

Kate Peterson Stanley, MD

Kate P. Stanley, MD, is a Clinical Associate Professor of Pediatrics in the Division of Neonatal-Perinatal Medicine at the University of Michigan Medical School in Ann Arbor, MI. Dr. Stanley earned her medical degree at the University of Iowa College of Medicine and completed her pediatric residency and neonatal-perinatal medicine fellowship at the University of New Mexico Medical School. She spent 8 years in private practice, where she developed her academic interest in human milk. After joining the University of Michigan in 2011, she cofounded and led the CS Mott Children's Hospital Donor Human Milk Program, which provides donor human milk and other human milk alternatives to hospitalized neonates. She has authored several publications on human milk, received grant funding for breastfeeding educational development, and provides mentorship to multiple trainees. Currently, she directs the University of Michigan Children's & Women's Hospitals Clinical Documentation and Revenue Integrity Program, which seeks to improve care management processes and clinical documentation to optimize health care efficiency and reimbursement. She is a soccer mom in her spare time and enjoys cooking, reading, and exploring the outdoors with her family.



Disclosure

I have no financial relationships with the manufacturer(s) of any commercial product(s) and/or provider(s) of commercial services discussed in this CME activity.

Agenda

- Benefits and barriers to providing maternal human milk
- Medications and human milk physiology
- Shared decision making regarding the use of medications during lactation
- Special considerations





Objectives

- Identify three common barriers to providing breastmilk.
- Calculate the relative infant dose of a medication.
- List three evidence-based resources that can guide clinicians when discussing safe medication use with breastfeeding mothers.
- Describe the health providers role in shared decision making about medication use and lactation.
- Describe two factors that affect maternal decision making about medication use and lactation.

Infant Benefits*

Decreases the risk of:

- Mortality
- Otitis Media
- Upper and Lower Respiratory Infections
- RSV
- Asthma and atopic dermatitis
- Gastrointestinal infections
- Inflammatory bowel disease
- Food allergies
- Celiac disease
- Obesity
- Type I and II Diabetes
- Childhood leukemia
- SIDS

• Improves:

- Feeding intolerance
- Intelligence scores
- Adult cardiovascular health





Premature Infant Benefits*

- Decreases the risk of:
 - Necrotizing Enterocolitis
 - Neonatal sepsis
 - Retinopathy of prematurity
 - Bronchopulmonary dysplasia
 - Hospital readmission
- Improves:
 - Neurodevelopmental outcomes
 - Hospital length of stay

Maternal Benefits*

Decreases the risk of:

- Breast cancer
- Ovarian cancer
- Metabolic syndrome
- Type II diabetes
- Cardiovascular disease
- Postpartum blood loss
- Post-partum depression

Improves:

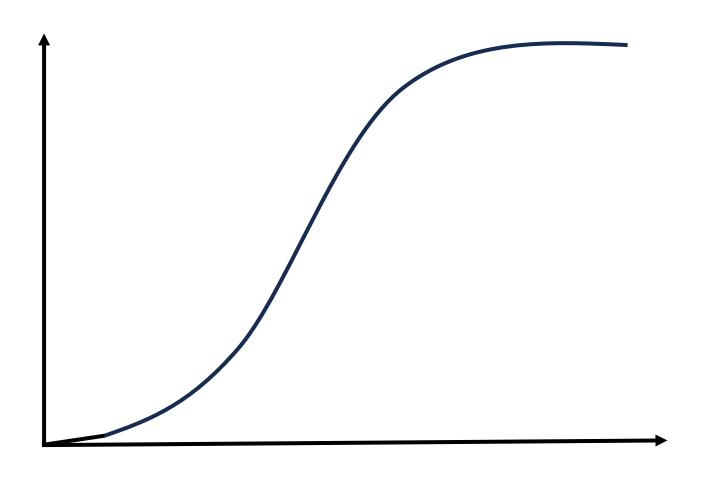
- Weight loss after pregnancy
- Maternal-infant bonding



* = Human Milk has dose dependent effects



Increasing Effect





Increasing Dose

What is a common barrier to providing breastmilk?

Baby Friendly Hospital Practices	
	0%
Maternal concerns about taking medications while breastfeeding	
	0%
Paid Maternal Leave	
	0%
Term spontaneous vaginal delivery	
	0%



"Hold on, is this stuff certified organic?"

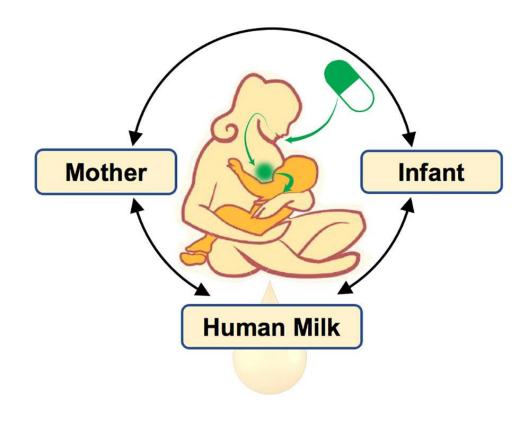
CartoonStock

Odom EC et al. Reasons for earlier than desired cessation of breastfeeding. Pediatrics. 2013 Mar;131(3):e726-32. Sriraman NK et al. Breastfeeding: What are the barriers? Why women struggle to achieve their goals. J Womens Health (Larchmt). 2016;25(7):714–722.

Feltner C, et al. Breastfeeding Programs and Policies, Breastfeeding Uptake, and Maternal Health Outcomes in Developed Countries. Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (US); July 2018.

Answer: B Maternal concerns about taking medications while breastfeeding

- A. Issues with lactation and latching
- B. Concerns about infant nutrition and weight
- C. Maternal concerns about taking medications while breastfeeding
- Unsupportive work policies and lack of parental leave
- E. Cultural norms and lack of family support
- F. Unsupportive hospital practices and policies

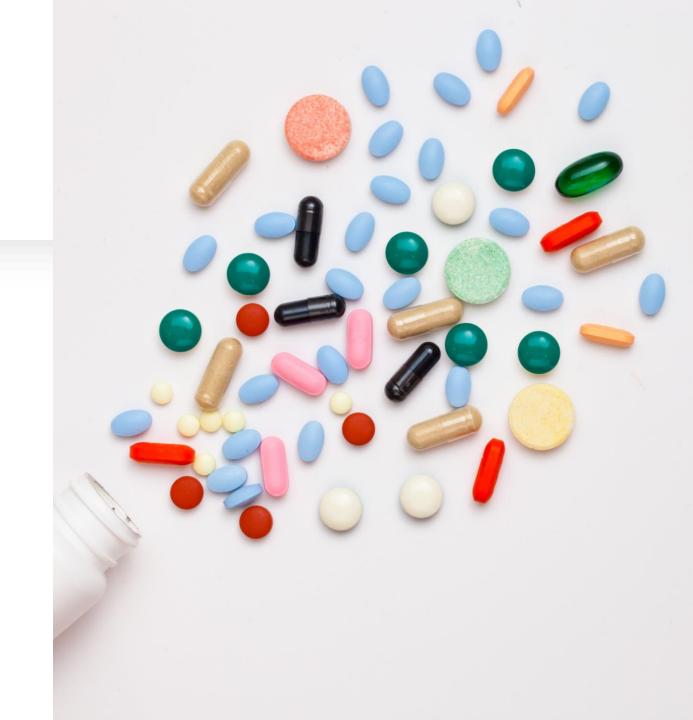


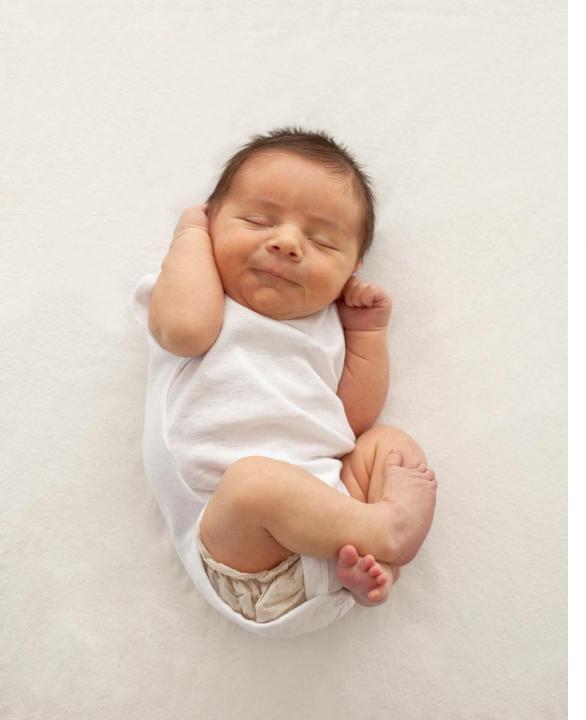
Medications and Maternal Human Milk: General Principles

- Most medications transfer into human milk BUT are safe to use during lactation.
- Drug penetration into human milk is primarily determined by:
 - Maternal plasma level
 - Molecular weight
 - Protein binding
 - Lipid solubility
- Drug penetration into infant plasma is primarily determined by:
 - Infant oral bioavailability

"Safe" Medication Characteristics

- Short half life
- High protein binding (>90%)
- High molecular weight (>500)
- Lower pKa (<7.2)
- Low oral bioavailability
- Non-lipophilic





Infant Considerations

- Infants at higher risk for adverse effects:
 - Premature infants
 - Newborns
 - Unstable infants especially those with gastrointestinal instability or renal dysfunction
 - Genotypes known to affect drug metabolism (ie. Codeine)
- Pediatric approved drugs are generally less hazardous
- Avoid medications that alter maternal milk production

Relative infant dose

$$RID (\%) = \frac{\text{Infant Dose}}{\text{Maternal Dose}} = \frac{\text{mg/kg/day}}{\text{mg/kg/day}}$$

A 70 kg breastfeeding mother is taking a new pain medication for headaches. The dose is 350 mg po BID. Her 2-month-old infant weighs 6 kg. The daily infant dose is 0.3mg/day.

What is the relative infant dose? (RID)

A. 0.5%

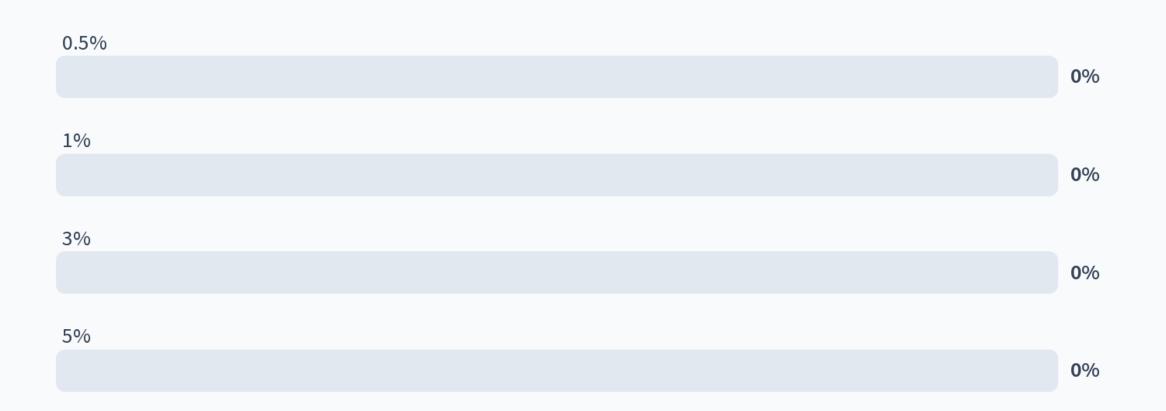
B. 1%

C. 3%

D. 5%



A 70 kg breastfeeding mother is taking a new pain medication for headaches. The dose is 350 mg po BID. Her 2-month-old infant weighs 6 kg. The daily infant dose is 0.3 mg/day. What is the relative infant dose? (RID)

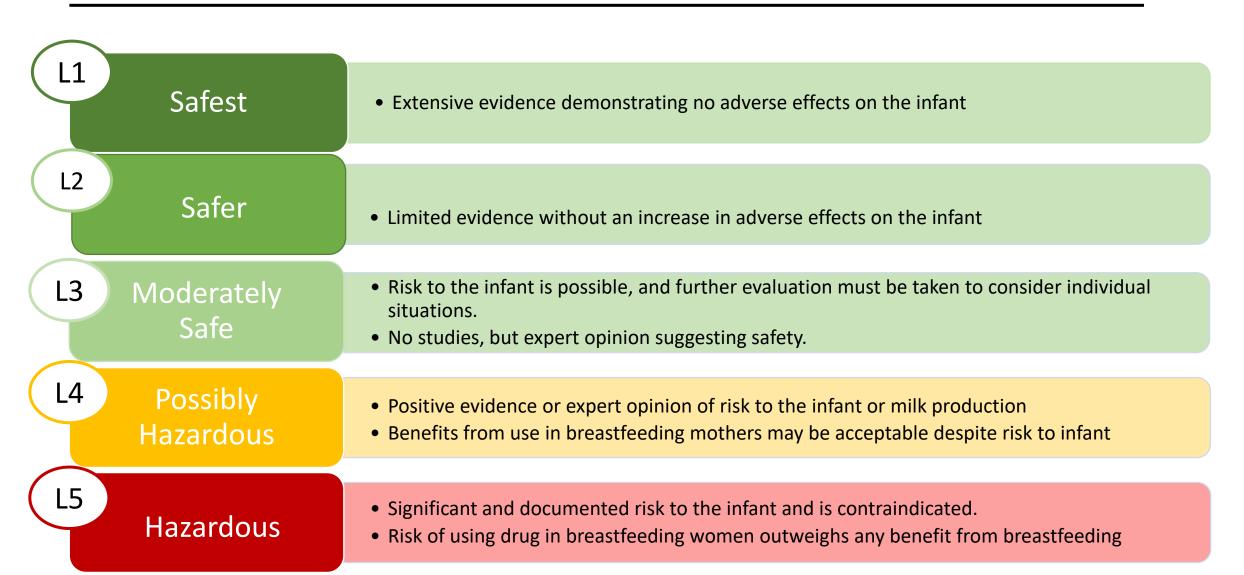


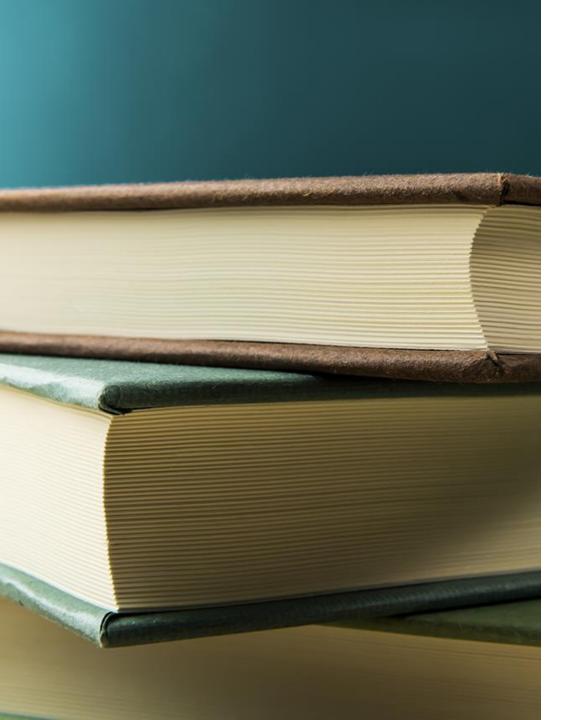
Answer: A. 0.5%

RID (%) =
$$\frac{\text{Infant Dose}}{\text{Maternal Dose}} = \frac{\text{mg/kg/day}}{\text{mg/kg/day}} \times 100$$

- Maternal dose = (350 mg X 2 doses) / 70 kg = 10 mg/kg/day
- / Infant dose = (0.3 mg/day) / 6kg = 0.05 mg/kg/day
- + RID = 0.05/10 X 100 = 0.5%

Dr. Hale's Lactation Risk Categories for Medications and Drugs



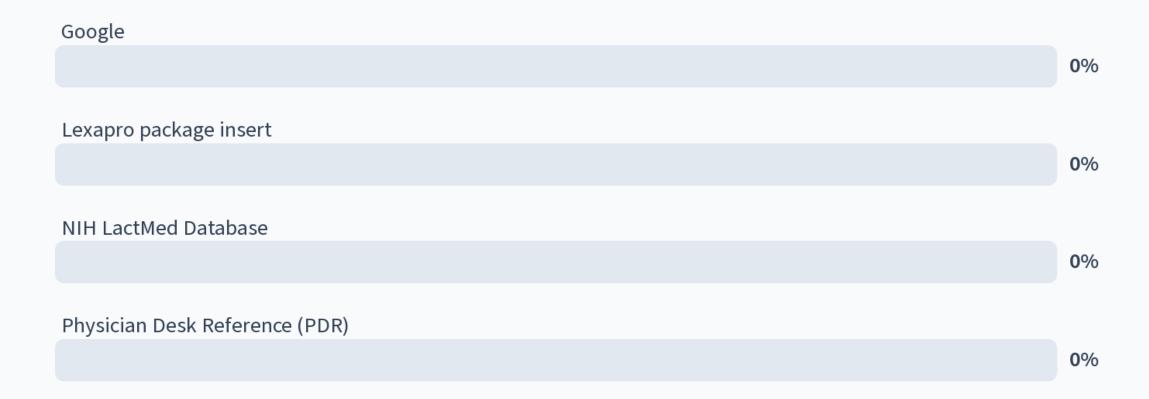


A hospitalized 8-day old term infant with a history of hypoxic respiratory failure and pulmonary hypertension is ready to begin oral feedings. The mother has been pumping and storing breastmilk since the infant's birth. She is taking escitalopram(Lexapro) for major depression and anxiety. She is concerned about exposing her infant to the medication through breastmilk.

Of the following, which resource is the best source for evidence-based information about medication use and lactation?

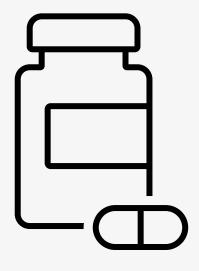
- A. Google
- B. Lexapro package insert
- C. NIH LactMed Database
- D. Physician Desk Reference (PDR)

Of the following, which resource is the best source for evidence-based information about medication use and lactation?



Answer: C, NIH LactMed Database

Name	Description	Contact
LactMed National Institutes of Health	Medications and Lactation Database	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NB K501922/
Infant Risk Center Dr. Thomas Hale & Team	Research Center for medication safety during pregnancy and lactation	InfantRisk Center Hotline: 1-806-352-2519 Reference Guide: Medications and Mother's Milk
Human Lactation Center Division of Neonatology University of Rochester	Maintains a database of drugs in lactation, medical information, and programs around breastfeeding.	Human Lactation Center - Neonatology - Golisano Children's Hospital - University of Rochester Medical Center Contact number: (585) 275-0088
Mother to Baby Service Organization of Teratology Information Specialists (OTIS)	Provides information on medications during pregnancy and lactation.	<u>Home Page – MotherToBaby</u> Contact number: 866-626-6847 Free LactMed App
E-Lactancia	Medication and herbal medicine database in Spain (English and Spanish)	e-lactancia. Is this compatible with breastfeeding?



Risk vs. Benefit

- Drug Characteristics
- Infant Characteristics
- Duration of therapy (short-term vs. chronic)
- Timing of exposure (early vs. late post-partum)
- Compatible alternatives

Case: Amanda

<u>History</u>

Chief Complaint: 35-year-old G_1P_1 female presents with fever seven days after delivering a healthy baby girl.

HPI: Fever 103°F, chills, pelvic pain unrelieved with acetaminophen or ibuprofen

Past OB Hx: Cesarean section for failure to progress,

healthy course

Past Medical Hx: Depression

Medications: Sertraline (Zoloft), 50mg/day

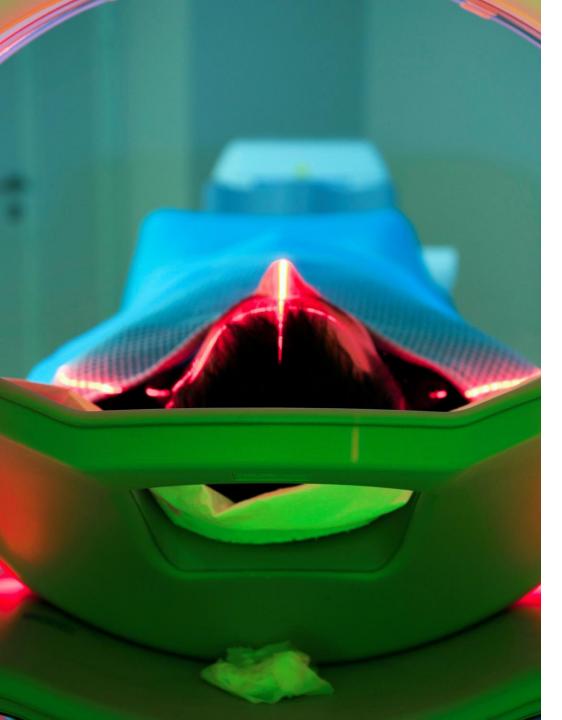
<u>Exam</u>

Vital signs: Temperature 101.6 °F, tachycardia

Breast exam: mildly engorged

Pelvic exam: cervical motion and uterine tenderness





Diagnosis: Postpartum endometritis

Admitted to Hospital:

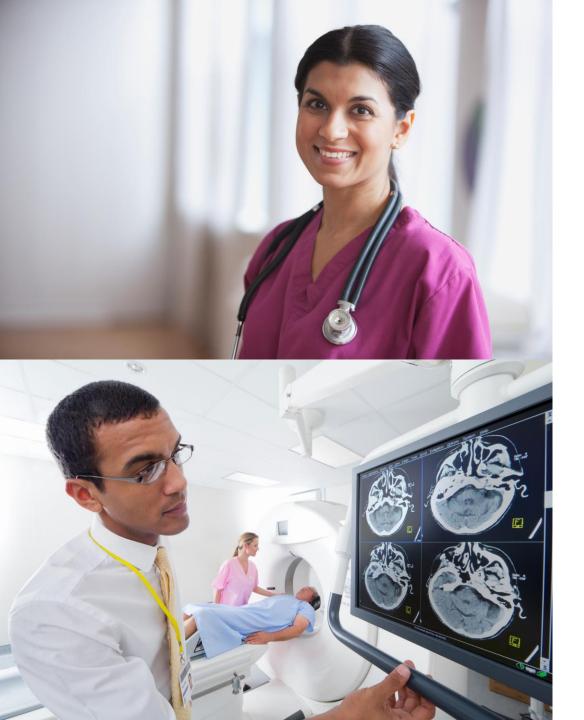
- Medications: IV Ampicillin, gentamicin and clindamycin
- Daughter is rooming in to assist with breastfeeding goals
- Amanda is worried about adverse effects from medication exposure in breastmilk and asked "Is it safe?".

Hospital Day 3:

- Remained febrile
- Abdominal and pelvic CT scan wit *IV iodinated contrast*
 - Pelvic abscess
 - Septic pelvic thrombophlebitis
- Radiologist recommends "pump and dump" breastmilk for 24 hours
- Bedside Nurse recommends: Continue breastfeeding but will confirm with obstetrician who is in a delivery.

It is feeding time...what should Amanda do?

Breastfeed	
	0%
Pump and discard breastmilk and bottle feed formula	
	0%
Pump and discard breastmilk, followed by breastfeeding	
	0%
Wait until the obstetrician is available before feeding	
wait until the obstetrician is available before reeding	0%
	2 / 0



Amanda decides to bottle feed the baby formula.

After feeding:

- Several hours later, Obstetrician arrives and informs Amanda: "It is safe to breastfeed."
- Amanda now feels safe breastfeeding but is frustrated by conflicting advice.

Hospital Day 5:

- CT scan is negative.
- Amanda is discharged home and continued breastfeeding.
- Due to time constraints, the obstetrician choses not to inform the radiologist.
- The radiologist continued to give the same advice.

Amanda's medication review:

Antibiotics

- Most are safe and compatible with breastfeeding
- Avoid if possible:
- Sulfa drugs, Nitrofurantoin: Early neonatal period and G6PD Deficiency
- Tetracycline, Fluroquinolones

Analgesics

- Choose the lowest dose to achieve desired effect and alternate different types of medications to improve pain control
- Ibuprofen: short half-life and very low milk transfer
- Acetaminophen: milk levels < infant dose
- Narcotics:
- Morphine, fentanyl, hydromorphone use in limited fashion as an adjunct to non-narcotic therapy
- Codeine, oxycodone, hydrocodone and tramadol: excess sedation, breathing difficulties, metabolized by cytochrome P450 system, beware of ultra rapid metabolizers
- Meperidine, pethidine: contraindicated due to neonatal sedation

Antidepressants

- If responds well to medication during pregnancy, don't change during lactation: infant exposure is less in lactation compared to pregnancy
 - SSRI:
 - Sertraline: commonly prescribed for pregnancy and lactation, low to undetectable infant serum levels
 - Paroxetine: RID < 10%
 - Fluoxetine and citalopram can exceed RID >10%, Adverse effects: colic, fussiness, sedation, poor weight gain
 - Tricyclic antidepressants
 - Nortriptyline: undetectable levels in serum with no adverse events reported
 - Doxepin: Avoid, associated with poor feeding, hypotonia, and sedation

Hanley L. Clin Ther. 2020 Mar;42(3):393-400.

ABM Clinical Protocol # 31:

Radiology and Nuclear Medicine Studies in Lactating Women

TABLE 1. COMMON NUCLEAR MEDICINE IMAGING AGENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR BREASTFEEDING

Imaging agent	Breastfeeding interruption
Noncontrast radiographs	No
Nonvascular administration of iodinated contrast	No
CT with iodinated intravenous contrast	No
MRI with gadolinium-based intravenous contrast	No
Nuclear medicine imaging	
PET	No
Bone scan	No
Thyroid imaging	
Í-131	Cessation for this infant
I-123	Recommendations vary, up to 3 weeks
Technetium-99m pertechnetate	Up to 24 hours, depending on dose
Renal imaging	
Tc-99m DTPA	No ^a
Tc-99m MAG3	No ^a
Tc-99m DMSA	No ^a
Tc-99m glucoheptonate	No ^a
	140
Cardiac imaging	AT 8
Tc-99m Sestamibi	Noa
Tc-99m Tetrofosmin	No ^a
MUGA	
Tc-99m RBCs in vitro	No ^a
Tc-99m RBCs in vivo	Up to 12 hours, depending on dose
VQ scan	
Tc-99m MAA	12 hours
Breast imaging	
Screening or diagnostic mammography	No
Ultrasound	No
MRI with gadolinium-based intravenous contrast	No

^aThe International Atomic Energy Administration recommends withholding breastfeeding for 4 hours or one feeding to account for any external radiation and free Tc99m pertechnetate in the product.

CT, computed tomography; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; MUGA, multigated acquisition scan; Tc-99m MAA, technetium-99m macroaggregated albumin; PET, positron emission tomography; Tc-99m MAG3, technetium-99m mertiatide; Tc-99m DMSA, technetium-99m succimer; VQ, ventilation-perfusion.

The healthcare providers...

- Insufficient or inappropriate knowledge about mediation use and lactation
- Guided by personal experience, beliefs and attitudes with breastfeeding
- Decision making guided by "potential risk" vs. breastmilk compatibility
- Paternalistic decision-making
- Provide contradictory advice





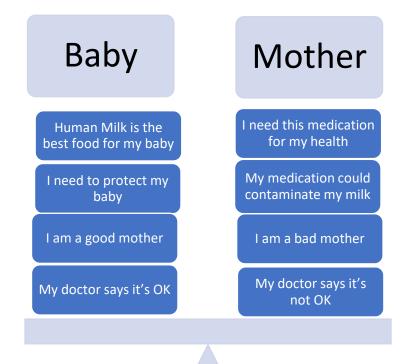
Don't "Just say No"...

- Shared Decision Making
 - 1. Review breastfeeding goals
 - 2. Discuss risks and benefits to BOTH mother and child
 - 3. Present different options
 - 4. Empower the woman to make the best decision for BOTH mother and child
- Exchange Information

Balancing Benefits and Risks: Baby vs. Mom

Attain breastfeeding goals

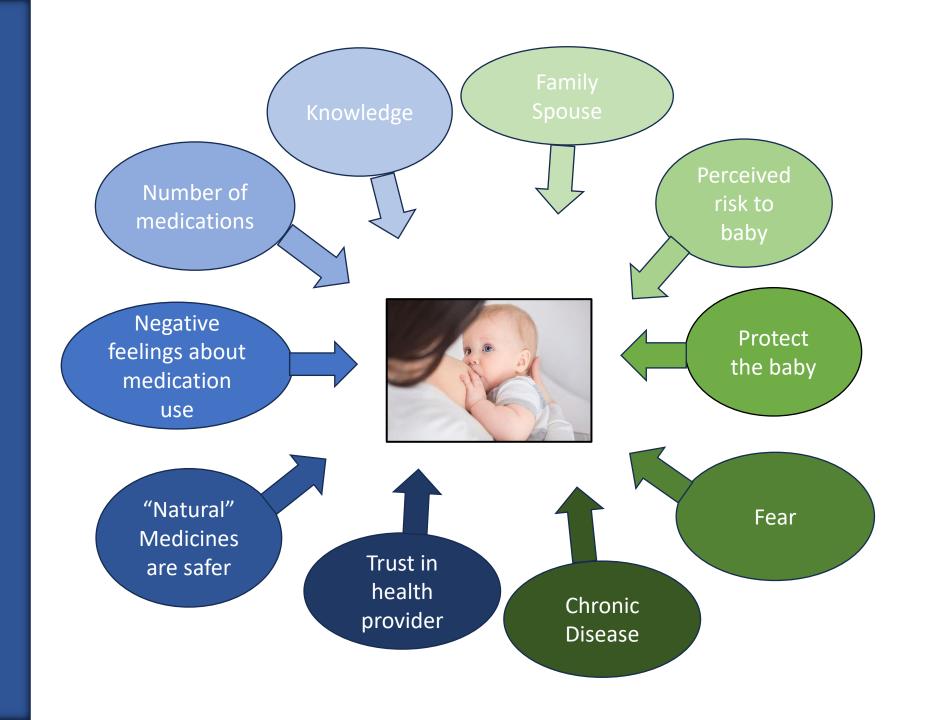




Safely treat the medical condition



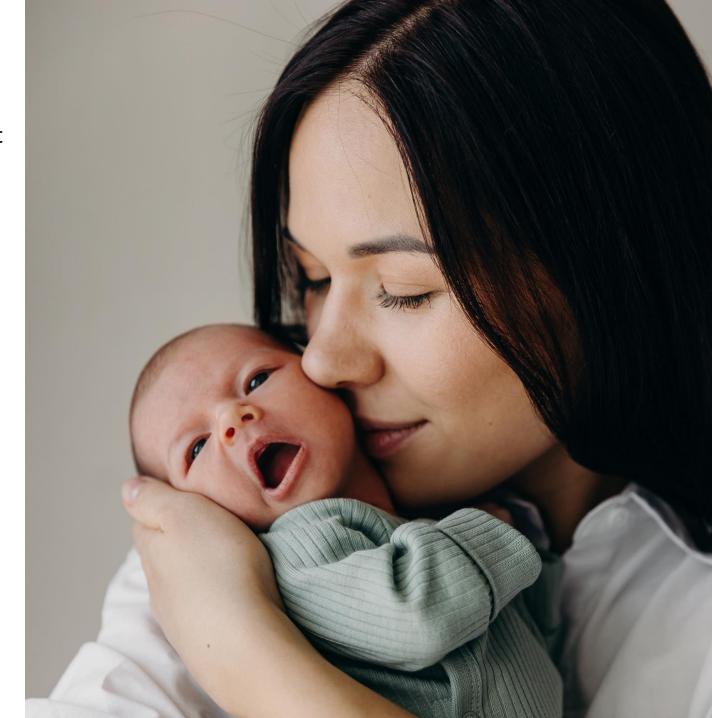
Factors
associated with
maternal
decision making



A term infant is admitted to the NICU for management of NOWS. The primigravida mother has opioid use disorder. She is enrolled in an outpatient treatment program and has been taking buprenorphine for six months. Drug screening remained negative throughout pregnancy, and she does not use other substances.

Of the following, which statement is true regarding breastfeeding in this patient?

- A. Breastfeeding is contraindicated.
- B. Breastfeeding increases the need for pharmacological treatment for NOWS.
- C. Early cessation of breastfeeding is not associated with NICU admission.
- Supplementation of infant feedings may be required.



Of the following, which statement is true regarding breastfeeding in this patient?

Breastfeeding is contraindicated. 0% Breastfeeding increases the need for pharmacological treatment for NOWS. 0% Early cessation of breastfeeding is not associated with NICU admission. 0% Supplementation of infant feedings may be required. 0%

Answer: D, Supplementation of infant feedings may be required.

Special Considerations for Health Providers

Opioid use disorder

Breastfeeding is safe and recommended unless contraindicated

Support with maintaining milk supply

Infants may require supplementation or fortification

It is safe to breastfeed with hepatitis C

Chronic disease

Consistent information across providers

Support for disease management while maintaining breastfeeding (ie. adaptive equipment)

Non-judgmental, nonpressured approach

Severe mental Illness

Consistency,
Collaboration, Clear
Communication

Written information accompanied by discussion

Autonomy

Lithium and breastfeeding choice

Frayne J, et al. Arch Womens Ment Health. 2023 Jun;26(3):379-387. Williams D,et al. Midwifery. 2019 Nov;78:91-96. Yonke N, et al. Breastfeed Med. 2020 Jan;15(1):17-23.

Bettiol A, et al. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2018 Sep;84(9):2040-2047 Barnes LAJ et al. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2019 Aug 7;19(1):280. La Leche League.org

Complimentary and alternative medicines

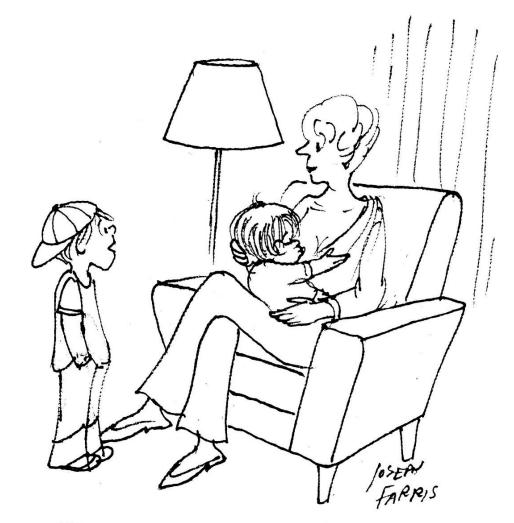
- · Safety information is lacking
- Not subject to the same FDA standards for manufacturing, proven effectiveness and safety
- Maternal reasons for use:
 - Treat common conditions associated with lactation
 - Prepare for a natural birth and lactation experience
 - Support and maintain health and/or breastmilk production
 - Cultural/personal beliefs
 - Positive experiences with previous use
 - Perception that they may be safer than conventional medication
- Desire for and seek reliable information.
 - Desire holistic care from provider who has time, knowledge and is nonjudgmental
 - Reliance on lay information sources and possible self-prescription
 - Complimentary medicines are "Natural" so therefore safe
- Decision making linked to psychological benefits associated with:
 - Perceived and actual increases in breastmilk production
 - · Successful breastfeeding
 - Self-care in post-partum period

Summary

- Medication use is a common barrier to providing human milk.
- Most medications are safe to use during lactation with a RID < 10%.
- Using evidence-based resources such as LactMed can guide discussions regarding the risks and benefits of using specific medications while breastfeeding.
- The primary drivers that influence maternal decision making are infant safety and maternal health.
- Health providers have a responsibility to inform themselves about medication use and lactation.
- Shared decision making can assist mothers with making informed decisions about medication use that aligns with their breastfeeding goals



Questions?



"Do you ever serve chocolate milk?"

CDC Statistics

Breastfeeding Disparities Exist.

- Fewer non-Hispanic Black infants (77.3%) are ever breastfed compared with Asian infants (87.1%), non-Hispanic White infants (85.3%) and Hispanic infants (81.9%).³
- Infants eligible for and receiving the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children (WIC)
 are less likely to ever be breastfed (74.0%) than infants eligible, but not receiving WIC (84.3%), and infants ineligible for
 WIC (91.5%).³
- Younger mothers aged 20 to 29 years are less likely to ever breastfeed (78.6%) than mothers aged 30 years or older (85.7%).³

Key Breastfeeding Indicators of Infants Born in 2020, National Immunization Survey – Child 2021-2022

Key Breastfeeding Indicators	Current Rates
Percentage of infants who are breastfed: Ever.*	83.1
Percentage of infants who are breastfed: At 6 months.*	58.2
Percentage of infants who are breastfed: At 1 year.*	37.6
Percentage of infants who are breastfed: Exclusively through 3 months.*	45.3
Percentage of infants who are breastfed: Exclusively through 6 months.*	25.4
Percentage of breastfed newborns who receive formula supplementation within the first 2 days of life.*	20.8

^{*}Current rates represent infants born in 2020, National Immunization Survey - Child 2021-2022.

Additional References:

- 1) Rowe H, Baker T, Hale TW. Maternal medication, drug use, and breastfeeding. Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am. 2015 Jan;24(1):1-20. doi: 10.1016/j.chc.2014.09.005. Epub 2014 Nov 14. PMID: 25455573.
- P. Green, Timothy Johnson, Kathleen Neville, Ian M. Paul, John Van den Anker; The Transfer of Drugs and Therapeutics Into Human Breast Milk: An Update on Selected Topics. *Pediatrics* September 2013; 132 (3): e796–e809. 10.1542/peds.2013-1985
- 3) Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine Protocols: PROTOCOLS (bfmed.org)

Academy of Breastfeeding Medicine Clinical Protocol #21: Breastfeeding in the Setting of Substance Use and Substance Use Disorder (Revised 2023)

Miriam Harris,^{1,2} Davida M. Schiff,^{3,4} Kelley Saia,^{2,5} Serra Muftu,^{3,4} Katherine R. Standish,⁶ and Elisha M. Wachman^{2,7}

Opioids	Peak effect ^a	Half-life ^a	RID (%)
Morphine	0.5–1 hour ²³⁷ 1–1.5 hours ²³⁷ 0.5–2 hours ²³⁷	2–4 hours ²³⁷ 3 hours ²³⁷ 3–4 hours ²³⁷	9.09-35
Codeine	1–1.5 hours ²³⁷	3 hours ²³⁷	0.6-8.19
Oxycodone	0.5–2 hours ²³⁷	3–4 hours ²³⁷	1.0-4.69
Tramadol	2-3 hours ²³⁷	6–7.5 hours ²³⁷	2.9^{9}
Benzodiazepines	Peak effect	Half-life	RID (%)
Diazepam	0.3-2.5 hours ²³⁷	44-48 hours ²³⁷	0.9-7.1 ⁹ 8.5 ⁹
Alprazolam	IR: 1–2 hours	IR: 11 hours	8.59
•	ER: 9 hours ²³⁷	ER: 10-16 hours ²³⁷	
Lorazepam	IR: 2 hours	IR: 12 hours	2.6-2.99
-	ER: 14 hours ²³⁷	ER: 20 hours ²³⁷	
Clonazepam	1–4 hours ²³⁷	17–60 hours ²³⁷	2.8^{9}
Chlordiazepoxide	0.5–2 hours ²³⁷	24-48 hours ²³⁷	N/A
Stimulants	Peak effect	Half-life	RID (%)
Cocaine	0.5 hour ²³⁷	1.5 hours ²³⁸	N/A
Methamphetamine	2.5 hours ²³⁹ 2–4 hours ²³⁷ 2.3 hours ²⁴⁰	4–5 hours ²³⁷ 4–6 hours ²³⁷ 1.5 hours ²⁴⁰	N/A
MDMA	2–4 hours ²³⁷	4–6 hours ²³⁷	N/A
Cathinone	2.3 hours ²⁴⁰	1.5 hours ²⁴⁰	N/A
Amphetamine	IR: 3–4 hours	IR: 10–12 hours	1.9-2.1132
	ER:5-7 hours ²³⁷	ER: 11-12 hours ²³⁷	
Dexamphetamine	IR: 3 hours	IR: 3–4 hours	$4.0-10.6^{13}$
	ER: 8 hours ²³⁷	ER: 5–7 hours ²³⁷	
Substance	Peak effect	Half-life	RID (%)
Alcohol	0.5–1.5 hours ²³⁷ 0.25 hours ²³⁷	4–5 hours ²³⁷ 1–2 hours ²³⁷ 25–36 hours ²³⁷	16 ⁹
Nicotine	0.25 hours ²³⁷	1–2 hours ²³⁷	N/A
Cannabis (THC)	0.25-0.5 hours ²³⁷	25–36 hours ²³⁷	$0.4 - 8.7^9$

^aPeak and half-life values reference adult pharmacokinetic data for a potential breastfeeding individual. The above prescribed opioid, benzodiazepine, and stimulant data are derived from oral route of administration. IV route of administration for equivalent IV medications have shorter peak effects, in the order of minutes. In intravenous route of administration, the half-lives for opioids may be shorter. For nicotine and cannabis, peak effect sand half-lives are for inhalation route of administration.



ER, extended release; IR, immediate release; IV, intravenous; MDMA, 3,4-methyl enedioxy methamphetamine; N/A, data not available; RID, relative infant dose; THC, delta-9-tetrahydrocannabinol.