The confidential enquiry into maternal and child health (CEMACH)
A M Weindling

A review of the history of confidential enquiries

The Confidential Enquiry into Maternal and Child Health (CEMACH) was established in April 2003. It replaces CESDI (the Confidential Enquiry into Stillbirths and Deaths in Infancy) and CEMD (the Confidential Enquiry into Maternal Deaths); this gives it a truly perinatal focus, but its remit is now wider and includes all childhood death. This paper reviews the history of confidential enquiries, some of the principle findings of CEMACH’s predecessors, and the methodology and aims of CEMACH.

THE HISTORY OF CONFIDENTIAL ENQUIRIES

The current system of confidential enquiries started in 1952, just four years after the inception of the NHS. Before that, maternal deaths were reported to the Ministry of Health on an ad hoc basis. The first report of CEMD covered 1952–54, capturing 77% of maternal deaths during that period. From 1985–87 onwards, a single report was published triennially for the whole of the United Kingdom. The purposes of the CEMD were to assess the main causes of maternal deaths and, through the identification of avoidable causes, to reduce maternal morbidity and mortality by recommending improvements in clinical care and service provision; it also indicated directions for future research and audit. CEMACH was established in 1992, after the Department of Health directed that the 14 regions of England should undertake perinatal mortality surveys. CEMDI’s remit was to improve understanding of the causes of death in late fetal life and infancy—that is, from 20 weeks post-conception to one year after birth. Its aim was to reduce mortality by identifying suboptimal patterns of practice and service provision related to those deaths and to make recommendations for improvement. Combining CEMD and CESDI, CEMACH retains this regional organisation and these overall aims. There are two other national confidential enquiries: the National Confidential Enquiry into Perioperative Deaths (NCEPOD) and the Confidential Enquiry into Suicides and Homicides (CISH). All the confidential enquiries now fall under the umbrella of the National Institute of Clinical Excellence (NICE).

All confidential enquiry reports describe the conclusions of audits of their work by those involved in that field. The reports have been authoritative and have influenced clinical practice. Their frequency of publication is determined by the rate of occurrence of the events described. In the United Kingdom there are an estimated 957 500 pregnancies a year* and between 300 and 400 maternal deaths a year (giving a maternal mortality rate of 11.4 deaths per 100 000 maternities over the most recent period reported, 1997–99; see box 1): reports on maternal deaths are published every three years. The scale of the work undertaken by CESDI was quite different. About 10 000 deaths occur annually between 20 weeks gestation and 1 year of age in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland (644 940 live births and stillbirths in 1999; perinatal mortality rate 7.9 per 1000 live births) and reports are published annually. It is of course not possible to have an enquiry about all these deaths and CESDI has always had a rolling programme, identifying specific criteria for detailed confidential enquiry. Table 1 summarises some of CESDI’s previous work programmes.

Confidential enquiries are driven by a desire to improve care and a great many people are involved. CEMACH has a central office with a permanent staff of six and there are managers in each of the regions of England and Wales, who are responsible for individual enquiries. Each enquiry panel for a death that fulfils pre-set criteria comprises clinicians from relevant specialties, who are independent of the hospital where the patient died and who are unaware of the clinicians concerned with the patient’s care—one of the regional managers’ tasks is to ensure that the case notes are anonymised. The results of these enquiries are then collated.

CESDI’s early projects often lacked controls and denominator information, which limited their interpretation and generalisability. However, the study of Sudden Unexpected Deaths in Infants, the Antepartum Term Stillbirth Study, and the study on babies at 27 and 28 weeks gestation have included information about controls. Other CESDI projects have used a focus group methodology (for example, reports on shoulder dystocia, ruptured uterus, planned home delivery, anaesthetic complications and delays, breech presentation, and the onset of labour (all undertaken in 1994–95) and stillbirths (undertaken in 1996–97)).

SOME FINDINGS OF CEMACH’S PREDECESSORS

The CEMD reports showed a fall in maternal deaths due to abortion from 153 in 1952–54 to one in 1994–99, attributable to the legalisation of abortion. Between the same periods, maternal deaths due to haemorrhage fell from 188 to nine because of oxytocic injections, ultrasound diagnosis of placenta praevia, and improved intensive care. Death due to thromboembolism, which remains an important cause of maternal mortality, fell from 138 to 46 over this 40 year period. After 1993, there was improved case ascertainment through linking data with that provided by the Office for National Statistics. Table 2 summarises major causes of maternal deaths and their rates.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enquiry topic</th>
<th>Year of study</th>
<th>Annual report in which findings reported</th>
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<tr>
<td>Intrapartum related deaths &gt;2.5 kg</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>2nd</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrapartum related deaths &gt;1.5 kg</td>
<td>1994–95</td>
<td>4th</td>
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<tr>
<td>“Explain”d unexpected deaths</td>
<td>1993–96</td>
<td>5th</td>
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<tr>
<td>in infancy</td>
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<td>“I in 10” sample of all deaths &gt;1 kg</td>
<td>1996–97</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All deaths 4 kg and over</td>
<td>1997</td>
<td>6th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case control studies</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sudden unexpected deaths in infancy</td>
<td>1993–96</td>
<td>3rd and 5th and the CESDI SUDI studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Antepartum term stillbirths</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project 27/28</td>
<td>1998–2000</td>
<td>8th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*There is a fuller summary in the CESDI 8th annual report.

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LEADING ARTICLE

Box 1 Classification of maternal deaths

Maternal deaths are defined as deaths of women while pregnant or within 42 days of delivery, miscarriage, or termination of pregnancy, from any cause related to or aggravated by the pregnancy or its management, but not from accidental or incidental causes. Maternal deaths are classified as:

- **Direct** (deaths resulting from obstetric complications of the pregnant state (pregnancy, labour, and puerperium), from interventions, omissions, incorrect treatment, or from a chain of events resulting from any of the above).
- **Indirect** (deaths resulting from previous existing disease or diseases that developed during the pregnancy and not due to direct obstetric causes but aggravated by the physiological effect of pregnancy).
- **Late** (deaths occurring between 42 days and one year after termination of pregnancy, miscarriage, or delivery that are due to Direct or Indirect maternal causes.
- **Coincidental** (previously known as Fortuitous) deaths (those due to unrelated causes which happen to occur in pregnancy or the puerperium).

In 1994–95, 52% of 873 deaths related to intrapartum events were found to have received suboptimal care and the intrapartum related mortality rate was 0.95 per 1000 live and stillbirths;12 by 1999, the intrapartum related mortality rate had decreased to 0.62.9 There is, however, no room for complacency. The 1999 CESDI report warned about a failure to recognise that fetal growth failure was a precursor of many stillbirths. It was necessary to repeat recommendations that had been made in 1997 and 1998: there is a need to improve the quality of maternity records to enable clear identification of risk factors and appropriate management plans during the ante- and intra-partum periods.9

Several CESDI reports have commented on the use of fetal monitoring. The 1997 CESDI report showed a failure of use and/or interpretation of the cardiograph (CTG) in more than half of deaths that occurred intrapartum.13 A focus group on the ruptured uterus reported that 26% of comments on substandard care related to fetal monitoring.11 The following year, a “4 kg and over” survey also found deficiencies in the interpretation of CTGs.14 CESDI consequently recommended that every hospital offering intrapartum care should train and update staff regularly in the use of CTGs, and standards were developed:16–17

- Basic provision of electronic fetal monitoring (EFM) facilities should be 2–4 machines per 1000 deliveries.
- A guideline on the use of EFM should be available in every unit.
- Continuous EFM should be used in selected high risk pregnancies.
- If EFM is used, fetal blood sampling should be available.
- In situations of suspected fetal compromise, umbilical cord pH should be measured at delivery.

One of CESDI’s last projects was “Project 27/28—An enquiry into the quality of care and its effect on the survival of babies born at 27–28 weeks”.7 This major piece of work aimed to identify patterns of practice and service provision that were considered to have contributed to the deaths of babies born at 27 and 28 weeks gestation born between 1 September 1998 and 31 August 2000. It collected denominator data, set out standards, and used a case-control study approach to make recommendations for the better care of these very vulnerable infants. During the study period the neonatal mortality rate in this group was 12%. The Project made 16 recommendations for standards at a national and commissioning level and 64 at Trust level. These included recommendations about:

- Avoiding super-ovulation and multiple pregnancies when assisted reproductive techniques are used.
- Ensuring that units have a system to identify mothers who are at risk of preterm delivery at booking and during antenatal care and that these mothers should receive appropriate consultant care.
- A specialist high risk team to manage the labour and delivery of the baby of 28 weeks and less.
- Appropriate guidelines, which should include communication issues between professionals, the management of infection in the mother and baby, and thermal, respiratory, and cardiovascular support of the baby.
- Managed clinical networks and appropriate staffing levels.

Both the CEMD and CESDI have drawn attention to public health messages. In 1996, CESDI promoted key messages from the SUDI (Sudden Unexpected Deaths

### Table 2 Major causes of maternal deaths per million maternities notified to the CEMD: United Kingdom 1985–99

<table>
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<td>Thrombosis and thromboembolism</td>
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<td>14.0</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>21.8</td>
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<td>11.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
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<td>Haemorrhage</td>
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<td>9.3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amniotic fluid embolism</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early pregnancy</td>
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<td>7.6</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
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<td>5.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uterine trauma</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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<td>4.3</td>
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<td>Anaesthetic</td>
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<td>3.5</td>
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<td>Cardiovascular</td>
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<td>7.6</td>
<td>15.9</td>
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<td>16.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4.1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<td>31.0</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
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<td>Malignancies‡</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
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<td>Total direct and indirect causes</td>
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<td>100.1</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>121.9</td>
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<td>Coincidental causes</td>
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<td>16.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
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<td>Late causes</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Including sepsis in early pregnancy.
†Until 1993–96 counted as “coincidental”.
‡Until 1997–99 not classified separately.
Box 2 Key health messages from the SUDI studies

Back to sleep
Babies should be put down to sleep lying on their backs, unless there is a substantial medical reason not to do so. Sleeping on the back is preferable to sleeping on the side, and sleeping on the front should be avoided.

Feet to foot; head uncovered
Babies should sleep in such a way that their head does not become uncovered during sleep. This is most easily achieved by putting a baby to sleep with his or her feet close to or touching the foot of the cot. Blankets are preferred to duvets, and should be tucked in so that the baby’s head is exposed and uncovered without a hat.

Not too hot
Although it is important to prevent a baby becoming cold, becoming too hot is also a danger. Room heating is not required at night except when the weather is very cold. Babies’ bedrooms should be at a temperature overnight which is comfortable for a lightly clothed adult (usually 16–20°C).

Smoke-free zone
Cigarette smoking in pregnancy and around babies increases the risk of cot death. Although giving up would be the best option, a baby will be partly protected if his or her sleeping place is regarded as a smoke-free zone, whether the baby is asleep there or not.

Prompt medical advice
The risk of cot death may be reduced by seeking prompt medical advice for babies who become unwell, particularly those with a raised temperature, breathing difficulties and who are less responsive than usual. A proportion may have acute infections amenable to treatment.

Bed sharing for comfort, not sleep
While it is likely to be beneficial for parents to take their baby into bed with them to feed or comfort, it is preferable to place the baby back into a cot to sleep. This is especially important if the parents smoke or have consumed alcohol.

Box 3 Recommendations for use of seat belts in pregnancy

All pregnant women should be given advice about the correct use of seat belts as soon as their pregnancy is confirmed:

● Above and below the bump, not over it.

Three-point seat belts should be worn throughout the pregnancy, with the lap strap placed as low as possible beneath the “bump”, lying across the thighs with the diagonal shoulder strap above the bump lying between the breasts. The seat belt should be adjusted to fit as snugly as comfortably possible and, if necessary, the seat should be adjusted to enable the seat belt to be worn properly.

REFERENCES


I think that she must be about 145 cm tall, perhaps 40 kg, and about 60 years old. She might have been taller before, but now her legs bow and her back is hunched over. She’s dressed in dirty, but not filthy, clothes which are nearly, but not yet, rags. However, none of these features are what you’d notice first about her. In fact, at first you don’t see her diminutive figure at all—you hear her, from a good block or two away, because she’s playing a drum.

The drum, supported by a strap around her neck looks fairly new and well cared for. Unlike the tin drum my grandad gave me for Christmas when I was five—thus endearing both him and me to my parents—this is a real drum, a cylinder with the same depth as diameter, real resonance and a deep, booming note.

The rhythm is strictly 2/2 march. No complex quickstep of the waltz here; no pretentious 5/4 or fussy 6/8. The rhythm is simple—strictly 2/2 march. No complex quickstep of the waltz here; no pretentious 5/4 or fussy 6/8. The rhythm is thus endearing both him and me to my parents—this is a real drum, a cylinder with the same depth as diameter, real resonance and a deep, booming note.

The deal is that you give her a few pence for her playing and she goes away. Except that she is so obviously enjoying her playing that you are reluctant for her to leave; it is such a simple—but noisy—pleasure. The cynic would have it that she is playing to be a nuisance, so that you give her money to stop disturbing you. Her eyes, her slurred speech, her apparent difficulty hearing, and her childish laughter tell a different story: That she’s probably enjoying this, probably a good deal more than you; I enjoy most of the things that we do. If you do a little dance with her metricomonic beat, she’ll laugh fit to cry, as if you’ve just told the world’s funniest joke, or passed wind on live television.

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(Continued on next page)
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Arch Dis Child 2003 88: 1034-1037
doi: 10.1136/adc.88.12.1034

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**Letters**

**Chronic urticaria and coeliac disease**

We appreciated the paper by Levy et al published in this journal in June 2003.

A number of the cases of chronic urticaria in children appear to be of unknown aetiology, and experiences such as the one reported by the authors indicate an autoimmune origin.

In our opinion the model of association between thyroiditis and chronic urticaria may apply to the association between coeliac disease and chronic urticaria as well. Remarkably, Levy et al described a coeliac child with both chronic urticaria and autoimmune thyroiditis. In the literature, reports of at least four other cases of association between chronic urticaria and coeliac disease have been found, together with a report of a case of a coeliac 11 year old girl with chronic urticaria unresponsive to the diet.

Our experience confirms that chronic urticaria may be associated with coeliac disease.

We tested 32 children and adolescents with idiopathic chronic urticaria for tissue transglutaminase antibodies. HLA typing was performed in 25 of these patients; 10 tested positive for the typical coeliac apolype DQ2-DQ8. Three of 10 tested positive for 

Some evidence suggests that the duration of exposure to gluten in coeliac subjects is related to the risk of developing other autoimmune diseases. The hypothesis is that in coeliac disease the decrease of the immunological stimulus with the diet may decrease the production of other autoantibodies. This could possibly explain the improvements described after the adoption of a gluten-free diet in subjects with subclinical coeliac disease associated with chronic urticaria.

Therefore, even if this association is rare, we think that it is important to extend the field of investigation in the area of autoimmunity, screening for coeliac disease in all subjects affected by chronic urticaria of unknown origin. This recommendation is strengthened by the consideration that the diet for coeliac disease could help their urticaria to improve, and may prevent the development of other types of autoimmune disorders.

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doi: 10.1136/adc.2003.037259

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**References**


**Vitamin B-12 in Crohn’s disease patients with small bowel surgery**

Vitamin B-12 is absorbed from the terminal ileum, which is a commonly affected segment of gut in Crohn’s disease. Its absorption may be compromised in these children secondary to inflammatory lesions, ileal bacterial overgrowth, or mucosal damage caused by reflux of bacteria and surgical resection. Of these, surgical resection of large segments of terminal ileum are the most important cause of B-12 malabsorption in such patients. Prolonged depletion leads to megaloblastic anaemia and ultimately neuropathy and myelopathy. Therefore, diagnosis and treatment of vitamin B-12 malabsorption in patients with Crohn’s disease and small bowel/ileal resection is of great importance.

There is a paucity of published paediatric data on vitamin B-12 absorption after resection of the ileum in childhood. Valman and Roberts observed impaired absorption of vitamin B-12 in 7 of 10 infants and children who had resection of >45 cm of ileum. Abnormal absorption was however normal in 2 of 10 children who had 15 cm or more terminal ileum remaining. Impaired B-12 absorption after significant (>60–180 cm) ileal resection may be permanent; however in children, absorption of the remaining small bowel may result in restoration of its absorption several years after ileal resection.

Our anecdotal experience and communication with other paediatric gastroenterologists in the UK suggested that there is no consensus management strategy regarding B-12 supplementation after ileal resection. We, therefore, retrospectively examined in our own unit the impact of small bowel surgery on vitamin B-12 levels in 18 children with ileal resection secondary to Crohn’s disease over a period of 10 years. All patients except one had normal or low mean corpuscular volume and mean corpuscular concentration throughout their follow up before and after surgery. Median age at surgery was 15 years. Nine children had <30 cm of ileal resection and eight children 30–50 cm of terminal/distal ileum resected. Only one patient needed >70 cm of ileal resection. None of these children were observed to have low vitamin B-12 levels before or after small bowel surgery (for 1–8 years after surgery).

Our review of this small case series further highlights the significance of as yet unanswered question of vitamin B-12 supplementation in this group of children. As clinical and haematological B-12 deficiency may take several years to develop, serum B-12 levels alone may not be sufficient to decide about the need for its supplementation and regular formal B-12 absorption tests may be required. We feel that a large multicentre prospective cohort study is required to evaluate the need for regular monitoring of vitamin B-12 levels, its absorption tests, and the need for supplementation in children with Crohn’s disease needing small bowel surgery.

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doi: 10.1136/adc.2003.035527

**CORRECTION**

We would like to apologise for a typing error in the paper by A M Weindling, which was published in the December 2003 issue (Arch Dis Child 2003;88:1034–37). In Box 2 the first sentence under the heading ‘Feet to foot; head uncovered’ should read: Babies should sleep in such a way that their head does not become covered during sleep.

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