaches to shoulder dystocia; and restricted use of episiotomy in relation to third- and fourth-degree perineal tear rates. With a database representing several thousand births, a variety of situations that occur rarely such as shoulder dystocia, long second-stage labor, and retained placenta, as well as practices that are not required often such as episiotomy, external cephalic version,⁵ and emergency transport can be evaluated in a systematic way not possible through individual or informal observation.

Because the subjects are not randomized to different forms of care, one can never be positive that results do not reflect a bias introduced by some unmeasured factor that is associated with both the choice of practice and

the outcome. Cautious evaluation is required as biased information might result because the caregiver is also the observer. However, as with a formally randomized sample, characteristics of mothers (age, parity, prenatal problems, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, etc.) can be compared (and controlled for in analysis if necessary) to increase the likelihood of unbiased evaluation. Furthermore, the development of epidemiologic knowledge, theory, and tools over recent decades has provided a strong backdrop for careful evaluation, and it is likely that considerable useful information can be obtained from observation of the outcomes of different forms of care used by different midwives. As with any study, suitable caution in the interpretation of results will be exercised.

Although no one study is conclusive, this work should be helpful in describing the outcomes of variations of care based on an approach dominated by a belief in women's ability to give birth with little or no intervention. The study analyses should provide a number of leads as to which forms of care may be effective, which may not be useful, and which may be detrimental. Some results may suggest areas in which RCTs would clarify or validate observational data. Because a number of states will be collecting data with the same form (reproduced at the end of this chapter), it should be possible to compare outcomes in different parts of North America, and in different settings, for consistency and reproducibility.

CONCLUSION

Epidemiology, in the form of both the RCT and the observational study, is an important ally for supporting and further developing low-intervention woman-centered midwifery care. The recent meta-analysis work done in the field of obstetrics is giving a new profile to evidence-based care, particularly that gained through RCTs, and is beginning to change obstetrics. The movement of authoritative knowledge away from "current medical opinion" toward evidence-based care has proven strongly supportive of many aspects of the woman-centered low-intervention type of midwifery that has developed in North America over the last quarter century. Armed with a balanced understanding of the strengths and limitations of RCTs and other types of epidemiological studies, we will be better able to assess the efficacy of alternative birth practices.

NOTES

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1. The address of the Cochrane Pregnancy and Childbirth Database is Manor Cottage, Little Milton, Oxford OX4 7QB, UK. In the United States and Canada, contact: Canadian Perinatal Clinical Trials Network, Local Do-705, Hospital St-François d'Assise, 10 rue de l'Espérance, Québec, Canada G1L 3L5 (418-525-4455; fax 418-525-4481; e-mail 3028wfra@vml.ulaval.ca). The database is available on disk and CD-ROM for IBM and Apple Macintosh computers.
2. *Case-control studies* involve comparing a set of subjects with a disease or health outcome of concern (cases) with a sample of healthy subjects from the same population (controls) to look for factors that may have contributed to the disease condition. *Cohort studies* involve following large groups of individuals (cohorts) until disease outcomes of interest occur and then examining how the rates of disease differ within subgroups with and without factors of interest.
3. For a description of MANA, see Davis-Floyd and Davis, this volume.
4. The uristick is a small plastic strip with a number of small chemically reactive blotters used to evaluate the constituents of urine. A pregnant woman tests her urine on the stick, and color changes of the chemical blotters will indicate normal or abnormal levels indicating the need for more detailed investigation of potential problems. The Finard horn, a hollow cone about 8 inches long and generally made of wood, was invented in the nineteenth century by the French physician Finard. When placed against the pregnant woman's belly, it assists the midwife in monitoring the baby's heartbeat by amplifying the heart tones. Its use requires a high degree of tactile and sensory closeness between mother, baby, and midwife.
5. Most babies adopt a head-down position a number of weeks before delivery; this is the safest positioning for delivery. External cephalic version is the procedure of gently moving a baby who is in the breech position (bottom or feet down) to a head-down position in the uterus through positioning of the mother and by the practitioner pushing gently with the hands on the woman's belly in a specific way (see Jordan [1978] 1993).

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Revised: APRIL, 1989

Please note: In general code: Lower, Upper, 7-don't know, blank=does not apply

LABOUR AND DELIVERY FACTORS

Delivery Factors

Preterm labour (< 37 weeks)

Shoulder dystocia (1=minor, 2=moderate, 3=severe)

Most effective tocolytic used

Fetal bradycardia (prolonged FHR < 110)

Latex or tape drape (1=at stage 2-2nd, 2=1 & 2)

Maternal alpha fetoprotein or social factors may have influenced status of placenta (write details in margin)

Cord prolapse (1=early, 2=late)

Cord around neck (1=1 or 2 weeks, 2=very short)

Other complications (1=umbilical, 2=uterine)

Placental complications (1=abruptio placenta, 2=retained placenta, 3=placental infarction, 4=placental abruption, 5=placental laceration, 6=placental infarction, 7=placental infarction, 8=placental infarction, 9=placental infarction, 10=placental infarction)

Accoutments

Stage when meconium noticed

Density (1=thin, 2=moderate, 3=thick)

Consistency (1=particulate, 2=well dissolved)

Colour (1=yellow, 2=light green, 3=dark green, 4=black, 5=other)

Blood Loss

Prophylactic to avoid hemorrhage (1=oxytocin, 2=amniotic fluid, 3=other)

Estimated blood loss (milliliters)

or cups (use 1/2 dekaliter = 5.0, 1.00, 2.25)

or cups (use 1/2 dekaliter > 500 ml or 2 1/4 cups)

Postpartum hemorrhage (> 500 ml or 2 1/4 cups)

Actions taken for blood loss

(1=uterine massage, 2=uterine stimulation, 3=external bimanual compression, 4=internal bimanual comp, 5=IV fluids, 6=blood transfusion, 7=other)

Drugs (1=epidural, 2=analgesic, 3=other)

Hyster (1=, 2=, 3=)

D & O

MEMORANDUM DATA (FIRST 6 HOURS)

Number of babies (complete this page for each baby)

Sex (1=girl, 2=boy)

Birthweight

OR

Age at (midwife's assessment)

Any clinical evidence that baby is preterm

Any clinical evidence that baby is postterm

Birth defects (1=minor, 2=serious, 3=life threatening)

Specialty

Proceedings

Resuscitation (1=action on the part of the midwife, 2=action on the part of the physician, 3=action on the part of the nurse, 4=action on the part of the other staff, 5=action on the part of the other staff, 6=action on the part of the other staff, 7=action on the part of the other staff, 8=action on the part of the other staff, 9=action on the part of the other staff, 10=action on the part of the other staff)

Complications (1=severe, 2=moderate, 3=minor, 4=none)

Interventions (1=severe, 2=moderate, 3=minor, 4=none)

Transfer to neonatal intensive care unit

DELIVERY OF PLACENTA AND MEMBRANES

Cord clamped (1=immediately (after pushing stage), 2=after pushing stage, 3=after placenta delivered, 4=other)

Cord clamped 4-6 minutes after birth

Method of position waiting to deliver placenta (1=supine, 2=left lateral, 3=right lateral, 4=other)

Method of position waiting to deliver placenta (1=supine, 2=left lateral, 3=right lateral, 4=other)

Membrane rupture (1=complete, 2=incomplete)

Anatomical variations of placenta (1=infarct, 2=infarct, 3=infarct, 4=infarct, 5=infarct, 6=infarct, 7=infarct, 8=infarct, 9=infarct, 10=infarct)

POSTPARTUM CARE AND BREASTFEEDING

Number of population visits with midwives

Estimated population visits: other caregivers

First midwife postnatal visit or contact (weeks)

Number of weeks breastfed in first 6 weeks

Number of weeks before any supplement (7=>26 weeks)

Concomitant in first 6 weeks

INFANTS' HEALTH IN FIRST 6 WEEKS

Newborn health problems in first 6 weeks (1=jaundice beyond normal physiologic level, 2=apnea, 3=apnea, 4=apnea, 5=apnea, 6=apnea, 7=apnea, 8=apnea, 9=apnea, 10=apnea)

Number of days of neonatal intensive care unit

Number of days newborn hospitalized in first 6 weeks

Passage of stool (1=normal, 2=abnormal, 3=abnormal, 4=abnormal, 5=abnormal, 6=abnormal, 7=abnormal, 8=abnormal, 9=abnormal, 10=abnormal)

Any other health problems (1=, 2=, 3=, 4=, 5=, 6=, 7=, 8=, 9=, 10=)

Problems health about death in margin

MOTHER'S HEALTH IN FIRST 6 WEEKS

Postpartum infections (1=chest, 2=urinary tract, 3=urinary tract, 4=urinary tract, 5=urinary tract, 6=urinary tract, 7=urinary tract, 8=urinary tract, 9=urinary tract, 10=urinary tract)

Other Postpartum Complications (1=late hemorrhage, 2=late hemorrhage, 3=late hemorrhage, 4=late hemorrhage, 5=late hemorrhage, 6=late hemorrhage, 7=late hemorrhage, 8=late hemorrhage, 9=late hemorrhage, 10=late hemorrhage)

Postpartum depression (1=moderate, 2=severe)

Maternal death

Underlying cause

(Please provide details about death in margin)

INFANTS' & MOTHERS' HEALTH AT 6 WEEKS

Infant (1=good, 2=moderate, 3=severe)

Mother (1=good, 2=moderate, 3=severe)

FOetal COHERENTON

Form filled out by (midwife)

Date ready of out

Form filled out by (midwife)

Date ready of out

1. If you haven't yet been assigned a code, use your initials here. Some midwives have a number for each birth. What we need here is an identifying code so that should those analyzing the data have questions about the way in which the form was filled out they can feed back the code to you and you can dig up that particular file. The important thing is that you have a different code for each birth that you have attended.
2. The client's municipality, population and postal code are used for demographic comparison to other birth datasets.
3. Please indicate which professions, vocations, or trades the mother has engaged in besides motherhood.
4. Miscarriage: WHO: Death before 20 weeks of gestation from LMP. S.I.C.H.I.C.: Death at 20 weeks or more. Baby did not take a breath.
5. Chronic hypertension (1) is defined by Williams Obstetrics as "A diastolic blood pressure of at least 90 mm Hg. or systolic pressure of at least 140 mm Hg. or a rise in the former of at least 15 mm Hg or in the latter of 30 mm Hg. The blood pressure cited must be maintained on at least two occasions six or more hours apart... Before the 20th week of gestation in the absence of hydatiform mole or extensive molar change, or persistent hypertension beyond six weeks postpartum."
6. Pregnancy-induced hypertension (2) is defined by Williams Obstetrics as "The development of hypertension in pregnancy after the 20th week of gestation and sometimes earlier when there are extensive hydatiform changes in the chorionic villi... It may also occur during the first 24 hours after delivery."
7. You must ask the mother about these or put a 7. Do not prompt with categorized answers.
8. One of the purposes of this form is to study outcomes of low risk women in all settings. This question, therefore, needs to be answered even for the births that were not planned at home to develop a comparison group of low risk women in hospital and birthing centre settings who could have had their babies at home.
9. Time when care was transferred to other provider even if you continued to provide support.
10. If this client at any time during her pregnancy planned to have a home birth please respond positively.
11. Latex or early labour is the beginning of contractions that are regular or irregular up to the point where dilation begins to progress. It is the period in which there is no dilation of the cervix beyond 3-4 cm. Most midwives do not feel that if a woman has had contractions for several hours or days, that this should be dismissed or be unaccounted for merely because the midwife has not been able to recognise any change in the cervix or lower uterine segment. We therefore think that the presence of contractions should be acknowledged no matter how long it has been going on and whether or not there has been cervical change, and it should be included under the title "early labour."
12. First stage of labour begins when contractions are of sufficient frequency, intensity, and duration to bring about progressive dilatation of the cervix (greater than 3 cm.), and ends when the cervix is sufficiently dilated to allow passage of the presenting fetal part (complete dilation).
13. Atrial/ld. sometimes persists when the rest of the cervix has been "taken up". It may be caused by pushing or continue when the woman begins to push before she is completely dilated. A woman may begin to push but if the pushing is not effective because she is not fully dilated and the anterior lip is still there. SECOND STAGE HAS NOT BEGUN.
14. Some women do not experience the plateau phase of 2nd stage. Others experience this break in which they are neither dilating nor pushing. Although this plateau stage of 2nd stage usually begins at complete dilatation of the cervix and ends at the point at which the mother begins to actively push her baby out, some women have already begun to push when they suddenly stop or fall asleep before they resume pushing. This would be considered plateau phase as well.
15. In a compound presentation, an externity prolapses alongside the presenting part with both entering the pelvis simultaneously.
16. Birth defects are often difficult to categorize. Give enough detail, in the margin, of the nature of the defect and the need for treatment, etc. so we can evaluate severity if in doubt.

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Midwives' Alliance of North America