



Umbilical Cord Care in the Newborn Infant

Dan Stewart, MD, FAAP, William Benitz, MD, FAAP, COMMITTEE ON FETUS AND NEWBORN

Postpartum infections remain a leading cause of neonatal morbidity and mortality worldwide. A high percentage of these infections may stem from bacterial colonization of the umbilicus, because cord care practices vary in reflection of cultural traditions within communities and disparities in health care practices globally. After birth, the devitalized umbilical cord often proves to be an ideal substrate for bacterial growth and also provides direct access to the bloodstream of the neonate. Bacterial colonization of the cord not infrequently leads to omphalitis and associated thrombophlebitis, cellulitis, or necrotizing fasciitis. Various topical substances continue to be used for cord care around the world to mitigate the risk of serious infection. More recently, particularly in high-resource countries, the treatment paradigm has shifted toward dry umbilical cord care. This clinical report reviews the evidence underlying recommendations for care of the umbilical cord in different clinical settings.

INTRODUCTION

Despite significant global progress in recent decades,¹ bacterial infections (sepsis, meningitis, and pneumonia) continue to account for approximately 700 000 neonatal deaths each year, or nearly one-quarter of the 3 million neonatal deaths that occur worldwide.^{1,2} Although the magnitude of its contribution to these deaths remains uncertain, the umbilical cord may be a common portal of entry for invasive pathogenic bacteria,³ with or without clinical signs of omphalitis. Neonatal mortality associated with bacterial contamination of the umbilical stump may therefore rank among the greatest public health opportunities of the 21st century.

Common risk factors for the development of neonatal omphalitis include unplanned home birth or septic delivery, low birth weight, prolonged rupture of membranes, umbilical catheterization, and chorioamnionitis.^{4,5} In countries with limited resources, the risk of omphalitis may be 6 times greater for infants delivered at home than for hospital births.⁶ Multiple studies have delineated the susceptibility of the umbilical

abstract

FREE

This document is copyrighted and is property of the American Academy of Pediatrics and its Board of Directors. All authors have filed conflict of interest statements with the American Academy of Pediatrics. Any conflicts have been resolved through a process approved by the Board of Directors. The American Academy of Pediatrics has neither solicited nor accepted any commercial involvement in the development of the content of this publication.

Clinical reports from the American Academy of Pediatrics benefit from expertise and resources of liaisons and internal (AAP) and external reviewers. However, clinical reports from the American Academy of Pediatrics may not reflect the views of the liaisons or the organizations or government agencies that they represent.

The guidance in this report does not indicate an exclusive course of treatment or serve as a standard of medical care. Variations, taking into account individual circumstances, may be appropriate.

All clinical reports from the American Academy of Pediatrics automatically expire 5 years after publication unless reaffirmed, revised, or retired at or before that time.

DOI: 10.1542/peds.2016-2149

PEDIATRICS (ISSN Numbers: Print, 0031-4005; Online, 1098-4275).

Copyright © 2016 by the American Academy of Pediatrics

FINANCIAL DISCLOSURE: The authors have indicated they do not have a financial relationship relevant to this article to disclose.

FUNDING: No external funding.

POTENTIAL CONFLICT OF INTEREST: The authors have indicated they have no potential conflicts of interest to disclose.

To cite: Stewart D, Benitz W, AAP COMMITTEE ON FETUS AND NEWBORN. Umbilical Cord Care in the Newborn Infant. *Pediatrics*. 2016;138(3):e20162149

cord to bacterial colonization. The method of caring for the umbilical cord after birth affects both bacterial colonization and time to cord separation.⁷⁻¹⁰ The devitalized umbilical cord provides an ideal medium for bacterial growth. Sources of potentially pathogenic bacteria that colonize the umbilical cord include the mother's birth canal and various local bacterial sources at the site of delivery, most prominently the nonsterile hands of any person assisting with the delivery.¹¹ *Staphylococcus aureus* remains the most frequently reported organism.^{5-7,12} Other common pathogens include group A and group B *Streptococci* and Gram-negative bacilli including *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella* species, and *Pseudomonas* species. Rarely, anaerobic and polymicrobial infections also may occur. In addition to omphalitis, tetanus in neonates can result from umbilical cord colonization, particularly in countries with limited resources. This infection results from contamination of the umbilical separation site by *Clostridium tetani* acquired from a nonsterile device used to separate the umbilical cord during the peripartum period or from application of unhygienic substances to the cord stump.

Multiple complications can occur from bacterial colonization and infection of the umbilical cord because of its direct access to the bloodstream. These complications include the development of intraabdominal abscesses, periumbilical cellulitis, thrombophlebitis in the portal and/or umbilical veins, peritonitis, and bowel ischemia.¹³⁻¹⁶ Neonatal omphalitis may present at 4 grades of severity: (1) funisitis/umbilical discharge (an unhealthy-appearing cord with purulent, malodorous discharge), (2) omphalitis with abdominal wall cellulitis (periumbilical erythema and tenderness in addition to an unhealthy-appearing cord with

discharge), (3) omphalitis with systemic signs of infection, and (4) omphalitis with necrotizing fasciitis (umbilical necrosis with periumbilical ecchymosis, crepitus, bullae, and evidence of involvement of superficial and deep fascia; frequently associated with signs and symptoms of overwhelming sepsis and shock).⁶

The incidence of omphalitis reported in different communities varies greatly, depending on prenatal and perinatal practices, cultural variations in cord care, and delivery venue (home versus hospital). Reliable current data on rates in untreated infants are surprisingly scant. In high-resource countries, neonatal omphalitis now is rare, with an estimated incidence of approximately 1 per 1000 infants managed with dry cord care (eg, a total of 3 cases among 3518 infants described in 2 reports from Canada^{17,18}). In low-income communities, omphalitis occurs in up to 8% of infants born in hospitals and in as many as 22% of infants born at home, in whom omphalitis is moderate to severe in 17% and associated with sepsis in 2%.¹⁹ Depending on how omphalitis is defined, case-fatality rates as high as 13% have been reported.⁴ The development of necrotizing fasciitis, with predictable complications from septic shock, is associated with much higher case-mortality rates.⁵ These disparate observations in different settings have resulted in divergent recommendations for cord care by the World Health Organization (WHO), which advocates dry cord care for infants born in a hospital or in settings of low neonatal mortality and application of chlorhexidine solution or gel for infants born at home or in settings of high neonatal mortality.²⁰

EVIDENCE-BASED PRACTICE

Best practices for antiseptics of the umbilical cord continue to remain

somewhat controversial and variable, even in high-resource countries with relatively aseptic conditions at the time of delivery. In resource-limited countries, in accordance with cultural traditions, unhygienic substances continue to be applied to the umbilicus, creating a milieu ideal for the development neonatal omphalitis. To achieve the goal of preventing omphalitis worldwide, deliveries must be clean and umbilical cord care must be hygienic. The cord should be cut with a sterile blade or scissors, preferably using sterile gloves, to prevent bacterial contamination leading to omphalitis or neonatal tetanus. As discussed later, dry cord care without the application of topical substances is preferable under most circumstances in high-resource countries and for in-hospital births elsewhere; the application of topical chlorhexidine is recommended for infants born outside the hospital setting in communities with high neonatal mortality rates.²⁰

Methods of umbilical cord care have been the subject of 4 recent meta-analyses,²¹⁻²⁴ including 2 Cochrane reviews.^{23,24} Although the scope and methodologies of these reviews differed, all 4 stratified results according to the study setting, distinguishing results reported from communities with high proportions of births at home and high neonatal mortality rates from those obtained in hospitals and settings with low neonatal mortality rates. These analyses concluded that 3 studies (including >44 000 subjects) in community settings in South Asia with a high neonatal mortality rate^{3,25,26} support the effectiveness of application of 4% chlorhexidine solution or gel to the umbilical cord stump within 24 hours after birth, which results in a significant reduction in both omphalitis (relative risk [RR]: 0.48; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.40–0.57) and neonatal mortality

(RR: 0.81; 95% CI: 0.71–0.92) compared with dry cord care.²⁴ No other cord-management strategies have been evaluated systematically in such settings, but the application of traditional materials (eg, ash, herbal or other vegetal poultices, and human milk) may provide a source of contamination with pathogenic bacteria, including *C tetani*.²⁷ In contrast, the meta-analyses found little evidence of benefit from topical treatments for infants born in hospitals.^{22–24} The meta-analyses used different criteria for inclusion of trials and compared a variety of treatments versus dry cord care or versus one another. Only a single trial²⁸ reported mortality data, which did not differ between topical chlorhexidine and dry care (RR: 0.11; 95% CI: 0.01–2.04). However, the low mortality rate and the small contribution made by bacterial infection²⁹ in these settings provide only a small opportunity for a reduction in mortality rates. In 5 such trials^{30–33} analyzed by Karumbi et al,²² no treatment was found to significantly reduce omphalitis and sepsis when compared against one another, although the sample sizes were small and the evidence was deemed of low quality.²² The Cochrane review by Imdad et al,²³ which compared a variety of pairs of topical agents, reached similar conclusions. The most recent meta-analysis, by Sinha et al,²⁴ considered 2 studies^{28,34} comparing chlorhexidine with dry cord care. In the first of these, 140 infants admitted to the NICU at a hospital in north India were randomly assigned to receive cord treatment with chlorhexidine solution or dry cord care.²⁸ Enrollment criteria included gestational age >32 weeks and birth weight >1500 g, but the provided demographic data suggest that the infants were predominantly late-preterm, and they experienced high rates of complications of prematurity (including asphyxia, respiratory distress, mechanical ventilation, and

necrotizing enterocolitis). No cases of umbilical sepsis were reported in either group, but culture-proven sepsis was more common in the dry cord care group than in the chlorhexidine group (15 of 70 vs 2 of 70; $P = .002$). These observations cannot be generalized to all healthy infants born in a hospital. The second enrolled 669 subjects, who were randomly assigned to receive treatment with chlorhexidine powder or dry cord care.³⁴ Cord-related adverse events (erosion, irritation, lesion, omphalitis, erythema, umbilical granuloma, purulence, bleeding, discharge, or weeping of the navel) were more common in the dry cord care group (29% vs 16%; $P = .001$), but there were no differences in serious adverse events (2.1% in both groups) or in the incidence of omphalitis (2.1% vs 0.6%; $P = .1$). Although the meta-analysis reported a significant difference in the pooled risk of omphalitis (RR: 0.48; 95% CI: 0.28–0.84), combining culture-proven sepsis cases²⁸ with omphalitis cases³⁴ is not appropriate. This analysis provides only very weak, or perhaps no, evidence for a benefit of chlorhexidine treatment.

Since 1998, the WHO has advocated the use of dry umbilical cord care in high-resource settings.³⁵ Dry cord care includes keeping the cord clean and leaving it exposed to air or loosely covered by a clean cloth. If it becomes soiled, the remnant of the cord is cleaned with soap and sterile water. In situations in which hygienic conditions are poor and/or infection rates are high, the WHO recommends chlorhexidine.¹⁶

There is some uncertainty as to the effect of chlorhexidine on mortality when applied to the umbilical cords of newborn infants in the hospital setting, but there is moderate evidence for its effects on infection prevention.²⁴ Although the application of chlorhexidine is regarded as safe,³⁵ trace levels of the compound have been detected in the

blood of infants after umbilical cord cleaning.^{36,37} In addition, contact dermatitis has been reported in up to 15% of very low birth weight infants after placement of a 0.5% chlorhexidine impregnated dressing over a central venous catheter.³⁸ The data on the safety of chlorhexidine application are incomplete, and the amount of exposure to chlorhexidine that can be considered safe is not known.²⁴ In addition to the incremental increase in the cost of using chlorhexidine, the practice of reducing bacterial colonization may have the unintended consequences of selecting more virulent bacterial strains without demonstrable benefits.²⁴ Because the incidence of omphalitis is very low in high-resource countries and the severity is mild, the preponderance of evidence favors dry cord care.

PROMOTING NONPATHOGENIC COLONIZATION OF THE UMBILICAL CORD

Promoting colonization of the umbilical cord by nonpathogenic bacteria may prevent the development of neonatal omphalitis. By allowing neonates to “room-in” with their mothers, one can create an environment conducive for colonization from less pathogenic bacteria acquired from the mother’s flora.³⁹ This type of colonization helps to reduce colonization and infection from potentially pathogenic organisms that are ubiquitous in the hospital environment. Over time, attempts to decrease bacterial colonization with topical antimicrobial agents may actually select for resistant and more pathogenic organisms³⁵ (level of evidence: III).

IMPLICATIONS FOR CLINICAL PRACTICE

1. Application of select antimicrobial agents to the umbilical cord may be beneficial for infants born at home in resource-limited

countries where the risks of omphalitis and associated sequelae are high.

2. Application of select antimicrobial agents to the umbilical cord does not provide clear benefit in the hospital setting or in high-resource countries, where reducing bacterial colonization may have the unintended consequence of selecting more virulent bacterial strains. In high-resource countries, there has been a shift away from the use of topical antimicrobial agents in umbilical cord care for this reason.
3. For deliveries outside of birthing centers or hospital settings and in resource-limited populations (eg, Native American communities), the application of prophylactic topical antimicrobial agents to the umbilical cord remains appropriate.
4. At the time of discharge, parental education regarding the signs and symptoms of omphalitis might decrease significant morbidities and even associated mortalities.
5. Of paramount importance is the need for all primary care providers to be diligent in reporting infections associated with umbilical cord care. The development of a local reporting system regarding the occurrence of omphalitis and/or its morbidities to the health care providers at the site of delivery will create more robust data, allowing for improvement in treatment paradigms in the future.

LEAD AUTHORS

Dan L. Stewart, MD, FAAP
William E. Benitz, MD, FAAP

COMMITTEE ON FETUS AND NEWBORN, 2015–2016

Kristi L. Watterberg, MD, FAAP, Chairperson
James J. Cummings, MD, FAAP
William E. Benitz, MD, FAAP
Eric C. Eichenwald, MD, FAAP
Brenda B. Poindexter, MD, FAAP

Dan L. Stewart, MD, FAAP
Susan W. Aucott, MD, FAAP
Jay P. Goldsmith, MD, FAAP
Karen M. Puopolo, MD, PhD, FAAP
Kasper S. Wang, MD, FAAP

LIAISONS

Tonse N.K. Raju, MD, DCH, FAAP – *National Institutes of Health*
Wanda D. Barfield, MD, MPH, FAAP – *Centers for Disease Control and Prevention*
Erin L. Keels, APRN, MS, NNP-BC – *National Association of Neonatal Nurses*
Thierry Lacaze, MD – *Canadian Paediatric Society*
Maria Mascola, MD – *American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists*

STAFF

Jim R. Couto, MA

ABBREVIATIONS

CI: confidence interval
RR: relative risk
WHO: World Health Organization

REFERENCES

1. Lawn JE, Blencowe H, Oza S, et al; Lancet Every Newborn Study Group. Every Newborn: progress, priorities, and potential beyond survival. *Lancet*. 2014;384(9938):189–205
2. Liu L, Johnson HL, Cousens S, et al; Child Health Epidemiology Reference Group of WHO and UNICEF. Global, regional, and national causes of child mortality: an updated systematic analysis for 2010 with time trends since 2000. *Lancet*. 2012;379(9832):2151–2161
3. Mullany LC, Darmstadt GL, Khatry SK, et al. Topical applications of chlorhexidine to the umbilical cord for prevention of omphalitis and neonatal mortality in southern Nepal: a community-based, cluster-randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2006;367(9514):910–918
4. Güvenç H, Aygün AD, Yaşar F, Soyulu F, Güvenç M, Kocabay K. Omphalitis in term and preterm appropriate for gestational age and small for gestational age infants. *J Trop Pediatr*. 1997;43(6):368–372
5. Mason WH, Andrews R, Ross LA, Wright HT Jr. Omphalitis in the newborn infant. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 1989;8(8):521–525
6. Sawardekar KP. Changing spectrum of neonatal omphalitis. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2004;23(1):22–26
7. Verber IG, Pagan FS. What cord care—if any? *Arch Dis Child*. 1993;68(5 spec no):594–596
8. Ronchera-Oms C, Hernández C, Jiménez NV. Antiseptic cord care reduces bacterial colonization but delays cord detachment. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 1994;71(1):F70
9. Novack AH, Mueller B, Ochs H. Umbilical cord separation in the normal newborn. *Am J Dis Child*. 1988;142(2):220–223
10. Arad I, Eyal F, Fainmesser P. Umbilical care and cord separation. *Arch Dis Child*. 1981;56(11):887–888
11. Mullany LC, Darmstadt GL, Katz J, et al. Risk factors for umbilical cord infection among newborns of southern Nepal. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2007;165(2):203–211
12. Airede AI. Pathogens in neonatal omphalitis. *J Trop Pediatr*. 1992;38(3):129–131
13. Forshall I. Septic umbilical arteritis. *Arch Dis Child*. 1957;32(161):25–30
14. Lally KP, Atkinson JB, Woolley MM, Mahour GH. Necrotizing fasciitis: a serious sequela of omphalitis in the newborn. *Ann Surg*. 1984;199(1):101–103
15. Monu JU, Okolo AA. Neonatal necrotizing fasciitis—a complication of poor cord hygiene: report of three cases. *Ann Trop Paediatr*. 1990;10(3):299–303
16. Samuel M, Freeman NV, Vaishnav A, Sajwany MJ, Nayar MP. Necrotizing fasciitis: a serious complication of omphalitis in neonates. *J Pediatr Surg*. 1994;29(11):1414–1416
17. Dore S, Buchan D, Coulas S, et al. Alcohol versus natural drying for newborn cord care. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 1998;27(6):621–627
18. Janssen PA, Selwood BL, Dobson SR, Peacock D, Thiessen PN. To dye or not to dye: a randomized, clinical trial of a triple dye/alcohol regime versus dry cord care. *Pediatrics*. 2003;111(1):15–20
19. Mir F, Tikmani SS, Shakoor S, et al. Incidence and etiology of omphalitis

- in Pakistan: a community-based cohort study. *J Infect Dev Ctries*. 2011;5(12):828–833
20. World Health Organization. *WHO Recommendations on Postnatal Care of the Mother and Newborn*. Geneva, Switzerland: WHO Press; 2014
 21. Imdad A, Mullany LC, Baqui AH, et al. The effect of umbilical cord cleansing with chlorhexidine on omphalitis and neonatal mortality in community settings in developing countries: a meta-analysis. *BMC Public Health*. 2013;13(suppl 3):S3–S15
 22. Karumbi J, Mulaku M, Aluvaala J, English M, Opiyo N. Topical umbilical cord care for prevention of infection and neonatal mortality. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2013;32(1):78–83
 23. Imdad A, Bautista RM, Senen KA, Uy ME, Mantaring JB III, Bhutta ZA. Umbilical cord antiseptics for preventing sepsis and death among newborns. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2013;5:CD008635
 24. Sinha A, Sazawal S, Pradhan A, Ramji S, Opiyo N. Chlorhexidine skin or cord care for prevention of mortality and infections in neonates. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2015;3:CD007835
 25. Arifeen SE, Mullany LC, Shah R, et al. The effect of cord cleansing with chlorhexidine on neonatal mortality in rural Bangladesh: a community-based, cluster-randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2012;379(9820):1022–1028
 26. Soofi S, Cousens S, Imdad A, Bhutto N, Ali N, Bhutta ZA. Topical application of chlorhexidine to neonatal umbilical cords for prevention of omphalitis and neonatal mortality in a rural district of Pakistan: a community-based, cluster-randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2012;379(9820):1029–1036
 27. Mrisho M, Schellenberg JA, Mushi AK, et al. Understanding home-based neonatal care practice in rural southern Tanzania. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg*. 2008;102(7):669–678
 28. Gathwala G, Sharma D, Bhakhri B. Effect of topical application of chlorhexidine for umbilical cord care in comparison with conventional dry cord care on the risk of neonatal sepsis: a randomized controlled trial. *J Trop Pediatr*. 2013;59(3):209–213
 29. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. QuickStats: leading causes of neonatal and postneonatal deaths—United States, 2002. *MMWR*. 2005;54(38):966
 30. Ahmadpour-Kacho M, Zahedpasha Y, Hajian K, Javadi G, Talebian H. The effect of topical application of human milk, ethyl alcohol 96%, and silver sulfadiazine on umbilical cord separation time in newborn infants. *Arch Iran Med*. 2006;9(1):33–38
 31. Erenel AS, Vural G, Efe SY, Ozkan S, Ozgen S, Erenoglu R. Comparison of olive oil and dry-clean keeping methods in umbilical cord care as microbiological. *Matern Child Health J*. 2010;14(6):999–1004
 32. Hsu WC, Yeh LC, Chuang MY, Lo WT, Cheng SN, Huang CF. Umbilical separation time delayed by alcohol application. *Ann Trop Paediatr*. 2010;30(3):219–223
 33. Pezzati M, Rossi S, Tronchin M, Dani C, Filippi L, Rubaltelli FF. Umbilical cord care in premature infants: the effect of two different cord-care regimens (salicylic sugar powder vs chlorhexidine) on cord separation time and other outcomes. *Pediatrics*. 2003;112(4):e275
 34. Kapellen TM, Gebauer CM, Brosteanu O, Labitzke B, Vogtmann C, Kiess W. Higher rate of cord-related adverse events in neonates with dry umbilical cord care compared to chlorhexidine powder: results of a randomized controlled study to compare efficacy and safety of chlorhexidine powder versus dry care in umbilical cord care of the newborn. *Neonatology*. 2009;96(1):13–18
 35. World Health Organization. *Care of the Umbilical Cord: A Review of the Evidence*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 1998
 36. Aggett PJ, Cooper LV, Ellis SH, McAinsh J. Percutaneous absorption of chlorhexidine in neonatal cord care. *Arch Dis Child*. 1981;56(11):878–880
 37. Johnsson J, Seeberg S, Kjellmer I. Blood concentrations of chlorhexidine in neonates undergoing routine cord care with 4% chlorhexidine gluconate solution. *Acta Paediatr Scand*. 1987;76(4):675–676
 38. Garland JS, Alex CP, Mueller CD, et al. A randomized trial comparing povidone-iodine to a chlorhexidine gluconate-impregnated dressing for prevention of central venous catheter infections in neonates. *Pediatrics*. 2001;107(6):1431–1436
 39. Pezzati M, Biagioli EC, Martelli E, Gambi B, Biagiotti R, Rubaltelli FF. Umbilical cord care: the effect of eight different cord-care regimens on cord separation time and other outcomes. *Biol Neonate*. 2002;81(1):38–44

Umbilical Cord Care in the Newborn Infant

Dan Stewart, William Benitz and COMMITTEE ON FETUS AND NEWBORN

Pediatrics 2016;138;

DOI: 10.1542/peds.2016-2149 originally published online August 29, 2016;

Updated Information & Services

including high resolution figures, can be found at:
<http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/138/3/e20162149>

References

This article cites 37 articles, 8 of which you can access for free at:
<http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/138/3/e20162149#BIBL>

Subspecialty Collections

This article, along with others on similar topics, appears in the following collection(s):

Current Policy

http://www.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/current_policy

Committee on Fetus & Newborn

http://www.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/committee_on_fetus_newborn

Fetus/Newborn Infant

http://www.aappublications.org/cgi/collection/fetus:newborn_infant_sub

Permissions & Licensing

Information about reproducing this article in parts (figures, tables) or in its entirety can be found online at:

<http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/Permissions.xhtml>

Reprints

Information about ordering reprints can be found online:

<http://www.aappublications.org/site/misc/reprints.xhtml>

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN®



PEDIATRICS®

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF PEDIATRICS

Umbilical Cord Care in the Newborn Infant

Dan Stewart, William Benitz and COMMITTEE ON FETUS AND NEWBORN
Pediatrics 2016;138;

DOI: 10.1542/peds.2016-2149 originally published online August 29, 2016;

The online version of this article, along with updated information and services, is
located on the World Wide Web at:

<http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/138/3/e20162149>

Pediatrics is the official journal of the American Academy of Pediatrics. A monthly publication, it has been published continuously since 1948. Pediatrics is owned, published, and trademarked by the American Academy of Pediatrics, 345 Park Avenue, Itasca, Illinois, 60143. Copyright © 2016 by the American Academy of Pediatrics. All rights reserved. Print ISSN: 1073-0397.

American Academy of Pediatrics

DEDICATED TO THE HEALTH OF ALL CHILDREN®

