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What would happen in the United States if there were no cow milk-based preterm infant nutritional products: Historical perspective and evaluation of nutrient-related challenges

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Abbreviations:

NICU = neonatal intensive care unit, PCMBP = preterm cow milk-based infant nutritional products, PMA = post-menstrual age, VLBW = very low birthweight < 1500 g

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1 Abstract

2 Recent litigation has led to a situation where preterm cow milk-based infant nutritional
3 products (PCMBPs) may soon have limited or no availability in the United States. Given their
4 limited availability, similar products based only on human milk are unlikely to meet the needs
5 of most preterm infants requiring such products, especially those born greater than 1500 grams
6 or very preterm infants born at less than 1500 g after they reach 34 to 35 weeks postmenstrual
7 age. Alternative nutritional strategies, used prior to the introduction of specialized preterm
8 products, would require modular nutrient additions to formula designed for full-term infants
9 and donor or maternal milk. Addition of modular products would require careful calibration to
10 provide needed macro and micronutrients which would expose infants to risks of
11 contamination, poor growth, and limited bioavailability of some of these modulars. Substantial
12 risks of metabolic derangements, and ultimately, poor outcomes would occur. In the long-term
13 greater availability and support for the use of human milk-based products is needed. However,
14 policy makers cannot assume that PCMBPs will not be critically needed and should identify
15 strategies for their continued marketplace availability.

16

17 **Keywords:** Infant nutrition, infant formula, donor milk, growth failure, product shortages

18 Introduction

19 Recent legal action (1) has raised the possibility that preterm cow milk-based infant nutritional
20 products (PCMBPs) may either not be produced and available in the United States or may
21 require parental consent and warnings making them extremely difficult for caregivers to use
22 and families to accept (2). This has raised concerns about whether the nutritional needs of
23 preterm infants can be met without PCMBPs and what risks to infant health might occur in this
24 situation. This overview is designed to provide historical insight into these issues and
25 consideration of the nutritional issues involved in dealing with the absence of PCMBPs.

26

27 There are three types of PCMBPs that may reasonably be at-risk for having limited or no
28 availability in the future. These are: 1) Preterm infant formulas primarily used in liquid form in a
29 hospital neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) designed for use at 20, 24 or 30 kcal/oz but often
30 prepared at different concentrations based on individual patient needs; 2) Cow milk based
31 fortifiers derived either from nonhydrolyzed or extensively hydrolyzed protein usually used to
32 add 4 kcal/oz to human milk, and; 3) Formula designed as “transitional” or “post-discharge
33 formula” available for home use (usually a powder product) or hospital use (often as a liquid),
34 usually at 22 kcal/oz although often given at a higher concentration. Each of these has been
35 subject to litigation related to their use vis-à-vis a possible increased risk of necrotizing
36 enterocolitis.

37

38 Whether this scenario occurs soon is uncertain but as of August 2024 over 500 lawsuits remain
39 to be adjudicated via the multidistrict litigation process or separate cases (3). Some of these
40 lawsuits involve infants as old as 34 weeks with birth weights above 2 kg. Most of these have
41 one or both of the two infant formula companies that produce these products as defendants,
42 but there are cases in which hospitals, physicians, and healthcare systems are also defendants.
43 We believe it is vital to educate the public and policymakers on the realistic impact the loss of
44 PCMBPs would have on the care, and consequently, health, of preterm infants. Recent policy
45 statements reflect these concerns (4,5), but do not provide detailed explanations of the specific
46 patient care consequences of a lack of PCMBPs.

47

48

49 **Historical overview**

50 Evidence that unfortified human milk is inadequate to meet the nutrient needs of small
51 preterm infants has been present for over 100 years (6). Until the late 1970's and early 1980's,
52 there were limited widely available solutions to either fortify or replace human milk for preterm
53 infants and these were often based on providing feedings of concentrated evaporated cow
54 milk; now recognized as woefully inadequate and unsafe (7). At that time, specialized formulas
55 that were high in energy, protein, and micronutrients were widely introduced into the market.
56 Early studies confirmed faster growth of infants fed such products compared to unfortified
57 human milk or full-term formula (8) and their use became widespread by the mid-1980s.

58

59 Human milk fortifiers (HMF) were introduced in the 1980's and came into widespread use by
60 the 1990's (9). Differing strategies and approaches were used for such products. Initially most
61 were powder based, but due to concerns about sterility, in the US (but not many other
62 countries), the use of liquid HMFs has gradually replaced powder fortificants.

63

64 Concern about the limited protein and minerals both in human milk and formulas designed for
65 term infants led to the introduction of products designed for use near and after discharge for
66 very preterm infants and for larger preterm infants from birth. These are commonly referred to
67 as "transitional" or "post-discharge" formulas. These formulas became widespread in use in the
68 late 1990's for use in preterm infants with their use being continued for as long as 6 to 9
69 months in some cases. The acute shortage of infant formulas in 2022 demonstrated the critical
70 role of these formulas in the public marketplace in the care of prematurely born infants (10).

71

72 Importantly, PCMBPs are currently produced and marketed in the United States by only two
73 companies, Abbott Nutrition and Reckitt Mead-Johnson Nutrition. Two additional companies
74 marketed some products in the United States at varying times but not in recent years.

75 Internationally, several products exist that are not marketed in the United States. There is no
76 evidence that any new company is interested in or planning to introduce new products for

77 preterm infants into the United States, even after the introduction of various internationally
78 produced formulas following the 2022 formula crisis. Based on the current legal climate it is
79 extremely unlikely for this to occur without some sort of government indemnification program
80 and even in that circumstance, it seems unlikely due to the small share of the overall medical
81 nutrition market these products represent and limited profitability of them (11).

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82 Consequences to preterm infants of inadequate nutrient intake

83 The availability of PCMBPs as well as a human milk-based human milk fortifier has led to
84 relatively less frequent and severe nutritional failure in very low birth weight, less than 1500 g
85 (VLBW) infants than in earlier eras. Nonetheless growth failure remains a current problem,
86 especially in the smallest of infants, that is, those less than 1000 g birth weight and less than 25
87 weeks post-menstrual age at birth (12). Increasing survival of extremely small preterm infants
88 poses unique medical challenges even with the use of modern PCMBPs and additional
89 nutritional strategies to enhance growth. The high rate of chronic lung disease and
90 gastrointestinal immaturity in these infants predicate the need for long-term use of specialized
91 nutritional products.

92
93 Inadequate growth and mineralization can be expected to lead to long-term developmental
94 disability, bone demineralization, and frank rickets accompanied by additional severe
95 micronutrient deficiencies such as zinc deficiency (13,14). The outcome of these deficiencies is
96 poorly defined but poses a threat of non-survival due to severe malnutrition. In an era of
97 needing to care for extremely preterm infants, ensuring adequate growth and micronutrient
98 status through oral nutritional products is essential. Research studies have clearly documented
99 that growth failure in preterm infants is associated with worse long-term developmental
100 outcomes in infants fed formula for full-term infants relative to those fed preterm formula (15
101).

102
103 Larger preterm infants greater than 1500 g birth weight, are also at substantial risk related to
104 inadequate nutrition (16). In general, although classified as “preterm” such risks are relatively
105 minimal in infants born at 35 and 36 week post-menstrual age, who are often fed unfortified
106 human milk or formulas designed for full-term infants. However, growth and adequate
107 nutrition is a substantial concern for late preterm infants who are 32 to 34 weeks
108 postmenstrual age. Some late preterm infants may be given exclusive human milk based diets
109 but must be monitored closely for growth and nutritional status. Many of these infants,

110 especially those born small for gestational age, are at risk for substantial growth failure and
111 benefit from the use of PCMBPs both during their hospitalization and after discharge.

112

113 **Alternatives to PCMBP in clinical practice**

114 Human milk-based human milk fortifiers

115 These products, largely produced and marketed in the United States by one company, have
116 been commercially available since about 2005, and more widely used over the last 10 years.
117 Due to cost and limited availability, they are primarily used for VLBW infants. More widespread
118 use is possible but would likely lead to marked increases in hospital costs and it is uncertain
119 how much increased use is feasible based on product availability. It requires a substantial
120 amount of donor milk to concentrate the protein for this fortifier and it is unknown whether
121 this donation volume can readily be increased to meet the needs of larger preterm infants. This
122 would likely require public policy changes supporting breastfeeding individuals to support this
123 expansion.

124

125 Even with such improvements in policy to support breastfeeding and human milk donations, it
126 is unlikely that an all human milk-based diet could be available for many years if ever for most
127 of the preterm infants born in the US each year, either in the NICU or after hospital discharge.
128 Assuming that donor or maternal milk will be consistently available does not align with the
129 needs of the 10% of infants born prematurely in the US. When planning for their care, it is best
130 to consider the realistic likelihood that an all-human milk-based diet would be primarily
131 available for VLBW infants and only until they reach 34 to 35 weeks post-menstrual age, as is
132 current common practice in many NICU settings in the US (17,18).

133

134 Formulas for full-term or older infants

135 Prior to the introduction of PCMBPs in the early 1980s, routine formulas designed for full-term
136 infants were commonly used for preterm infants. At that time, most surviving preterm infants
137 were at least 28 to 30 weeks gestation at birth. Even at those sizes, growth failure was common
138 and as noted, developmental outcomes were suboptimal. Given the current survival of much

139 smaller more immature infants, this cannot be considered a safe or viable alternative to
140 PCMBPs.

141

142 Another possibility would be the use of cow milk-based product designed as enteral nutrition
143 feedings or supplements for infants who are over a year of age. Although such products often
144 are relatively high in some macronutrients and energy, they are not suitable for preterm
145 infants, especially those in the first 6 to 9 months after birth. They have relatively high
146 osmolality and nutrient levels, would pose substantial risks of intolerance, and would not meet
147 the specific nutrient requirements of this population.

148

149 Approaches to fortifying human milk or full-term infant formula using individual nutrients

150 Without PCMBPs, pediatricians would need to provide individual fortificants to many infants to
151 ensure their nutrient needs are met. These are generally provided as “modular” products and,
152 with the exception of some fat products used in part to replace fat losses from tube feeding
153 (19) are currently in relatively limited use in the NICU setting. We describe some of these
154 approaches and their imitations below. It is important to note that these modular products may
155 include some cow milk-based protein or may be provided in a powder form that cannot be
156 assured to be sterile. Thus, their use may not in fact avoid the use of cow milk-based products
157 and could increase the risk of bacterial contamination either in the products themselves or
158 during the mixing process.

159

160 *Macronutrients*

161 There are several commercially available modular products that can supplement energy by
162 providing carbohydrates, proteins, and/or fats. It's important to ensure that the energy comes
163 from a balanced mix of macronutrients. Therefore, when aiming for higher energy density, it is
164 crucial to supplement carbohydrates and fats alongside proteins, considering the limits of renal
165 tolerance to high protein intake.

166

167 Carbohydrate likely would need to be supplemented using available modular sources used
168 commonly in older children. There is little literature on use of these products in preterm infants
169 (20) and potential issues related to glucose intolerance and adverse gastrointestinal effects
170 could be of concern.. Adding a modular carbohydrate would require the use of a non-sterile
171 powder in most cases. Some such products combine carbohydrate and fat. Use of
172 carbohydrate supplementation in full-term infants with inborn errors of carbohydrate
173 metabolism or other conditions has been done (21), but would be a challenging routine process
174 in the NICU setting and in homes with increased risks of mixing errors, bacterial contamination,
175 and potential difficulty in modulating key metabolic parameters (e.g., serum glucose). In
176 particular, preterm formulas and related products limit the potential increase in osmolarity
177 associated with adding simple carbohydrates by using polysaccharides that engender a lower
178 osmolar load (22).

179
180 Fat supplementation could be done using a variety of approaches. These include a human milk
181 based cream product, medium chain triglyceride products, or long chain fats including
182 docosahexaenoic acid and arachidonic acid. Each of these poses nutritional and tolerance risks
183 and may affect the bioavailability of other components including the minerals. Although these
184 products are commercially available, there is little guidance on their use in this population by
185 direct addition to feedings, especially for VLBW infants and those receiving primarily human
186 milk.

187
188 Growth failure in preterm infants, especially those with chronic lung disease is often
189 substantially related to protein insufficiency. Protein supplementation could be done using one
190 of several commercial cow milk-based products. This includes a product made specifically for
191 preterm infants and several designed for older infants. Most such products use intact cow milk
192 protein, although hydrolyzed cow milk protein-based products also are marketed. There are
193 minimal data on these products related to targeted intake goals or the impact on renal function
194 in the absence of concurrent use of PCMBPs. As with the other macronutrients, such complex
195 mixtures increase the likelihood of mixing errors, product contamination, failure to combine

196 properly with other components of the feeding, and of nutrient imbalances potentially affecting
197 growth and nutrient status.

198

199 There is no single pitfall-free strategy that can be identified for use of macronutrient
200 supplementation in any age group of preterm infants; even their use even in larger former
201 preterm infants such as those with chronic lung disease would require substantial biochemical
202 monitoring and adjustments along with scientific evidence to support a strategy that would
203 achieve adequate growth.

204

205 *Bone minerals*

206 One of the most important rationales for the development of preterm nutritional products was
207 concern about the bone minerals, calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium. Rickets was reported
208 in as many as 50% of preterm infants fed unfortified human milk and this was before the
209 routine survival of infants born at less than 28 weeks gestation (23). Severe bone loss or rickets
210 limits growth, respiratory efforts, and precludes healthy outcomes for infants. Mineral products
211 added to preterm formulas and fortifiers are specifically designed and tested to be low in
212 osmolality, high in bioavailability, and to lead to a low risk of bone demineralization both during
213 and after hospitalization including infants with chronic lung disease or other substantial health
214 issues (24). Individual mineral fortification might not lead to comparable effects especially in
215 small infants due to high osmolar loads and the resulting renal and gastrointestinal impacts.

216

217 Currently, in circumstances in which they must be added, often the intravenous forms of
218 calcium gluconate or sodium or potassium phosphate are given orally for short periods of time.
219 These are expensive, commonly are in short supply, and extremely hard to titrate based on
220 differences in bioavailability of the nutrients. Oral magnesium supplements have not been
221 widely tested in this population because of similar issues, especially gastrointestinal intolerance
222 (e.g., diarrhea). Overall, managing such individualized fortification poses significant burdens in
223 the NICU setting in the United States with substantial safety concerns and largely would not be
224 feasible after hospital discharge.

225 .

226 *Other key micronutrients (zinc, iron)*

227 Critical micronutrients especially zinc and iron but also vitamins and other minerals such as
228 copper are included in preterm formula products. Oral forms of zinc often need to be
229 compounded and are not readily available. Iron and some vitamins such as vitamin D are
230 currently often added separately even to those fed fortified human milk but would require
231 additional effort and add osmolality to such products.

232

233 **Conclusions**

234 Given limited availability and cost, assurance of an all human-milk diet for preterm infants
235 cannot be made. A lack of scientifically validated safely applicable nutritional strategies in the
236 absence of PCMBPs poses significant challenges in providing preterm infants the necessary
237 macro and micronutrients to ensure adequate and safe growth. The process of individualizing
238 or creating multi-component fortification strategies would be daunting and carries risks of
239 contamination, preparation errors, and tolerance issues. Without proper fortification, preterm
240 infants are at a high risk of growth failure and its associated negative impacts on development
241 and even survival.

242

243 Maximum osmolality guidelines for preterm nutritional products would likely be exceeded
244 using most multi-nutrient supplementation strategies (25). In an era of excellent levels of
245 survival for very small preterm infants, but with persistence of relatively high rates of chronic
246 lung disease and need for specialized nutrition for long periods of time, absence of such
247 products would have severe consequences without identifiable benefit.

248

249 These considerations must be part of any discussion of the future of PCMBPs in the United
250 States and require close evaluation related to policy implications and possible remedies. For the
251 foreseeable future to meet the basic needs of the 10 percent of infants born prematurely we
252 must identify strategies for the continued availability of PCMBPs.

253

254

255 **Conflict of Interest:**

256 SAA has received support from Abbott Nutrition ending June 2022 related to presentations on
257 nutritional physiology in older infants. RJS has potential royalties from the Rome Foundation for
258 use of the modified Bristol Stool Scale.

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

X The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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