

Evidence-Based Prenatal Care: Part I. General Prenatal Care and Counseling Issues

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*

Effective prenatal care should integrate the best available evidence into a model of shared decision making. Pregnant women should be counseled about the risks of smoking and alcohol and drug use. Structured educational programs to promote breastfeeding are effective. Routine fetal heart auscultation, urinalysis, and assessment of maternal weight, blood pressure, and fundal height generally are recommended, although the evidence for these interventions is variable. Women should be offered ABO and Rh blood typing and screening for anemia during the first prenatal visit. Genetic counseling and testing should be offered to couples with a family history of genetic disorders, a previously affected fetus or child, or a history of recurrent miscarriage. All women should be offered prenatal serum marker screening for neural tube defects and aneuploidy. Women at increased risk for aneuploidy should be offered amniocentesis or chorionic villus sampling. Counseling about the limitations and risks of these tests, as well as their psychologic implications, is necessary. Folic acid supplementation beginning in the preconception period reduces the incidence of neural tube defects. There is limited evidence that routine use of other dietary supplements may improve outcomes for the mother and infant. (*Am Fam Physician* 2005;71:1307-16, 1321-2. Copyright© 2005 American Academy of Family Physicians.)

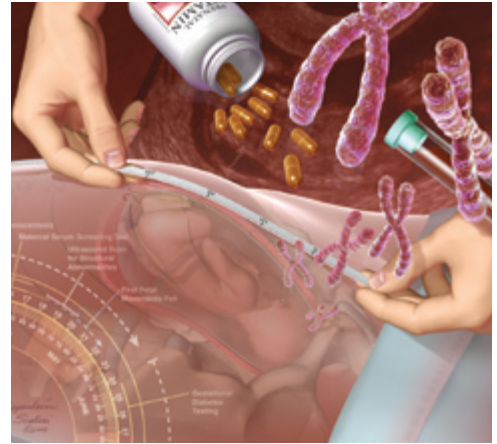


ILLUSTRATION BY BERT OPPENHEIM AND CHRIS SCALIC

This is part I of a two-part article on prenatal care. Part II, "Third-Trimester Care and Prevention of Infectious Diseases," will appear in the April 15, 2005, issue of *AFP*.

► See editorial on page 1264.

► **Patient information:** A handout on staying healthy during pregnancy, written by the authors of this article, is provided on page 1321.

Pregnancy can be enhanced by a coordinated program of prenatal medical care and psychosocial support.¹⁻³ A systematic approach should integrate the best evidence into a model of informed, shared decision making. Care ideally begins before conception and includes preventive care, counseling, and screening for risks to maternal and fetal health. A pregnant woman should understand what screening tests are meant to detect, how they are conducted, possible risks to her and her fetus, the type of results that will be reported (e.g., probability, risk), the likelihood of false-positive or false-negative results, and the choices she will face once results are obtained.² Reminder systems such as prenatal forms or checklists embedded in the process of care increase the likelihood that physicians will put clinical evidence into practice.⁴⁻⁶ Part I of this two-part article focuses on general prenatal care, counseling issues, nutrition, and screening for genetic conditions. Part II⁷

will focus on third-trimester care and prevention of infectious diseases. The guidelines discussed in both parts of this article are summarized in a memory aid, the Maternity Care Calendar and Guidelines, available online at <http://www.maternitycarecalendar.com>.^{8,9}

Providing Prenatal Care

Women in developed countries typically attend regular prenatal visits, usually seven to 11 times per pregnancy.^{2,10-12} A recent meta-analysis found that reducing the number of prenatal visits did not lead to increased adverse outcomes for the mother or infant; however, women were less satisfied with the reduced-visit schedule.¹³ Caregiver continuity during the antenatal period has been associated with reduced interventions in labor and improved maternal satisfaction.^{14,15} Care provided by midwives, family physicians, and obstetricians was found to be equally effective, although women were slightly more satisfied with care from midwives and family physicians.¹³

TABLE 1
Counseling Issues in Pregnancy

<i>Issue</i>	<i>Guideline</i>	<i>Label</i>	<i>Comments</i>
Air travel	Air travel generally is safe for pregnant women until four weeks before the expected date of delivery. ¹⁷	C	Consider the availability of medical resources at the destination.
	Lengthy trips are associated with increased risk of venous thrombosis. ²	C	Detailed information is available online at http://www.cdc.gov/travel/pregnant.htm .
Breastfeeding	Breastfeeding is the best feeding method for most infants. Breastfeeding contraindications include maternal HIV infection, chemical dependency, and use of certain medications. ¹⁸	B	It is not known how advice from caregivers to new or expectant mothers affects breastfeeding success. ¹⁸
	Structured behavior counseling and breastfeeding-education programs may increase breastfeeding success. ^{18,19}	B	
Exercise	Pregnant women should avoid activities that put them at risk for falls or abdominal injuries. ²⁰	C	At least 30 minutes of moderate exercise on most days of the week is a reasonable activity level for most pregnant women. ²⁰
	Scuba diving during pregnancy is not recommended. ²⁰	C	
Hair treatments	Although hair dyes and treatments have not been associated clearly with fetal malformation, exposure to these treatments should be avoided during early pregnancy. ²¹	C	---
Hot tubs and saunas	Hot tubs and saunas probably should be avoided during the first trimester of pregnancy. ^{22,23}	B	---
	Maternal heat exposure during early pregnancy has been associated with neural tube defects and miscarriage. ^{22,23}	B	
Labor and delivery	All pregnant women should be counseled about what to do when their membranes rupture, what to expect when labor begins, strategies to manage pain, and the value of labor support. ¹	C	---
Medications: prescription, over-the-counter, and herbal remedies	Few medications have been proven safe for use in pregnant women, particularly during the first trimester of pregnancy. ²	C	The risks associated with individual medications should be reviewed based on the patient's needs. ²⁴
Sex	Sexual intercourse during pregnancy is not associated with adverse outcomes. ²	B	---
Substance use: alcohol	All pregnant women should be screened for alcohol misuse. ²⁵	B	There is good evidence that counseling is an effective intervention in decreasing alcohol consumption in pregnant women and morbidity in their infants. ²⁶
	There is no known safe amount of alcohol consumption during pregnancy. Abstinence is recommended. ^{2,25}	B	
Substance use: illicit drugs	All pregnant women should be informed of the potential adverse effects of drug use on the fetus. ²⁷	C	Women who use illicit drugs often require specialized interventions, ideally within a harm-reduction framework.
	Admission to a detoxification unit may be indicated. Methadone therapy in opiate-addicted women may be life-saving. ³	C	
Substance use: smoking	All pregnant women should be screened for tobacco use, and pregnancy-tailored counseling should be provided to smokers. ^{2,28}	A	Smoking-cessation counseling and multicomponent strategies are effective in decreasing the incidence of low-birth-weight infants. ^{2,10,26,28}
Workplace	Some working conditions, such as prolonged standing and exposure to certain chemicals, are associated with pregnancy complications. ¹⁰	B	Employment is associated with favorable demographic and behavioral characteristics, and generally is not associated with adverse pregnancy outcomes. ¹⁰

HIV = human immunodeficiency virus.

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, opinion, or case series. See page 1245 for more information.

Information from references 1 through 3, 10, and 17 through 28.

TABLE 2
Recommendations for Routine Prenatal Care

<i>Examination component</i>	<i>Recommendation</i>	<i>Label</i>	<i>Comments</i>
Abdominal palpation	Abdominal palpation should be used to assess fetal presentation beginning at 36 weeks' gestation. ^{34,35}	B	Abdominal palpation should not be done before 36 weeks' gestation because of potential inaccuracies and discomfort to the patient.
Blood pressure measurement	It is not known how often blood pressure should be measured, but most guidelines recommend measurement at each antenatal visit. ²⁷	C	Further research is required to determine how often blood pressure should be measured.
Evaluation for edema	Edema occurs in 80 percent of pregnant women. It lacks specificity and sensitivity for the diagnosis of preeclampsia. ³⁶	C	Edema is defined as greater than 1+ pitting edema after 12 hours of bed rest, or weight gain of 2.3 kg (5 lb) in one week.
Fetal heart tones	Auscultation for fetal heart tones is recommended at each antenatal visit. Heart tones confirm a viable fetus, but there is no evidence of other clinical or predictive value. ^{10,33}	C	It is thought that fetal heart tone auscultation provides psychologic reassurance to the mother, but this potential benefit has not been studied.
Fetal movement counts	Routine fetal movement counting should not be performed. ^{37,38}	A	—
Symphysis fundus height measurement	Symphysis fundus height should be measured at each antenatal visit. Plotting the measurement on a graph is suggested for monitoring purposes. ³⁹⁻⁴²	B	Measurement of the symphysis fundus height is subject to interobserver and intraobserver error. It is a simple, inexpensive test.
Urinalysis	Dipstick urinalysis does not detect proteinuria reliably in patients with early preeclampsia; measurement of 24-hour urinary protein excretion is the gold standard but is not always practical. Trace glycosuria also is unreliable, although higher concentrations may be useful. ⁴³⁻⁴⁵	C	Some guidelines have encouraged discontinuation of dipstick urinalysis; others retain this test as part of the routine antenatal visit.
Weight measurement	Maternal height and weight measurements should be made at the first antenatal visit to determine body mass index, which is the basis for recommended weight gain in pregnancy. ⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹	B	Patients who are underweight or overweight have known risks. Weight gain is not associated with pregnancy-induced hypertension.
	Maternal weight should be measured at each antenatal visit. ⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹	C	

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, opinion, or case series. See page 1245 for more information.

Information from references 10, 27, and 33 through 49.

Prenatal Examinations

When pregnancy is confirmed, prenatal care plans, including the choice of caregiver, must be discussed. The initial visit should occur during the first trimester, and more than one visit may be necessary to cover all pertinent information.² The estimated date of delivery (EDD) should be calculated by accurate determination of the last menstrual period (LMP). Accurate dating is important for timing screening tests and interventions, and for optimal management of complications. Some research indicates that early ultrasonography is more accurate than LMP at determining gestational age, and that it should be used routinely to determine EDD and reduce the need for labor induction.^{2,16} This approach should be considered if there is uncertainty about the LMP.

The first 12 weeks of pregnancy are a time of organogenesis and heightened fetal vulnerability to teratogens; counseling about risk behaviors is appropriate. Issues to be discussed in early pregnancy are outlined in *Table 1*.^{1-3,10,17-28}

A history and directed physical examination should be performed to detect conditions associated with increased maternal and perinatal morbidity and mortality. The first prenatal examination provides an opportunity for cervical cancer screening with a Papanicolaou (Pap) test in women who have not been screened recently. However, Pap tests performed in pregnant women may be less reliable.^{3,29} Ectopic pregnancy should be considered if risk factors, abdominal pain, or bleeding are present. Spontaneous pregnancy loss, which occurs in 10 to 15 percent of all clinically recognized pregnancies, also should be considered.^{30,31}

The clinical components of routine prenatal visits are controversial.^{32,33} Most guidelines recommend routine assessment with fundal height and maternal weight and blood pressure measurements, fetal heart auscultation, urine testing for protein and glucose, and questions about fetal movement. The evidence supporting these practices is variable (*Table 2*).^{10,27,33-49}

Prenatal Education

Education is an important component of prenatal care, particularly for women who are pregnant for the first time. Information about physiologic changes that occur during pregnancy and preparation for the birthing process are key themes around which to discuss care issues and choices such as breastfeeding.^{2,10}

Domestic Violence

Domestic violence affects a significant number of pregnant women and may put the fetus at risk.⁵⁰⁻⁵² Evidence from recent studies shows that integrating a standardized

Integrating a standardized screening protocol into routine history-taking procedures increases identification, documentation, and referral for intimate partner violence.

screening protocol into routine history-taking procedures increases identification, documentation, and referral for intimate partner violence.⁵³ However, there is insufficient evidence that

screening and early intervention result in improved health outcomes for the mother or baby.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ Nonetheless, some authors recommend routine screening for domestic violence because of patient acceptance of screening, minimal

The Authors

COLLEEN KIRKHAM, M.D., C.C.F.P., F.C.F.P., is clinical associate professor in the Department of Family Practice at the University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine, Vancouver. Dr. Kirkham also is the site faculty for research for the Saint Paul's Hospital Family Practice Residency Program and curriculum advisor for evidence-based medicine for the University of British Columbia Family Practice Residency Program. She received her medical degree from Queen's University School of Medicine, Kingston, Ontario, and completed a family medicine residency at the University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine.

SUSAN HARRIS, M.D., C.C.F.P., F.C.F.P., is clinical professor in the Department of Family Practice at the University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine. Dr. Harris also is head of the Department of Family Practice at the Children's and Women's Health Centre of British Columbia, Vancouver. She received her medical degree from McMaster University Faculty of Health Sciences, Hamilton, Ontario.

STEFAN GRZYBOWSKI, M.D., C.C.F.P., F.C.F.P., M.CI.Sc., is associate professor and director of research in the Department of Family Practice at the University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine, where he received his medical degree.

Address correspondence to Colleen Kirkham, M.D., University of British Columbia Faculty of Medicine, 200-2475 Bayswater St., Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, V6K 4N3 (e-mail: ckirkham@interchange.ubc.ca). Reprints are not available from the authors.

cost, low risks, and significant potential benefit.^{1,10} The following standardized screening questions have a sensitivity of 65 to 70 percent and a specificity of 80 to 85 percent^{57,58}: (1) Have you been hit, kicked, or otherwise hurt by someone within the past year?; (2) Do you feel safe in your current relationship?; and (3) Is there a partner from a previous relationship who is making you feel unsafe now?

Blood Typing

Rh and ABO blood typing should be performed at the first prenatal visit, as well as a screening test for irregular red blood cell antibodies.²⁷ Rh₀D immune globulin (Rhogam) is recommended for all nonsensitized Rh-negative women at 28 weeks' gestation (300 mcg) and within 72 hours after delivery of an Rh-positive infant (120 to 300 mcg).^{59,60} A Kleihauer-Betke or rosette test, for fetomaternal hemorrhage in excess of that covered by the standard dose of Rh₀D immune globulin, is recommended after delivery of an Rh-positive infant.^{59,60} Nonsensitized, Rh-negative women also should be offered a dose of Rh₀D immune globulin after spontaneous or induced abortion, ectopic pregnancy termination, chorionic villus sampling (CVS), amniocentesis, cordocentesis, external cephalic version, abdominal trauma, and second- or third-trimester bleeding.^{59,60} Administration of Rh₀D immune globulin can be considered before 12 weeks' gestation in women with a threatened abortion and live embryo, but Rh alloimmunization is rare.^{59,60} Written informed consent is recommended for use of Rh₀D immune globulin because it is a blood product.

Genetic Screening

Couples should be questioned about a family history of genetic disorders, a previous fetus or child who was affected by a genetic disorder, or a history of recurrent miscarriage. Genetic counseling should be offered to couples who did not receive it before conception. Patients who belong to an ethnic group with an increased incidence of a recessive condition should be offered disease-specific screening as early in pregnancy as possible if they were not tested before conception (*Table 3*).

All pregnant women should be offered serum marker screening for neural tube defects and trisomies 21 and 18.^{2,10,27,61} Most physicians use the mid-trimester maternal serum screen, which measures human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG), unconjugated estriol, and α -fetoprotein levels at 15 to 20 weeks' gestation (optimal timing is 16 to 18 weeks' gestation).^{10,62} The maternal serum screen is approximately 65 percent sensitive for detecting aneuploidy and 95 percent specific.⁶³ In some centers, fetal nuchal translucency can be measured

TABLE 3
Disease-Specific Genetic Screening

Disease	Risk groups	Carrier frequency	Test
Cystic fibrosis	Ashkenazi Jews Caucasians	1 in 25 to 30	Molecular diagnostic testing*: standardized screening panel of 25 common mutations of the CFTR gene
Tay-Sachs disease†	Ashkenazi Jews Cajuns French Canadians in Eastern Quebec	1 in 20 to 30	Serum hexosaminidase-A levels in men and nonpregnant women WBC hexosaminidase-A levels in pregnant women Molecular diagnostic testing is available in some centers.
Canavan's disease†	Ashkenazi Jews	1 in 40	Molecular diagnostic testing (not available in all centers)
α- and β-thalassemia	Africans East Indians Hispanics Mediterraneans Middle Easterners Southeast Asians	1 in 10 to 75	If MCV is less than 80 fL, hemoglobin electrophoresis, ferritin levels, and RBC morphology. DNA analysis may be required to detect α-thalassemia carriers.
Sickle cell anemia	Africans	1 in 11	Hemoglobin electrophoresis to detect hemoglobin S

WBC = white blood cell; MCV = mean cell volume; RBC = red blood cell.

*—In Canada, molecular diagnostic testing is available only to women with a positive family history of cystic fibrosis. It is available to all women in the United States.

†—If only one partner is in a high-risk group, he or she can be screened first during the preconception period. If the woman is already pregnant, both partners should be screened simultaneously.

by ultrasonography combined with maternal serum analyte levels (i.e., free hCG and pregnancy-associated plasma protein A).⁶⁴ This testing can be performed at 10 to 14 weeks' gestation. Sensitivity and specificity of these tests is determined by the risk cutoff used (e.g., for trisomy 21, sensitivity is 85.2 percent when specificity is 90.6 percent; at 95 percent specificity, the sensitivity is 78.7 percent).^{63,65} An integrated screening protocol using first- and second-trimester markers is being used in some areas.⁶⁶ Women should be counseled about the limited sensitivity and specificity of the tests, psychological implications of a positive test, the potential impact of delivering a child with Down syndrome, risks associated with prenatal diagnosis and second-trimester abortion, and delays inherent in the process.^{27,67}

Women at increased risk of aneuploidy should be offered prenatal diagnosis by amniocentesis or CVS.^{27,61,62} Persons at increased risk include women who will be older than 35 years at delivery and have a singleton pregnancy (older than 32 years for women pregnant with twins); women carrying a fetus with a major structural anomaly identified by ultrasonography; women with ultrasound markers of aneuploidy (including increased nuchal thickness); women with a previously affected pregnancy; couples with a known translocation, chromosome inversion, or aneuploidy; and women with a positive maternal serum screen.⁶² Amniocentesis may be performed after 15 weeks' gestation and is associated with a 0.5 percent risk of spontaneous abortion.^{1,62,68} CVS is performed at 10 to 12 weeks' gestation and has a 1.0 to 1.5 percent risk of spontaneous

abortion.^{1,62} CVS may be associated with transverse limb defects (1 per 3,000 to 1 per 1,000 fetuses).⁶⁸ Women undergoing CVS also should be offered maternal serum α-fetoprotein testing for neural tube defects.¹ Women older than 35 years may opt for serum screening and ultrasonography before deciding whether to proceed with amniocentesis.⁶⁹ The family physician is in an excellent position to discuss the ethical issues of genetic screening within the context of the patient's values.

Ultrasonography

No evidence directly links improved fetal outcomes with routine ultrasound screening.¹⁰ However, there is good evidence that early ultrasonography (i.e., before 14 weeks' gestation) accurately determines gestational age, decreases the need for labor induction after 41 weeks' gestation, and detects multiple pregnancies.² Ultrasonography at 10 to 14 weeks' gestation can measure nuchal translucency as a screening test for Down syndrome. Pregnant women should be offered an ultrasound scan to search for structural anomalies between 18 and 20 weeks' gestation.^{2,16} Diagnostic ultrasound exposure has not been proven to harm the mother or fetus, but more research on its risks is needed.⁷⁰

Nutrition and Food Safety

Women should be counseled to eat a well-balanced, varied diet.¹ Caloric requirements increase by 340 to 450 kcal per day in the second and third trimesters.⁷¹ Most guidelines recommend that pregnant women with

a normal body mass index gain 11.5 to 16 kg (approximately 25 to 35 lb) during pregnancy.^{1,72} Observational studies have found that antenatal weight gains below the recommended range are associated with low birth weight and preterm birth, and that weight gains above the recommended range are associated with increased risk of macrosomia, cesarean delivery, and postpartum weight retention.⁷³ However, experimental studies are needed to prove that weight gain outside the recommended range causes poor perinatal outcomes.⁷³

Folic acid supplementation from four weeks preconception to 12 weeks' gestation prevents neural tube defects.⁷⁴⁻⁷⁶ The recommended dosage for primary prevention is 0.4 mg per day. For secondary prevention in women with a previous fetus or child with a neural tube defect, the dosage is 4 mg per day.²

Some authorities recommend universal prenatal iron

supplementation (27 to 30 mg per day) because the average diet and endogenous iron stores of women are often insufficient to meet the iron requirements of pregnancy, and because iron-deficiency anemia is associated with adverse outcomes, and supplementation appears to be safe.^{1,72,77} However, the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force⁷⁸ found insufficient evidence to recommend for or against routine iron supplementation in pregnant women.^{2,10} All pregnant women should be screened for anemia by hemoglobin or hematocrit levels at the first prenatal visit.^{1,2,10,27,77} Specific guidelines for nutrition and supplements are outlined in *Tables 4*^{1,10,71,74,75,77-89} and *5*.^{2,83,90-113}

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.

TABLE 4
Use of Dietary Supplements in Pregnancy

Supplement	Guidelines	Label	Outcomes
Calcium	Recommended daily intake is 1,000 to 1,300 mg per day ^{1,79} Routine supplementation with calcium to prevent pre-eclampsia is not recommended. ¹ However, calcium supplementation may be beneficial for women at high risk for gestational hypertension or in communities with low dietary calcium intake. ^{10,80}	A	Calcium supplementation has been shown to decrease blood pressure and pre-eclampsia, but not perinatal mortality. ^{80,81}
Folic acid	Supplementation with 0.4 to 0.8 mg of folic acid (4 mg for secondary prevention) should begin at least one month before conception.	A	Supplementation prevents neural tube defects. ^{74,75}
	RDA (in addition to supplements) is 600 mcg of dietary folate equivalents (e.g., legumes, green leafy vegetables, liver, citrus fruits, whole wheat bread) per day. ^{82,83}	B	Folate deficiency is associated with low birth weight, congenital cardiac and orofacial cleft anomalies, abruptio placentae, and spontaneous abortion. ^{71,84}
Iron	Pregnant women should be screened for anemia (hemoglobin, hematocrit) and treated, if necessary. ⁷⁸	B	Iron-deficiency anemia is associated with preterm delivery and low birth weight.
	Pregnant women should supplement with 30 mg of iron per day. ^{1,77}	C	
Vitamin A	Pregnant women in industrialized countries should limit vitamin A intake to less than 5,000 IU per day. ^{*1}	B	High dietary intake of vitamin A (i.e., more than 10,000 IU per day) is associated with cranial-neural crest defects. ^{85,86}
Vitamin D	Vitamin D supplementation can be considered in women with limited exposure to sunlight (e.g., northern locations, women in purdah). ^{10,83} However, evidence on the effects of supplementation is limited. ⁸⁷	C	Vitamin D deficiency is rare but has been linked to neonatal hypocalcemia and maternal osteomalacia. ^{88,89} High doses of vitamin D can be toxic.
	RDA is 5 mcg per day (200 IU per day). ⁷⁹		

RDA = recommended dietary allowance.

*—Supervised supplementation may be appropriate in countries with endemic vitamin A deficiency.

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, opinion, or case series. See page 1245 for more information.

Information from references 1, 10, 71, 74, 75, and 77 through 89.

TABLE 5
Dietary Guidelines for Pregnant Women

<i>Foods and drinks</i>	<i>Recommendations</i>	<i>Label</i>	<i>Risks</i>
Artificially sweetened foods and drinks	Pregnant women should use caution when consuming foods and drinks containing saccharin. ⁹⁰	C	Saccharin is known to cross the placenta and may remain in fetal tissue.
	Aspartame, sucralose, and acesulfame-K probably are safe in pregnant women. Women with phenylketonuria should limit consumption of aspartame. ^{83,90,91}	C	—
Caffeine-containing drinks	Moderate amounts probably are safe. Some guidelines ^{83,92,93} recommend limiting consumption to 150 to 300 mg per day.*	B	Observational studies ^{92,94} show an association between high caffeine consumption and spontaneous abortion and low-birth-weight infants. However, confounding factors such as smoking, alcohol use, nausea, and age cannot be ruled out. ⁹⁵
Dairy products	Pregnant women should avoid unpasteurized milk and milk products. ^{2,96-100}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> and <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
	Pregnant women should avoid soft cheese (e.g., feta, Brie, Camembert, blue-veined cheeses, Mexican queso fresco). ^{2,96-98}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
Delicatessen foods	Pregnant women should avoid delicatessen foods, pâté, and meat spreads. ⁹⁶⁻⁹⁸	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
Eggs	Pregnant women should avoid raw eggs (e.g., Caesar salad, eggnog, raw cookie dough). ^{2,83,101,102}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Salmonella</i> ; salmonellosis can lead to intrauterine sepsis based on case reports. ¹⁰²
Fruits and vegetables	Pregnant women should wash all fruits and vegetables before eating them. ^{2,96,103}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> and <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
	Cutting boards, dishes, utensils, and hands should be washed with hot, soapy water after contact with unwashed fruits and vegetables. ¹⁰³	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> based on case reports
Herbal teas	Pregnant women should limit their consumption of herbal tea. ^{83,104}	C	Few controlled trials have addressed the safety of herbal preparations in pregnant women. Some herbal products are considered unsafe in pregnancy. ^{83,104,105}
	Teas containing ginger, citrus peel, lemon balm, and rose hips probably are safe in moderation. ⁹¹		
	Pregnant women should avoid teas containing chamomile, licorice, peppermint, or raspberry leaf. ^{104,105}	C	
Leftover foods	Leftover foods should be thoroughly reheated before they are eaten. ⁹⁶	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
Meat	Pregnant women should avoid raw or undercooked meat. ^{2,103,106}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> based on case reports
	Hot dogs and cold cuts should be reheated until they are steaming hot. ^{96-98,107}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
	Liver and liver products should be eaten in moderation.	C	Excessive consumption could cause vitamin A toxicity. ¹⁰⁸
	Cutting boards, dishes, utensils, and hands should be washed with hot, soapy water after contact with uncooked meat. ¹⁰³	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> based on case reports
Seafood	Pregnant women should avoid shark, swordfish, king mackerel, tilefish, and tuna steaks. ^{109,110}	B	Exposure to high levels of mercury in fish can lead to neurologic abnormalities in women and their infants. ¹¹¹
	Pregnant women should limit intake of other fish (including canned tuna) to 12 oz (2 to 3 meals) per week. ¹⁰⁹		
	Pregnant women should avoid refrigerated smoked seafood. ^{97,98}	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Listeria</i> based on case reports†
	Pregnant women should avoid raw fish and shellfish. ^{83,101}	C	Risk of contamination with parasites and Norwalk-like viruses based on case reports
	Pregnant women should eat farmed salmon in moderation. Experts recommend eating a variety of fish, rather than one or two kinds. ¹¹²	C	Increased levels of organic pollutants, including polychlorinated biphenyls and dioxins, have been found in farmed salmon. ¹¹³
	Cutting boards, dishes, utensils, and hands should be washed with hot, soapy water after contact with uncooked seafood. ¹⁰³	C	Risk of contamination with <i>Toxoplasma</i> based on case reports

*—Average caffeine content: coffee (5 fl oz [148 mL]): 60 mg (instant), 85 mg (percolated), 112 mg (drip); tea (5 fl oz): 30 mg (leaf or bag); soft drinks (12 fl oz [355 mL]): 30 to 48 mg.

†—Pregnant women have increased susceptibility to listeriosis. Listeriosis can lead to spontaneous abortion, preterm delivery, stillbirth, or serious infection in infants.

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, opinion, or case series. See page 1245 for more information.

Information from references 2, 83, and 90 through 113.

REFERENCES

1. 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.
2. 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.
3. Jones R. Oxford textbook of primary medical care. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 2004:899-904, 913-6.
4. Davis DA, Taylor-Vaisey A. Translating guidelines into practice. A systematic review of theoretic concepts, practical experience and research evidence in the adoption of clinical practice guidelines. *CMAJ* 1997;157:408-16.
5. Baldwin LM, Raine T, Jenkins LD, Hart LG, Rosenblatt R. Do providers adhere to ACOG standards? The case of prenatal care. *Obstet Gynecol* 1994;84:549-56.
6. Cheney C, Ramsdell JW. Effect of medical records' checklists on implementation of periodic health measures. *Am J Med* 1987;83:129-36.
7. Kirkham C, Harris S, Grzybowski S. Evidence-based prenatal care: part II. Third-trimester care and prevention of infectious diseases. *Am Fam Physician* 2005. In press.
8. Grzybowski S, Nout R, Kirkham M. Maternity care calendar wheel. Improved obstetric wheel developed in British Columbia. *Can Fam Physician* 1999;45:661-6.
9. Kirkham CM, Grzybowski S. Maternity Care Guidelines checklist. To assist physicians in implementing CPGs. *Can Fam Physician* 1999;45:671-8.
10. 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>.
11. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Standards for obstetric-gynecologic services. 7th ed. Washington, D.C.: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, 1989.
12. United States Public Health Service Expert Panel on the Content of Prenatal Care. Caring for our future: the content of prenatal care. Washington, D.C.: Public Health Services, Department of Health and Human Services, 1989.
13. Villar J, Carroli G, Khan-Neelofur D, Piaggio G, Gulmezoglu M. Patterns of routine antenatal care for low-risk pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000934.
14. Waldenstrom U, Turnbull D. A systematic review comparing continuity of midwifery care with standard maternity services. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1998;105:1160-70.
15. Hodnett ED. Continuity of caregivers for care during pregnancy and childbirth. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000062.
16. Neilson JP. Ultrasound for fetal assessment in early pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000182.
17. ACOG Committee on Obstetric Practice. ACOG committee opinion. Air travel during pregnancy. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2002;76:338-9.
18. Behavioral interventions to promote breastfeeding: recommendations and rationale. *Ann Fam Med* 2003;1:79-80.
19. Palda VA, Guise JM, Wathen CN. Interventions to promote breast-feeding: applying the evidence in clinical practice. *CMAJ* 2004;170:976-8.
20. ACOG Committee on Obstetric Practice. ACOG committee opinion. Exercise during pregnancy and the postpartum period. Number 267, January 2002. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2002;77:79-81.
21. Koren G. Hair treatments: drugs, pregnancy, and lactation. *Ob/Gyn News* 2003;38:8.
22. Li DK, Janevic T, Odouli R, Liu L. Hot tub use during pregnancy and the risk of miscarriage. *Am J Epidemiol* 2003;158:931-7.
23. Milunsky A, Ulcickas M, Rothman KJ, Willett W, Jick SS, Jick H. Maternal heat exposure and neural tube defects. *JAMA* 1992;268:882-5.
24. Koren G, Pastuszak A, Ito S. Drugs in pregnancy. *N Engl J Med* 1998;338:1128-37.
25. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Recommendation statement: screening and behavioral counseling interventions in primary care to reduce alcohol misuse. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/3rduspstf/alcohol/alcomisrs.htm>.
26. Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. The Canadian guide to clinical preventive health care. Ottawa: Canada Communication Group, 1994.
27. 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.
28. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Recommendations statement: counseling to prevent tobacco use and tobacco-caused disease. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.ahrq.gov/clinic/3rduspstf/tobaccoun/tobcounrs.htm>.
29. ACOG Committee on Practice Bulletins. ACOG Practice Bulletin: clinical management guidelines for obstetrician-gynecologists. Number 45, August 2003. Cervical cytology screening. *Obstet Gynecol* 2003;102:417-27.
30. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. ACOG practice bulletin. Management of recurrent pregnancy loss. Number 24, February 2001. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 2002;78:179-90.
31. Nybo Andersen AM, Wohlfahrt J, Christens P, Olsen J, Melbye M. Maternal age and fetal loss: population based register linkage study. *BMJ* 2000;320:1708-12.
32. Huntington J, Connell FA. For every dollar spent—the cost-savings argument for prenatal care. *N Engl J Med* 1994;331:1303-7.
33. Steer P. Rituals in antenatal care—do we need them? *BMJ* 1993;307:697-8.
34. McFarlin BL, Engstrom JL, Sampson MB, Cattledge F. Concurrent validity of Leopold's maneuvers in determining fetal presentation and position. *J Nurse Midwifery* 1985;30:280-4.
35. Thorp JM Jr, Jenkins T, Watson W. Utility of Leopold maneuvers in screening for malpresentation. *Obstet Gynecol* 1991;78(3 part 1):394-6.
36. Smith MA. Preeclampsia. *Prim Care* 1993;20:655-64.
37. Neldam S. Fetal movements as an indicator of fetal well-being. *Dan Med Bull* 1983;30:274-8.
38. Grant A, Elbourne D, Valentin L, Alexander S. Routine formal fetal movement counting and risk of antepartum late death in normally formed singletons. *Lancet* 1989;2:345-9.
39. Lindhard A, Nielsen PV, Mouritsen LA, Zachariassen A, Sorensen HU, Roseno H. The implications of introducing the symphyseal-fundal height-measurement. A prospective randomized controlled trial. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1990;97:675-80.
40. Neilson JP. Symphysis-fundal height measurement in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000944.
41. Gardosi J, Francis A. Controlled trial of fundal height measurement plotted on customised antenatal growth charts. *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1999;106:309-17.
42. Calvert JP, Crean EE, Newcombe RG, Pearson JF. Antenatal screening by measurement of symphysis-fundus height. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)* 1982;285:846-9.
43. Murray N, Homer CS, Davis GK, Curtis J, Mangos G, Brown MA. The clinical utility of routine urinalysis in pregnancy: a prospective study. *Med J Aust* 2002;177:477-80.
44. Gribble RK, Meier PR, Berg RL. The value of urine screening for glucose at each prenatal visit. *Obstet Gynecol* 1995;86:405-10.

45. Gribble RK, Fee SC, Berg RL. The value of routine urine dipstick screening for protein at each prenatal visit. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995;173:214-7.
46. Bergmann MM, Flagg EW, Miracle-McMahill HL, Boeing H. Energy intake and net weight gain in pregnant women according to body mass index (BMI) status. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 1997;21:1010-7.
47. Dawes MG, Grudzinskas JG. Repeated measurement of maternal weight during pregnancy. Is this a useful practice? *Br J Obstet Gynaecol* 1991;98:189-94.
48. Saftlas A, Wang W, Risch H, Woolson R, Hsu C, Bracken M. Pre-pregnancy body mass index and gestational weight gain as risk factors for preeclampsia and transient hypertension. *Ann Epidemiol* 2000;10:475.
49. Schieve LA, Cogswell ME, Scanlon KS, Perry G, Ferre C, Blackmore-Prince C, et al. Prepregnancy body mass index and pregnancy weight gain: associations with preterm delivery. *Obstet Gynecol* 2000;96:194-200.
50. Janssen PA, Holt VL, Sugg NK, Emanuel I, Critchlow CM, Henderson AD. Intimate partner violence and adverse pregnancy outcomes: a population-based study. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2003;188:1341-7.
51. Eisenstat SA, Bancroft L. Domestic violence. *N Engl J Med* 1999;341:886-92.
52. Murphy CC, Schei B, Myhr TL, Du Mont J. Abuse: a risk factor for low birth weight? A systematic review and meta-analysis. *CMAJ* 2001;164:1567-72.
53. Wiist WH, McFarlane J. The effectiveness of an abuse assessment protocol in public health prenatal clinics. *Am J Public Health* 1999;89:1217-21.
54. Nelson HD, Nygren P, McInerney Y, Klein J. Screening women and elderly adults for family and intimate partner violence: a review of the evidence for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *Ann Intern Med* 2004;140:387-96.
55. Wathen CN, MacMillan HL. Prevention of violence against women: recommendation statement from the Canadian Task Force on Preventive Health Care. *CMAJ* 2003;169:582-4.
56. Ramsay J, Richardson J, Carter YH, Davidson LL, Feder G. Should health professionals screen women for domestic violence? Systematic review. *BMJ* 2002;325:314.
57. McFarlane J, Parker B, Soeken K, Bullock L. Assessing for abuse during pregnancy. Severity and frequency of injuries and associated entry into prenatal care. *JAMA* 1992;267:3176-8.
58. Feldhaus KM, Koziol-McLain J, Amsbury HL, Norton IM, Lowenstein SR, Abbott JT. Accuracy of 3 brief screening questions for detecting partner violence in the emergency department. *JAMA* 1997;277:1357-61.
59. ACOG practice bulletin. Prevention of Rh D alloimmunization. Number 4, May 1999. Clinical management guidelines for obstetrician-gynecologists. American College of Obstetrics and Gynecology. *Int J Gynaecol Obstet* 1999;66:63-70.
60. Fung Kee Fung K, Eason E, Crane J, Armson A, De La Ronde S, Farine D, et al. Prevention of Rh alloimmunization. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2003;25:765-73.
61. Dick PT. Periodic health examination, 1996 update: 1. Prenatal screening for and diagnosis of Down syndrome. Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. *CMAJ* 1996;154:465-79.
62. ACOG Committee on Practice Bulletins. ACOG practice bulletin. Clinical management guidelines for obstetrician-gynecologists. Prenatal diagnosis of fetal chromosomal abnormalities. *Obstet Gynecol* 2001;97(5 pt 1):1-12.
63. Wapner R, Thom E, Simpson JL, Pergament E, Silver R, Filkins K, et al. First-trimester screening for trisomies 21 and 18. *N Engl J Med* 2003;349:1405-13.
64. ACOG Committee Opinion #296: first-trimester screening for fetal aneuploidy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2004;104:215-7.
65. Krantz DA, Hallahan TW, Orlandi F, Buchanan P, Larsen JW Jr, Macri JN. First-trimester Down syndrome screening using dried blood biochemistry and nuchal translucency. *Obstet Gynecol* 2000;96:207-13.
66. Wald NJ, Watt HC, Hackshaw AK. Integrated screening for Down's syndrome on the basis of tests performed during the first and second trimesters. *N Engl J Med* 1999;341:461-7.
67. Graves JC, Miller KE, Sellers AD. Maternal serum triple analyte screening in pregnancy. *Am Fam Physician* 2002;65:915-20.
68. Chorionic villus sampling and amniocentesis: recommendations for prenatal counseling. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 1995;44(RR-9):1-12.
69. Mennuti MT, Driscoll DA. Screening for Down's syndrome—too many choices? *N Engl J Med* 2003;349:1471-3.
70. Marinac-Dabic D, Krulwich CJ, Moore RM Jr. The safety of prenatal ultrasound exposure in human studies. *Epidemiology* 2002;13(3 suppl):S19-22.
71. Picciano MF. Pregnancy and lactation: physiological adjustments, nutritional requirements and the role of dietary supplements. *J Nutr* 2003;133:1997S-2002S.
72. Institute of Medicine. Subcommittee on Nutritional Status and Weight Gain during Pregnancy; Subcommittee on Dietary Intake and Nutrient Supplements during Pregnancy. U.S. Health Resources and Services Administration. Nutrition during pregnancy: part I, weight gain; part II: nutrient supplements. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1990.
73. Abrams B, Altman SL, Pickett KE. Pregnancy weight gain: still controversial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2000;71(5 suppl):1233S-41S.
74. Prevention of neural tube defects: results of the Medical Research Council Vitamin Study. *Lancet* 1991;338:131-7.
75. Czeizel AE, Dudas I. Prevention of the first occurrence of neural-tube defects by periconceptional vitamin supplementation. *N Engl J Med* 1992;327:1832-5.
76. Werler MM, Shapiro S, Mitchell AA. Periconceptional folic acid exposure and risk of occurrent neural tube defects. *JAMA* 1993;269:1257-61.
77. Recommendations to prevent and control iron deficiency in the United States. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 1998;47(RR-3):1-29.
78. Routine iron supplementation during pregnancy. Review article. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. *JAMA* 1993;270:2848-54.
79. Institute of Medicine. Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes. Dietary reference intakes for calcium, phosphorus, magnesium, vitamin D, and fluoride. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1997.
80. Atallah AN, Hofmeyr GJ, Duley L. Calcium supplementation during pregnancy for preventing hypertensive disorders and related problems. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2002;(1):CD001059.
81. Bucher HC, Guyatt GH, Cook RJ, Hatala R, Cook DJ, Lang JD, et al. Effect of calcium supplementation on pregnancy-induced hypertension and preeclampsia: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials [published correction appears in *JAMA* 1996;276:1388]. *JAMA* 1996;275:1113-7.
82. Institute of Medicine. Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes. Dietary reference intakes for thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, vitamin B₆, folate, vitamin B₁₂, pantothenic acid, biotin, and choline. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1998.
83. Kaiser LL, Allen L. Position of the American Dietetic Association: nutrition and lifestyle for a healthy pregnancy outcome. *J Am Diet Assoc* 2002;102:1479-90.
84. McDonald SD, Ferguson S, Tam L, Loughheed J, Walker MC. The prevention of congenital anomalies with periconceptional folic acid supplementation. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2003;25:115-21.
85. Rothman KJ, Moore LL, Singer MR, Nguyen US, Mannino S, Milunsky A. Teratogenicity of high vitamin A intake. *N Engl J Med* 1995;333:1369-73.

Prenatal Care

86. Azais-Braesco V, Pascal G. Vitamin A in pregnancy: requirements and safety limits. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2000;71(5 suppl):1325S-33S.
87. Mahomed K, Gulmezoglu AM. Vitamin D supplementation in pregnancy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2004;(4):CD000228.
88. Specker BL. Do North American women need supplemental vitamin D during pregnancy or lactation? *Am J Clin Nutr* 1994;59(2 suppl):484S-490S.
89. Ladipo OA. Nutrition in pregnancy: mineral and vitamin supplements. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2000;72(1 suppl):280S-290S.
90. Duffy VB, Anderson GH. Position of the American Dietetic Association: use of nutritive and nonnutritive sweeteners. *J Am Diet Assoc* 1998;98:580-7.
91. Health Canada. Nutrition for a healthy pregnancy: national guidelines for the childbearing years Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hpfb-dgpsa/onpp-bppn/national_guidelines_tc_e.html.
92. Fernandes O, Sabharwal M, Smiley T, Pastuszak A, Koren G, Einarsen T. Moderate to heavy caffeine consumption during pregnancy and relationship to spontaneous abortion and abnormal fetal growth: a meta-analysis. *Reprod Toxicol* 1998;12:435-44.
93. Nawrot P, Jordan S, Eastwood J, Rotstein J, Hugenholtz A, Feeley M. Effects of caffeine on human health. *Food Addit Contam* 2003;20:1-30.
94. Klebanoff MA, Levine RJ, DerSimonian R, Clemens JD, Wilkins DG. Maternal serum paraxanthine, a caffeine metabolite, and the risk of spontaneous abortion. *N Engl J Med* 1999;341:1639-44.
95. Leviton A, Cowan L. A review of the literature relating caffeine consumption by women to their risk of reproductive hazards. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2002;40:1271-310.
96. Multistate outbreak of listeriosis—United States, 2000 [published correction appears in *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2001;50:101]. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2000;49:1129-30.
97. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Consumer advisory. How to safely handle refrigerated ready-to-eat foods and avoid listeriosis. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.cfsan.fda.gov/~dms/adlister.html>.
98. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Listeriosis. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/dbmd/diseaseinfo/listeriosis_g.htm.
99. Phillips E. Toxoplasmosis. *Can Fam Physician* 1998;44:1823-5.
100. Cook AJ, Gilbert RE, Buffolano W, Zufferey J, Petersen E, Jenum PA, et al. Sources of toxoplasma infection in pregnant women: European multicentre case-control study. *BMJ* 2000;321:142-7.
101. U.S. Department of Agriculture, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Nutrition and your health: dietary guidelines for Americans. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.health.gov/dietaryguidelines/>.
102. Kendall P, Medeiros LC, Hillers V, Chen G, DiMascola S. Food handling behaviors of special importance for pregnant women, infants and young children, the elderly, and immune-compromised people. *J Am Diet Assoc* 2003;103:1646-9.
103. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Preventing congenital toxoplasmosis. *MMWR Recomm Rep* 2000;49(RR02):57-75. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/preview/mmwrhtml/rr4902a5.htm>.
104. Conover EA. Herbal agents and over-the-counter medications in pregnancy. *Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2003;17:237-51.
105. Ernst E. Herbal medicinal products during pregnancy: are they safe? *BJOG* 2002;109:227-35.
106. Jones J, Lopez A, Wilson M. Congenital toxoplasmosis. *Am Fam Physician* 2003;67:2131-8.
107. Update: foodborne listeriosis—United States, 1988-1990. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 1992;41:251, 257-8.
108. Brown JE, Kahn ES. Maternal nutrition and the outcome of pregnancy. *Clin Perinatol* 1997;24:433-49.
109. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Draft advice for women who are pregnant, or who might become pregnant, and nursing mothers, about avoiding harm to your baby or young child from mercury in fish and shellfish. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.fda.gov/oc/opacom/mehgadvisory1208.html>.
110. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. An important message for pregnant women and women of childbearing age who may become pregnant about the risks of mercury in fish. Accessed online January 17, 2005, at: <http://www.cfsan.fda.gov/~dms/admehg.html>.
111. Bolger PM, Schwetz BA. Mercury and health. *N Engl J Med* 2002;347:1735-6.
112. Theobald H. Oily fish and pregnancy. *Nutr Bull* 2003;28:247-51.
113. Hites RA, Foran JA, Carpenter DO, Hamilton MC, Knuth BA, Schwager SJ. Global assessment of organic contaminants in farmed salmon. *Science* 2004;303:226-9.