

Chapter 3

Case Definition

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*This document may be reviewed or downloaded from the NBDPN website at:
<http://www.nbdpn.org/bdsurveillance.html>

3.1 Introduction

A *case definition* is a set of criteria that define the parameters of what is included for quantitative description and analysis. In birth defects surveillance a *case* refers to an individual with characteristics that fit into the defined parameters. Important characteristics in birth defects surveillance include the diagnosis, pregnancy outcome information, and demographics.

In the absence of a single national birth defects surveillance program in the United States, pooled data from state-based programs across the country serve to estimate national rates, indicate regional variations, and describe the epidemiology of defects that occur rarely. Because, at any given time, these programs may be in different stages of development, employ different methods of ascertainment, and have different goals and objectives, the elements of the case definition used by each must be clearly identified in order to make valid comparisons and to minimize birth defects rate variations across surveillance programs and among individual defects ascertained by the same program.

Therefore, it is necessary for a surveillance program to develop a clear, concise case definition. Consistent application of a standard definition facilitates the accurate monitoring of clinically relevant conditions, identification of true changes over time, and comparison among populations in order to meet surveillance goals.

In the remainder of this chapter we discuss what is meant by the term ‘birth defect’ (Section 3.2), some important terminology for case definition (Section 3.3), and case definition criteria (Section 3.4). The relationship between case definition and the two terms ‘sensitivity’ and ‘specificity’ is discussed in Section 3.5. References cited in this chapter may be found in Section 3.6. Appendices to this chapter include birth defects included in the NBDPN’s case definition (Appendix 3.1), the NBDPN Abstractor’s Instructions (Appendix 3.2, available in electronic format at <http://www.nbdpn.org/bdsurveillance.html>), examples of minor anomalies (Appendix 3.3), and conditions related to prematurity (Appendix 3.4).

3.2 What Is Meant by a ‘Birth Defect’

The general term ‘birth defect’ may take on a variety of meanings depending on the context in which it is used and the perspective of the person using it. ‘Congenital abnormality’, ‘congenital anomaly’, and ‘congenital malformation’ are terms often used as synonyms for ‘birth defect’. However, the word ‘congenital’ may describe any condition present at birth, regardless of its etiology or timing of occurrence. In the broadest sense, the term **birth defect** encompasses a diversity of conditions including physical malformations, sensory deficits, chromosomal abnormalities, metabolic defects, neurodevelopmental disorders, and complications related to prematurity and low birth weight, among others.

While such a broad definition may be very helpful when seeking legislation and funding for screening, intervention, or prevention programs, a more specific definition is needed for surveillance purposes. Traditionally, birth defects surveillance programs have monitored major structural and genetic defects that adversely affect health and development (Correa-Villaseñor et al., 2003). The specific conditions monitored by an individual program will vary depending on the goals and objectives of that program, the case ascertainment methods used, and the resources available.

3.3 Terminology¹

General Terminology

Major anomaly	A congenital abnormality that requires medical or surgical treatment, has a serious adverse effect on health and development, or has significant cosmetic impact. Individual major anomalies occur in less than 1 percent of the population. Together, they are seen in approximately 3 percent of births. Examples include cleft lip and tracheo-esophageal fistula.
Minor anomaly	A congenital abnormality that does not require medical or surgical treatment, does not seriously affect health and development, and does not have significant cosmetic impact. Individual minor anomalies generally occur in less than 4 percent of the population. The presence of multiple minor anomalies in the same child may provide clues to the timing of a prenatal insult and may indicate the presence of an undiagnosed major anomaly, syndrome, or functional deficit. Examples of minor anomalies are listed in Appendix 3.3.
Normal variant	A minor anomaly that occurs in approximately 4 percent or more of the population. Examples of normal variants include webbing of the second and third toes and a single umbilical artery in an otherwise normal infant.

Terminology Related to the Formation of Major Anomalies

Malformation	A major anomaly that arises during the initial formation of a structure, i.e., during organogenesis. For most organs, this occurs during the first eight weeks after fertilization. The resulting structure may be abnormally formed, incompletely formed, or may fail to form altogether. Examples of malformations include spina bifida and hypoplastic left heart. The term 'congenital malformation' is also used more broadly to indicate any major anomaly.
Disruption	A major anomaly that results from alteration of a structure after its initial formation. The resulting structure may have an altered shape and configuration, abnormal division or fusion of its component parts, or loss of parts that were previously present. Examples of disruption defects include intestinal atresia and possibly gastroschisis.
Deformation	A major anomaly that results from molding of part of a structure, usually over a prolonged time, by mechanical forces after its initial formation. Examples of forces that may lead to a deformation include oligohydramnios (diminished amniotic fluid) and intrauterine crowding in twin, triplet, or higher order pregnancies. Examples of deformations include the compression (Potter's) facies seen with bilateral renal agenesis and some instances of clubfoot.

¹ Stevenson, et al., 1993; Jones, 1997; Cunningham et al., 2001; Moore, 1977; National Center for Health Statistics, 2002.

Terminology Related to Patterns of Multiple Anomalies Occurring in a Single Child

Syndrome	A pattern of anomalies that form a specific diagnosis for which the natural history and recurrence risk are usually known. Use of the term ‘syndrome’ implies that the anomalies have a common specific etiology. Examples include Beckwith-Weidemann syndrome and Rubinstein-Taybi syndrome.
Sequence	A pattern of anomalies that results from a single primary anomaly or mechanical factor. The presence of the initial anomaly or factor leads to one or more secondary anomalies, which may then lead to one or more tertiary anomalies, etc., in cascade fashion. Examples include Robin sequence (micrognathia, posterior displacement of the tongue, cleft soft palate) and the oligohydramnios, or Potter, sequence (pulmonary hypoplasia, flattened facies, abnormal positioning of the limbs).
Association	A nonrandom pattern of anomalies that occur together more frequently than expected by chance alone, but for which no etiology has been demonstrated. Examples include VACTERL association (V ertebral, A nal, C ardiac, T racheo- E sophageal, R enal, and L imb anomalies) and CHARGE association (C olobomas, H ear defects, choanal A tresia, R etarded growth and development and/or central nervous system anomalies, G enital anomalies and/or hypogonadism, E ar anomalies and/or deafness). Use of the term ‘association’ does not indicate that a specific diagnosis has been made.

Terminology Related to Tissue and Organ Formation

Agensis	Failure of an organ to form.
Dysgenesis	Anomalous or disorganized formation of an organ.
Aplasia	Absence of a tissue or organ due to lack of cell proliferation.
Dysplasia	Disorganized cell structure or arrangement within a tissue or organ.
Hypoplasia	Undergrowth of a tissue or organ due to insufficient proliferation of otherwise normal cells.
Hyperplasia	Overgrowth of a tissue or organ due to excess proliferation of otherwise normal cells.

Terminology Related to the Timing of Gestation and Delivery

Embryonic period	The first eight weeks after fertilization, during which most, but not all, organs are formed.
Fetal period	The period from the ninth week after fertilization through delivery.
Neonatal (newborn) period	The first 28 days following delivery of a live-born infant.

Terminology Related to the Timing of Gestation and Delivery (continued)

Prenatal	Before delivery.
Perinatal	Before, during, or after delivery. The exact time period may vary from 20 to 28 completed weeks of gestation through 7 to 28 days after delivery, depending on the context in which the term is used.
Postnatal	After delivery.

Terminology Related to Pregnancy Outcome

Live birth	Spontaneous delivery of an infant that exhibits signs of life, including a heartbeat, spontaneous breathing, or movement of voluntary muscles. Transient cardiac contractions and fleeting respiratory efforts or gasps are not necessarily considered signs of life by all programs.
Fetal death (stillbirth)	Spontaneous delivery of an infant or fetus at 20 weeks or greater gestation that does not exhibit signs of life. Transient cardiac contractions and fleeting respiratory efforts or gasps are not necessarily considered signs of life by all programs. A late fetal death is a fetal death that occurs at 28 weeks or greater gestation.
Spontaneous abortion (miscarriage)	Spontaneous delivery of a fetus at less than 20 weeks gestation.
Induced abortion (elective termination)	The purposeful interruption of pregnancy with the intention other than to produce a live birth and which does not result in a live birth.
Term infant	An infant born after 37 completed weeks and before 42 completed weeks of gestation.
Preterm infant	An infant born before 37 completed weeks of gestation.
Postterm infant	An infant born after 42 completed weeks of gestation.
Low birth weight	Birth weight less than 2,500 grams, regardless of gestational age.
Very low birth weight	Birth weight less than 1,500 grams, regardless of gestational age.
Extremely low birth weight	Birth weight less than 1,000 grams, regardless of gestational age.
Neonatal death	Death of a live-born infant within the first 28 days after birth. <i>Early neonatal death</i> refers to death during the first 7 days. <i>Late neonatal death</i> refers to death after 7 days but before 29 days.
Infant death	Death of a live-born infant before 12 months of age.

3.4 Case Definition Criteria

In this section we discuss the various components of the case definition, that is, the criteria a birth defects surveillance program uses to define a case. These include diagnoses to be included (Section 3.4.1), residence (Section 3.4.2), pregnancy outcome (Section 3.4.3), gestational age (Section 3.4.4), age at which defects are diagnosed (Section 3.4.5), as well as the issue of pregnancies resulting from assisted reproductive technology (Section 3.4.6). Each of these criteria is discussed further below.

3.4.1 Diagnoses to Be Included

For the purposes of generating and reporting birth defects surveillance data across multiple states, the National Birth Defects Prevention Network (NBDPN) recommends the 45 major anomalies listed in Appendix 3.1. These were chosen on the basis of their frequency, their impact on public health, the state of knowledge about their etiologies and risk factors, and other considerations. Individual surveillance programs may want to expand this list to include additional defects of interest. Programs with limited resources may need to ascertain a subset of this list. Descriptions of each of the 45 diagnoses, its ICD-9-CM and CDC/BPA codes, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and defect-specific information that may be helpful when abstracting medical records are provided in the NBDPN Abstractor's Instructions posted on the NBDPN website (see Appendix 3.2). Examples of conditions considered to be minor anomalies are provided in Appendix 3.3. Conditions related to prematurity that are not considered to be major anomalies are listed in Appendix 3.4.

3.4.2 Residence

When monitoring the frequency of any condition, it is critical to define the population in which the cases occur. This allows one to calculate rates within the population, evaluate changes in these rates over time, plan for prevention and intervention services, and assess program goals and effectiveness. Population-based birth defects surveillance programs should strive to ascertain defects that occur among the offspring of all women who reside within a defined geographic area at the time of pregnancy outcome.

While this charge for surveillance programs appears straightforward, there are some special considerations. One such consideration is the fact that women who reside in one state or community may travel outside that area – such as to an adjacent state, specialty care center, or military facility – for obstetric care. In these instances, the mother's place of residence at the time of delivery (rather than the actual location of the delivery) should be used to determine whether to include her pregnancy in the surveillance. Including in-area residents who deliver outside the surveillance area, and excluding out-of-area residents who deliver within the surveillance area, is essential in order to conduct comprehensive surveillance. Whether an individual program attains this level of comprehensiveness will depend on how frequently women travel outside the surveillance area for delivery, the magnitude of the potential impact this may have on defect rates, the staff and resources available, and, most importantly, the existence of data-sharing relationships with facilities and programs outside the surveillance area. Recent changes in regulations concerning the privacy of medical records under the Health Information Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) have added to the complexity of these data-sharing relationships. The HIPAA regulations are discussed further in Chapter 2 on Legislation.

Another consideration is the fact that a surveillance program may identify more than one residential address for an individual woman. For example, the address of the health insurance policyholder listed in a hospital delivery record may differ from the mother's address listed on a birth certificate. If a patient changes residence during pregnancy, programs that employ multisource ascertainment may identify one

address from prenatal or laboratory records and another from the hospital delivery record. For these reasons, surveillance programs should develop standard procedures for deciding which of multiple addresses to accept as the mother's residence at delivery. Usually, this is the address at the time of delivery as listed on the vital record. If a vital record is not available or is not generated, as when an elective termination is performed outside the hospital setting, considering the mother's address from the termination record or from the prenatal visit closest in time to the delivery may be appropriate alternatives.

A third consideration requires detailing the method of determining whether a particular address lies within the surveillance area, particularly if the population under surveillance is not that of an entire state. For example, zip codes often cross city or county boundaries, streets may be renamed, new zip codes may be added, and city or county boundaries may change over time. Addresses that contain only a post office box number do not provide information about a person's actual place of residence. For these reasons, surveillance programs should develop standard procedures for distinguishing addresses that lie within or outside their surveillance area. Potential reference sources include street maps, United States Postal Service listings, tax assessor records, census tracts, and the latitude and longitude of the surveillance area (geocoding). While the latter can be extremely precise, the accuracy of geocoding will depend upon the accuracy of the addresses to which the latitude and longitude are assigned.

3.4.3 Pregnancy Outcome

Ideally, for births defects surveillance to be comprehensive with high sensitivity, all defects occurring in a population should be ascertained regardless of whether a pregnancy ends in live birth, fetal death, or spontaneous abortion, or whether an elective termination is performed. It is estimated that approximately 10 to 15 percent of all recognized pregnancies end in spontaneous abortion, and approximately 6 to 7 percent of those that reach 20 weeks gestation end in fetal death (Gabbe et al., 1996; National Center for Health Statistics, 2001). Surveillance systems that ascertain defects only among live-born infants may report incomplete data for defects that occur frequently among these outcomes. However, it is important to recognize that even late fetal deaths may not be scrutinized for defects as closely or as systematically as are live births. Unless an autopsy (including internal examination) and chromosome analysis are performed routinely, defects present in fetal deaths, yet not immediately evident in the delivery room, may remain unidentified. Even if an autopsy and chromosome analysis are performed, the presence of minor defects may not be recognized and syndromes may not be diagnosed. Whether it is beneficial for an individual program to ascertain defects reported in outcomes other than live births will depend upon the program's goals and objectives, the staff and resources available, the accessibility of information about these outcomes, and the magnitude of the potential impact on individual defect rates of excluding them.

The development and widespread use of prenatal diagnostic technology has posed additional issues for birth defects surveillance. These procedures have provided women with the option of electively terminating affected pregnancies, particularly those with defects that are life-threatening or that are likely to result in significant mental or functional impairment, usually before 20 weeks gestation. In the absence of prenatal diagnosis, many of these pregnancies would end in live birth or fetal death and would be included in birth defects surveillance data from many programs. Failure to ascertain prenatal diagnoses among electively terminated pregnancies may, therefore, limit the comprehensiveness and sensitivity of surveillance programs for some defects, such as neural tube defects and chromosomal abnormalities, even when defects among fetal deaths are ascertained. And – because the availability and utilization of prenatal diagnosis and elective termination may vary among populations, across geographic regions, and over time – the ability to make valid comparisons of some defect rates may be compromised unless pregnancies electively terminated after prenatal diagnosis are regularly ascertained.

Unfortunately, including these prenatal diagnoses will likely require expansion of a program's case ascertainment sources to include settings such as prenatal diagnostic clinics and termination centers. Furthermore, as is the case with fetal deaths, pregnancies that are electively terminated may not be fully scrutinized for confirmation of the prenatal diagnosis or the presence of additional defects or syndromes upon completion of the procedure. Again, whether it is beneficial for an individual program to ascertain defects reported in these pregnancies will depend upon the program's goals and objectives, the staff and resources available, the accessibility of information about these outcomes, and the magnitude of the potential impact on individual defect rates of excluding them. Regardless, it is important for birth defects surveillance programs to clearly state which outcomes are included when reporting surveillance data and to include pregnancies electively terminated after prenatal diagnosis whenever possible.

3.4.4 Gestational Age

Another important component of the case definition is the gestational age at delivery of the cases included in the surveillance data. The frequency of some defects may vary by gestational age, leading to variations in their rates depending on the length of gestation. For example, some defects are identified more frequently among preterm infants (Rasmussen et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 2001). Others, such as patent ductus arteriosus and undescended testes, may be abnormal in term infants but physiologically normal in preterm infants. Some ventricular septal defects that are present at birth in preterm infants might have closed during the last weeks of gestation if the pregnancy had continued to term. If surveillance systems differ in the gestational age at delivery of cases they include, or in their use of exclusion criteria based on gestational age, their rates of some defects may not be comparable.

Again, the inclusion of pregnancies electively terminated after prenatal diagnosis poses additional issues. Many of these pregnancies would have delivered spontaneously at a considerably later gestational age had they not been terminated. In order not to underestimate the frequency of defects for which elective termination may be performed, pregnancies terminated after prenatal diagnosis should be included in surveillance data regardless of the gestational age at which they were terminated. However, this may slightly overestimate the frequency of some defects relative to their frequency in the absence of prenatal diagnosis. For example, the majority of pregnancies electively terminated before 20 weeks gestation would have otherwise continued beyond 20 weeks to be included in birth defects surveillance programs that monitor pregnancies of 20 weeks or greater. However, a small proportion might have ended in spontaneous abortion before 20 weeks and would not appropriately be included in data from these programs. While the frequency of spontaneous abortion for pregnancies with Down syndrome has been estimated for each week of gestation, the natural history of pregnancies with other defects has not been well described (Hook et al., 1995). The frequency of spontaneous abortion by gestational week probably varies depending on the defect. Unfortunately, this effect is likely to be greater the earlier in gestation that affected pregnancies are terminated.

For the purposes of generating and reporting birth defects surveillance data across multiple states, the NBDPN recommends monitoring defects among live births and fetal deaths of 20 weeks or greater and among pregnancies electively terminated after prenatal diagnosis at any gestational age. Gestational age may be derived in various ways based on the date of the last menstrual period, measurement of the fetus by prenatal ultrasound, or the newborn clinical exam. Because these methods may not be equally accurate and may yield conflicting results, an important consideration is which method to use to determine whether a case fulfills the gestational age criterion for inclusion in surveillance data (Alexander et al., 1990; Hall, 1990). The methods below are listed in descending order of their generally accepted accuracy for calculating gestational age:

- Prenatal ultrasound with a reported gestational age of less than 14 weeks
- Date of the last menstrual period
- Prenatal ultrasound with a reported gestational age of 14 weeks or greater
- Clinical examination after delivery

When multiple estimates of gestational age are ascertained for an individual case, the NBDPN recommends that the value derived using the method highest on this list be used to determine case status. Regardless of which method is used, it is important for birth defects surveillance programs to clearly state the gestational ages of the cases included when reporting surveillance data.

3.4.5 Age at Which Defects Are Diagnosed

The age at which a defect is diagnosed is also an important component of the case definition. The frequency of some defects may vary depending on the age of the child at diagnosis. While defects that are visible in the delivery room or symptomatic shortly after birth may be ascertained by most surveillance systems with high sensitivity, some internal defects may not be apparent for weeks or months after birth. Examples include cardiac defects that do not produce overt cyanosis, such as many atrial or ventricular septal defects, many obstructive renal defects, and some instances of intestinal malrotation. In addition, some chromosomal abnormalities may not be diagnosed until a year or more after birth when developmental delay or behavioral symptoms prompt a more in-depth evaluation. The rates of such conditions reported by surveillance systems that ascertain defects only among infants in the newborn nursery may not be comparable with those from systems that ascertain defects among older infants and children.

For the purposes of generating and reporting birth defects surveillance data across multiple states, the NBDPN recommends monitoring defects among live-born infants up to one year of age. Whether an individual program is able to ascertain defects beyond the newborn period will depend on the accessibility of information from sources other than the newborn nursery and the availability of staff and resources to add these additional sources. Programs should regularly state the range of ages at diagnosis included when reporting surveillance data.

As with other case definition criteria, the inclusion of defects that are diagnosed prenatally poses additional issues. The sensitivity and specificity of fetal ultrasound may vary for different defects depending on the gestational age, the skill and experience of the technician, the presence of maternal obesity, and other factors. The sensitivity and specificity of fetal ultrasound also may differ from that of newborn ultrasound and other postnatal diagnostic procedures. In addition, some conditions identified at mid-gestation by prenatal ultrasound may resolve spontaneously before delivery. Examples include renal obstructions, such as pyelectasis and uretero-pelvic junction obstructions, choroid plexus cysts of the brain, and some ventricular septal defects. Even chorionic villus sampling (CVS) may yield placental cells that contain chromosomal mosaicism not actually present in the fetus. For these reasons, many abnormalities diagnosed or suspected prenatally must be evaluated postnatally to determine their true nature. When such postnatal assessment is not possible or the medical records are not available, decisions about whether to include these defects in the surveillance must be made individually based on the certainty and specificity of the prenatal diagnosis for each case. General abstractor's instructions for the inclusion and exclusion of prenatal diagnoses for the 45 defects reported by the NBDPN are provided in Appendix 3.2. When reporting surveillance data, it is important for birth defects surveillance programs to state clearly the ages at which the defects were diagnosed and whether prenatal diagnoses without postnatal confirmation are included.

3.4.6 Pregnancies Resulting from Assisted Reproductive Technology

The use of assisted reproductive technology raises unique issues for birth defects surveillance, particularly in pregnancies where the egg from one woman (the biological mother) is used to conceive, but the pregnancy is carried by another woman (the birth mother). In this instance, genetic characteristics of the biological mother will be transmitted to the infant, but the birth mother's environment and lifestyle during pregnancy may also affect the infant. This situation may become quite complex when examining etiologic factors for birth defects. However, for surveillance purposes, the NBDPN recommends that the person listed on the child's birth certificate should be mother of record.

3.5 Case Definition and Sensitivity and Specificity

Use of a consistent case definition is critical when evaluating the sensitivity and specificity of surveillance data and the efficiency and utility of surveillance programs.

The *sensitivity* of a surveillance program is defined as the proportion of cases occurring within a population that the program ascertains. Factors that may affect the sensitivity of a birth defects surveillance program include which pregnancy outcomes are ascertained (live births, fetal deaths, elective terminations), the gestational age at which they are ascertained (term infants only, pregnancies ≥ 20 weeks, all pregnancies), the child's age at the time the defect is diagnosed (prenatally, in the newborn period, before one year, at any age), and the diagnostic setting and methods used for ascertainment. For example, defects that are symptomatic in a live born infant may not be recognized in pregnancies that end in fetal death unless an autopsy is performed. Defects that are not immediately life-threatening, such as many cardiac septal defects, may not be diagnosed until several weeks or months after birth. If managed solely in the outpatient setting, these defects may be missed entirely by hospital-based programs unless surgical correction is required.

The *specificity* of a surveillance program is defined as the proportion of cases within a population that are ascertained by the program and that truly have defects. Factors that affect the sensitivity of a birth defects surveillance program may also affect its specificity. For example, patent ductus arteriosus (PDA) may be entirely normal in a preterm or one-day-old term infant but distinctly abnormal in a three-month-old child. Inclusion of all occurrences of PDA, regardless of gestational or postnatal age, may lead to ascertainment of false positive cases. Variations in the quality of prenatal ultrasound and in the natural course of some prenatal conditions necessitate postnatal confirmation of many diagnoses to avoid including false positive or clinically nonsignificant cases. Such confirmation may not be possible for pregnancies that end in fetal death or elective termination unless fetal autopsies are performed. Similarly, the exact nature of a congenital heart defect may not be finalized until the time of corrective surgery.

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