

REVIEW ARTICLE

Optimal breastfeeding practices and infant and child mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis

Mari Jeeva Sankar (jeevasankar@gmail.com)¹, Bireshwar Sinha², Ranadip Chowdhury², Nita Bhandari², Sunita Taneja², Jose Martinez³, Rajiv Bahl⁴

1. Newborn Health Knowledge Centre, ICMR Center for Advanced Research in Newborn Health, Department of Pediatrics, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi, India

2. Centre for Health Research and Development, Society for Applied Studies, New Delhi, India

3. Centre for Intervention Science in Maternal and Child Health, Centre for International Health, University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway

4. Department of Maternal, Newborn, Child and Adolescent Health, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland

Keywords

breastfeeding, child, infant, meta-analysis, mortality, newborn

Correspondence

Mari Jeeva Sankar, Department of Pediatrics, All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi, 110029, India.

Tel: +91-11-26546165

Fax: +91-11-26588663 / 26588641

Email: jeevasankar@gmail.com**Received**

16 June 2015; revised 8 July 2015;

accepted 31 July 2015.

DOI:10.1111/apa.13147

ABSTRACT**Aim:** To synthesise the evidence for effects of optimal breastfeeding on all-cause and infection-related mortality in infants and children aged 0–23 months.**Methods:** We conducted a systematic review to compare the effect of predominant, partial or nonbreastfeeding versus exclusive breastfeeding on mortality rates in the first six months of life and effect of no versus any breastfeeding on mortality rates between 6 and 23 months of age. A systematic literature search was conducted in PubMed, Cochrane CENTRAL and CABI.**Results:** The risk of all-cause mortality was higher in predominantly (RR 1.5), partially (RR 4.8) and nonbreastfed (RR 14.4) infants compared to exclusively breastfed infants 0–5 months of age. Children 6–11 and 12–23 months of age who were not breastfed had 1.8- and 2.0-fold higher risk of mortality, respectively, when compared to those who were breastfed. Risk of infection-related mortality in 0–5 months was higher in predominantly (RR 1.7), partially (RR 4.56) and nonbreastfed (RR 8.66) infants compared to exclusive breastfed infants. The risk was twofold higher in nonbreastfed children when compared to breastfed children aged 6–23 months.**Conclusion:** The findings underscore the importance of optimal breastfeeding practices during infancy and early childhood.**INTRODUCTION**

Breastfeeding is one of the few interventions where the survival benefits span the entire continuum of childhood: newborn, infancy and early childhood. Both the World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) recommend early initiation of breastfeeding, exclusive breastfeeding during the first 6 months of life and continued breastfeeding until 24 months of age (1). Yet breastfeeding rates globally generally remain low. Only 43% of the world's newborns are put to the breast within 1 h of birth and 40% of infants aged 6 months or less are exclusively breastfed (2).

A number of reviews have evaluated the impact of breastfeeding on child mortality. The Bellagio Child Survival Series, published in *The Lancet* in 2003, identified

optimal breastfeeding as the key intervention that could prevent up to 13% of under-5 child deaths (3). Subsequent reviews in the Lancet Neonatal Survival Series and Nutrition series used the Lives Saved Tool (LiST) to model the effect of scaling-up breastfeeding and reaffirmed the importance of breastfeeding in reducing neonatal, infant and child mortality.

Recent estimates suggest that optimal breastfeeding could prevent around 12% deaths in under-5 children every year,

Key notes

- Infants 0–5 months of age who were predominantly, partially or not breastfed had significantly higher risk of all-cause and infection-related mortality compared to exclusively breastfed infants.
- Children aged 6–23 months who were not breastfed had higher risk of all-cause and infection-related mortality than children who were continued on breastfeeding.
- The better the breastfeeding practice, the higher the protection. Even partial breastfeeding had modest protective effect compared to no breastfeeding.

Abbreviations

BF, Breastfeeding; CI, Confidence interval; FE, Fixed effect; HIV, Human immunodeficiency virus; LiST, Lives Saved Tool; LMIC, Low- and middle-income country; OR, Odds ratio; RCT, Randomised control trial; RE, Random effects; RR, Relative risk; SE, Standard error; UNICEF, United Nations Children's Fund; WHO, World Health Organization.

amounting to around 800 000 lives in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) (4). However, the systematic reviews that formed the evidence base for the estimates were either restricted to a specific age group, such as neonates (5), or examined the effect of breastfeeding on specific infections such as pneumonia and diarrhoea. Such a focused approach restricts the search of the available literature as well as selection of studies, thereby risking the exclusion of some studies that had reported on other beneficial effects of breastfeeding. Here, we systematically review the available literature and estimate the effects of optimal breastfeeding on (i) all-cause mortality and (ii) infection-related mortality in infants and children aged 0–23 months.

METHODS

Objectives

To estimate the effect of suboptimal breastfeeding practices, namely predominant, partial or nonbreastfeeding in the first 6 months of life compared to exclusive breastfeeding and nonbreastfeeding between 6 and 23 months of age compared to any breastfeeding on (i) all-cause mortality and (ii) infection-related infant and child mortality rates.

Types of studies

We included randomised controlled trials (RCTs), both cluster randomised and quasi-randomised trials as well as observational studies – prospective/retrospective cohort and case–control – that had evaluated the effects of predominant/partial/nonbreastfeeding in the first 6 months of life or the effects of nonbreastfeeding beyond 6 months of life in infants and children aged 6–23 months. Studies that reported all-cause mortality or mortality due to infectious causes were included. We excluded studies that provided information on only one of the infectious causes (e.g. deaths due to diarrhoea alone) or enrolled potentially HIV-exposed infants due to risk of confounding by HIV status.

Types of participants

Studies that enrolled infants and children aged 2 years or less were considered for inclusion.

Types of intervention/exposure

Exposure: Predominant, partial or nonbreastfeeding in first 6 months (objective 1); nonbreastfeeding between 6 and 23 months of age (objective 2).

Control: Exclusive breastfeeding in first 6 months of life (objective 1); any breastfeeding between 6 and 23 months of age (objective 2).

Outcomes and definitions

All-cause mortality and infection-related mortality were evaluated in the following time periods: 0–5 months, 6–11 months and 12–23 months of age. Infection-related mortality included deaths due to any infection including sepsis, meningitis, pneumonia, diarrhoea, measles, malaria,

etc. The current WHO definitions were used for classifying breastfeeding exposure categories (6).

Search methods for identification of studies

We searched published literature from PubMed (Medline), Cochrane Library and CABI Global Health databases to identify studies examining the effects of breastfeeding on neonate, infant or child mortality. Panel 1 provides the search strategy used for searching PubMed. Similar terms were used for searching the other databases. No language restrictions were applied.

Three review authors (BS, RC and MJS) screened the titles and abstracts independently to identify potentially relevant citations. The full texts of all potentially relevant articles were retrieved and independently assessed for eligibility using predefined inclusion criteria, and data were extracted. Any disagreements or discrepancies between reviewers were resolved by discussion and, if necessary, by consulting the fourth review author (ST).

Data extraction

For studies that met the final inclusion criteria, double-data abstraction using standardised forms was performed to capture study identifiers and context, study design and limitations, intervention/exposure specifics (breastfeeding categories as per WHO definitions (6) and outcome effects (mortality). For each outcome, the total number of participants and the number of participants experiencing an event in different groups were extracted.

Statistical analysis

Data entry and meta-analysis were performed with user written programs on Stata 11.2 software (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA). Pooled estimates of the outcome measures were calculated from the relative risks (RR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI)/standard errors (SE) of the individual studies by generic inverse variance method by the user written 'metan' command in Stata. For studies that provided odds ratios (OR), we converted the effect size to RR and then used these in the meta-analysis, whenever possible. The intention was to include the largest number of studies for the analyses. We examined for heterogeneity among the included studies by inspecting the forest plots and quantifying the impact of heterogeneity using a measure of the degree of inconsistency in the studies' results (I^2 statistic). We used the fixed-effect model if the I^2 statistic was less than 60%; if the I^2 was 60% or more, we used the random-effects model providing no major causes for heterogeneity could be identified.

Two separate analyses were performed to evaluate the effects of suboptimal breastfeeding practices in infants aged 0–5 months and subsequent mortality. In the first, we compared the effect of exclusive breastfeeding with other categories, strictly following the WHO definitions of breastfeeding categories. In the second, we collapsed the two breastfeeding categories – exclusive and predominant – to form a combined category and then compared this with the remaining categories in the 0- to 5-month age group.

Table 1 Brief description of studies included in the review

S No.	Author	Year	Country	Setting	Study Design	Sample Size	Breastfeeding Groups Assessed	Age	Results (All-cause mortality)	Results (Infection-related mortality)	Comments
1	Arifeen (9)	2001	Bangladesh	Urban Slum, LMIC	Cohort	1677	Predominant vs. exclusive Partial vs. exclusive Partial vs. predominant Partial vs. excl./predominant No vs. exclusive	3 days–5 months 3 days–5 months 3–28 days 3 d–28 d 3 days–5 months	1.88 (1.12–3.17) 2.4 (1.52–3.8) 1.94 (0.58–6.43) 1.33 (0.61–2.94) 21.6 (12.3–37.9)	1.86 (0.74–4.67) 2.87 (1.31–6.31) 1.6 (0.4–7.01) 1.54 (0.38–6.11) 3.81 (0.67–21.7)	Effect sizes for some comparisons not provided in original study; the same were obtained from Lamberti et al. (21,22)
2	Bahl (11)	2005	Ghana India Peru	Urban/ Periurban, LMIC	Secondary data from RCT	9424	No vs. any No vs. any Predominant vs. exclusive Partial vs. exclusive Partial vs. predominant Partial vs. excl./predominant No vs. exclusive No vs. predominant No vs. partial No vs. excl./predominant	6–9 months 9–11 months 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks 6–26 weeks	– – 1.11 (0.6–2.07) 1.88 (1.02–3.49) 1.69 (1.1–2.61) 1.69 (1.1–2.63) 8.99 (4.29–18.8) 8.08 (4.45–4.7) 4.77 (2.65–8.61) 8.33 (4.55–14.3)	1.52 (0.61–4.55) 2.99 (1.22–8.78) 1.96 (1.11–3.51) 2.17 (1.26–3.72) 12.9 (3.95–45.4) 8.53 (3.31–19.6) 4.35 (1.72–9.71) 9.42 (3.7–21.0)	Effect sizes for some comparisons not provided in original study; the same were obtained from Lamberti et al. (21,22)
3	Awasthi (10)	1991	India	LMIC	Cohort	507	No vs. excl./predominant	0–6 months	1.63 (0.88–3.01)	1.51 (0.77–2.96)	Infants in 'BF group' were considered to be exclusive/predominantly breastfed
4	Srivastava (18)	1994	India (Patna)	LMIC	Cohort	500	No vs. excl./predominant	0–6 months	1.62 (1.07–2.47)	1.73 (1.09–2.75)	Infants in 'BF group' were considered to be exclusive/predominantly breastfed

Table 1 (Continued)

S No.	Author	Year	Country	Setting	Study Design	Sample Size	Breastfeeding Groups Assessed	Age	Results (All-cause mortality)	Results (Infection-related mortality)	Comments
5	Briend (12)	1988	Bangladesh	Rural, LMIC	Cohort	4612	No vs. any	12–23 months	–	2.23 (0.65–7.62)	Effect size obtained from Lamberti et al. (21,22)
6	de Francisco (13)	1993	Gambia	Rural, LMIC	Case-control	431	No vs. any	12–23 months	0.9 (0.3–2.6)	0.87 (0.16–4.64)	Effect size for infection-related mortality derived from all-cause mortality
7	Edmond (14)	2006	Ghana	Rural, LMIC	Secondary data from RCT	10947	Predominant vs. exclusive Partial vs. exclusive Partial vs. excl./predominant Partial vs. predominant	3–28 days 3–28 days 3–28 days 3–28 days	1.45 (1.02–2.04) 5.0 (2.86–9.09) 4.55 (2.63–7.69) –	1.7 (1.1–2.64) 7.4 (3.9–14.0) 6.16 (3.33–11.4) 4.34 (2.22–8.45)	Effect size available for only the neonatal period
8	Garenne (15)	2006	Senegal	Rural, LMIC	Cohort	3554	No vs. any	12–23 months	2.0 (1.4–3.1)	2.11 (1.46–3.05)	Effect size for infection-related mortality derived from all-cause mortality
9	Hanson (16)	1994	Pakistan	LMIC	Cohort	2166	No vs. any	6–11 months 12–23 months	1.59 (1.14–2.2) 2.0 (0.4–11.5)	2.05 (0.33–12.81) 3.5 (0.07–182.2)	Data for 6–11 months refer to pooled effect of 3 studies (Victoria/Hanson/Yoon) that was obtained from WHO collaborative study (24)
10	Molbak (17)	1994	Guinea Bissau	Semi urban, LMIC	Cohort	849	No vs. any	12–35 months	3.45 (1.41–8.33)	3.72 (1.58–8.76)	
11	Victoria (19)	1987	Brazil	LMIC	Case-Control	1071	No vs. any	6–11 months	1.59 (1.14–2.2)	2.4 (1.21–4.75) 1.9 (0.69–5.23)	Data for 6–11 months refer to pooled effect of 3 studies (Victoria/Hanson/Yoon) that was obtained from WHO collaborative study (24)

Table 1 (Continued)

S No.	Author	Year	Country	Setting	Study Design	Sample Size	Breastfeeding Groups Assessed	Age	Results		Comments
									(All-cause mortality)	(infection-related mortality)	
12	Yoon (20)	1996	Philippines	Urban, LMIC	Cohort	9682	No vs. any	6–11 months 12–23 months	1.59 (1.14–2.2) 1.4 (0.6–2.9)	1.2 (0.59–2.45) 1.62 (0.67–3.92)	Data for 6–11 months refers to pooled effect of 3 studies (Victoria/Hanson/Yoon) that was obtained from WHO collaborative study (24)
13	Ghana VAST Study Team (8)	1994	Ghana	Rural, LMIC	Cohort	1099	No vs. any	12–24 months	7.9 (1.2–53.2)	9.1 (1.38–60.06)	Effect size for infection-related mortality derived from all-cause mortality

Baseline mortality rates available for Arifeen 114/1000 and Victoria 40/1000.

For infants aged 6 months and above, we derived two estimates for all-cause mortality (6- to 11-month and 12- to 23-month time periods) and a single estimate for infection-related mortality (6–23 months age). The proportion of infectious deaths was available for all but two studies (information provided in the study or obtained from the study authors). For the remaining two studies, we assumed the infection-related mortality to be 90% based on the study setting and the data from other studies. (Panel S1 and Table S1). We used the Guideline Development Tool (GDT) developed by the GRADE Working Group for assigning the quality of evidence (7).

RESULTS

We conducted the search in October 2014. Of the total 19 636 citations retrieved in the search, 18 874 were excluded after screening the title. Of the remaining, 57 full-text articles were assessed for eligibility after screening the abstract. Finally, a total of 13 articles were included in the review (8–20) (Fig 1). Of these, nine were prospective cohort studies, two were case–control studies, and two were secondary analyses from RCTs. About half of the studies were from Africa (n = 6), while the others were conducted

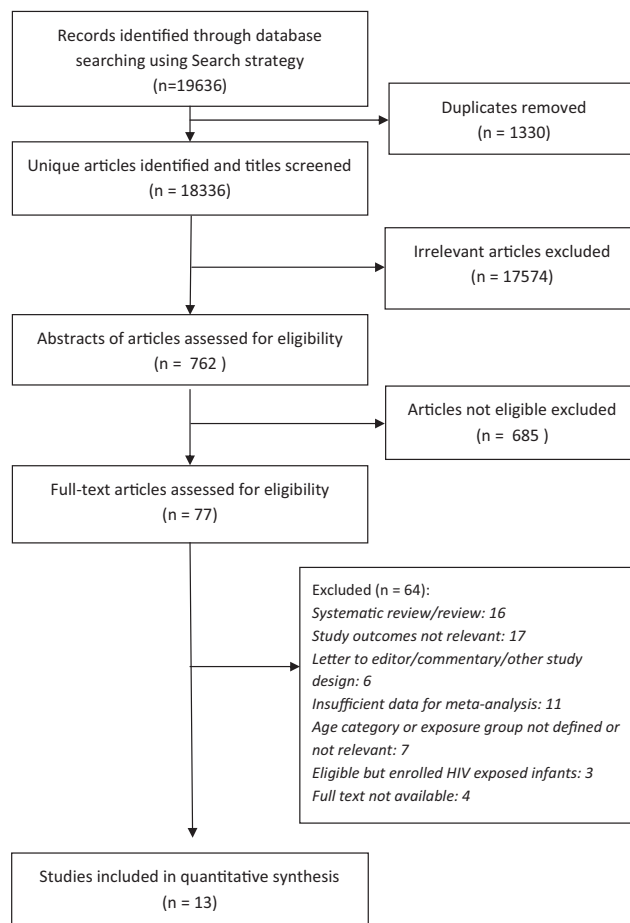


Figure 1 PRISMA Diagram.

in Latin America ($n = 2$), South-East Asia ($n = 5$), Eastern Mediterranean ($n = 1$) and the Western Pacific ($n = 1$) regions (Table 1). One study reported data from three different regions.

All-cause mortality

Table 2 depicts the pooled effects of respective breastfeeding practices on all-cause mortality (Table S1 lists the individual studies included under each comparison). When compared to exclusively breastfed infants, predominantly breastfed infants aged 0–5 months had 48% more risk of mortality (RR 1.48, 95% CI 1.14–1.92, three studies); the risk of mortality was almost threefold higher in partially breastfed infants (RR 2.84, 95% CI 1.63–4.97, three studies) and 14-fold higher in infants who were not breastfed (RR 14.4, 95% CI 6.13–33.9; two studies) (Fig 2). When the two breastfeeding categories – exclusive and predominant – were combined and then compared with other categories, infants who were partially breastfed and not breastfed were found to have 2.3- and 2.5-fold higher risk of mortality, respectively (Table 2). Compared to breastfed infants and children 6–23 months of age, those who were not breastfed had about 1.8- and 2.0-fold increase in the risk of mortality in 6–11 months and 12–23 months of age, respectively (Table 2).

Among all breastfeeding groups, there was a dose–response relation between different breastfeeding exposure categories and the risk of mortality. When compared to predominantly and partially breastfed infants, those who were not breastfed had 6.1- and 3.9-fold increase in the risk of mortality in 0–5 months of age (Table 2).

Table 2 Effect of respective breastfeeding (BF) on all-cause mortality

BF practice	Relative risk (95% CI)	Number of studies*
Predominant, partial or no BF vs. exclusive BF in 0–5 months of age		
Exclusive BF	1.0	–
Predominant BF	1.48 (1.13–1.92)	3
Partial BF	2.84 (1.63–4.97)	3
No BF	14.4 (6.13–33.9)	2
Partial, no BF vs. predominant BF in 0–5 months of age		
Predominant BF	1.0	–
Partial BF	1.6 (1.09–2.33)	2
No BF	6.09 (3.57–10.4)	2
Partial, no BF vs. exclusive/predominant BF in 0–5 months of age		
Exclusive or predominant BF	1.0	–
Partial BF	2.27 (1.66–3.1)	3
No BF	2.47 (1.86–3.3)	4
Partial vs. no BF in 0–5 months of age		
Partial BF	1.0	–
No BF	3.89 (2.28–6.65)	2
Any vs. no BF in infants aged 6–23 months		
Any BF	1.0	–
No BF 6–11 m	1.76 (1.28–2.41)	4
No BF 12–23 m	1.97 (1.45–2.67)	6

*Not all studies reported the respective infant feeding practices; the numbers of studies contributing to each comparison therefore differed.

Infection-related mortality

The pooled effects of respective breastfeeding practices on infection-related mortality are provided in Table 3 (Table S2 enlists the individual studies included under each comparison). When compared to exclusive breastfeeding, predominant breastfeeding had a 70% higher risk of infection-related mortality in infants aged 0–5 months (RR 1.7, 95% CI 1.18–2.45, three studies). The risk was 4.6- and 8.7-fold higher in partial and ‘nonbreastfeeding’ categories, respectively. When compared to the combined category of exclusive/predominant breastfeeding, infants who were partially breastfed had a 3.2-fold higher risk while those who were not breastfed had a 2.2-fold higher risk of infection-related mortality at 0–5 months of age (Table 3). Compared to breastfed infants and children 6–23 months of age, those who were not breastfed had 2.1-fold increase in the risk of mortality between 6 and 23 months of age (RR 2.09, 95% CI 1.68–2.60). The pooled effect did not differ when studies in which the infection-related mortality was derived from all-cause mortality were excluded (RR 2.26, 95% CI 1.71–3.0 vs. RR 1.85, 95% CI 1.31–2.62) (Fig. 3).

As observed with all-cause mortality, there was a dose–response effect between the different breastfeeding categories and the infection-related mortality as well. Infants who were not breastfed had 7.2- and 3.7-fold higher risks of mortality at 0–5 months of age, when compared to predominantly and partially breastfed infants (Table 3).

Quality of evidence

Because of the type of studies included (cohort/case–control) and the serious risk of bias, the quality of evidence was very low to low for predominant/partial/nonbreastfeeding vs. exclusive breastfeeding in 0–5 months, as well as for the comparison of no vs. any breastfeeding at 6–23 months of age with respect to all-cause and infection-related mortality (Table 4).

DISCUSSION

The major findings of the review were (1) significantly higher risks of all-cause and infection-related mortality with suboptimal breastfeeding practices in the first 2 years of life, (2) almost similar effect sizes for all-cause and infection-related mortality and (3) a dose–response effect relation among the different breastfeeding categories, with even partial breastfeeding having a modest protective effect when compared to nonbreastfeeding. The findings may not be necessarily ‘new’ in the true sense: the findings rather reaffirm and quantify the harmful effects of suboptimal breastfeeding practices.

How different are the results of the present review from those of the recently published reviews by Lamberti et al. (21,22)? For all-cause mortality, there was virtually no difference between our review and the previous reviews in the individual comparisons of predominant, partial or nonbreastfeeding with exclusive breastfeeding at 0–5 months of age. All the reviews included the same studies, so identical results are expected. In contrast, the estimated

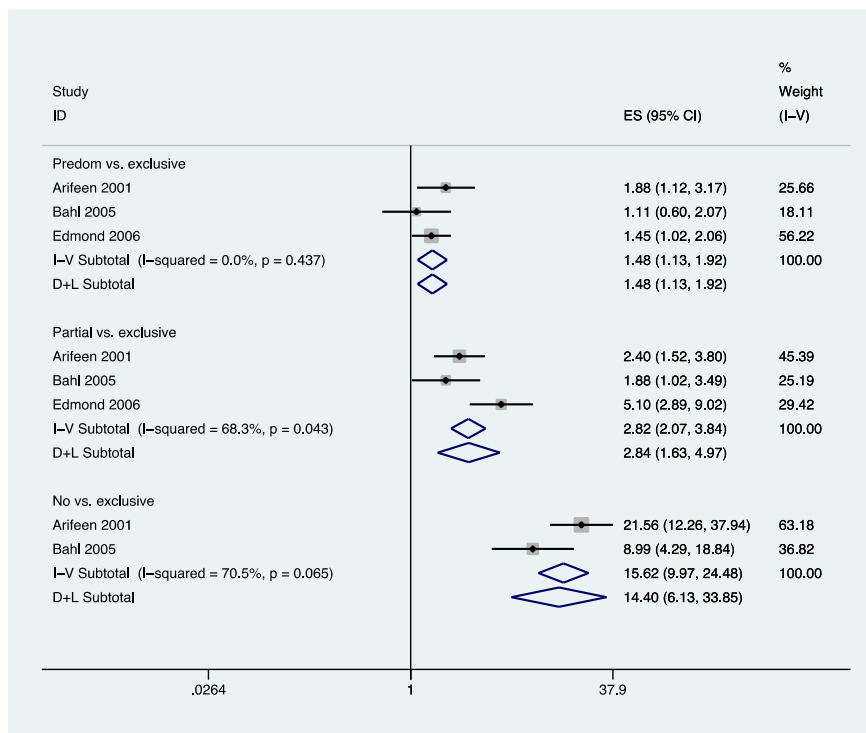


Figure 2 Suboptimal versus optimal breastfeeding in infants aged 0–5 months and all-cause mortality.

Table 3 Effect of respective breastfeeding (BF) practices on infection-related mortality

BF practice	Relative Risk (95% CI)	Number of studies
Predominant, partial or no BF vs. exclusive BF at 0–5 months of age		
Exclusive BF	1.0	–
Predominant BF	1.7 (1.18–2.45)	3
Partial BF	4.56 (2.93–7.11)	3
No BF	8.66 (3.19–23.5)	2
Partial, no BF vs. predominant BF at 0–5 months of age		
Predominant BF	1.0	–
Partial BF	2.64 (1.74–4.0)	3
No BF	7.16 (3.06–16.8)	2
Partial, no BF vs. exclusive/predominant BF at 0–5 months of age		
Exclusive or predominant BF	1.0	–
Partial BF	3.21 (2.17–4.74)	3
No BF	2.17 (1.54–3.07)	4
Partial vs. no BF at 0–5 months of age		
Partial BF	1.0	–
No BF	3.74 (1.63–8.59)	2
Any vs. no BF in infants aged 6–23 months		
Any BF	1.0	–
No BF 6–23 months	2.09 (1.68–2.60)	9*

*9 studies providing data for 14 time periods.

effect sizes for the comparison of no versus any breastfeeding at 6–23 months of age were quite different from that of the previous reviews (Table S3). Our pooled effects were more conservative: RR 1.76 (95% CI 1.28–2.41) and RR 1.97 (95% CI 1.45–2.67) at 6–11 and 12–23 months,

respectively, when compared to the reported effect sizes of RR 5.66 (95% CI 1.86–17.2) and RR 2.23 (95% CI 0.65–7.59) for the two time periods in a previous review (21). We included more studies: four and six studies, respectively, while the previous review had only one study each in the two time periods.

The other outcome of the review – the effect of breastfeeding practices on infection-related mortality – has not previously been reported in earlier reviews (21,22). These reviews reported only diarrhoea-specific or pneumonia-specific mortality which precludes a direct comparison. The pooled effect sizes for infection-related mortality seem to be relatively modest when compared to that of diarrhoea-specific mortality but not so when compared to that of pneumonia-specific mortality (Table S3). The discrepancy is possibly because (i) optimal breastfeeding practices are more protective against diarrhoea-specific than pneumonia-specific mortality (19) and (ii) pneumonia-specific mortality being more common (23), infection-related mortality tends to approximate its effect size rather than that of diarrhoea-specific mortality.

The LiST model currently uses only the effect sizes of pneumonia- and diarrhoea-specific mortality for evaluating the impact of optimal breastfeeding practices. This approach has its own pitfalls. It ignores the impact of breastfeeding on other causes of mortality such as neonatal sepsis, prematurity (particularly, necrotizing enterocolitis), measles, sudden infant death syndrome (SIDS). The currently used estimates are therefore likely to underesti-

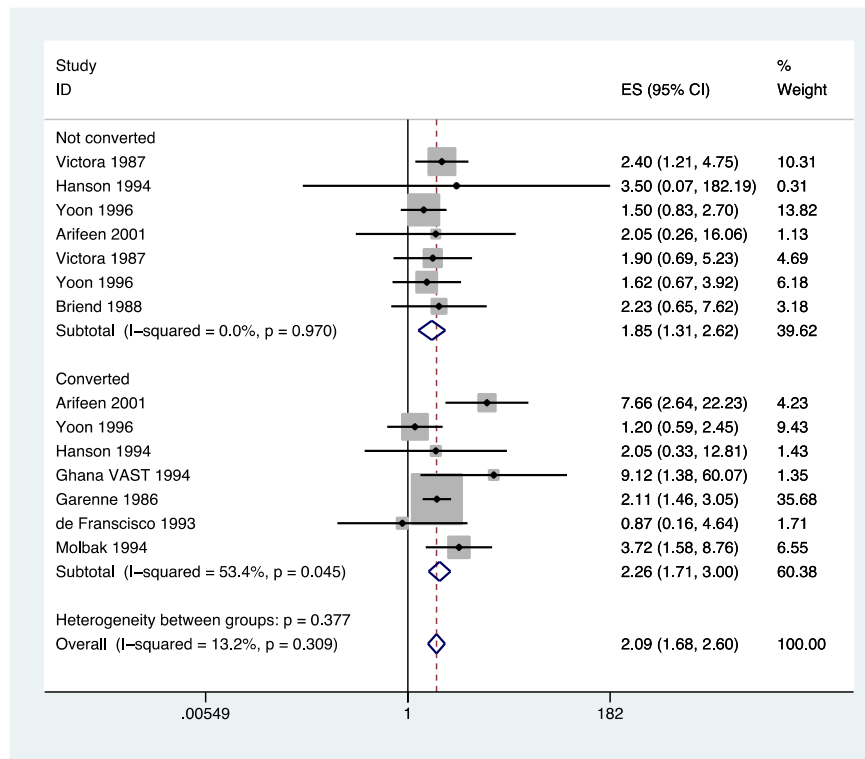


Figure 3 No vs. any breastfeeding in infants aged 6–23 months and infection-related mortality. NB: 'Not converted' refers to studies that directly reported infection-related mortality, while 'converted' refers to those studies in which infection-related mortality was derived from the all-cause mortality and the proportion of infection-related deaths in the respective studies (see text).

mate the potential lives saved by scaling-up optimal breastfeeding practices in LMICs. In the current review, we have attempted to estimate the effect size for mortality due to *any* infection and not only due to diarrhoea or pneumonia. Our estimate is more likely to take account of 'other' infections such as neonatal sepsis, measles or malaria.

Having a more comprehensive effect size for infection-related mortality also allowed us to compare the effect sizes for all-cause and infection-related mortality. If optimal breastfeeding practices were to prevent only mortality due to infections and not due to other causes such as malformations, trauma and birth asphyxia, the effect size for all-cause mortality should have been roughly half the effect size for infection-related mortality [because infectious causes other than AIDS account for only about 45% of under-5 mortality (23)], but our findings do not conform to the expected results. The effect sizes for all-cause mortality were almost the same as that of infection-related mortality for most comparisons. This could be explained if the studies included for estimating the pooled effects of all-cause mortality and infection-related mortality were different; differences in settings or baseline risks, for example, could result in totally independent effect sizes for the two. However, the studies included were mostly the same. The finding therefore raises a larger question: Should we be using the effect size for all-cause mortality instead of the

effect size for infection-related mortality (or pneumonia-/diarrhoea-specific mortality) to estimate the potential lives saved by optimal breastfeeding practices?

The quality of evidence was very low to low for both the outcomes. Given the importance of the intervention, the number of studies included in the review was also small (only 13 studies). While the lack of randomised controlled trials is understandable, the relative paucity of high-quality observational studies on such a crucial topic is rather baffling. There is an urgent need for large multicentre studies to evaluate the effects of optimal breastfeeding practices on both all-cause and infection-related mortality.

Strengths and limitations

Unlike previous reviews, we adopted a more inclusive approach to have more studies including those cross-referenced in the aforementioned reviews. Also, we estimated the effect sizes for infection-related mortality as a whole instead of focusing on only pneumonia- and diarrhoea-specific mortality. Our review has major limitations too. First, we did not include mortality due to exposure to HIV. The estimated infection-related mortality could still be an underestimate of the true effect, particularly in regions with high rates of deaths due to HIV exposure. Second, due to practical difficulties, we could not contact all the study authors to obtain the relative risks for some of the comparisons. Instead, we used the

Table 4 Grade profile summary for 'Suboptimal breastfeeding vs. optimal breastfeeding practices'

Quality assessment						Effect RR (95% CI)	Quality	Importance
No. of studies	Study design	Risk of bias	Inconsistency	Indirectness	Imprecision			
All-cause mortality (0–5 months); Predominant vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
3	Cohort/secondary analyses from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 1.48 (1.13–1.92)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
All-cause mortality (0–5 months); Partial vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
3	Cohort/secondary analyses from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious [†]	Not serious	Not serious	RR 2.84 (1.63–4.97)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
All-cause mortality (0–5 months); No vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
2	Cohort/secondary analysis from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious [†]	Not serious	Not serious	RR 14.4 (6.13–33.8)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
All-cause mortality (6–11 months); No vs. any breastfeeding								
4	Cohort/case-control	Very serious* [‡]	Not serious [†]	Not serious	Not serious	RR 1.76 (1.28–2.41)	⊕○○○ VERY LOW	CRITICAL
All-cause mortality (12–23 months); No vs. any breastfeeding								
6	Cohort/case-control	Very serious* [‡]	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 1.97 (1.45–2.67)	⊕○○○ VERY LOW	CRITICAL
Infection-related mortality (0–5 months); Predominant vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
3	Cohort/secondary analyses from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 1.70 (1.18–2.45)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
Infection-related mortality (0–5 months); Partial vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
3	Cohort/secondary analyses from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 4.56 (2.93–7.11)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
Infection-related mortality (0–5 months); No vs. exclusive breastfeeding								
2	Cohort/secondary analysis from RCTs	Serious*	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 8.66 (3.19–23.5)	⊕⊕○○ LOW	CRITICAL
Infection-related mortality (6–23 months); No vs. any breastfeeding								
9	Cohort/case-control	Very serious* [‡]	Not serious	Not serious	Not serious	RR 2.09 (1.68–2.60)	⊕○○○ VERY LOW	CRITICAL

*Limitations in analysis (unadjusted RR used in the review).

[†]Moderate heterogeneity ($I^2 > 60\%$) but effects of all studies in same direction.

[‡]Reverse causality in some of the studies.

values provided in the previously published reviews. Because most of these values were unadjusted relative risks, the quality of evidence assigned was only very low to low. Third, for more than half of the studies included in the comparison of no vs. any breastfeeding at 6–23 months of age, we derived infection-related mortality from the all-cause mortality. The approach has its limitation, but the results of 'sensitivity analysis' including only those studies that had reported infection-related mortality were not much different from the overall results (Fig. 3).

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the present review underscore the importance of optimal breastfeeding practices during infancy and

early childhood. The pooled effect sizes – particularly that of infection-related mortality – obtained in the review could be used to more accurately estimate the number of potential lives saved by scaling-up the coverage of optimal breastfeeding practices.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank Dr Cesar Victora, Federal University of Pelotas, Brazil, for his highly valuable comments on the methodology of the review and help in data analysis and interpretation. We acknowledge Dr Nigel Rollins, WHO, Geneva, for his critical comments and Dr Sushil Kumar, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, USA, for helping us in searching the various databases.

Panel 1. Search Strategy (PubMed)

- 1 ((‘breast feeding’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘breast’[All Fields] AND ‘feeding’[All Fields]) OR ‘breast feeding’[All Fields] OR ‘breastfeeding’[All Fields]) OR (‘breast feeding’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘breast’[All Fields] AND ‘feeding’[All Fields]) OR ‘breast feeding’[All Fields])) OR ‘human milk’[All Fields] OR ‘breast milk’[All Fields] OR (‘exclusive breastfeeding’[All Fields] OR ‘exclusive breast feeding’[All Fields] OR continuation[All Fields] OR continuing[All Fields] OR continued[All Fields] OR ‘stopping’[All Fields] OR stopped[All Fields] OR stop[All Fields])
- 2 (‘mortality’[Subheading] OR ‘mortality’[All Fields] OR ‘mortality’[MeSH Terms]) OR (‘infant mortality’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘infant’[All Fields] AND ‘mortality’[All Fields]) OR ‘infant mortality’[All Fields] OR (‘neonatal’[All Fields] AND ‘mortality’[All Fields]) OR ‘neonatal mortality’[All Fields] OR (‘infant mortality’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘infant’[All Fields] AND ‘mortality’[All Fields]) OR ‘infant mortality’[All Fields]) OR (‘child mortality’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘child’[All Fields] AND ‘mortality’[All Fields]) OR ‘child mortality’[All Fields])
- 3 (‘pneumonia’[MeSH Terms] OR ‘pneumonia’[All Fields]) OR (‘diarrhoea’[All Fields] OR ‘diarrhea’[MeSH Terms] OR ‘diarrhea’[All Fields]) OR (‘sepsis’[MeSH Terms] OR ‘sepsis’[All Fields]) OR (‘infection’[MeSH Terms] OR ‘infection’[All Fields] OR ‘infections’[All Fields]) OR (preterm[All Fields] OR (‘infant, premature’[MeSH Terms] OR (‘infant’[All Fields] AND ‘premature’[All Fields]) OR ‘premature infant’[All Fields] OR ‘prematurity’[All Fields])) OR (‘malnutrition’[MeSH Terms] OR ‘malnutrition’[All Fields])
- 4 (Addresses[ptyp] OR Autobiography[ptyp] OR Bibliography[ptyp] OR Biography[ptyp] OR pubmed books[filter] OR Case Reports [ptyp] OR Congresses[ptyp] OR Consensus Development Conference[ptyp] OR Directory[ptyp] OR Duplicate Publication[ptyp] OR Editorial[ptyp] OR Festschrift[ptyp] OR Guideline[ptyp] OR In Vitro[ptyp] OR Interview[ptyp] OR Lectures[ptyp] OR Legal Cases [ptyp] OR News[ptyp] OR Newspaper Article[ptyp] OR Personal Narratives[ptyp] OR Portraits[ptyp] OR Retracted Publication [ptyp] OR Twin Study[ptyp] OR Video-Audio Media[ptyp])
- 5 #1 AND (#2 OR #3)
- 6 #5 NOT #4

CONFLICT OF INTEREST AND FUNDING STATEMENT

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose. The authors have no financial relationships relevant to this article to disclose.

DISCLAIMER

The authors alone are responsible for the views expressed in this article and they do not necessarily represent the views, decisions or policies of the institutions with which they are affiliated.

References

1. WHO. *Infant and Young Child feeding. Model Chapter for textbooks for medical students and allied health professionals*. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2009.
2. Factsheet W. *Infant and Young Child Feeding*. Geneva: WHO, 2014.
3. Jones G, Steketee RW, Black RE, Bhutta ZA, Morris SS, Bellagio Child Survival Study G. How many child deaths can we prevent this year? *Lancet* 2003; 362: 65–71.
4. Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP, Bhutta ZA, Christian P, de Onis M, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. *Lancet* 2013; 382: 427–51.
5. Khan J, Vesel L, Bahl R, Martinez JC. Timing of breastfeeding initiation and exclusivity of breastfeeding during the first month of life: effects on neonatal mortality and morbidity—a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Matern Child Health J* 2015; 19: 468–79.
6. WHO. *Indicators for Assessing Breastfeeding Practices*. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1991.
7. GRADEpro GDT: GRADEpro Guideline Development Tool [Software]. McMaster University, 2015 (developed by Evidence Prime, Inc.). Available from gradepr.org.
8. Vitamin A supplementation in northern Ghana: effects on clinic attendances, hospital admissions, and child mortality. Ghana VAST Study Team. *Lancet* 1993; 342:7–12.
9. Arifeen S, Black RE, Antelman G, Baqui A, Caulfield L, Becker S. Exclusive breastfeeding reduces acute respiratory infection and diarrhea deaths among infants in Dhaka slums. *Pediatrics* 2001; 108: E67.
10. Awasthi S, Malik GK, Misra PK. Mortality patterns in breast versus artificially fed term babies in early infancy: a longitudinal study. *Indian Pediatr* 1991; 28: 243–8.
11. Bahl R, Frost C, Kirkwood BR, Edmond K, Martinez J, Bhandari N, et al. Infant feeding patterns and risks of death and hospitalization in the first half of infancy: multicentre cohort study. *Bull World Health Organ* 2005; 83: 418–26.
12. Briend A, Wojtyniak B, Rowland MG. Breast feeding, nutritional state, and child survival in rural Bangladesh. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)* 1988; 296: 879–82.
13. de Francisco A, Morris J, Hall AJ, Armstrong Schellenberg JR, Greenwood BM. Risk factors for mortality from acute lower respiratory tract infections in young Gambian children. *Int J Epidemiol* 1993; 22: 1174–82.
14. Edmond KM, Zandoh C, Quigley MA, Amenga-Etego S, Owusu-Agyei S, Kirkwood BR. Delayed breastfeeding initiation increases risk of neonatal mortality. *Pediatrics* 2006; 117: e380–6.
15. Garenne M, Fontaine O. Assessing probable causes of death using a standardized questionnaire: a study in rural Senegal. *Bull World Health Organ* 2006; 84: 248–53.
16. Hanson LA, Ashraf R, Zaman S, Karlberg J, Lindblad BS, Jalil F. Breast feeding is a natural contraceptive and prevents disease and death in infants, linking infant mortality and birth rates. *Acta Paediatr* 1994; 83: 3–6.

17. Molbak K, Gottschau A, Aaby P, Hojlyng N, Ingholt L, da Silva AP. Prolonged breast feeding, diarrhoeal disease, and survival of children in Guinea-Bissau. *BMJ* 1994; 308: 1403–6.
18. Srivastava SP, Sharma VK, Jha SP. Mortality patterns in breast versus artificially fed term babies in early infancy: a longitudinal study. *Indian Pediatr* 1994; 31: 1393–6.
19. Victora CG, Smith PG, Vaughan JP, Nobre LC, Lombardi C, Teixeira AM, et al. Evidence for protection by breast-feeding against infant deaths from infectious diseases in Brazil. *Lancet* 1987; 2: 319–22.
20. Yoon PW, Black RE, Moulton LH, Becker S. Effect of not breastfeeding on the risk of diarrheal and respiratory mortality in children under 2 years of age in Metro Cebu, The Philippines. *Am J Epidemiol* 1996; 143: 1142–8.
21. Lamberti LM, Fischer Walker CL, Noiman A, Victora C, Black RE. Breastfeeding and the risk for diarrhea morbidity and mortality. *BMC Public Health* 2011; 11(Suppl 3): S15.
22. Lamberti LM, Zakarija-Grkovic I, Fischer Walker CL, Theodoratou E, Nair H, Campbell H, et al. Breastfeeding for reducing the risk of pneumonia morbidity and mortality in children under two: a systematic literature review and meta-analysis. *BMC Public Health* 2013; 13(Suppl 3): S18.
23. Liu L, Oza S, Hogan D, Perin J, Rudan I, Lawn JE, et al. Global, regional, and national causes of child mortality in 2000–13, with projections to inform post-2015 priorities: an updated systematic analysis. *Lancet* 2015; 385: 430–40.
24. Effect of breastfeeding on infant and child mortality due to infectious diseases in less developed countries: a pooled analysis. WHO Collaborative Study Team on the Role of Breastfeeding on the Prevention of Infant Mortality. *Lancet* 2000; 355:451–5.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Table S1. Effect of breastfeeding (BF) on all-cause mortality – studies included.

Table S2. Effect of breastfeeding on infection-related mortality – studies included.

Table S3. Comparison with previous reviews.

Panel S1. Deriving infection-related mortality from all-cause mortality.