

Oropharyngeal Therapy with Mother's Own Milk (OPT-MOM) to Protect Extremely Premature Infants against Infectious Morbidities

Nancy A. Garofalo, PhD APN, NNP

Abstract

Background: Upon birth, the extremely low birth weight (ELBW) infant experiences an abrupt cessation of amniotic fluid exposure. The ELBW infant's oropharynx is no longer exposed to immunoprotective biofactors, which modulate the immune system and promote maturation of the gastrointestinal tract. Many immune and trophic biofactors are also contained in the mother's own milk, and are especially concentrated in the milk expressed by mothers of ELBW infants; particularly in colostrum. Unfortunately, clinical instability precludes enteral feeding for ELBW infants in the first days of life. Once started, enteral feeds are administered via a nasogastric tube; therefore oropharyngeal exposure to protective milk biofactors cannot occur until the infant begins per oral feeds, with mother's milk; typically at 32 weeks corrected gestational age. The delay, or lack of, oropharyngeal exposure to protective milk biofactors, during the critical first weeks of life for the ELBW infant, may be contributing substantially to prematurity-associated infectious morbidities. Oro-Pharyngeal Therapy with Mother's Own Milk (OPT-MOM)-placing drops of mother's milk onto the infant's oral mucosa to provide early postnatal modulation of the immune system- can serve as a potential substitute for amniotic-fluid (biofactor) exposure. Purpose: To describe how OPT-MOM may protect the ELBW infant against prematurity-associated infectious morbidities including Late-Onset Sepsis, necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), and also Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia. This manuscript will provide neonatal clinicians with the latest evidence to guide clinical practice. Important implications, in terms of patient safety, will also be addressed.

Keywords: breastmilk, human milk, mother's milk, colostrum, oropharyngeal, oral immune, oral care, premature, extremely low birth weight, very low birth weight.

Introduction

Extremely low birth weight (ELBW) infants are born at the lower limits of viability, weighing less than 1000 grams, and experience an abrupt ending to amniotic fluid exposure. The oropharynx is no longer bathed with amniotic fluid biofactors which provide immunostimulatory effects, protect against infection, and promote gastrointestinal maturation. Protective biofactors are also contained in mother's own milk, with the highest concentrations present in the milk expressed by mothers of ELBW infants; especially in colostrum. However, with our current standard of care, the ELBW infant's oropharynx is not exposed to protective milk biofactors, for up to 10 weeks post-birth. Enteral feedings are administered via a nasogastric tube; which bypasses the oropharynx, until per oral feedings are introduced at >32 weeks corrected gestational age (CGA). It is possible that the lack of oropharyngeal exposure to protective biofactors, for a prolonged period post-birth, may be contributing to prematurity-associated infectious morbidities for the ELBW infant, including Late-Onset Sepsis (L-OS), Necrotizing Enterocolitis (NEC), and Ventilator-Associated Pneumonia (VAP). This deficit has never

been addressed in neonatal care. Oro-Pharyngeal Therapy with Mother's Own Milk (OPT-MOM)-placing drops of mother's milk onto the infant's oral mucosa- may serve as a natural substitute for amniotic fluid exposure; potentially correcting this deficit. This paper will present evidence that supports the concept that OPT-MOM may serve as a potential immunotherapy, to protect ELBW infants against infectious morbidities.

Prematurity-associated Infectious Morbidities

ELBW infants are at high risk for acquiring L-OS, NEC, and VAP; infections which are associated with significant mortality, costly morbidities, and the potential for adverse long-term neurodevelopmental outcomes. Late-onset sepsis (L-OS) is defined as the identification of pathogenic organisms from a blood culture (bacteremia) acquired after the third day of life. (1) LOS affects 32-53% of ELBW infants, with high mortality (30%) (2,3) and increases hospitalization costs by 31%. (4) Necrotizing Enterocolitis (NEC) is a gastrointestinal infectious and inflammatory disorder, which in severe cases can lead to bowel necrosis and death. (5-12) NEC affects 10-15% of ELBW infants, with 30% mortality and costs an estimated \$1 billion in healthcare dollars yearly. (8-10) Ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP) accounts for up to 32.3% of NICU device-associated infections, is associated with secondary bacteremia and chronic lung disease, and prolongs hospitalization. (13,14) With the increased survival of ELBW infants, the incidence of prematurity-associated morbidities, and their associated costs, are on the rise. (15) The prevention of infectious morbidities, including L-OS, NEC, and VAP, is a clinical priority.

"With the increased survival of ELBW infants, the incidence of prematurity-associated morbidities, and their associated costs, are on the rise. The prevention of infectious morbidities, including L-OS, NEC, and VAP, is a clinical priority."

Infection Risk for ELBW Infants

ELBW infants are at high risk for acquiring L-OS, NEC, and VAP as a result of numerous factors. First, they have an abnormal host defense, with deficits in both innate and adaptive components of the immune system. The immature immune system is unable to mount an effective, appropriate response against pathogens encountered; often resulting in unbridled inflammation with subsequent tissue injury. (16-19)

Second, ELBW infants require multiple invasive catheters and

tubes for the provision of life-saving therapies. These devices become portals for pathogen entry. Bacterial colonization of the oropharynx and upper respiratory tract increases the risk for VAP, while bacterial colonization of the gastrointestinal tract increases the risk for both L-OS and NEC. Third, ELBW infants have an immature gastrointestinal tract which increases infection risk. Clinical instability in the first days of life often precludes enteral feeds for ELBW infants. The lack of enteral nutrition during this critical post-birth period quickly leads to intestinal atrophy, (20) which places the infant at risk for feeding intolerance and also NEC. Once feeds are initiated, the immature gastrointestinal tract makes the tolerance of enteral feeds problematic, and leads to a prolonged time to reach full enteral feeds. This necessitates the provision of prolonged parenteral nutrition, via centrally-placed venous catheters, factors which increase the risk for L-OS. Also, a prolonged time to reach full enteral feeds is linked to a higher risk for NEC. (12) Fourth, ELBW infants require a prolonged hospitalization; typically 3-4 months and therefore have persistent exposure to neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) pathogens. Finally, ELBW infants develop an abnormal gastrointestinal microbiome (dysbiosis) as a result of exposure to antibiotics, delayed enteral nutrition, and immaturity in gastrointestinal function including decreased peristalsis, decreased gastric acid and enzymatic activity, reduced surface glycoconjugates, and decreased intestinal mucus. (1,21,22) Gastro-intestinal pathogens can injure the fragile immature intestinal mucosal barrier; an initial step in NEC pathogenesis. Also, decreased tight junctions between intestinal epithelial cells facilitate bacteria translocation, with subsequent L-OS.

A pathogen-predominant microbiome is an important component in the pathogenesis of both L-OS and NEC. (1,5,19,21-25) Interventions that optimize the microbiome and reduce the presence of pathogens, in the gastrointestinal tract and the oropharynx, may reduce the risk for L-OS, NEC, and VAP for the ELBW infant.

Protection against Infection with Mother's Own Milk (MOM)

Mother's milk feedings have been linked to improved health outcomes for premature infants, including protection against several prematurity-associated morbidities including NEC, L-OS, retinopathy of prematurity, chronic lung disease and adverse neurodevelopmental outcomes. (2,4,12,15,26-38) These health benefits are attributed to a multitude of potent biofactors which collectively: provide antimicrobial activity, maintain intestinal integrity, provide anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory functions, and provide trophic/maturation effects on the intestinal mucosa. (39-44) Biofactor concentrations are highest in the milk expressed by women who deliver the least mature (ELBW) infants; (45-54) particularly in early milk (colostrum). However, even beyond the colostrum phase, concentrations of several immune and trophic biofactors remain high in preterm milk (compared to term milk) for many weeks post-delivery. 50, 53, 55 Importantly, many of these protective biofactors are also present in amniotic fluid. These gestation-specific trends in biofactor concentrations suggest that preterm milk has an important biological function for facilitating extra-uterine transition for the ELBW infant. Preterm milk is therefore uniquely suited to compensate for the ELBW infant's immunological deficiencies; providing protection against infection.

"By adding these exceptional presenters to the long list of local experts who typically present at the Stanford NeuroNICU course this two-day seminar offers the best way for anyone interested in the neonatal brain to become immersed in the best science and practical bedside approaches for caring for a variety of infants with, or at-risk for, brain injury."

A Universal Clinical Dilemma:

Early post-birth exposure to mother's milk may serve as a potential immune therapy for the ELBW infant. Unfortunately, enteral exposure post-birth is often delayed for several days due to clinical instability. Once the infant is stable, minimal enteral feeds are initiated via a nasogastric tube, which bypasses the infant's oropharynx. Oral feeds (breast and/or bottle) are typically not introduced until the ELBW infant reaches a corrected gestational age (CGA) of at least 32 weeks. Therefore, with our current standard of care, oropharyngeal exposure to protective (milk) biofactors is delayed for up to 10 weeks post-birth, for the least mature ELBW infants born as early as 22 weeks gestation. Unfortunately, many mothers of ELBW infants become discouraged with low milk volume and discontinue milk expression before the infant is ready to begin oral feeds. In these cases, when own mother's milk is no longer available, and standard formula is given instead, the ELBW infant's oropharynx is never exposed to



protective biofactors post-birth. This deficit- the delay or complete lack of biofactor exposure post-birth for the ELBW infant- has never been addressed in neonatal care. In a healthy term pregnancy, the fetus receives continuous in-utero exposure to (amniotic-fluid) biofactors until 40 completed weeks of gestation. It is plausible that the delay (or lack) of oropharyngeal exposure to (immune and trophic) biofactors post-birth may be contributing significantly to the pathogenesis of prematurity-associated infectious morbidities. Oropharyngeal administration of mother's own milk, using the OPT-MOM approach, may serve as a potential natural alternative to provide a continuum of amniotic fluid effects ex-utero for the ELBW infant.

OroPharyngeal Therapy with Mother's Own Milk (OPT-MOM)

The OPT-MOM approach involves a rigorous protocol of frequent and precise dosing of mother's own milk, administered via the oropharyngeal route, for several weeks until per oral feeds can be safely introduced for the ELBW infant. The goal is to provide sustained oropharyngeal exposure to protective (immune and trophic) milk biofactors, similar to those that are naturally found in amniotic fluid. Treatments are started soon after birth, once mother's colostrum is available, and continued for many weeks without interruption.

Since OPT-MOM is intended to serve as an ex-utero substitute for biofactor-rich amniotic fluid exposure, the protocol includes the use of colostrum, transitional and mature milk for sustained dosing over several weeks post-birth; until the infant reaches 32 weeks CGA. The dosing is precise (0.2 mL; ~ 8 drops) in order to expose the infant to biofactor doses comparable to in-utero exposure. For example, based on concentrations of epidermal growth factor (EGF) and lactoferrin in human amniotic fluid and preterm milk, (45,55) a fetus weighing 1000 grams would be exposed to 38 ng of EGF and 172 mcg of lactoferrin daily via amniotic fluid (200 mL/kg fetal weight/day). Ex-utero, an ELBW infant weighing 1000 grams, would receive a 'dose' of 396 ng of EGF and 658 mcg of lactoferrin with OPT-MOM treatments every 2 hours (2.4 mL/daily), and 216 ng of EGF and 450 mcg of lactoferrin with treatments every 3 hours (1.6 mL day). Thus, OPT-MOM can potentially provide higher doses of protective biofactors for the ELBW infant, who remains in the pathogen-laden NICU, compared to the sterile in-utero environment for the fetus. The amount of milk that is needed daily for OPT-MOM treatments is minimal; less than a teaspoon (1.6 – 2.4 mL, depending on the frequency of treatments), therefore even mothers with minimal milk volume can easily provide this volume daily.

OPT-MOM: Potential Mechanisms of Action

FIGURE 1

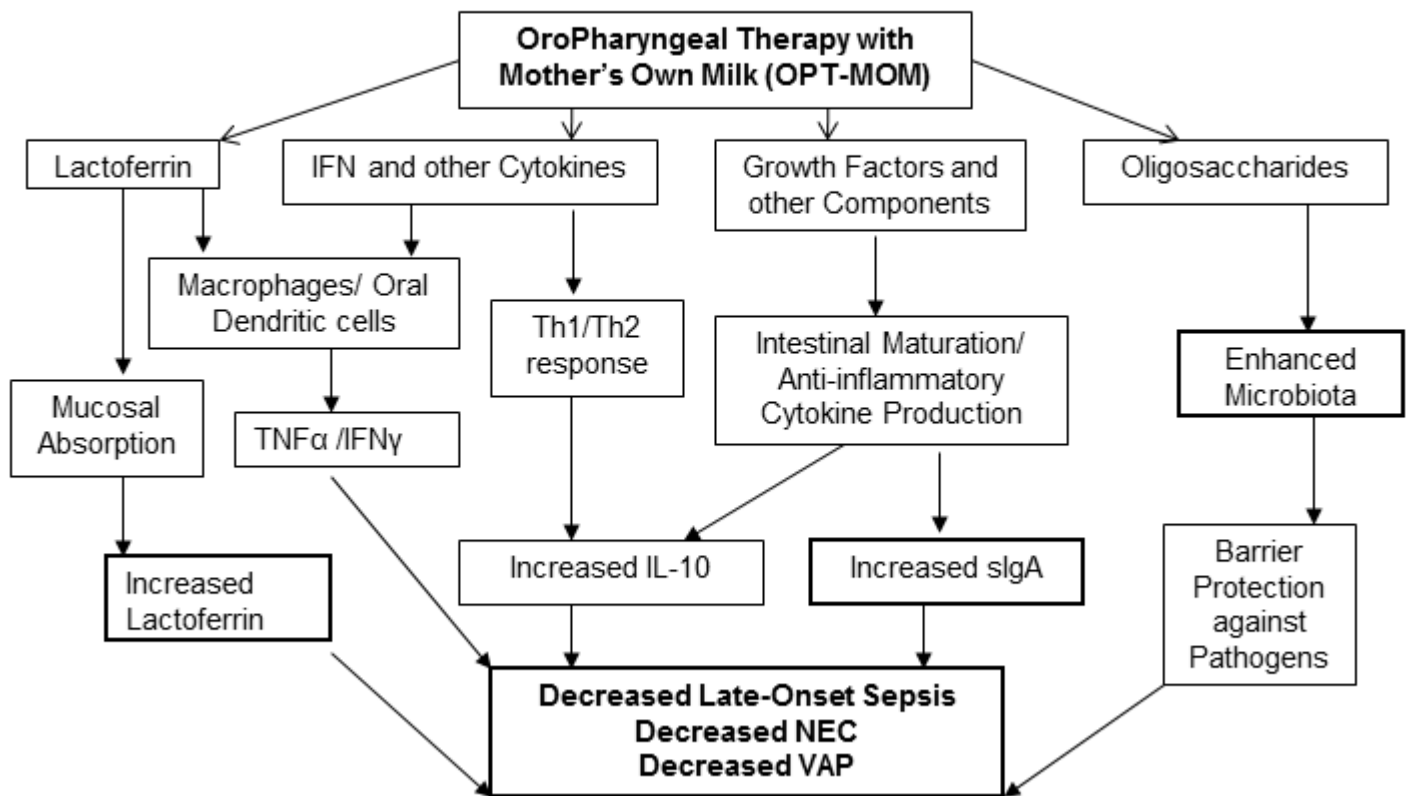


Figure 1: OroPharyngeal Therapy with Mother's Own Milk (OPT-MOM). A simplified model of the proposed mechanisms of action for protection against Late-onset sepsis, NEC and VAP, using the OPT-MOM approach, based on the known biological functions of milk biofactors.

The potential benefits of OPT-MOM are based on the following distinct mechanisms: (1) immunostimulatory effects of cytokine interaction with immune cells within the oropharyngeal-associated lymphoid tissues (OFALT), (2) passive mucosal absorption of protective (immune and trophic) biofactors, (3) barrier protection against pathogens in the oropharynx, (4) anti-inflammatory protection, (5) local and systemic effects of oligosaccharides, and (6) protective effects of antioxidants. These mechanisms are detailed elsewhere, (60, 61) but summarized below and in Figure 1.

Biofactors provide protection against L-OS with antimicrobial,

anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory functions and the creation of a gastrointestinal microflora milieu that prevents the proliferation, and translocation of pathogenic organisms. (61) Trophic factors promote intestinal maturation, which facilitates the tolerance of enteral feeds and thereby indirectly protect against L-OS, since central venous catheters can be removed earlier.

Protection against NEC is attributed to biofactors which promote the presence of commensal bacteria; reducing dysbiosis. Also, other biofactors provide antimicrobial properties, maintain the integrity of the intestinal epithelial barrier, heal areas of intestinal

Table 1. Oropharyngeal Administration of Mother’s Milk

• Oral care/mouth care with colostrum
• Oral swabbing with colostrum
• Buccal swabbing with colostrum
• Oral colostrum
• Oropharyngeal colostrum (OC)
• Mouth feeds with colostrum
• Oral immune therapy (OIT) with colostrum
• Colostrum oral care (COC)
• Oral human milk swabbing
• Buccal administration of colostrum
• Oral colostrum priming (OCP)
• Colostrum swabbing
• Oropharyngeal Therapy with Mother’s Own Milk (OPT-MOM)
• Administración de calostro orofaríngeo

injury, decrease inflammation, provide anti-oxidant protection, promote intestinal maturation and regulate the ELBW infant's immune response. (60)

Protection against VAP is afforded by human milk oligosaccharides, secretory immunoglobulin A (sIgA) and lactoferrin, among others. Oligosaccharides and secretory IgA provide barrier protection and inhibit the adhesion of respiratory pathogens to epithelial cell surface receptors in the mucosa of the oropharynx. This may lessen the ability of the pathogens to colonize the upper respiratory tract where they could lead to subsequent VAP. Lactoferrin and oligosaccharides also provide antimicrobial, anti-inflammatory and mucosal healing properties (60,61) which serve to protect against VAP.

With OPT-MOM, the interaction of (milk) cytokines with immune cells within lymphoid tissues may provide systemic immunostimulatory effects and anti-inflammatory protection. Mucosal absorption of immune biofactors, such as lactoferrin, may provide systemic protection against infection, while absorption of trophic factors (e.g., EGF), may accelerate intestinal maturation. Oligosaccharides may also be absorbed mucosally with systemic effects or may travel to the gut; enhancing the microbiota and decreasing the risk for intestinal injury. (60,61) Oligosaccharides, sIgA, and lactoferrin, prevent pathogen attachment to the oropharyngeal and intestinal mucosa, providing protection against VAP, L-OS, and NEC. Figure 1 depicts the proposed mechanisms of action for protection against L-OS, NEC, and VAP, using the OPT-MOM approach, based on the known biological functions of milk biofactors.

Current Evidence to Support the OPT-MOM Approach

The concept of using oropharyngeal administration of mother's colostrum as a potential immune therapy for ELBW infants was first introduced into the medical literature in 2009. (62) Following the publication of this initial "theory paper," two pilot studies 56, 63 established feasibility, and results from a small randomized controlled trial (RCT) (57) were suggestive of possible immunostimulatory effects. Infants who received oropharyngeal (own mother's) colostrum, were found to have higher concentrations of urinary lactoferrin, compared to placebo-treated infants. A clinically relevant large effect size (1.30) was noted for urinary lactoferrin in treated infants, suggesting that results may have reached statistical significance with a larger sample. The most compelling finding was that treated infants reached full enteral feedings (150 mL/kg/day) on average ten days earlier (14.3 ± 5.7 vs 24.2 ± 8.7 ; $p=0.032$) compared to controls. (57) The intervention was feasible and well-tolerated by all enrolled infants. Infants were noted to begin sucking on the breathing tube when the drops were being administered.

Since these initial studies were first published, several researchers have evaluated the benefits of oropharyngeal mother's milk for premature infants; particularly with the very low birth weight (VLBW; BW<1500g) and ELBW population. Although variable terminology has been used to describe 'oropharyngeal administration of mother's milk' (see Table 1) including 'oral immune therapy' the concept is the same; placing drops of mother's milk onto the infant's oral mucosa in efforts to provide early postnatal modulation of the immune system. To date, the oropharyngeal

administration of mother's milk has been associated with many benefits for the recipient preterm infant, including: enhanced immune status (higher concentrations of serum IgA, (66) salivary sIgA, (64) urinary sIgA, (65), salivary lactoferrin, (69) and urinary lactoferrin,(67), reduced inflammation (lower concentrations of salivary IL-8 and TGF β -1 and also urinary IL-1 β ,) (65) a lower risk for clinical sepsis, (65,67) enhanced oral microbiota, (68,69) enhanced breastfeeding outcomes, (58) improved growth, 70 a reduced time to achieve full enteral feedings (67,69,70) and full per oral feedings, (69) and a reduced length of hospital stay. (69)

More recent work suggests that this intervention may also be beneficial for term infants who are unable to feed orally; including infants with cardiac disease, congenital diaphragmatic hernia, omphalocele, gastrointestinal anomalies (including gastroschisis) and also infants who are recovering from surgery. (71-74) Potential maternal benefits have also been reported. (58,74,75) Evidence suggests that mothers who provide milk for oropharyngeal administration, may be more motivated to continue milk expression ('pumping'); thus maintaining lactation during their infant's hospitalization, even while the infant is not able to feed enterally. (75) Also, the provision of oropharyngeal colostrum has been linked to sustained mother's milk feedings, for VLBW infants at six weeks of age and through discharge from the neonatal intensive care unit. 58 This suggests that providing milk for oropharyngeal administration to their preterm infant may be a strong motivating factor for mothers to continue pumping, resulting in more 'doses' of milk for the preterm infant, during the first weeks of life.

Discussion and Clinical Implications

In published reports, the oropharyngeal administration of mother's milk is described using variable terminology (see Table 1) yet the underlying premise is the same: placing drops of mother's milk onto the infant's oral mucosa so that (milk) biofactors may provide immunomodulation. While prior studies focused on the use of early milk (colostrum) for a brief 48-hour treatment period for infants who were 'nil per os', a paradigm shift has occurred and clinicians are now utilizing oropharyngeal administration of mother's own milk (inclusive of early, transitional and mature milk) for longer treatment periods; up to day of life 7. Yet, it is unlikely that brief treatment periods (2-7 days) will have a significant impact on important clinical outcomes such as NEC. The latest terminology (OPT-MOM) implies the prioritized use of oropharyngeal mother's milk, as a potent immunomodulatory therapy over several weeks post-birth. In this manner, OPT-MOM serves as an adjunct to nasogastric-tube-feedings and as a natural substitute for amniotic fluid (oropharyngeal) exposure until per oral feeds (via breast and/or bottle) can be safely introduced for the ELBW infant. A multi-center RCT is underway (funded by the Gerber Foundation), utilizing the OPT-MOM approach and evaluating its impact on clinical outcomes for recipient ELBW infants. (61)

Current evidence suggests that oropharyngeal administration of mother's own milk can be beneficial and without adverse effects for recipient infants. However, safety and efficacy have not been firmly established in an adequately-powered RCT. To date, published studies are primarily retrospective in design, utilized very small samples, and were not powered to look at clinical outcomes. Also, the treatment periods were brief, ranging from 48

hours to 7 days post-birth. An important consideration is that the immune benefits did not always persist once the treatments were stopped.

In a recent study, even with a treatment period of 5 days of oropharyngeal milk administration, the immune effects that were noted at one week of life for treated infants, were not sustained when measured at two weeks of life. (64) The authors speculate that the lack of effect on clinical outcomes may have been due to the short 5-day duration of the treatment protocol and that the immune benefits (higher concentrations of salivary sIgA) may have been sustained with longer duration of the treatment protocol. 64 In another recently published study, 68 the investigators suggest that a brief 48-hour treatment period may have limited effects on oral microbiota or clinical outcomes such as NEC, L-OS VAP, and chronic lung disease. In a third recent study, the authors suggest that more research is needed to determine if the immune effects are passive and therefore treatments should be continued and if the intervention results in temporary or sustained changes. 69 In a fourth and most recent study; a placebo-controlled RCT (n=64 VLBW infants), salivary IgA was significantly increased from baseline levels in treated infants after 7 consecutive days of treatment (0.2 mL every 4 hours x 7 days), compared to placebo controls (p=0.04) but these differences were not sustained, when measured 14 days after the treatments were discontinued. 67 Findings from these four recent studies suggest that an uninterrupted regimen of sustained and prolonged oropharyngeal exposure to protective milk biofactors, until oral feeds of mother's milk are introduced, is more likely to provide sustained immune benefits and impact clinical outcomes.

A significant limitations to published research is the wide variability in methodologies for the dose administered (ranging from 0.1 mL to 1.0 mL), frequency of treatments (every 2 to every 6 hours, also on an 'as needed' basis), duration of treatment (from 2 to 7 days), use of a syringe versus a cotton or foam swab, and the use of fresh versus frozen milk. The percent of 'planned treatments' that were actually given is typically not reported, except for four studies. (58,61,63,65) Also, the procedure for preparation of the 'dose' (ideally in a sterile manner) is usually not described.

In the majority of published studies (85%; 10 out of 12), sterile syringes were utilized to administer the treatments. (56,57,58,61,65-70) Since OPT-MOM is intended as an oral immune therapy, the milk should be treated as a 'medication' with a precise volume drawn up and administered with a sterile syringe. In this manner, appropriate doses of immune and trophic biofactors can be administered consistently with every treatment; as described in prior sections. The use of a swab to administer the milk does not provide a precise dose and is not an evidence-based approach. A cotton swab tends to absorb the majority of the milk, while a (low absorbency) foam swab will not hold and transfer an appropriate amount of milk to the mucosa, because of its low absorbency. Two published studies utilized swabs

for the oropharyngeal administration of milk. One study was a feasibility pilot; 63 therefore, the impact of the intervention on immune markers and clinical outcomes for treated infants was not measured. In the second study which utilized swabs, the immune effects of the intervention were not sustained one week after the protocol was completed. (64)

A recently published study defines oropharyngeal administration of colostrum as placing a small amount of colostrum directly onto the oropharyngeal mucosa with a sterile syringe for absorption (67) The OPT-MOM approach incorporates this technique and the use of a syringe facilitates the provision of a consistent dose of biofactors, with every treatment, so that beneficial effects are sustained. The preparation of a batch of syringes using sterile technique, for a 24-hour period of treatments, will promote patient safety.

For OPT-MOM, the use of fresh own mother's milk, administered in the order that it was expressed, is the best approach. Therefore, the infant should receive the colostrum first, with gradual progression to mature milk. In this manner, the ELBW infant will benefit from the natural transition of the milk, which is being administered oropharyngeally, and receive immune benefits similar to those that a breastfed infant would receive.

The use of donor milk for oropharyngeal administration has not been clinically investigated. Importantly, the pasteurization process destroys many immune biofactors or reduces their antimicrobial functions. For example, lactoferrin is reduced by 88%. (76) While donor milk is highly beneficial for ELBW infants, their own mother's milk should be prioritized for oropharyngeal administration. When only a small amount of mother's milk is available post-birth, the donor milk should be used for enteral feeds and the mother's own milk for oropharyngeal administration.

As with any intervention, patient safety and infection control must be prioritized. There have been anecdotal reports of some centers administering fortified breastmilk oropharyngeally to ELBW infants. The infant's nurse collects the 'dose' of milk for oropharyngeal administration at the point of care; when the infant's enteral feeding is due. A small volume of milk is collected (with a syringe or swab) from the aliquot of fortified milk that has been refrigerated and is intended for the infant's enteral feeds. This procedure is repeated every time an enteral feed is administered; between 8 to 12 times per day, depending on the feeding schedule. This practice raises several safety concerns. Repeatedly dipping syringes or swabs, into a container of milk, can potentially contaminate the milk with NICU pathogens; placing the infant at risk for infection. A recent review (79) showed that up to 40% of milk samples in the NICU are contaminated with potential pathogens, (77,78) with the most common organisms being Coagulase- negative Staphylococci, Staphylococcus Aureus, and Enterobacteriaceae. (79) Therefore preventing contamination of mother's milk must be a clinical priority. Another concern is that the milk which is refrigerated in



The National Perinatal Association (NPA) is an interdisciplinary organization that gives voice to the needs of parents, babies and families and all those interested in their health and wellbeing. Within NPA, parents and professionals work together to create positive change in perinatal care through education, parent programs, professional guidelines and events.

www.nationalperinatal.org

the NICU and set aside for enteral feeds is typically fortified. There is no evidence to support the safety of administering fortified milk via the oropharyngeal route to ELBW infants <32 weeks CGA. Also the presence of iron-enriched fortifier in oropharyngeally-administered mother's milk reduces the immune benefits of the intervention. For example, lactoferrin is a potent biofactor with anti-microbial, anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory effects. It is protective against L-OS and NEC, (80-83) and may also be protective against VAP, because of its ability to prevent the attachment of pathogens to the oropharyngeal mucosa. Lactoferrin's antimicrobial properties are highly dependent on its ability to compete with bacteria for iron-binding sites. The use of an iron-enriched fortifier reduces lactoferrin's bioactivity since iron-saturated lactoferrin has significantly reduced antimicrobial activity. (84,85) Lactoferrin concentrations are significantly higher in the milk expressed by women who deliver prematurely, compared to milk from mothers who deliver at term. (48,49) Therefore it is important to preserve the potent immune properties of lactoferrin, by using only unfortified milk for oropharyngeal administration and the OPT-MOM procedure.

Admission rates to the NICU (for all birth weight categories) have increased in the U.S. from 64.0 per 1000 live births in 2007 to 77.9 per 1000 live births in 2012 (relative rate, 1.22; 95% CI, 1.21-1.22 [P<.001]).⁸⁶ While OPT-MOM is primarily intended for the ELBW population, it may be very beneficial for all NICU infants who are unable to feed orally, including VLBW infants, late-preterm infants, and term infants who are unable to breastfeed.

Conclusions

The lack of oropharyngeal exposure to amniotic fluid biofactors, which provide immune protection throughout the last trimester of pregnancy, may increase the risk for prematurity-associated infectious morbidities for the ELBW infant. This deficit may be corrected by utilizing the OPT-MOM approach; a natural alternative to mimic the protective effects of amniotic fluid, until oral feeds can be safely introduced. As a potential adjunctive immune therapy, OPT-MOM requires frequent and sustained treatments administered over several weeks post-birth, with precise dosing of mother's milk. This uninterrupted protocol is more likely to lead to sustained immune benefits and positive health outcomes, for recipient preterm infants, compared to shorter protocols. However, more research is needed, with a consistent methodology, in well-designed, adequately-powered safety and efficacy RCTs. To promote patient safety, strict infection control must be a priority when administering oropharyngeal milk to infants in the NICU; especially when providing this intervention to extremely premature infants.

References:

1. Mai V, Torrazza RM, Ukhanova M, Wang X, Sun Y, Li n, et al. Distortions in development of intestinal microbiota associated with late onset sepsis in preterm infants. *PLoS ONE*. 2013; 8 (1): e52876.
2. Ronnestad A, Abrahamsen TG, Medbo S, Reigstad H, Lossius K, Kaaresen PI. et al. Late-onset septicemia in a Norwegian national cohort of extremely premature infants receiving very early full human milk feeding. *Pediatrics*. 2005; 115(3): e269-76.
3. Boghossian NS, Page GP, Bell EF, Stoll BJ, Murray JC,

- Cotten CM et al. Late-onset sepsis in very low birth weight infants from singleton and multiple-gestation births. *J Pediatr*. 2013; 162(6):1120-4.
4. Patel AL, Johnson TJ, Engstrom JL, Fogg LF, Jegier BJ, Bigger HR, Meier PP. Impact of early human milk on sepsis and health-care costs in very low birth weight infants. *J Perinatol*. 2013; 33(7): 514-9.
5. Caplan M.S. Necrotizing Enterocolitis; Insights into the pathogenesis of this challenging disease. *Colloquium Series on Integrated Systems Physiology: From Molecule to Function*. In D. N. Granger & J. Granger (Eds.) Morgan & Claypool Life Sciences. (2014).
6. Claud EC. Probiotics and neonatal necrotizing enterocolitis. *Anaerobe*. 2011; 17(4): 180-5.
7. Sallah W, Perlman J, Silver I, Broyles R. Necrotizing enterocolitis and neurodevelopmental outcome in extremely low birth weight infants. *J Perinatol*. 2004; 24(9): 534-40.
8. Niemarkt HJ, de Meij TG, van de Velde ME, van der Schee MP, van Goudoever JB, Kramer BW, Andriessen P, de Boer NK. Necrotizing enterocolitis: a clinical review on diagnostic biomarkers and the role of the intestinal microbiota. *Inflamm Bowel Dis*. 2015; 21(2):436-44.
9. Good M, Sodhi CP, Hackam DJ. Evidence-based feeding strategies before and after the development of necrotizing enterocolitis. *Expert Rev Clin Immunol*. 2014; 10(7): 875-84.
10. Neu J, Walker WA. Necrotizing enterocolitis. *N Engl J Med*. 2011; 364 (3):255-64.
11. Flidel-Rimon O, Friedman S, Lev E, Juster-Reicher A, Armitay M, Shinwell ES. Early enteral feeding and nosocomial sepsis in very low birthweight infants. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2004; 89 (4):F289-F292.
12. Johnson TJ, Patel AL, Bigger HR et al. Cost savings of human milk as a strategy to reduce the incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis in very low birth weight infants. *Neonatology*. 2015; 107(4):271-276.
13. Apisarnthanarak A, Holzmann-Pazgal G, Hamvas A, Olsen MA, Fraser VJ. Ventilator-associated pneumonia in extremely preterm neonates in a neonatal intensive care unit: characteristics, risk factors and outcomes. *Pediatrics*. 2003; 112(6):1283-1289.
14. Cernada M, Brugada M, Golombek S, Vento M. Ventilator-associated pneumonia in neonatal patients: An update. *Neonatology*. 2014; 105: 98-107. DOI: 10.1159/000355539.
15. Zhou J, Shukla VV, John D, Chen C. Human milk feeding as a protective factor for retinopathy of prematurity: A meta-analysis. *Pediatrics*. 2015; 136 (6): e1576-1586.
16. Caicedo RA, Schanler RJ, Li NAN, Neu J. The developing intestinal ecosystem: Implications for the neonate. *Pediatr Res*. 2005; 58 (4): 625-628.
17. Hackam DJ, Upperman JS, Grishin A, Ford HR. Disordered enterocyte signaling and intestinal barrier dysfunction in the pathogenesis of necrotizing enterocolitis. *Semin Pediatr Surg*. 2005; 14 (1):49-57.
18. Westerbeek E, van den Berg A, Lafeber HN, Knol J, Fetter W PF, van Elburg RM. The intestinal bacterial colonization in preterm infants: a review of the literature. *Clin Nutr*. 2006; 25(3):361-8.
19. Madan JC, Salari RC, Saxena D, Davidson L, O'Toole GA, Moore JH et al. Gut microbial colonization in premature neonates predicts neonatal sepsis. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2012; 97:F456-F462.

20. LaGamma E, Brown L. Feeding practices for infants weighing less than 1500 g at birth and the pathogenesis of necrotizing enterocolitis. *Clin Perinatol*. 1994; 21: 271-306.
21. Frost BL and Caplan MS. Necrotizing enterocolitis; pathophysiology, platelet activating factor and probiotics. (Review). *Semin Pediatr Surg*. 2013; 22(2):88-93.
22. Claud EC, Walker WA. Bacterial colonization, probiotics and necrotizing enterocolitis. *J Clin Gastroenterol*. 2008; 42 Suppl 2:S46-52. doi: 10.1097/MCG.0b013e31815a57a8.
23. Wang Y, Hoenig JD, Malin KJ, et al. 16S rRNA gene-based analysis of fecal microbiota from preterm infants with and without necrotizing enterocolitis. *ISME J* 2009; 3(8):944-54.
24. Frost B, Caplan MS. Probiotics and prevention of neonatal necrotizing enterocolitis. *Curr Opin Pediatr*. 2011; 23(2):151-5.
25. Carl MA, Ndao IM, Springman AC, Manning SD, Johnson JR, Johnston BD et al. Sepsis from the gut: The enteric habitat of bacteria that cause late-onset neonatal bloodstream infections. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2014; 58(9):1211-8.
26. Furman L, Taylor G, Minich N, Hack M. The effect of maternal milk on neonatal morbidity of very-low-birth-weight infants. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2003; 157(1):66-71.
27. Meinen-Derr J, Poindexter B, Wrage L, Morrow A, Stoll B, Donovan EF. Role of human milk in extremely low birth weight infants' risk of necrotizing enterocolitis or death. *J Perinatol*. 2009; 29(1): 57-62.
28. Sisk PM, Dillard RG, Gruber KJ, O'Shea TM. Early human milk feeding is associated with a lower risk of necrotizing enterocolitis in very low birth weight infants. *J Perinatol*. 2007; 27(7): 428-433.
29. Schanler RJ, Shulman RJ, Lau C. Feeding strategies for premature infants; beneficial outcomes of feeding fortified human milk versus preterm formula. *Pediatrics*. 1999; 103(6):1150-7.
30. Lucas A, Cole TJ. Breast milk and neonatal necrotizing enterocolitis. *Lancet*. 1990; 336(8730):1519-23.
31. Hylander MA, Strobino DM, Dhanireddy R. Human milk feedings and infection among very low birth weight infants. *Pediatrics*. 1998; 102(3): E38.
32. Schanler RJ. Evaluation of the evidence to support the current recommendations to meet the needs of premature infants: the role of human milk. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2007; 85 (2): 625S-628S.
33. Rautava S, Walker WA. Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine Founder's Lecture 2008: Breastfeeding-An Extrauterine link between mother and child. *Breastfeed Med*. 2009; 4(1): 3-10.
34. Meier PP, Bode L. Health, nutrition, and cost outcomes of human milk feedings for very low birthweight infants. *Adv Nutr*. 2013; 4(6):670-671.
35. Corpeleijn WE, Kouwenhoven SM, Pappa MC, van Vilet I, Scheerder I, Mulzer Y. et al. Intake of own mother's milk during the first days of life is associated with decreased morbidity and mortality in very low birth weight infants during the first 60 days of life. *Neonatology*. 2012; 102 (4):276-281.
36. Vohr BR, Poindexter BB, Dusick AM, McKinley LT, Higgins RD, Langer JC. et al. Persistent beneficial effects of breast milk ingested in the neonatal intensive care unit on outcomes of extremely low birth weight infants at 30 months of age. *Pediatrics*. 2007;120(4):e953-9
37. Spiegler J, Preuss M, Gebauer C, Bendiks M, Herting E, Gopel W. et al. Does breastmilk influence the development of bronchopulmonary dysplasia? *J Pediatr*. 2016 Feb;169:76-80.e4. doi: 10.1016/j.jpeds.2015.10.080. Epub 2015 Nov 25
38. Koo W, Tank S, Martin S, Shi R. Human milk and neurodevelopment in children with very low birth weight; a systematic review. *Nutr J*. 2014 Sep 18;13:94. doi: 10.1186/1475-2891-13-94
39. Newburg DS, Walker WA. Protection of the neonate by the innate immune system of developing gut and of human milk. *Pediatr Res*. 2007; 61(1):2-8.
40. Underwood MA. Human milk for the premature infant. *Pediatr Clin North Am*. 2013; 60(1):189-207.
41. Ballard O, Morrow AL. Human milk composition, nutrients and bioactive factors. *Pediatr Clin North Am*. 2013; 60(1):49-74.
42. Lawrence RM, Lawrence RA. Breastfeeding; more than just good nutrition. *Pediatr Rev*. 2011; 32(7): 267-80.
43. Garofalo R. Cytokines in human milk. *J Pediatr*. 2010; 156 (2 suppl): S36-40.
44. Hurley WL, Theil PK. Perspectives on immunoglobulins in colostrum and milk. *Nutrients*. 2011; 3(4); 442-474.
45. Dvorak B, Fituch CC, Williams CS, Hurst NM, Schanler RJ. Increased epidermal growth factor levels in human milk of mothers with extremely premature infants. *Pediatr Res* 2003; 54(1):15-19.
46. Araujo ED, Goncalves AK, Cornetta M, Cunha H, Cardoso ML, Morais SS. et al. Evaluation of the secretory immunoglobulin A levels in the colostrum and milk of mothers of term and preterm infants. *Braz J Infect Dis*. 2005; 9(5):357-62.
47. Koenig A, de Albuquerque Diniz EM, Barbosa SF, Vaz FA. Immunologic factors in human milk: the effects of gestational age and pasteurization. *J Hum Lact*. 2005; 21(4):439-43.
48. Montagne P, Cuilliere ML, Mole C, Bene MC, Faure G. Immunological and nutritional composition of human milk in relation to prematurity and mother's parity during the first 2 weeks of lactation. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr*. 1999; 29 (1):75-80.
49. Ronayne de Ferrer PA, Baroni A, Sambucetti ME, Lopez NE, Cernadas JMC. Lactoferrin levels in term and preterm milk. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 2000; 19(3):370-73.
50. Castellote C, Casillas R, Ramirez-Santana C, Perez-Cano FJ, Castell M, Moretones MG, Lopez-Sabater MC, Franch A. Premature delivery influences the immunological composition of colostrum and transitional and mature human milk. *J Nutr*. 2011; 141 (6):1181-7.
51. Mehta R and Petrova A. Biologically active breastmilk proteins in association with very preterm delivery and stage of lactation. *J Perinatol*. 2011; 31(1):58-62.
52. Mehta R, Petrova A. Very preterm gestation and breastmilk cytokine content during the first month of lactation. *Breastfeed Med*. 2011; 6(1): 21-4.
53. Moles L, Manzano S, Fernandez L, Montilla A, Corzo N, Ares S, Rodriguez JM, Espinosa-Martos I. Bacteriological, biochemical and immunological properties of colostrum and mature milk from mothers of extremely premature infants. *UPGN*. 2015; 60(1): 120-6.
54. Tren S, Strunk T, Lloyd ML, Kok, CH, Metcalfe J, Geddes DT et al. Levels of innate immune factors in preterm and term mothers' breast milk during the 1st month postpartum. *Br J Nutr*. 2016;115(7):1178-93

55. Hsu Y, Chen C, Lin M, Tsai C, Liang J, Wang T. Changes in preterm breast milk nutrient content in the first month. *Pediatr Neonatol.* 2014;55(6):449-54
56. Rodriguez NA, Meier PP, Groer M, Zeller J, Engstrom J, Fogg L. A pilot study to determine the safety and feasibility of oropharyngeal administration of own mother's colostrum to extremely low birth weight infants. *Adv Neonatal Care* 2010; 10(4): 206–212.
57. Rodriguez NA, Groer MW, Zeller JM, Engstrom JL, Fogg L., Du J., Caplan, M. A Randomized Clinical Trial of the Oropharyngeal Administration of Mother's Colostrum to Extremely Low Birth Weight Infants in the First Days of Life. *Neonatal Intensive Care.* 2011; 24(4):31-35.
58. Snyder R, Herdt A, Mejias-Cepeda, N, Ladino J, Crowley K, Levy P. Early provision of oropharyngeal colostrum leads to sustained breast milk feedings in preterm infants. *Pediatr Neonatol.* 2017; 58(6):534-540.
59. Thibeau S, Boudreaux C. Exploring the use of mother's own milk as oral care for mechanically ventilated very low birth weight infants. *Adv Neonatal Care.* 2013; 13(3):190-197.
60. Rodriguez NA, Caplan MS. Oropharyngeal administration of mother's milk to prevent necrotizing enterocolitis in extremely low birth weight infants: Theoretical Perspectives. *J Perinat Neonat Nurs.* 2015; 29 (1): 81-90.
61. Rodriguez N, Vento M, Claud EC, Wang E, Caplan MS. Oropharyngeal Administration of Mother's Colostrum: Health Outcomes of Premature Infants: study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials.* 2015 Oct 12;16:453. doi: 10.1186/s13063-015-0969-6
62. Rodriguez N, Meier P, Groer M, Zeller J. Oropharyngeal administration of colostrum to extremely low birth weight infants: theoretical perspectives. *J Perinatol.* 2009 Jan; 29(1): 1–7.
63. Montgomery DP, Baer VL, Lambert DK, Christensen RD. Oropharyngeal administration of colostrum to very low birth weight infants: Results of a feasibility trial. *Neonatal Intensive Care.* 2010; 23 (1): 27-29, 58.
64. Glass KM, Greecher CP, Doheny KK. Oropharyngeal administration of colostrum increases salivary secretory IgA levels in very low birth weight infants. *Am J Perinatol.* 2017 Dec; 34(14):1389-1395.
65. Lee J, Kim HS, Jung YH, Choi KY, Shin SH, Kim E, Choi JH. Oropharyngeal colostrum administration in extremely premature infants: An RCT. *Pediatrics.* 2015; 135(2):e357-366.
66. Martín Álvarez E, Jiménez Cabanillas MV, Peña Caballero M, Serrano López L, Kajarabille N, Díaz Castro J, Ochoa Herrera JJ, Maldonado Lozano J. Efectos de la administración de calostro orofaríngeo en recién nacidos prematuros sobre los niveles de inmunoglobulina A. *Nutr Hosp.* 2016; 33(2):232-238.
67. Zhang Y, Ji F, Hu X, Cao Y, Latour JM. Oropharyngeal colostrum administration in very low birth weight infants: A randomized controlled trial. *Pediatr Crit Care Med.* 2017; 18(9):869-875.
68. Sohn K, Kalanetra KM, Mills DA, Underwood MA. Buccal administration of human colostrum: impact on the oral microbiota of premature infants. *J Perinatol.* 2016; 36(2):106-111.
69. Romano-Keeler J, Azcarate-Peril M, Weitkamp JH, Slaughter JC, McDonald WH, Meng S et al. Oral colostrum priming shortens hospitalization without changing the immune-microbial milieu. *J Perinatol.* 2017; 37(1):36-41.
70. Seigel JK, Smith B, Ashley P, Cotton M, Herbert C, King B, Maynor A, Neill S, Wynn J, Bidegain M. Early administration of oropharyngeal colostrum to extremely low birthweight infants. *Breastfeed Med.* 2013; 8(6):491-5.
71. Edwards TM1, Spatz DL. An innovative model for achieving breast-feeding success in infants with complex surgical anomalies. *J Perinat Neonatal Nurs.* 2010; 24:246-53.
72. Spatz DL, Schmidt KJ. Breastfeeding success in infants with giant omphalocele. *Adv Neonatal Care.* 2012; 12:329-35.
73. Spatz DL. Innovations in the provision of human milk and breastfeeding for infants requiring intensive care. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs.* 2012; 41:138-43.
74. Froh EB1,2, Deatrck JA1, Curley MAQ1, Spatz DL1,2. Mothers of Infants With Congenital Diaphragmatic Hernia Describe "Breastfeeding" in the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit: "As Long as It's My Milk, I'm Happy". *J Hum Lact.* 2017 Aug; 33(3):524-532. doi: 10.1177/0890334417709469. Epub 2017 Jun 13.
75. Froh EB, Deatrck JA, Curley MA, Spatz DL. Making meaning of pumping for mothers of infants with congenital diaphragmatic hernia. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs.* 2015 May-Jun;44(3):439-49. doi: 10.1111/1552-6909.12564. Epub 2015 Apr 7.
76. Underwood, M., Scoble, J. Human milk and the premature infant: focus on the use of pasteurized donor human milk in the NICU. In: R. Rajendra, V. Preedy, V. Patel (Eds.) *Diet and nutrition in critical care.* Springer-Verlag, New York (NY); 2015:795–806.
77. Landers S, Upergrove K. Bacteriological screening of donor human milk before and after Holder pasteurization. *Breastfeed Med.* 2010; 5: 117-21.
78. Schanler R, Fraley J, Lau C, Hurst N, Horvath I. Breastmilk culture and infection in extremely premature infants. *J Perinatol.* 2011; 31: 335-8.
79. Picaud JC, Buffin R, Gremmo-Feger G, Rigo J, Putet G, Casper C. Working group of the French Neonatal Society on fresh human milk use in preterm infants. Review concludes that specific recommendations are needed to harmonise the provision of fresh mother's milk to their preterm infants. *Acta Paediatr.* 2018 Feb 7. doi: 10.1111/apa.14259. [Epub ahead of print]
80. Pammi M, Abrams SA. Oral lactoferrin for the prevention of sepsis and necrotizing enterocolitis in preterm infants. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2015; 20(2):CD007137. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD007137.pub4
81. Sharma D, Shastri S, Sharma P. Role of lactoferrin in neonatal care: a systematic review. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2017; 30(16):1920-1932.
82. Manzoni, P. Clinical benefits of lactoferrin for infants and children. *J Pediatr.* 2016; 173: Suppl: S43-52.
83. Sherman, M.P., Miller, M.M., Sherman, J., Niklas, V. Lactoferrin and necrotizing enterocolitis. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2014; 26(2):146–150.
84. Bullen JJ, Rogers HJ, Leigh L. Iron-binding proteins in milk and resistance to *Escherichia coli* infection in infants. *Br Med J.* 1972 Jan 8;1(5792):69-75.
85. Campos LF, Domingues Repka JC, Falcão MC. Effects of human milk fortifier with iron on the bacteriostatic properties

of breast milk. *Efeitos do aditivo do leite materno com ferro sobre as propriedades bacteriostáticas do leite materno. Jornal de Pediatria (Versão em Português); 2013; 89(4):394-399.*

86. Harrison W, Goodman D. *Epidemiologic Trends in Neonatal Intensive Care, 2007-2012. JAMA Pediatr. 2015; 169(9):855-862.*

The author has indicated no relevant disclosures.

NT

Corresponding Author



Nancy A. Garofalo PhD, APN, NNP-BC
Neonatal Nurse Practitioner
Senior Clinician Researcher
University of Chicago
Pritzker School of Medicine
Department of Pediatrics,
NorthShore University HealthSystem
2650 Ridge Ave. Evanston, IL 60201, 847-733-5202,
nrodriguez@northshore.org.



Respiratory Syncytial Virus:

How you can advocate for babies this RSV season

Track national data and trends at the CDC's website
www.cdc.gov/rsv



Identify babies at greatest risk



including those with CLD, BPD, CF, and heart conditions

Teach families how to protect



their babies from respiratory infections

Advocate for insurance coverage for palivizumab prophylaxis so more babies can be protected *



Use your best clinical judgement



when prescribing RSV prophylaxis

Tell insurers what families need



and provide the supporting evidence



*See the NPA's evidence-based guidelines at www.nationalperinatal.org/rsv