

Evidence-Based Prenatal Care: Part II. Third-Trimester Care and Prevention of Infectious Diseases

COLLEEN KIRKHAM, M.D., *University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine, Vancouver, British Columbia*
SUSAN HARRIS, M.D., *Children's and Women's Health Centre of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia*
STEFAN GRZYBOWSKI, M.D., *University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine, Vancouver, British Columbia*

All pregnant women should be offered screening for asymptomatic bacteriuria, syphilis, rubella, and hepatitis B and human immunodeficiency virus infection early in pregnancy. Women at increased risk should be tested for hepatitis C infection, gonorrhea, and chlamydia. All women should be questioned about their history of chickenpox and genital or orolabial herpes. Routine screening for bacterial vaginosis is not recommended. Influenza vaccination is recommended in women who will be in their second or third trimester of pregnancy during flu season. Women should be offered vaginorectal culture screening for group B streptococcal infection at 35 to 37 weeks' gestation. Colonized women and women with a history of group B streptococcal bacteriuria should be offered intrapartum intravenous antibiotics. Screening for gestational diabetes remains controversial. Women should be offered labor induction after 41 weeks' gestation. (*Am Fam Physician* 2005;71:1555-60,1561-2. Copyright© 2005 American Academy of Family Physicians.)

See page 1465 for strength-of-recommendation labels.

This is part II of a two-part article on prenatal care. Part I, "General Prenatal Care and Counseling Issues," appeared in the April 1, 2005, issue of *AFP*.

► **Patient information:**

A handout on infections during pregnancy, written by the authors of this article, is provided on page 1561.

Genital herpes acquired during pregnancy does not seem to increase rates of neonatal illness or congenital infection as long as seroconversion has completed by the time labor begins.

Part I of this article covered general counseling issues of prenatal care, blood typing, genetic screening, and nutritional counseling.¹ Part II focuses on third-trimester care and screening for and prevention of infectious diseases.

Infectious Diseases

HIV

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) testing is recommended in all pregnant women.²⁻⁸ Women at increased risk for HIV infection should be retested in the third trimester of pregnancy.^{4,6} Testing should be voluntary and done with informed consent.^{6,9} Targeted HIV testing in women thought to be at increased risk fails to identify a significant portion of infected women.⁷ Ideally, pretest counseling should include a discussion of risk factors, including the risk of transmission to the fetus, and the availability of therapy to reduce the risk of transmission to the fetus. However, pretest counseling should be streamlined so that it does not become a barrier to testing.^{2,6} Areas in the United States and Canada that use "opt-out" voluntary testing strategies or manda-

tory testing of newborns have higher rates of screening than areas with an "opt-in" policy.^{10,11}

SYPHILIS

Universal screening of pregnant women for syphilis at the first prenatal visit is recommended.^{2-4,12,13} Women at increased risk should undergo repeat serologic testing at 28 weeks' gestation and delivery.¹³ Most states have laws requiring antenatal syphilis testing.¹⁴

HERPES

All patients and their partners should be asked about a history of genital and orolabial herpes simplex virus (HSV) infection.^{2,5,15-17} Rates of vertical transmission at the time of delivery are 50 percent for a primary HSV infection, 33 percent for a nonprimary first episode (acquisition of genital HSV-1 or HSV-2, with preexisting antibodies to the other type), and zero to 3 percent for a recurrent HSV infection.¹⁸⁻²⁰ Genital herpes that is acquired during pregnancy does not seem to increase rates of neonatal illness or congenital HSV infection as long as HSV seroconversion has completed by the time labor begins.^{19,21} Neonatal HSV infection acquired in the birth canal can cause localized disease in the skin, eyes, or mouth (no associated mortality), central nervous sys-

Strength of Recommendations

Key clinical recommendation	Label	References
Labor induction should be offered after 41 weeks' gestation.	A	2, 3, 57, 59, 60
All pregnant women should be screened for active hepatitis B infection by surface antigen.	A	2, 3, 4, 15
All pregnant women should be screened for asymptomatic bacteriuria by urine culture at 12 to 16 weeks' gestation.	A	3, 4, 15
Sweeping of the membranes should be offered at term to reduce the need for labor induction.	A	3, 61
All pregnant women should be screened for syphilis during their first prenatal visit.	A	4, 12, 13
Routine screening for bacterial vaginosis is not recommended.	A	27, 28
All pregnant women should be tested for human immunodeficiency virus infection.	B	2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, or case series. See page 1465 for more information.

tem disease (15 percent mortality), and disseminated disease (57 percent mortality).^{20,22} Women with no history of herpes should be counseled about avoiding exposure near term. Those with an HSV-positive partner should consider abstinence, condom use, antiviral therapy in the HSV-positive partner, and avoidance of oral-genital contact if the partner has orolabial HSV infection.^{2,17} Women with recurrent HSV infection should be counseled about the use of acyclovir (Zovirax) at term to decrease the risk of cesarean delivery, the role of cesarean delivery in decreasing vertical

transmission, and avoiding postpartum transmission to the infant through direct contact.^{17,20,23} Type-specific HSV serology may be appropriate in some patients.²⁴

CHLAMYDIA AND GONORRHEA

All women at increased risk for sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), including those younger than 25 years, should be screened for chlamydial infection and gonorrhea.^{2,4,12,15,25} Some organizations^{5,26} advocate universal screening of pregnant women for chlamydial infection. High-risk groups include women younger than 25 years; unmarried women; black women; women with a history of STDs,

new or multiple sexual partners, cervical ectropion, and inconsistent use of barrier contraception; and women living in communities with high infection rates.²⁵ Affected women and their partners should be treated. The optimal testing time is uncertain, but most authors recommend testing at the first prenatal visit and again in the third trimester for high-risk patients.^{2,4,5}

BACTERIAL VAGINOSIS

Routine screening of all pregnant women for bacterial vaginosis (BV) is not recommended.²⁷⁻³⁰ Well-designed studies²⁷⁻³⁰ of BV screening in women with a history of preterm delivery found inconsistent results. Physicians may consider screening women at increased risk of preterm labor with Gram stain or Amsel criteria (i.e., three of the following signs: homogeneous white or gray noninflammatory vaginal discharge, presence of clue cells, vaginal secretion pH of 4.7 or greater, and amine odor of vaginal discharge before or after addition of 10 percent potassium hydroxide [KOH]).²⁷⁻³⁰ Symptomatic women should be treated.

RUBELLA

All pregnant women should be screened for rubella if testing was not performed before conception. Nonimmune women should be

Physicians may consider screening with Gram stain or Amsel criteria for bacterial vaginosis in women at increased risk of preterm labor.

counseled about the risks of rubella during pregnancy and offered vaccination in the immediate postpartum period.^{2-4,15}

VARICELLA ZOSTER

Maternal chickenpox infection in the first 20 weeks of pregnancy is associated with a 1 to 2 percent risk of congenital varicella syndrome (i.e., low birth weight, limb hypoplasia, ophthalmologic and neurologic abnormalities).³¹⁻³³ Neonates born to mothers who contract chickenpox between five days before delivery and two days after delivery have a 17 to 30 percent chance of developing neonatal varicella.³⁴ All women of childbearing age should be asked about their history of chickenpox.^{4,35,36} Women with no history can have serologic testing for varicella zoster IgG to determine immunity (80 to 90 percent of these women are found to be immune).³⁴ If testing is done in the preconception period, women can be offered two doses of varicella vaccine at least one month apart. Pregnancy should be delayed one month after vaccination.^{34,37,38} Varicella vaccine is contraindicated in pregnant women.³⁴

Women found to be nonimmune during pregnancy should be counseled to avoid exposure to chickenpox and to report exposure immediately. Susceptible pregnant women who are exposed are candidates for varicella zoster immune globulin.^{2,36,38} Nonimmune women should be offered postpartum varicella vaccination. The vaccine is considered safe in breastfeeding women.^{34,39} Immunization should be delayed for three months in women who have received Rh₀D immune globulin (Rhogam).³⁴ Maternal shingles is not a risk for the infant, who is protected from passively acquired maternal antibodies.³⁶

HEPATITIS B AND C

Screening for active hepatitis B infection with hepatitis B surface antigen (HbsAg) is recommended at the first prenatal visit so that postnatal intervention can be offered to decrease mother-to-child transmission.^{2-4,15,40} Women at increased risk of acquiring hepatitis B can be vaccinated safely during pregnancy and should be screened again for surface antigen before delivery. Women who

were not screened during pregnancy and those at increased risk should be tested at admission for delivery.²

Hepatitis C antibody screening should be offered to women with risk factors (e.g., prison inmates, injection drug users, women exposed to blood or blood products, HIV-positive women, women with elevated aspartate transaminase levels, multiple sexual partners, or tattoos).^{2,5,41} Vertical transmission of hepatitis C is estimated to be 8 percent.⁴¹ Aside from vertical transmission, there does not appear to be an increased risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes in women infected with hepatitis C.⁴¹

All women of childbearing age should be asked about their history of chickenpox.

URINARY TRACT INFECTION

All pregnant women should be screened by urine culture for asymptomatic bacteriuria between 12 and 16 weeks' gestation.^{2-4,12,15}

INFLUENZA

Influenza vaccination generally is recommended in women who will be in the second or third trimester of pregnancy during flu season.^{4,42,43} Pregnant women with medical conditions that increase their risk of complications from influenza should be immunized regardless of gestational age. There is no evidence that vaccination in the first trimester of pregnancy is unsafe.⁴⁴

GBS INFECTION

Group B streptococcal (GBS) infection is a significant cause of neonatal morbidity and mortality. Ten to 30 percent of women are colonized by GBS.⁴⁵ Risk factors for neonatal infection include: less than 37 weeks' gestation, prolonged rupture of membranes (more than 18 hours), and maternal fever.^{46,47} The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention,⁴⁶ the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists,⁴⁸ and the Society of Obstetricians and Gynecologists of Canada⁴⁹ recommend that all women be offered GBS screening by vaginorectal culture at 35 to 37 weeks' gestation and that colonized women be treated with intravenous antibiotics (e.g., high-dosage penicillin or clindamycin

[Cleocin]) at the time of labor or rupture of membranes. This recommendation is based on a nonrandomized, population-based study⁵⁰ from 2002. GBS bacteriuria indicates heavy maternal colonization. Women with GBS bacteriuria or a previous infant with GBS infection should be offered intrapartum antibiotics routinely and therefore do not require vaginorectal culture.⁴⁶ Other organizations have made different recommendations, including recommending against GBS screening³ and recommending universal screening with selective treatment of colonized women who also have clinical risk factors.⁴⁷

OTHER INFECTIONS

Routine screening for toxoplasmosis, cytomegalovirus, or parvovirus infection is not recommended.³⁵

Gestational Diabetes

Gestational diabetes is associated with hypertensive disorders, macrosomia, shoulder dystocia, and higher rates of cesarean delivery and diabetes later in life for the mother. The incidence of gestational diabetes is estimated at 2 to 5 percent.⁵¹ Screening for this condition remains controversial because there are no randomized controlled trials showing improved perinatal outcomes with screening. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists⁵¹ and the American Diabetes Association⁵² recommend that all pregnant women be screened for gestational diabetes at 24 to 28 weeks' gestation, except women who are at low risk (e.g., younger than 25 years, belonging to a low-risk ethnic group, normal prepregnancy weight, no history of abnormal glucose metabolism, poor obstetric outcomes, or first-degree relatives with diabetes).⁴ Screening has become standard in the United States, with 94 percent of physicians reporting universal screening.⁵³ Other organizations^{12,54,55} have found insufficient evidence to recommend for or against routine screening for gestational diabetes. British guidelines³ recommend against screening. Screening protocols also differ: a two-step protocol (i.e., one-hour, 50-g glucose-challenge test followed by a diagnostic three-hour, 100-g glucose-tolerance test) is the

main method used in North America, and a two-hour, 75-g glucose-tolerance test is offered in Europe. Neither method has been shown to predict adverse perinatal outcomes, and it is difficult to recommend a gold standard for diagnosis. A randomized trial⁵⁶ of 2,400 women, currently underway in the United States, should provide more answers.

Post-term Pregnancy

The risk of stillbirth increases with gestational age, from 1 per 3,000 pregnancies per week at 37 weeks' gestation, to 3 per 3,000 pregnancies at 42 weeks' gestation and 6 per 3,000 pregnancies at 43 weeks' gestation. Because of the increasing risk of stillbirth and the emotional impact on women and physicians, a number of trials have been conducted to study the impact of labor induction on obstetric outcomes. In one meta-analysis,⁵⁷ routine induction of labor at 41 weeks' gestation reduced rates of perinatal death without increasing rates of cesarean delivery. Although there is continued debate about the validity of these findings,⁵⁸ most guidelines recommend offering labor induction after 41 weeks' gestation.^{2,3,59,60} For gestational periods beyond 42 weeks, fetal well-being should be assessed with nonstress testing and ultrasound assessment of amniotic fluid volume.⁵⁷ Sweeping of membranes reduces the need for labor induction.^{3,61}

The authors thank Carl Wiebe, M.D.; Andrew Kotaska, M.D.; Robert Liston, M.B., Ch.B.; Sylvie Langlois, M.D.; Morgan Price, M.D.; Roberta Pauls, M.D.; and Stephen Kurdyak, M.D., for reviewing the manuscript.

The authors indicate that they do not have any conflicts of interest. Sources of funding: none reported.

REFERENCES

1. Kirkham C, Harris S, Grzybowski S. Evidence-based prenatal care: part I. General prenatal care and counseling issues. *Am Fam Physician* 2005;71:1307-16,1321-2.
2. American Academy of Pediatrics, American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Guidelines for perinatal care. 5th ed. Elk Grove Village, Ill.: American Academy of Pediatrics, and Washington, D.C.: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 2002.
3. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health. Antenatal care: routine care for the healthy pregnant woman. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: http://www.rcog.org.uk/resources/Public/Antenatal_Care.pdf.

4. Institute for Clinical Systems Improvement. Knowledge resources. Routine prenatal care. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.icsi.org/knowledge/detail.asp?catID=29&itemID=191>.
5. Sexually transmitted diseases treatment guidelines 2002. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2002;51(RR-6):1-78.
6. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Revised recommendations for HIV screening of pregnant women. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2001;50(RR-19):63-85.
7. Samson L, King S. Evidence-based guidelines for universal counselling and offering of HIV testing in pregnancy in Canada [published correction appears in *CMAJ* 1998;159:22]. *CMAJ* 1998;158:1449-57.
8. Stoto MA, Almario DA, McCormick MC. Reducing the odds: preventing perinatal transmission of HIV in the United States. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1999.
9. Territorial Advisory Committee on AIDS, a committee of the Federal Provincial Territorial Advisory Committee on Population Health. Guiding principles for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) testing of women during pregnancy—2002. *Can Commun Dis Rep* 2002;28:105-8.
10. HIV testing among pregnant women—United States and Canada, 1998–2001. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2002;51:1013-6.
11. Jayaraman GC, Preiksaitis JK, Larke B. Mandatory reporting of HIV infection and opt-out prenatal screening for HIV infection: effect on testing rates. *CMAJ* 2003;168:679-82.
12. Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. The Canadian guide to clinical preventive health care. Ottawa: Canada Communication Group, 1994.
13. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Recommendation statement: screening for syphilis infection. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/3rduspstf/syphilis/syphilis.htm>.
14. Hollier LM, Hill J, Sheffield JS, Wendel GD Jr. State laws regarding prenatal syphilis screening in the United States. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2003;189:1178-83.
15. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Guide to clinical preventive services. 2d ed. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Public Health and Science, Office of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 1996.
16. Smith JR, Cowan FM, Munday P. The management of herpes simplex virus infection in pregnancy. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1998;105:255-60.
17. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. Clinical green top guidelines: management of genital herpes in pregnancy. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.rcog.org.uk/guidelines.asp?PageID=106&GuidelineID=39>.
18. Brown ZA, Benedetti J, Ashley R, Burchett S, Selke S, Berry S, et al. Neonatal herpes simplex virus infection in relation to asymptomatic maternal infection at the time of labor. *N Engl J Med* 1991;324:1247-52.
19. Desselberger U. Herpes simplex virus infection in pregnancy: diagnosis and significance. *Intervirology* 1998;41:185-90.
20. ACOG practice bulletin. Management of herpes in pregnancy. Number 8 October 1999. Clinical management guidelines for obstetrician-gynecologists. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2000;68:165-73.
21. Brown ZA. Genital herpes complicating pregnancy. *Dermatol Clin* 1998;16:805-10, xiv.
22. Whitley R, Arvin A, Prober C, Corey L, Burchett S, Plotkin S, et al. Predictors of morbidity and mortality in neonates with herpes simplex virus infections. National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases Collaborative Antiviral Study Group. *N Engl J Med* 1991;324:450-4.
23. Sheffield JS, Hollier LM, Hill JB, Stuart GS, Wendel GD. Acyclovir prophylaxis to prevent herpes simplex virus recurrence at delivery: a systematic review. *Obstet Gynecol* 2003;102:1396-403.
24. Public Health Agency of Canada. Canadian STD guidelines. 1998 edition. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/publicat/std-mts98/index.html>.
25. Nelson HD, Helfand M. Screening for chlamydial infection. *Am J Prev Med* 2001;20(3 suppl):95-107.
26. Davies HD, Wang EE. Periodic health examination, 1996 update: 2. Screening for chlamydial infections. Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. *CMAJ* 1996;154:1631-44.
27. McDonald H, Brocklehurst P, Parsons J, Vigneswaran R. Antibiotics for treating bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000262.
28. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy: recommendations and rationale. *Am J Prev Med* 2001;20(3 suppl):59-61.
29. Guise JM, Mahon SM, Aickin M, Helfand M, Peipert JF, Westhoff C. Screening for bacterial vaginosis in pregnancy. *Am J Prev Med* 2001;20(3 suppl):62-72.
30. ACOG committee opinion. Bacterial vaginosis screening for prevention of preterm delivery. Number 198, February 1998. Committee on Obstetric Practice. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 1998;61:311-2.
31. Pastuszak AL, Levy M, Schick B, Zuber C, Feldkamp M, Gladstone J, et al. Outcome after maternal varicella infection in the first 20 weeks of pregnancy. *N Engl J Med* 1994;330:901-5.
32. Enders G, Miller E, Craddock-Watson J, Bolley I, Ridehalgh M. Consequences of varicella and herpes zoster in pregnancy: prospective study of 1739 cases. *Lancet* 1994;343:1548-51.
33. Balducci J, Rodis JF, Rosengren S, Vintzileos AM, Spivey G, Vosseller C. Pregnancy outcome following first-trimester varicella infection. *Obstet Gynecol* 1992;79:5-6.
34. National Advisory Committee on Immunization (NACI) update on varicella. *Can Commun Dis Rep* 2004;30:1-26.
35. ACOG practice bulletin. Perinatal viral and parasitic infections. Number 20, September 2000. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2002;76:95-107.
36. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists. Clinical green top guidelines: chickenpox in pregnancy. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.rcog.org.uk/guidelines.asp?PageID=106&GuidelineID=7>.
37. Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care. Use of varicella vaccine in healthy populations: systematic review and recommendations. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: http://www.ctfphc.org/Full_Text/CTF_Varicella_TR.pdf.
38. Prevention of varicella. Update recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP). *MMWR Recomm Rep* 1999;48(RR-6):1-5.

39. Bohlke K, Galil K, Jackson LA, Schmid DS, Starkovich P, Loparev VN, et al. Postpartum varicella vaccination: is the vaccine virus excreted in breast milk? *Obstet Gynecol* 2003;102(5 pt 1):970-7.
40. Maternal hepatitis B screening practices—California, Connecticut, Kansas, and United States, 1992-1993. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 1994;43:311, 317-20.
41. Boucher M, Gruslin A. SOGC clinical practice guidelines: the reproductive care of women living with hepatitis C infection. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: http://sogc.medical.org/sogcnet/sogc_docs/common/guide/pdfs/ps96.pdf.
42. Ressel GW. ACIP releases 2003 guidelines on the prevention and control of influenza. *Am Fam Physician* 2003;68:1426, 1429-30, 1433.
43. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG committee opinion. Immunization during pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2003;101:207-12.
44. Goldman RD, Koren G. Influenza vaccination during pregnancy. *Can Fam Physician* 2002;48:1768-9.
45. Schuchat A, Wenger JD. Epidemiology of group B streptococcal disease. Risk factors, prevention strategies, and vaccine development. *Epidemiol Rev* 1994;16:374-402.
46. Schrag S, Gorwitz R, Fultz-Butts K, Schuchat A. Prevention of perinatal group B streptococcal disease. Revised guidelines from CDC. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2002;(RR-11)51:1-22.
47. Prevention of group B streptococcal infection in newborns: recommendation statement from the Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care. *CMAJ* 2002;166:928-30.
48. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG committee opinion: number 279, December 2002. Prevention of early-onset group B streptococcal disease in newborns. *Obstet Gynecol* 2002;100:1405-12.
49. Money DM, Dobson S. The prevention of early-onset neonatal group B streptococcal disease. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2004;26:826-40.
50. Schrag SJ, Zell ER, Lynfield R, Roome A, Arnold KE, Craig AS, et al. A population-based comparison of strategies to prevent early-onset group B streptococcal disease in neonates. *N Engl J Med* 2002;347:233-9.
51. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists Committee on Practice Bulletins—Obstetrics. ACOG practice bulletin. Clinical management guidelines for obstetrician-gynecologists. Number 30, September 2001. Gestational diabetes. *Obstet Gynecol* 2001;98:525-38.
52. American Diabetes Association. Gestational diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 2003;26(suppl 1):S103-5.
53. Wilkins-Haug L, Horton JA, Cruess DF, Frigoletto FD. Antepartum screening in the office-based practice: findings from the collaborative Ambulatory Research Network. *Obstet Gynecol* 1996;88(4 pt 1):483-9.
54. Brody SC, Harris R, Lohr K. Screening for gestational diabetes: a summary of the evidence for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Obstet Gynecol* 2003;101:380-92.
55. Berger H, Crane J, Farine D, Armson A, De La Ronde S, Keenan-Lindsay L, et al. Screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2002;24:894-912.
56. Vadaeff AC, Yeomans ER, Ramin SM. Gestational diabetes: a field of controversy. *Obstet Gynecol Surv* 2003;58:759-69.
57. Crowley P. Interventions for preventing or improving the outcome of delivery at or beyond term. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000170.
58. Menticoglou SM, Hall PF. Routine induction of labour at 41 weeks gestation: nonsensus consensus. *BJOG* 2002;109:485-91.
59. ACOG Committee on Practice Bulletins—Obstetrics. ACOG practice bulletin. Clinical management guidelines for obstetricians-gynecologists. Number 55, September 2004. Management of postterm pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2004;104:639-46.
60. SOGC clinical practice guidelines: post-term pregnancy. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://sogc.medical.org/sogcnet/sogc%5Fdocs/common/guide/pdfs/co15.pdf>.
61. Boulvain M, Fraser WD, Marcoux S, Fontaine JY, Bazin S, Pinault JJ, et al. Does sweeping of the membranes reduce the need for formal induction of labour? A randomised controlled trial. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1998;105:34-40.