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International Child Care Practices Study: infant sleep position and parental smoking

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Abstract

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1. Introduction

Following the 2nd International Conference on Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS) in Sydney, Australia (February, 1992), a Global Strategy Task Force on SIDS

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108 was set up and made recommendations that population-based data on child care
109 practices in as many countries and regions of the world as possible be collected using
110 standardised methods. The International Child Care Practices Study (ICCPs) protocol
111 was distributed on computer diskette to 80 potential collaborators. Data on child care
112 practices were eventually received from 21 centres in 17 countries, including those with
113 recognised low rates of SIDS such as Hong Kong and Japan [1,2], as well as those with
114 previously higher rates of SIDS such as New Zealand [3,4]. Although it was recognised
115 that this ecological information would not provide any definitive answers to SIDS, it
116 was hoped that, in addition to providing baseline data on child care, it might stimulate
117 new hypotheses to explain persisting differences in SIDS rates between countries.

118 Initiatives in various countries aiming to “reduce the risk of SIDS” have been
119 associated with dramatic reductions in SIDS rates of 50% or more [5,6]. Modification of
120 infant sleep position has been the main factor identified with these successes. The next
121 most important modifiable SIDS risk factor is smoking, especially smoking by the
122 mother. However, smoking behaviour has proved to be much more difficult to change
123 than infant sleep position [7,8]. This report presents information from the ICCPS data set
124 on the two key SIDS risk factors of infant sleep position and parental smoking.

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2. Methods

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128 The ICCPS methods have been previously described in detail [9]. Subsequent to this
129 publication, data from Odessa in Ukraine have been included. In summary, the study
130 was designed to recruit families so that the infants would be 3 months of age during the
131 coldest 2 months of the year. Parents were invited to participate in the study during the
132 week after the birth when a “birth questionnaire”, completed by interview, collected
133 mainly socio-demographic data. The “home questionnaire” was posted to participating
134 families when the baby was 12-weeks-old. Telephone reminders were given if the
135 questionnaire was not returned. The home questionnaire was designed to be completed
136 on the day that it was received, with many questions referring to “last night”. Centres
137 were advised to recruit 250 families. Not all centres achieved this target, whereas other
138 centres recruited more families. Not all centres recorded rates of refusal to participate
139 and some centres only submitted data where both birth and home questionnaires had
140 been completed. A number of variations in the methods between different centres
141 occurred, e.g. some centres conducted face-to-face interviews and others used retrospec-
142 tively collected birth information data [9]. Centres coded and entered their data using Epi
143 Info data entry programmes provided (Epi Info statistical software version 6, Center for
144 Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta). Analysis of the data was undertaken with Epi
145 Info and was primarily descriptive. For this analysis, centres were grouped according to
146 geographical location. An indication was also given for each centre as to whether SIDS
147 was thought to be a problem in the community, and whether any specific “reducing the
148 risks of SIDS” messages were being propagated at the time of the survey. Group A were
149 considered to be higher awareness centres or countries (some form of SIDS awareness
150 messages available) and Group B were considered to be the lower awareness centres or
151 countries (no specific messages or campaigns available at the time of the survey). When
available, centres were asked to provide mortality data for the geographical area from

152

153 which the study population was recruited for each year from 1985. Information
 154 requested included total live births, number of postneonatal deaths (29–365 days) and
 155 number of postneonatal SIDS deaths. Mortality rates were calculated as deaths per 1000
 156 live births.

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158 3. Results

159

160 Data records were submitted for 5488 infants, and 4656 (85%) had data available for
 161 the home questionnaire. Reported response rates to the home questionnaire varied from
 162 21% to 100%. Information on infant sleep position at 3 months was available for 4639
 163 infants (Table 1). Families were asked to select the sleeping position when the baby
 164

165 Table 1

166 International Child Care Practices Study: infant sleep position at 3 months

| | <i>n</i> | Back | Side | Front | Other |
|--|----------|------------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Americas</i> | | | | | |
| Manitoba, Canada ^a | 230 | 95 (41%) | 97 (42%) | 28 (12%) | 10 (4%) |
| Buenos Aires, Argentina ^b | 81 | 32 (40%) | 23 (28%) | 26 (32%) | 0 |
| Santiago, Chile | 226 | 31 (14%) | 147 (65%) | 44 (19%) | 4 (2%) |
| <i>Northern Europe</i> | | | | | |
| Copenhagen, Denmark ^a | 360 | 119 (33%) | 231 (64%) | 9 (3%) | 1 (< 1%) |
| Graz, Austria ^a | 199 | 98 (49%) | 93 (47%) | 8 (4%) | 0 |
| Innsbruck/Vienna, Austria ^a | 200 | 111 (55.5%) | 56 (28%) | 33 (16.5%) | 0 |
| Hannover, Germany ^a | 122 | 50 (41%) | 62 (51%) | 10 (8%) | 0 |
| Dublin, Ireland ^a | 320 | 166 (52%) | 120 (37.5%) | 22 (7%) | 12 (4%) |
| Scotland (three cities) ^a | 219 | 184 (84%) | 19 (9%) | 16 (7%) | 0 |
| Stockholm, Sweden ^a | 241 | 127 (53%) | 86 (36%) | 27 (11%) | 1 (< 1%) |
| <i>Southern and eastern Europe</i> | | | | | |
| Hungary (Budapest/other) ^b | 32 | 15 (47%) | 3 (9%) | 14 (44%) | 0 |
| Istanbul, Turkey ^b | 92 | 38 (41%) | 31 (34%) | 18 (20%) | 5 (5%) |
| Florence/Naples, Italy | 200 | 46 (23%) | 87 (43.5%) | 67 (33.5%) | 0 |
| Odessa, Ukraine | 489 | 258 (53%) | 171 (35%) | 60 (12%) | 0 |
| <i>Asia</i> | | | | | |
| Beijing, China | 306 | 220 (72%) | 67 (22%) | 19 (6%) | 0 |
| Chongqing, China | 250 | 189 (76%) | 57 (23%) | 4 (1.6%) | 0 |
| Hong Kong SAR, China | 198 | 162 (82%) | 35 (18%) | 1 (< 1%) | 0 |
| Hong Kong Caucasian ^a | 117 | 70 (60%) | 37 (32%) | 10 (8%) | 0 |
| Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan ^a | 286 | 254 (89%) | 14 (5%) | 18 (6%) | 0 |
| <i>Oceania</i> | | | | | |
| Brisbane, Australia ^a | 222 | 108 (49%) | 78 (35%) | 29 (13%) | 7 (3%) |
| Dunedin, New Zealand ^a | 249 | 111 (45%) | 125 (50%) | 8 (3%) | 5 (2%) |
| Total Percentage (95% CI) | 4639 | 52.5 (43.5–61.3) | 37.8 (30.6–45.7) | 13 (9.3–17.9) | 3.1 (1.8–5.1) |

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168 ^aCentres with some form of SIDS awareness messages available considered as Group A, and the remainder
 169 considered as Group B.

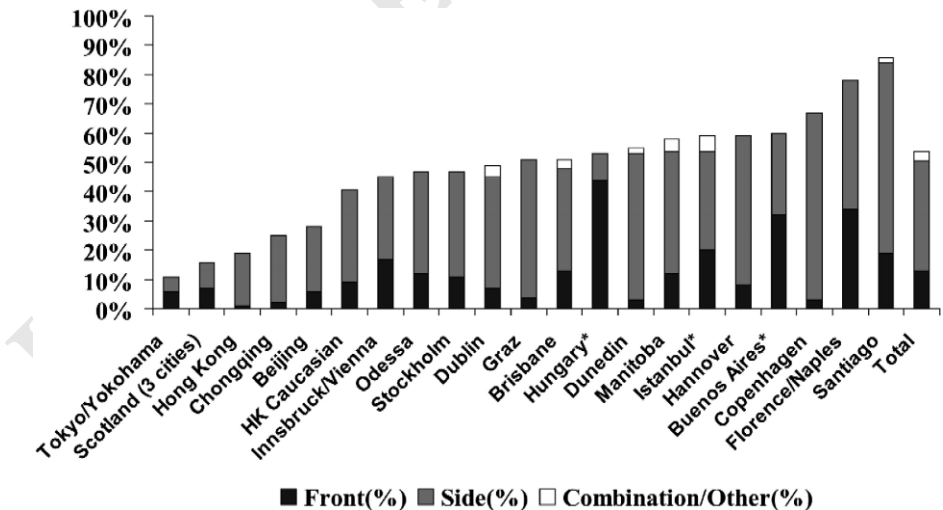
^bCentres with fewer than 100 respondents for the 3-month home questionnaire.

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171 went to sleep “last night” and four options were provided (lying on front with face
 172 down, lying on front with face to side, lying on back and lying on side). An option to
 173 describe any other sleep position was also provided; 52.5% (95% CI, 43.5–61.3) of
 174 infants slept supine (range 14–89%), 37.8% (95% CI, 30.6–45.7) on the side (range
 175 5–65%) and 13% (95% CI, 9.3–17.9) on the front (range < 1–44%). Another or a
 176 combination of positions was recorded for 3.1% (95% CI, 1.8–5.1) of infants. The latter
 177 referred to the situation where families selected more than one option or described
 178 another option. The highest rates of prone sleeping were in two of the three samples
 179 with fewer than 100 infants (Buenos Aires, Argentina and Hungary). These data are
 180 summarised graphically showing the percentage of infants sleeping non-supine in each
 181 centre (Fig. 1). Gender differences in sleep position have been previously noted [10], and
 182 our data showed that male infants were more likely to be placed non-supine (48.1%)
 183 than female infants (44.5%) ($\chi^2 = 5.75$, $p = 0.017$). The association between sleep
 184 position and smoking was also explored, and this showed that mothers who smoked
 185 were more likely to place their infants non-supine (19.1%) than supine (13.7%)
 186 ($\chi^2 = 23.5$, $p < 0.0001$).

187 Information on maternal smoking at the time of birth ($n = 4852$) and at 3 months
 188 ($n = 4636$) is shown in Table 2. At these time points, 22.3% (95% CI, 16.9–28.8) and
 189 21.4% (95% CI, 16.5–27.4) of the mothers reported that they smoked, and there was
 190 wide variation between centres (0–43% at birth and 0–34% at 3 months). The median
 191 number of cigarettes smoked at 3 months ranged from 3–10, with an overall median for
 192 the whole sample of 10 (IQ range 5–15). Mothers who smoked had infants of lower
 193 mean birthweight (3213 g, SD 615) than mothers who did not smoke (3357 g, SD
 194 552) ($F = 45$, $p < 0.0001$).

195 Corresponding data on paternal smoking at the time of recruitment ($n = 4743$) and at
 3 months ($n = 4570$) is presented in Table 3. At birth, 45.0% (95% CI, 37.5–52.6) of



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197

198 Fig. 1. International Child Care Practices Study: percentage of infants sleeping non-supine at 3 months of age.

* Centres with fewer than 100 respondents for the 3-month home questionnaire.

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200

201 Table 2

202 International Child Care Practices Study: mother's reported smoking

| Centre | Smoking at birth | | | Smoking at 3 months | | |
|--|------------------|-----------|--|---------------------|-----------|--|
| | Total | | Number of cigarettes smoked, median (IQ range) | Total | | Number of cigarettes smoked, median (IQ range) |
| | <i>n</i> | Yes (%) | | <i>n</i> | Yes (%) | |
| <i>Americas</i> | | | | | | |
| Manitoba, Canada ^a | – | – | – | 226 | 56 (25%) | 10 (5.5–13.5) |
| Buenos Aires, Argentina ^b | 82 | 9 (11%) | 6 (5–10) | 80 | 8 (10%) | 6.5 (4.5–11) |
| Santiago, Chile | 252 | 36 (14%) | 3 (2–5) | 226 | 66 (29%) | 3 (1–5) |
| <i>Northern Europe</i> | | | | | | |
| Copenhagen, Denmark ^a | 374 | 161 (43%) | 15 (10–20) | 359 | 121 (34%) | 10 (8–15) |
| Graz, Austria ^a | 199 | 29 (15%) | 10 (5–10) | 199 | 33 (17%) | 10 (5–10) |
| Innsbruck/Vienna, Austria ^a | 200 | 25 (13%) | 8 (5–10) | 200 | 41 (21%) | 10 (5–10) |
| Hannover, Germany ^a | 183 | 30 (16%) | 10 (5–10) | 121 | 21 (17%) | 10 (10–20) |
| Dublin, Ireland ^a | 397 | 130 (33%) | 10 (10–20) | 321 | 108 (34%) | 10 (6–20) |
| Scotland (three cities) ^a | 247 | 41 (17%) | 10 (10–15) | 219 | 33 (15%) | 10 (7.5–15) |
| Stockholm, Sweden ^a | 254 | 25 (10%) | 5 (5–10) | 241 | 16 (7%) | 5.5 (4–10) |
| <i>Southern and eastern Europe</i> | | | | | | |
| Hungary (Budapest/other) ^b | 32 | 10 (31%) | 17.5 (10–20) | 32 | 6 (19%) | 10 (10–20) |
| Istanbul, Turkey ^b | 163 | 30 (18%) | 9 (4–10) | 90 | 22 (24%) | 4 (2–6) |
| Florence/Naples, Italy | 200 | 30 (15%) | 10 (5–12) | 200 | 24 (12%) | 8 (5–11.5) |
| Odessa, Ukraine | 488 | 101 (21%) | 5 (2–10) | 489 | 41 (8%) | 5 (3–7) |

Asia

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|---------|---------------|-----|---------|------------|
| Beijing, China | 306 | 0 (0%) | 0 | 306 | 0 (0%) | 0 |
| Chongqing, China ^c | 250 | 0 (0%) | 0 | 250 | 0 (0%) | 0 |
| Hong Kong SAR, China | 251 | 6 (2%) | 16 (10–20) | 197 | 11 (6%) | 10 (6–10) |
| Hong Kong Caucasian ^a | 124 | 8 (6%) | 11 (6.5–17.5) | 116 | 6 (5%) | 7.5 (2–15) |
| Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan ^a | 280 | 15 (5%) | 10 (10–15) | 289 | 27 (9%) | 10 (8–15) |

Oceania

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|----------|-------------|-----|----------|------------|
| Brisbane, Australia ^a | 302 | 94 (31%) | 10.5 (7–20) | 226 | 77 (34%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Dunedin, New Zealand ^a | 268 | 61 (23%) | 8 (5–10) | 249 | 56 (22%) | 8 (5–10) |

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|------|-------------------|--|------|-------------------|--|
| Total percentage (95% CI) | 4852 | 22.3% (16.9–28.8) | | 4636 | 21.4% (16.5–27.4) | |
|---------------------------|------|-------------------|--|------|-------------------|--|

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206 ^aCentres with some form of SIDS awareness messages available considered as Group A, and the remainder considered as Group B.207 ^bCentres with fewer than 100 respondents for the 3-month home questionnaire.^cRetrospective for birth data.

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210 Table 3

211 International Child Care Practices Study: father's reported smoking

| Centre | Smoking at birth | | | Smoking at 3 months | | |
|--|------------------|-----------|--|---------------------|-----------|--|
| | Total | | Number of cigarettes smoked, median (IQ range) | Total | | Number of cigarettes smoked, median (IQ range) |
| | <i>n</i> | Yes (%) | | <i>n</i> | Yes (%) | |
| <i>Americas</i> | | | | | | |
| Manitoba, Canada ^a | – | – | – | 220 | 68 (31%) | 10 (6–15) |
| Buenos Aires, Argentina ^b | 80 | 28 (35%) | 17.5 (10–20) | 78 | 26 (33%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Santiago, Chile | 247 | 132 (53%) | 5 (2–14.5) | 225 | 98 (44%) | 4 (2–10) |
| <i>Northern Europe</i> | | | | | | |
| Copenhagen, Denmark ^a | 359 | 143 (40%) | 20 (10–20) | 349 | 130 (37%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Graz, Austria ^a | 194 | 85 (44%) | 15 (10–20) | 192 | 80 (42%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Innsbruck/Vienna, Austria ^a | 199 | 84 (42%) | 15 (10–20) | 197 | 85 (43%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Hannover, Germany ^a | 181 | 74 (41%) | 15 (10–20) | 121 | 39 (32%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Dublin, Ireland ^a | 362 | 119 (33%) | 10 (10–20) | 313 | 109 (35%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Scotland (three cities) ^a | 240 | 71 (30%) | 15 (10–20) | 216 | 60 (28%) | 10 (10–15) |
| Stockholm, Sweden ^a | 250 | 37 (15%) | 6 (2–15) | 237 | 23 (10%) | 10 (4–15) |
| <i>Southern and eastern Europe</i> | | | | | | |
| Hungary (Budapest/other) ^b | 32 | 7 (22%) | 20 (10–20) | 32 | 6 (19%) | 17 (10–20) |
| Istanbul, Turkey ^b | 163 | 99 (61%) | 20 (10–20) | 89 | 51 (57%) | 10 (5–20) |
| Florence/Naples, Italy | 200 | 65 (33%) | 15 (10–20) | 200 | 62 (31%) | 10 (10–20) |
| Odessa, Ukraine | 475 | 352 (74%) | 10 (10–20) | 478 | 297 (62%) | 10 (10–20) |

Asia

| | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----|-----------|------------|-----|-----------|------------|
| Beijing, China | 306 | 175 (57%) | 10 (5–12) | 306 | 168 (55%) | 10 (5–12) |
| Chongqing, China ^c | 250 | 161 (64%) | 10 (10–20) | 250 | 161 (64%) | 11 (10–20) |
| Hong Kong SAR, China | 250 | 89 (36%) | 10 (10–20) | 196 | 64 (33%) | 10 (8–20) |
| Hong Kong Caucasian ^a | 124 | 17 (14%) | 10 (2–17) | 117 | 15 (13%) | 10 (2–15) |
| Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan ^a | 272 | 135 (50%) | 20 (10–20) | 289 | 144 (50%) | 20 (15–20) |

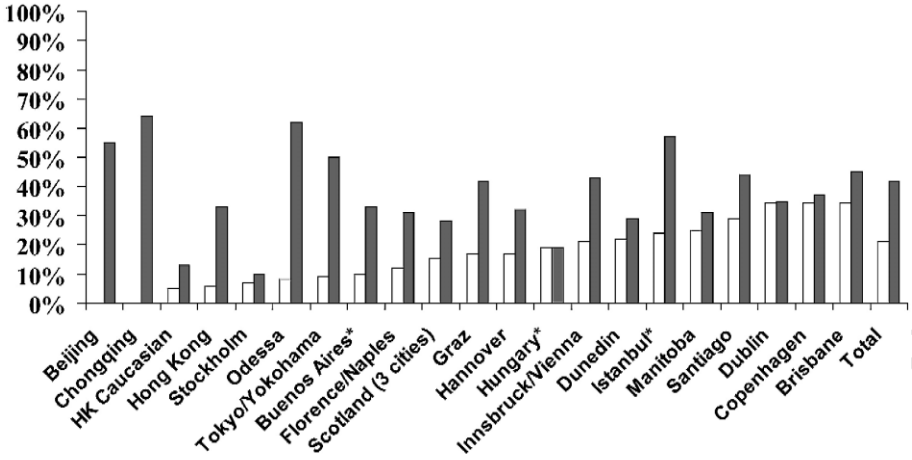
Oceania

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-----------|--------------|-----|-----------|------------|
| Brisbane, Australia ^a | 294 | 144 (49%) | 15 (10–25) | 220 | 100 (45%) | 15 (10–20) |
| Dunedin, New Zealand ^a | 265 | 90 (34%) | 10.5 (10–15) | 245 | 70 (29%) | 10 (8–15) |

| | | | | | | |
|--|------|-------------------|--|------|-------------------|--|
| Total percentage (95% CI) | 4743 | 45.0% (37.5–52.6) | | 4570 | 41.9% (35.3–48.7) | |
| Group A ^a percentage (95% CI) | | 37.6% (29.8–46.1) | | | 35.5% (28.5–43.2) | |
| Group B percentage (95% CI) | | 55.1% (45–64.8) | | | 50.7% (41.5–60) | |

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215 ^aCentres with some form of SIDS awareness messages available considered as Group A, and the remainder considered as Group B.216 ^bCentres with fewer than 100 respondents for the 3-month home questionnaire.^cRetrospective for birth data.



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218

□ Mother at 3 months ■ Father at 3 months

219 Fig. 2. International Child Care Practices Study: mother’s and father’s reported smoking when infant is aged 3
220 months, ranked by mother’s smoking. *Centres with fewer than 100 respondents for the 3-month home
questionnaire.

221

222 the fathers were reported to be smokers (range 14–74%), with the median number of
 223 cigarettes smoked ranging from 5–20. At 3 months, 41.9% (95% CI, 35.3–48.7) of
 224 fathers were reported to be smokers, with the median number of cigarettes smoked
 225 ranging from 4 to 20. The percentage of fathers smoking in the SIDS aware group A
 226 were 37.6% (95% CI, 29.8–46.1) at birth and 35.5% (95% CI, 28.5–43.2) at 3 months.
 227 The corresponding percentages for the lower SIDS aware group B were 55.1% (95% CI,
 228 45–64.8) and 50.7% (95% CI, 41.5–60). Maternal and paternal smoking at 3 months are
 229 contrasted in Fig. 2. Post-neonatal mortality rate (deaths between 29 and 365 days per
 230 1000 live births) and post-neonatal SIDS mortality rates (SIDS deaths between 29 and
 231 365 days per 1000 live births) for centres for the 5-year period from 1991–1995 are
 232 presented in Table 4.

233

234 4. Discussion

235

236 These data emphasise the considerable variability in the two most important modifi-
 237 able SIDS risk factors in these diverse populations, i.e. non-supine infant sleep position
 238 and parental smoking. The extent to which the non-supine position was used in these
 239 different centres is shown in Table 1. The Japanese samples had the highest proportion
 240 of infants sleeping supine. Japan has had a low rate of SIDS compared to many Western
 241 countries, although during the 1980s, an increased number of SIDS deaths were
 242 observed [1]. Although these increases may in part be explained by increased recognition
 243 of SIDS, the increases may have been related to such factors as increased use of the
 244 prone sleep position for infants or increased rates of smoking in mothers [11]. It is
 thought that, as a result of influence from Western countries, some Japanese began to

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246

247 Table 4

248 International Child Care Practices Study: postneonatal mortality rate (deaths between 29 and 365 days per
249 1000 live births) and postneonatal SIDS mortality rates (SIDS deaths between 29 and 365 days per 1000 live
250 births)

| | Postneonatal mortality rate | | | | | SIDS mortality rate (28–365 days) | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|-----|-----|-----|------|-----------------------------------|------|------|------|------|
| | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 |
| <i>Americase</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Manitoba, Canada ^a | 2.6 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.8 |
| Buenos Aires, Argentina | – | – | – | – | 13.2 | – | – | – | – | 1.4 |
| Santiago, Chile | 6.8 | 6.7 | 6.1 | 5.1 | 5.0 | – | – | – | – | – |
| <i>Northern Europe</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Copenhagen, Denmark ^a | 3.0 | 2.4 | 1.8 | 1.2 | – | 1.8 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 0.3 | – |
| Graz, Austria ^a | 2.0 | 2.2 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 0.3 |
| Innsbruck/Vienna, Austria ^a | 1.9 | 1.7 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 0.9 |
| Hannover, Germany ^a | 3.2 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| Dublin, Ireland ^a | 2.7 | 2.5 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 1.02 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.6 |
| Scotland (three cities) ^a | 2.7 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 1.2 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.6 |
| Stockholm, Sweden ^a | 2.6 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 1.5 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| <i>Southern and eastern Europe</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Hungary (Budapest/other) | 4.3 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.15 |
| Istanbul, Turkey | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Italy: Tuscany (Florence) | – | – | – | – | 1.6 | – | – | – | – | – |
| Italy: Campania (Naples) | – | – | – | – | 1.9 | – | – | – | – | – |
| Odessa, Ukraine | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 0.6 |
| <i>Asia</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Beijing, China | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Chongqing, China | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Hong Kong SAR, China | 2.3 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Hong Kong Caucasian ^a | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Tokyo, Japan ^a | 1.9 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 0.14 | 0.28 | 0.46 | 0.28 | 0.38 |
| Kanagawa, Yokohama, Japan ^a | 2.1 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 0.32 | 0.23 | 0.25 | 0.37 | 0.42 |
| <i>Oceania</i> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Brisbane, Australia ^a | 3.0 | 2.2 | 1.8 | 2.7 | – | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.9 | – |
| Dunedin, New Zealand ^a | 3.3 | 3.3 | 2.8 | 1.1 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 1.1 |

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252 ^aCentres with some form of SIDS awareness messages available considered as Group A, and the remainder
considered as Group B.

253

254 sleep babies prone during the 1980s. Placing babies to sleep in the supine position has
255 been the traditional child care practice in Japan, and even before the results of research
256 on SIDS risk factors came to light, the prone position was considered by many Japanese
257 parents to be “dangerous”. Data for the present study was collected at a time when there
258 may have been some awareness of the risks of prone sleep position in Japan, as local
259 campaigns to teach about risk factors were launched in mid 1996. However, the high
260 rate of supine sleeping in this population is also likely to be related to traditional cultural
261 preference. Low rates of prone sleeping were also noted in the Hong Kong and Chinese
262 samples, where there was little awareness of SIDS and no health messages available to
parents on SIDS risk factors. Documentation of a low rate of SIDS in Hong Kong in

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264 1987 was speculated to be related to supine sleep position, life-style factors (families
265 living in confined spaces with the infant constantly in the presence of other people) and
266 lower rates of preterm birth [2,12]. The present study showed that 82% of Hong Kong
267 infants slept supine and less than 1% slept prone. In the two Chinese mainland samples,
268 similar low rates were noted, Beijing (72% supine and 6% prone) and Chongqing (76%
269 supine and < 1.6% prone). These high rates of supine sleeping in these lower SIDS
270 awareness centres suggest that local cultural practice was the main factor influencing
271 infant sleep position.

272 The main studies on SIDS risk factors have been undertaken in Western countries
273 that experienced high rates of SIDS during the 1980s. For example, Dunedin, New
274 Zealand had had a very high rate of SIDS [4]. As a result, there was a very active
275 programme to advise parents on SIDS risk factors at the time of the survey, when 3% of
276 Dunedin infants were sleeping prone and 50% on the side. Most infants (65%) in the
277 sample from Santiago, Chile were sleeping on the side, resulting in this centre having
278 the lowest rate of supine sleeping infants (14%). Recent studies undertaken after the
279 introduction of advice against the use of the prone sleep position for infants, have shown
280 that the side sleep position is also a risk factor for SIDS [5]. Avoidance of the side sleep
281 position has been recommended [13], and this advice has been further supported by
282 meta-analysis [14]. One of the highest rates of prone sleeping was identified in the small
283 sample from Buenos Aires, Argentina. It was subsequently shown that this population
284 had a moderately high rate of SIDS and high post-neonatal mortality rate (Table 4).
285 These data helped to initiate a “Link” programme between New Zealand and Argentina
286 to raise awareness of SIDS and to advise that infants should sleep “boca arriba” (face
287 up) [15].

288 These data provide an interesting overview of the wide variations in this important
289 child care practice. However, when interpreting this data, it should be noted that the data
290 collected refers to sleep position at one point in time, at about 3 months of age. Parents
291 may select a different position depending on whether the infant goes to sleep during the
292 day or at night. Practices may also vary from night-to-night and as the infant gets older.
293 Thus, the percentage of infants that ever slept prone may be higher than the percentages
294 of infants who slept prone “last night”. Gender may also play a role in determining sleep
295 position [10], and our data supports this association, although the overall differences
296 between male and female infants were not marked. An association was also noted
297 between mothers’ smoking habit and infant sleep position. This might be an indication
298 of a mother’s awareness of health risks. Fifteen percent of the recruited sample did not
299 respond to the 3-month questionnaire. A slightly smaller percentage of mothers and
300 fathers smoked at 3 months than they did at birth, suggesting that there were possibly
301 more drop-outs in the smoking group. It is also possible that there may have been more
302 prone sleeping infants in the drop-out group.

303 After infant sleep position, smoking, particularly antenatal smoking by the mother,
304 has been the next most consistent and important modifiable SIDS risk factor [7,8].
305 However, although it has been relatively easy to persuade parents not to place their
306 infants prone, it has been much more difficult to persuade them not to smoke. The wide
307 variations in smoking rates of mothers and fathers in these different communities are
shown in Tables 2 and 3. The markedly different ratios of mothers/fathers smoking are

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309 also emphasised in Fig. 2. Particularly striking are the two Chinese mainland samples,
310 where no mothers smoked but 64% (Chongqing) and 55% (Beijing) of fathers smoked.
311 Big differentials were also noted in Odessa (8% of mothers and 62% of fathers) and
312 Tokyo/Yokohama, Japan (9% of mothers and 50% of fathers). In contrast, the rates of
313 maternal and paternal smoking in some of the Western countries tended to be more
314 equivalent, e.g. Brisbane, Australia (34% of mothers and 45% of fathers), Copenhagen,
315 Denmark (34% of mothers and 37% of fathers) and Manitoba, Canada (25% of mothers
316 and 31% of fathers). The lowest rates of smoking were recorded in the sample from
317 Stockholm, Sweden, where 7% of mothers and 10% of fathers reported smoking. These
318 gender differences in smoking rates within and between communities may reflect
319 differences in suggested stages of the smoking epidemic [16]. Stage 1 is where few
320 males (< 15%) smoke but rates rapidly increase, and < 5% females smoke (e.g.
321 developing countries). Stage 2 is where male smoking rises to 50–80%, and smoking-re-
322 lated male mortality starts to appear. Female smoking rates lag 10–20 years behind (e.g.
323 China and Japan). Stage 3 is where male smoking starts to decline, reaching around
324 40%, and female smoking peaks and plateaus (e.g. eastern and southern Europe). Stage
325 4 is where smoking starts to decline slowly in both sexes, as male mortality from
326 smoking peaks and female mortality starts to rise rapidly (e.g. USA, UK, Canada and
327 western Europe). Our data is generally compatible with these suggested stages. The
328 question is whether anti-smoking interventions can speed up, or even bypass, some of
329 the stages of this process so as to more quickly achieve smoking rates similar to those in
330 our Swedish sample.

331 The accuracy of the smoking data is obviously open to some debate, as it is well
332 recognised that self-reported rates and amounts of smoking are under-reported. It is
333 possible that the degree of under-reporting may vary between communities, and it can be
334 speculated that the degree of under-reporting may be greater in communities with strong
335 anti-smoking measures than in those where smoking is socially acceptable. It is unlikely
336 that over-reporting of smoking behaviour would have occurred, so the figures presented
337 here can be considered as a minimum level of smoking within these communities.

338 In conclusion, these data highlight the considerable variations in the prevalence of
339 these two important SIDS risk factors in these diverse samples. High rates of side
340 sleeping were noted in some samples. High rates of supine sleeping were noted in
341 samples from countries lacking specific information on SIDS risk, suggesting that supine
342 sleep position is a normal cultural practice in these countries. Impressive differences in
343 rates of smoking within and between these communities are noted. Although these
344 differences may reflect different stages of the inevitable progression of the smoking
345 epidemic, they should provide some encouragement that reduction in smoking rates, in
346 both mothers and fathers, is possible.

347

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