Benefits of Seafood Consumption and Omega-3 DHA During Pregnancy and Early Post-Natal Development

White Paper

From the Perinatal Nutrition Working Group, a program of the National Healthy Mothers, Healthy Babies Coalition

March 2012

BACKGROUND

Seafood is an Essential Part of a Healthy Diet

The many benefits of eating seafood start in the womb and continue through old age. Fish is the major source of omega-3 fatty acids in the diet and has long been known to decrease serum triglycerides, improve glucose tolerance and decrease the risk of sudden cardiac death and fatal arrhythmia and may protect against development of Alzheimer's dementia and certain types of depression. Over a dozen major health organizations including the American Dietetic Association, American Heart Association, American Diabetes Association, and Alzheimer's Association recommend eating fish two times per week for the many health benefits. (See Appendix A.) Oily fish like salmon, tuna, trout, and sardines are particularly high in the omega-3 long chain fatty acids, docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA).

Most recently, the 2010 Dietary Guidelines for Americans have recommended two 4 to 8 ounce servings of fish per week for pregnant and breastfeeding women to promote optimum fetal and neonatal cognitive development.¹ DHA is an essential nutrient that promotes healthy pregnancy outcomes and optimal infant cognitive development. **Most women do not get enough DHA during pregnancy and lactation to meet their infants' optimal developmental needs.** Since DHA accumulation in brain parallels the period of rapid brain development from the 26th week of gestation throughout the first two years of life² the need for the DHA in fish is especially high during pregnancy. During the last trimester of pregnancy, 60 - 70 mg/day of DHA are accreted in fetal brain each day and this increases to 70 - 80 mg/day during lactation.³

Although small amounts of omega-3 DHA can be derived from the short chain omega-3 fatty acid, α -linolenic acid, conversion is less than 0.1%⁴ and cannot meet the needs for optimal DHA accretion during rapid periods of growth and development. The ability to convert α -linolenic acid to DHA is highly variable and is likely based on diet, gender and genetic variation in the ability to elongate and desaturate α -linolenic acid to form DHA.⁵ It has recently been shown that conversion is greater in females of childbearing age than in men,^{6,7} possibly because of the effect of estrogen on the desaturase genes.⁸ Genetic variations in the desaturase gene clustered on chromosome 11 are involved in essential fatty acid metabolism.⁹ Three single nucleotide polymorphisms in the desaturase gene cluster, including the minor variants rs174561 CC variant in the FADS1 gene (which codes for the delta-5 desaturase), the rs174575 GG variant in the FADS2 gene (which codes for the delta-6 desaturase, the rate limiting step in the conversion of α -linolenic acid to DHA), and a deletion defect in the rs3834458 intergene region are associated with low maternal phospholipid and red blood cell DHA levels¹⁰ and low breast milk DHA concentrations.¹¹ Interestingly, infant IQ in response to breastfeeding is greatest in babies born to mothers who are homozygous for the major allele of the rs174575/FADS2 gene.¹²

Benefits of Seafood Consumption During Pregnancy

High intakes of long chain omega-3 fatty acids from seafood or fish oil supplements have been shown to increase gestational length and infant birth weight.^{13,14,15,16} Birth weight and gestational age are important determinants of neonatal morbidity and mortality, subsequent neurocognitive development and risk for infant and childhood obesity. Therefore, promotion of optimal prenatal intake of seafood or DHA is important to pregnancy outcome.

The highest levels of maternal fish consumption during pregnancy have been associated with improved cognitive development, social skills and earlier acquisition of language in infants throughout the world.^{17,18,19, 20} The ongoing British ALSPAC study demonstrated that infants born to mothers who consumed more than 320 gm. (11 oz.) of fish per week did better on tests of cognitive development than infants born to mothers who ate no fish during pregnancy; they had earlier acquisition of speech and better social skills.¹⁷ Data from the Harvard Project VIVA in the United States show that children born to mothers with the highest seafood intakes during pregnancy and breastfeeding have better cognitive outcomes in both infancy and at three years of age.^{18,20} Improvement in infant omega-3 DHA status in clinical trials of maternal DHA supplementation during pregnancy has been shown to improve neurocognitive development in infants.^{21,22} Improved cognitive development has been shown in four-year-old children born to mothers with high baseline intakes of seafood who also received supplements of fish oil during pregnancy and breastfeeding.²³ Two of the most important determinants of infant cognitive ability in a large Danish birth cohort were shown to be the highest fish intake and the length of breastfeeding.¹⁹

The protective effect of breastfeeding on obesity in children has been recently reviewed.²⁷ Breastfeeding is consistently found to be protective against development of obesity in childhood^{27,28,29,30} which is at least partially attributable to the DHA contribution of breastmilk compared to formula.^{24,25,26} A recent study determined that at three years of age, breastfed children had lower BMI and were less likely to be obese (BMI \geq 95 percentile) when compared to formula fed children.³¹ There is increasing evidence that DHA, can reduce body fat in humans by increasing fat oxidation and suppressing fat deposition, preventing or reducing obesity.³² Current evidence shows the fatty acid composition of the maternal diet during pregnancy and/or lactation can play a role in determining body composition of the child. ^{33,34} Breastfed infants of mothers supplemented with omega-3 PUFAs showed a significantly reduced BMI at 12 months compared to infants of nonsupplemented mothers.³⁵ The effect has been attributed to DHA supplementation which reduced the rate of weight gain and resulted in decreased BMI in the breastfed infants at 21 months of age.^{33,35} While additional clinical trials are necessary, current research strongly suggests that continued promotion of breastfeeding as well as DHA supplementation during pregnancy and lactation support lower BMIs and decreased obesity risk in children.

The Fish Paradox

Just about all seafood includes traces of mercury, a known neurotoxin. However, maternal seafood consumption during pregnancy is associated with improved, not impaired, cognitive development. The evidence for safe consumption of seafood during pregnancy has been exhaustively reviewed by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) and consistently shows the positive effect of

seafood consumption by pregnant women on visual and cognitive development in their infants.³⁶ Even in populations which consume ten times the amount of seafood as women in the United States, such as those of the Seychelle Islands, no consistent adverse effects of methylmercury (MeHg) from fish can be demonstrated. In fact, in a 17 year follow up study of children born to mothers in the Seychelle Islands, no adverse effects were demonstrated on 21 of the 27 endpoints studied; children with prenatal MeHg exposure (reflecting higher maternal fish intake) did better on four endpoints and only two end points were slightly lower but only in males.³⁷ The authors concluded that ocean fish consumption during pregnancy is important for long lasting benefits on cognitive development in children.³⁷ In the Faroe Islands, a decrease of 0.1 IQ point was demonstrated among children whose mothers consumed the greatest amount of seafood, but about one-third of the seafood consisted of pilot whale meat; further analysis showed the protective effect of fish on the MeHg exposure from pilot whale.³⁸ In 2004, the concern for mercury exposure, largely resulting from the Faroe Islands data, prompted the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to issue joint consumer advice regarding mercury in fish and shellfish. This advice was specifically addressed to women who are or might become pregnant, nursing mothers and young children. In order to understand the ramifications of the advice, it is important to evaluate both what it says and how it has been interpreted. The advice opens by explaining, "a well-balanced diet that includes a variety of fish and shellfish can contribute to heart health and children's proper growth and development." But this is followed by information about mercury, including the statement that "some fish and shellfish contain higher levels of mercury that may harm an unborn baby or young child's developing nervous system" and the following recommendations:

- Do not eat shark, swordfish, king mackerel or tilefish because they contain high mercury levels;
- Eat up to 12 ounces (2 average meals) a week of a variety of fish and shellfish that are lower in mercury, such as shrimp, canned light tuna, salmon, pollock, and catfish;
- Albacore ("white") tuna has more mercury than canned light tuna, therefore when choosing your 12 ounces of fish and shellfish, you may eat up to 6 ounces (1 average meal) of albacore tuna per week; and
- Check local advisories about the safety of fish caught by family and friends in your local lakes, rivers and coastal areas and, when advisories are not available, generally do not eat more than 6 ounces (1 average meal) per week of fish from local waters and do not eat any other fish during that week.
- Although the FDA/EPA joint advice recommend eating fish for the many health benefits, many families have interpreted the guidance as a "warning" to limit or avoid all fish.^{39,40} Discussions of the seafood advice with pregnant women have shown that women are vaguely aware that mercury is harmful and not aware of the benefits of seafood during pregnancy and lactation, but would be willing to eat fish if their obstetrician recommended it and if they had an authoritative list of which fish <u>to</u> eat.⁴¹

Consequence: A Growing Seafood Deficiency

America is facing a lost generation of seafood eaters. Recent data from the FDA show that American women eat well below the amount of fish needed for optimum health. Pregnant women eat 1.89 ounces per week; postpartum women eat 2.17 ounces per week; and nonpregnant women eat 2.97 ounces per week. Additionally, less than one percent of women consume any of the four higher-

mercury fish (shark, swordfish, king mackerel, and tilefish) advised against by the FDA.⁴² The consequence of inadequate seafood intake by pregnant women and children is omega-3 deficiency. In a recent study it was shown that women consume much less seafood than men, even though they have higher needs associated with pregnancy and breastfeeding.⁵ Families that do not eat seafood are unlikely to offer it to their children. A national consumer behavior survey found that 65 percent of parents feed their children seafood less that twice per week and reported that they rarely or never ate seafood themselves as a child; 91 percent of parents with children under 12 years confirm that their children are not getting the recommended two servings of seafood per week.⁴³

Conclusion and Recommendation of the Perinatal Nutrition Working Group (PNWG) of the National Healthy Mothers, Healthy Babies Coalition

It is the opinion of the PNWG that women who want to become pregnant, are pregnant, or are breastfeeding should eat at least 12 ounces of seafood per week for the many health benefits. The long chain omega-3 fatty acids (DHA and EPA) enhance visual, cognitive, motor skill and behavioral development in children and may reduce preterm labor and the risk of obesity in children. This recommendation is intended to prevent a nutritional deficiency of the long chain omega-3 fatty acids. Consumption of whole fish rather than fish oil supplements is the best public health approach. Whole fish rather than fish oil supplements have been more frequently linked to reductions in preterm labor and improved neurocognitive development and provide lean protein and other beneficial nutrients such as selenium and vitamin D.

Appendix A

Organization Alzheimer's Association	Document Adopt a Brain-Healthy Diet	Seafood Recommendation Increase your intake of protective foods. Current research suggests that certain foods may reduce the risk of heart disease and stroke, and appear to protect brain cells. Cold water fish contain beneficial omega-3 fatty acids: halibut, mackerel, salmon, trout and tuna.
American Diabetes Association	Managing Preexisting Diabetes for Pregnancy: Summary of evidence and consensus recommendations for care	Due to the risks of CVD or hypertriglyceridemia, diabetic women are encouraged to eat at least two meals of oily ocean fish per week to increase n-3 fatty acids (eicosapentenoic and docosahexanoic acids), but pregnant women should avoid eating fish potentially high in methylmercury (e.g., swordfish, king mackerel, shark, or tilefish).
American Dietetic Association	Nutrition Fact Sheet: DHA, A Good Fat	DHA is important for proper brain and eye development, especially during pregnancy and infancy. Beginning in the last trimester of pregnancy and continuing through the first 2 years of life and beyond, DHA levels in the brain rapidly increase. Several studies have shown that infants with higher blood levels of DHA score better on tests measuring their brain (or cognitive) and visual function. Women can meet the recommended intake of DHA by consuming two servings of fish, especially fatty fish, per week.
American Heart Association	Fish and Omega-3 Fatty Acids	We recommend eating fish (particularly fatty fish) at least two times a week. Fish is a good source of protein and doesn't have the high saturated fat that fatty meat products do.
American Optometric Association	Nutrients for Eye Health	Consume 500 mg/day DHA/EPA essential fatty acids from sources including flax or fleshy fish like tuna or salmon, or fish oil supplements. Daily intake of these nutrients through foods and/or supplements has been linked to healthy eyes and may reduce risk of some chronic eye conditions.

References

- 1. 2010 Dietary Guidelines for Americans. USDA and DHHS, Washington, DC. Released January 31, 2011.
- 2. Innis SM. Essential fatty acids in infant nutrition: lessons and limitations from animal studies in relation to studies on infant fatty acid requirements. Am J Clin Nutr. 2000 Jan;71:238S-44S.
- 3. Makrides M, Gibson RA. Long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid requirements during pregnancy and lactation. Am J Clin Nutr. 2000 Jan;71:307S-11S.
- 4. Arterburn LM, Hall EB, Oken H. Distribution, interconversion, and dose response of n-3 fatty acids in humans. Am J Clin Nutr. 2006 Jun;83:1467S-76S.
- 5. Welch AA, Shakya-Shrestha S, Lentjes MA, Wareham NJ, Khaw KT. Dietary intake and status of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids in a population of fish-eating and non-fish-eating meat-eaters, vegetarians, and vegans and the product-precursor ratio [corrected] of alpha-linolenic acid to longchain n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids: results from the EPIC-Norfolk cohort. Am J Clin Nutr. 2010 Nov;92:1040-51.
- 6. Burdge GC, Wootton SA. Conversion of alpha-linolenic acid to eicosapentaenoic, docosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids in young women. Br J Nutr. 2002 Oct;88:411-20.
- 7. Pawlosky R, Hibbeln J, Lin Y, Salem N, Jr. n-3 fatty acid metabolism in women. Br J Nutr. 2003 Nov;90:993-4.
- Giltay EJ, Gooren LJ, Toorians AW, Katan MB, Zock PL. Docosahexaenoic acid concentrations are higher in women than in men because of estrogenic effects. Am J Clin Nutr. 2004 Nov;80:1167-74.
- 9. Lattka E, Illig T, Koletzko B, Heinrich J. Genetic variants of the FADS1 FADS2 gene cluster as related to essential fatty acid metabolism. Curr Opin Lipidol. 2010 Feb;21:64-9.
- Xie L, Innis SM. Genetic variants of the FADS1 FADS2 gene cluster are associated with altered (n-6) and (n-3) essential fatty acids in plasma and erythrocyte phospholipids in women during pregnancy and in breast milk during lactation. J Nutr. 2008 Nov;138:2222-8.
- 11. Molto-Puigmarti C, Plat J, Mensink RP, Muller A, Jansen E, Zeegers MP, Thijs C. FADS1 FADS2 gene variants modify the association between fish intake and the docosahexaenoic acid proportions in human milk. Am J Clin Nutr. 2010 May;91:1368-76.
- 12. Caspi A, Williams B, Kim-Cohen J, Craig IW, Milne BJ, Poulton R, Schalkwyk LC, Taylor A, Werts H, Moffitt TE. Moderation of breastfeeding effects on the IQ by genetic variation in fatty acid metabolism. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2007 Nov 20;104:18860-5.
- 13. Olsen SF, Hansen HS, Sorensen TI, Jensen B, Secher NJ, Sommer S, Knudsen LB. Intake of marine fat, rich in (n-3)-polyunsaturated fatty acids, may increase birthweight by prolonging gestation. Lancet. 1986 Aug 16;2:367-9.

- 14. Olsen SF, Hansen HS, Sommer S, Jensen B, Sorensen TI, Secher NJ, Zachariassen P. Gestational age in relation to marine n-3 fatty acids in maternal erythrocytes: a study of women in the Faroe Islands and Denmark. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 1991 May;164:1203-9.
- Olsen SF, Sorensen JD, Secher NJ, Hedegaard M, Henriksen TB, Hansen HS, Grant A. Randomised controlled trial of effect of fish-oil supplementation on pregnancy duration. Lancet. 1992 Apr 25;339:1003-7.
- 16. Makrides M, Gibson RA, McPhee AJ, Yelland L, Quinlivan J, Ryan P. Effect of DHA supplementation during pregnancy on maternal depression and neurodevelopment of young children: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2010 Oct 20;304:1675-83.
- 17. Hibbeln JR, Davis JM, Steer C, Emmett P, Rogers I, Williams C, Golding J. Maternal seafood consumption in pregnancy and neurodevelopmental outcomes in childhood (ALSPAC study): an observational cohort study. Lancet. 2007 Feb 17;369:578-85.
- 18. Oken E, Wright RO, Kleinman KP, Bellinger D, Amarasiriwardena CJ, Hu H, Rich-Edwards JW, Gillman MW. Maternal fish consumption, hair mercury, and infant cognition in a U.S. Cohort. Environ Health Perspect. 2005 Oct;113:1376-80.
- 19. Oken E, Osterdal ML, Gillman MW, Knudsen VK, Halldorsson TI, Strom M, Bellinger DC, Hadders-Algra M, Michaelsen KF, Olsen SF. Associations of maternal fish intake during pregnancy and breastfeeding duration with attainment of developmental milestones in early childhood: a study from the Danish National Birth Cohort. Am J Clin Nutr. 2008 Sep;88:789-96.
- 20. Oken E, Radesky JS, Wright RO, Bellinger DC, Amarasiriwardena CJ, Kleinman KP, Hu H, Gillman MW. Maternal fish intake during pregnancy, blood mercury levels, and child cognition at age 3 years in a US cohort. Am J Epidemiol. 2008 May 15;167:1171-81.
- 21. Judge MP, Harel O, Lammi-Keefe CJ. Maternal consumption of a docosahexaenoic acid-containing functional food during pregnancy: benefit for infant performance on problem-solving but not on recognition memory tasks at age 9 mo. Am J Clin Nutr. 2007 Jun;85:1572-7.
- 22. Colombo J, Kannass KN, Shaddy DJ, Kundurthi S, Maikranz JM, Anderson CJ, Blaga OM, Carlson SE. Maternal DHA and the development of attention in infancy and toddlerhood. Child Dev. 2004 Jul;75:1254-67.
- 23. Helland IB, Smith L, Saarem K, Saugstad OD, Drevon CA. Maternal supplementation with verylong-chain n-3 fatty acids during pregnancy and lactation augments children's IQ at 4 years of age. Pediatrics. 2003 Jan;111:e39-e44.
- 24. Anderson JW, Johnstone BM, Remley DT. Breast-feeding and cognitive development: a metaanalysis. Am J Clin Nutr. 1999 Oct;70:525-35.
- 25. Drover J, Hoffman DR, Castaneda YS, Morale SE, Birch EE. Three randomized controlled trials of early long-chain polyunsaturated Fatty Acid supplementation on means-end problem solving in 9-month-olds. Child Dev. 2009 Sep;80:1376-84.
- 26. Lauritzen L, Jorgensen MH, Olsen SF, Straarup EM, Michaelsen KF. Maternal fish oil supplementation in lactation: effect on developmental outcome in breast-fed infants. Reprod Nutr Dev. 2005 Sep;45:535-47.

- 27. Harder T, Bergmann R, Kallischnigg G, Plagemann A. Duration of breastfeeding and risk of overweight: a meta-analysis. Am J Epidemiol. 2005 Sep 1;162:397-403.
- 28. Dewey KG. Is breastfeeding protective against child obesity? J Hum Lact. 2003 Feb;19:9-18.
- 29. Gillman MW, Rifas-Shiman SL, Camargo CA, Jr., Berkey CS, Frazier AL, Rockett HR, Field AE, Colditz GA. Risk of overweight among adolescents who were breastfed as infants. JAMA. 2001 May 16;285:2461-7.
- 30. Toschke AM, Martin RM, von KR, Wells J, Smith GD, Ness AR. Infant feeding method and obesity: body mass index and dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry measurements at 9-10 y of age from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC). Am J Clin Nutr. 2007 Jun;85:1578-85.
- 31. Huh SY, Rifas-Shiman SL, Taveras EM, Oken E, Gillman MW. Timing of solid food introduction and risk of obesity in preschool-aged children. Pediatrics. 2011 Mar;127:e544-e551.
- 32. Buckley JD, Howe PR. Anti-obesity effects of long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids. Obes Rev. 2009 Nov;10:648-59.
- 33. Muhlhausler BS, Gibson RA, Makrides M. Effect of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation during pregnancy or lactation on infant and child body composition: a systematic review. Am J Clin Nutr. 2010 Oct;92:857-63.
- 34. Innis SM. Polyunsaturated fatty acids in human milk: an essential role in infant development. Adv Exp Med Biol. 2004;554:27-43.
- 35. Lucia BR, Bergmann KE, Haschke-Becher E, Richter R, Dudenhausen JW, Barclay D, Haschke F. Does maternal docosahexaenoic acid supplementation during pregnancy and lactation lower BMI in late infancy? J Perinat Med. 2007;35:295-300.
- 36. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Draft Risk and Benefit Assessment Report of Quantitative Risk and Benefit Assessment of Consumption of Commercial Fish, Focusing on Fetal Neurodevelopmental Effects (Measured by Verbal Development in Children) and on Coronary Heart Disease and Stroke in the General Population. 2009.
- 37. Davidson PW, Cory-Slechta DA, Thurston SW, Huang LS, Shamlaye CF, Gunzler D, Watson G, van WE, Zareba G, et al. Fish consumption and prenatal methylmercury exposure: cognitive and behavioral outcomes in the main cohort at 17 years from the Seychelles child development study. Neurotoxicology. 2011 Dec;32:711-7.
- 38. Budtz-Jorgensen E, Grandjean P, Weihe P. Separation of risks and benefits of seafood intake. Environ Health Perspect. 2007 Mar;115:323-7.
- 39. Shimshack JP, Ward MB. Mercury advisories and household health trade-offs. J Health Econ. 2010 Sep;29:674-85.
- 40. Oken E, Kleinman KP, Berland WE, Simon SR, Rich-Edwards JW, Gillman MW. Decline in fish consumption among pregnant women after a national mercury advisory. Obstet Gynecol. 2003 Aug;102:346-51.

- 41. Bloomingdale A, Guthrie LB, Price S, Wright RO, Platek D, Haines J, Oken E. A qualitative study of fish consumption during pregnancy. Am J Clin Nutr. 2010 Nov;92:1234-40.
- 42. Choiniere, C, et al. Fish-consumption by women of childbearing age, pregnant women and mothers of infants. Poster presented at International Association of Food Protection 2008 95th Annual Meeting. Columbus, OH. 2008.
- 43. QSR Magazine. Seafood Underserved Kids, January 2010. Available at: http://www.qsrmagazine.com/article/news/story.phtml?id=9407.

About the Perinatal Nutrition Working Group

A program of the National Healthy Mothers, Healthy Babies Coalition, the Perinatal Nutrition Working Group (PNWG) is comprised of top professors of obstetrics, doctors of nutrition and registered dietitians who serve as an evidence-based resource to physicians, organizations and women as they evaluate eating seafood during pregnancy. The amount of fish women should eat is the subject of professional debate, but there is agreement that women do not enough seafood. The PNWG is committed to correcting the misinformation surrounding seafood. Through collaborative, multidisciplinary efforts, the Perinatal Nutrition Working Group aims to:

- Evaluate the current science regarding the risks and benefits of eating seafood during the perinatal period via in-person meetings and in ongoing virtual dialogue;
- Establish and share nutritional recommendations for seafood consumption for women who want to get pregnant, are pregnant or are breastfeeding;
- Collaborate with authors and scientists to publish review papers, thought pieces, white papers, and position statements on the value of seafood in the diet;
- Support policy initiatives in developing effective ways to help patients understand the value of eating seafood during the perinatal period; and
- Serve as ambassadors to professional, media, and consumer audiences about the topic of maternal and child nutrition.

For more information, please visit www.hmhb.org/pnwg.

Members, Perinatal Nutrition Working Group

J. Thomas Brenna, PhD Professor of Human Nutrition and of Chemistry and Chemical Biology Division of Nutritional Sciences Cornell University Ithaca, NY

Bruce Chen, MD Fetal Diagnostic Institute of the Pacific

William H Goodnight III, MD Assistant Professor in Maternal Fetal Medicine Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology Division of Maternal Fetal Medicine University of North Carolina School of Medicine

Mary Harris, PhD, RD Professor, Department of Food Science and Human Nutrition Colorado State University

Tracy Herrmann, PhD, RD, CD Consulting Clinical Dietician, Salt Lake City Calvin Hobel, MD Vice Chair and Professor, Obstetrics & Gynecology and Pediatrics Miriam Jacobs Chair, Maternal Fetal Medicine Cedars-Sinai Medical Center

Laura Jana, MD Practical Parenting Consulting, Omaha, NE

Elizabeth "Betty" T. Jordan, DNSc, RNC, FAAN Associate Professor Johns Hopkins University School of Nursing

Carol J. Lammi-Keefe, PhD, RD, LDN Alma Beth Clark Professor and Head, Human Nutrition and Food School of Human Ecology Adjunct Professor Pennington Biomedical Research Center Louisiana State University

Ruth A. Lawrence, MD Professor of Pediatrics and Obstetrics and Gynecology Division of Neonatology at the University of Rochester School of Medicine

James A. McGregor, MDCM Visiting Professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology University of Southern California Keck School of Medicine

Roger B. Newman, MD Maas Endowed Chair for Reproductive Sciences Professor and Vice Chairman for Academic Affairs and Women's Health Research Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology Medical University of South Carolina

Paul L. Ogburn, Jr., MD Director of Maternal Fetal Medicine and Professor Department of Obstetrics, Gynecology and Reproductive Medicine Stony Brook University School of Medicine

Ashley S. Roman MD, MPH Clinical assistant professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology New York University School of Medicine

John M. Thorp, MD Distinguished Professor, Obstetrics and Gynecology Division Director University of North Carolina Women's Hospital Steven S. Witkin, PhD Professor of Immunology and Director Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology Division of Immunology and Infectious Diseases Weill Medical College of Cornell University