

Effect of oral administration of probiotics on intestinal colonization with drug-resistant bacteria in preterm infants

Abdullah Kurt, Deniz Anuk Ince, Ayşe Ecevit, Özlem Kurt Azap, Zafer Ecevit, Ersin Ögüş, Ali Ulaş Tuğcu, Aylin Tarcan

Abstract

Background Oral administration of probiotics in newborn preterm infants has been shown to be helpful, especially in reducing the incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis and overall mortality rates.

Objective To evaluate the effect of probiotic supplementation on intestinal colonization by antibiotic-resistant microorganisms in preterm infants receiving antibiotics in a neonatal intensive care unit (NICU).

Methods The prospective, randomized trial was performed in preterm infants who were hospitalized in the NICU at Baskent University Ankara Hospital between January 2011 and February 2012. A total of 51 infants were enrolled and randomly assigned to one of two groups: Group 1 (n=27) received probiotic therapy and Group 2 (n=24) did not receive probiotics. The probiotic used was *Lactobacillus reuteri* (Biogaia® AB, Sweden). Subjects underwent weekly nasal swab and stool cultures for a maximum of 6 weeks, and at the time of discharge if this was prior to 6 weeks. All positive cultures were further tested for culture-specific identification and antibiotic susceptibility.

Results A total of 607 cultures were evaluated. Positive cultures were found in 37.9% from Group 1 and 35.2% from Group 2. Intestinal colonization by antibiotic-resistant bacteria did not significantly differ between groups ($P>0.05$).

Conclusions Oral supplementation with probiotics do not prevent the intestinal colonization of antibiotic-resistant microorganisms in preterm NICU patients who received antibiotic treatment. [Paediatr Indones. 2017;57:91-8. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14238/pi57.2.2017.91-8>].

Keywords: oral administration of probiotics; intestinal colonization; drug-resistant bacteria; preterm infants

Preterm newborn infants who require intensive care are at increased risk for nosocomial infections caused by antibiotic-resistant microorganisms. For this reason, in preterm infants who remain in the NICU longer than 48 hours, the prevalence of nosocomial infections ranges from 6% to 22%.¹⁻⁵ Several studies have shown that supplementation with probiotics can prevent colonization of the gut by pathogenic microorganisms in preterm newborns.^{1,3,4} Probiotics can help regulate enteral feeding, reduce parenteral nutrition dependence, enforce the intestinal mucosal barrier against bacteria, and increase levels of beneficial bacteria in the gut.^{2,5-7} At the same time, probiotic therapy is reported to reduce frequencies of sepsis and necrotizing enterocolitis in preterm newborn infants.^{2,5,7-10} Normally, the uterus is a sterile environment. As such, the intestinal microbiota starts developing shortly after birth in preterm infants, and the initial source of these colonizing microorganisms is the mother's flora.^{1,3,4,11} Development of intestinal microbiota in preterm infants may also be delayed because of the hospital environment that consists of invasive procedures, antibiotic regimens, and

From the Department of Neonatology, Dr. Sami Ulus Maternity and Children Research and Training Hospital, Ankara, Turkey.

Reprint requests to: Abdullah Kurt MD. Dr. Sami Ulus Çocuk Hastanesi Babür Caddesi No:44 (06080) Altındağ Ankara, Turkey. Telp: 90(312) 3056000. Fax: 90(312) 3170353. E-mail: drabdullahkurt@yahoo.com.

late enteral feeding in the NICU.¹²⁻¹⁴ Treatment with antibiotics can adversely affect the density and diversity of microorganisms in the intestine of the newborn.¹⁵ Various studies have demonstrated that antibiotic-resistant microorganisms colonize preterm newborn infants in the NICU.^{1,3,4,16,17}

Our aim in this study was to evaluate the effect of oral probiotic administration on the colonization of the intestine by antibiotic-resistant microorganisms in preterm newborn infants receiving antibiotics in the NICU.

Methods

This prospective study was performed in preterm newborn infants who were hospitalized in the NICU at Baskent University Ankara Hospital between January 2011 and February 2012. The Baskent University Clinical Research Ethics Committee approved the study (project number: KA11/138), and subjects' parents provided informed consent. All infants enrolled were born at ≤ 36 weeks of gestational age and required antibiotic treatment and/or prophylaxis. Infants with congenital anomalies and those undergoing intestinal surgeries were excluded.

Patients were randomly assigned to two groups, according to the order of NICU admission. A total of 51 patients were enrolled: Group 1 (n=27) received probiotic therapy and Group 2 (n=24) did not receive probiotics. The probiotic used was *Lactobacillus reuteri* (*Biogaia*® AB, Sweden). Oral probiotics were started on the day of birth. Each newborn in Group 1 received the probiotic directly (not mixed with any other intake) as an oral daily dose (1x10⁸ cfu/day given as 5 drops once daily) during their stay in the NICU.²

Nasal swab and stool cultures were collected from all infants. In each case, these specimens were collected immediately upon admission to the NICU (prior to starting antibiotic treatment), at least once weekly throughout the hospital stay, to a maximum of 6 weeks, and at discharge if this was prior to 6 weeks. Each sample was incubated at a microbiology laboratory within 30 minutes of collection (see detailed laboratory methods below).

Other cultures (i.e., cultures of throat swabs, deep tracheal aspirates, endotracheal tube aspirates, blood

and urine) were routinely taken from the patients included in the study. The relation of these culture results to the use of probiotic was investigated.

The following data were recorded for each infant during their stay in the NICU: prenatal, natal, and postnatal characteristics, diagnoses, clinical characteristics, surgical therapy and other interventions, prognosis, and complications (such as vomiting, diarrhea, sepsis, etc.) of probiotic treatment (for Group 1).

Cultures were plated and incubated at the *Baskent University Clinical Microbiology and Microbiology Laboratory*, and were evaluated by experts in the *Department of Infectious Diseases*. Specimens were plated on sheep blood agar, chocolate agar, and eosin methylene blue agar. Culture-specific identification and antibiotic susceptibility testing were performed for all microorganisms that grew in culture. The criteria of the *Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute* were used to assess the antibiotic susceptibility of each microorganism. The methods used were the disc diffusion susceptibility test (Kirby-Bauer method) and determination of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC).^{18,19} The microbes that were cultured included methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Enterococcus* spp., *Klebsiella* spp., *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Enterobacter* spp, *Acinetobacter* spp, *Serratia* spp, *Citrobacter* spp., *Proteus* spp., and *Candida* spp. The microorganisms detected were classified according to their resistance to antibiotics.²⁰

Statistical analysis was performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 17.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess whether variables were normally distributed. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare the group findings. Results for categorical variables were analyzed using the Chi-square test. Within-group comparisons were made to assess weekly increases in quantity of microorganisms isolated from stool and nasal cultures, respectively. These weekly statistical comparisons were made using the Cochran Q test and the Monte Carlo method.

Results

The demographic characteristics of the two groups are summarized in **Table 1**. The groups' clinical characteristics are presented in **Table 2**. In total, 607 cultures were evaluated, with 351 from Group 1 and 256 from Group 2. One hundred thirty-three (37.9%) of the 351 Group 1 cultures were positive. Of the 133 isolates, 79 were Gram-negative microorganisms, 49 were Gram-positive, and 5 were fungi (only blood and catheter cultures). Ninety (35.2%) of the 256 Group 2 cultures were positive. Of the 90 isolates, 53 were Gram-negative and 37 were Gram-positive.

Table 3 shows other cultures were routinely taken from the patients included in the study. However, these culture results were not associated with oral administration of probiotics in both groups. **Table 4** shows the quantities of identified isolates cultured from each group's stool cultures at baseline (admission to NICU) and at weeks 1 through 6. **Table 5** shows the corresponding results for nasal swab cultures. The within-group comparisons of weekly numbers of isolates revealed weekly increases in quantity of microorganisms isolated from nasal cultures.

In this study most microorganisms were antibiotic-resistant ($P > 0.05$). Very few of them were not antibiotic-resistant (**Table 6**). Colonization of intestine with antibiotic-resistant bacteria did not differ between the two groups ($P > 0.05$). *Klebsiella* spp. isolated from a total of 26 cultures from both groups were positive for extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL), but *E. coli* isolated from 5 cultures were positive for ESBL from Group 1.

None of the infants in Group 1 developed side effects associated with the use of probiotics, such as diarrhea or vomiting.

Discussion

In this prospective, randomized trial, 607 cultures were evaluated in 51 preterm infants who received antibiotics in the NICU. Group 1 had significantly more antibiotic resistant microorganisms cultured from stool specimens, than Group 2. In Group 1, the most common microorganisms isolated from all nasal swab cultures were *Staphylococcus* 20.0%, while in Group 2, the most common microorganisms isolated

from all nasal swab cultures were *Staphylococcus* 17.6%.

The intestinal microbiota differs between term and preterm infants. Because preterm infants have immature host defenses, require invasive interventions such as central venous catheter or endotracheal tube insertion, and often have longer antibiotic treatment, they are at high risk for nosocomial and antibiotic-resistant infections. At the same time, colonization by bifidobacteria is delayed in the preterm infants.¹⁵ A previous randomized clinical trial evaluated the effect of *Bifidobacterium lactis* Bb12 supplementation on modifying gut microbiota in 69 preterm infants and found that supplementation with *B. lactis* Bb12 did not reduce the colonization of antibiotic-resistant organisms.¹⁵

Other reports suggested that probiotics reduce intestinal inflammation and prevent colonization by pathogenic microorganisms in the gut.^{2,3,21} Ren *et al.* reported that the intestinal bacterial colonization rate was lower in the group given probiotics than in the group without probiotics. In their study, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *E. coli*, and *Enterococcus faecium* were found in stool specimens of both the intervention and control groups.²² In our study, we found that the use of probiotics in preterm infants did not prevent the development of antibiotic-resistant microorganisms. The differences between studies might be due to the diversity of invasive procedures, antibiotic regimens, and other treatments in the NICU. Ren *et al.* also reported that probiotics reduced the risk of sepsis in

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the study subjects

Characteristics	Group 1 (probiotics) (n=27)	Group 2 (no probiotics) (n=24)	P value
Gender,* n			
Female	15	7	
Male	12	17	
Mode of delivery,** n			
Vaginal	3	2	0.058
Cesarean	24	22	0.739
Early membrane rupture,** n	7	5	
Mode of feeding, n			
Breastfed	22	20	0.699
Formula fed	5	4	0.830

*Chi-square test, **Mann-Whitney U test

Table 2. Clinical features, diagnoses, and interventions in the two study groups

Variables	Group 1 (n=27)	Group 2 (n=24)	P value
Gestational age, weeks			
Mean (SD)	32.5 (0.44)	33.1 (0.40)	0.312
Median (range)	32.7 (27-36)	33.4 (27-35)	
Birth weight, g			
Mean (SD)	1909.6 (111.75)	2048.7 (76.12)	0.242
Median (range)	1870 (840-2880)	2137 (930-2540)	
Apgar 1 minute			0.610
Mean (SD)	6.9 (0.21)	7.0 (0.24)	
Median (range)	7.1 (5-9)	7.2 (3-8)	
Apgar 5 minutes			0.254
Mean (SD)	8.1 (0.17)	8.2 (0.20)	
Median (range)	8.1 (6-10)	8.4 (5-9)	
Intubated, n	15	13	0.921
Ventilatory support, n	16	14	0.993
Umbilical venous catheter, n	21	14	0.135
Peripheral central catheter, n	3	4	0.565
Surfactant treatment, n	14	12	0.895
Use of antacid, n	8	9	0.552
Respiratory distress syndrome, n	14	12	0.895
Necrotizing enterocolitis, n	5	2	0.291
Sepsis, n	9	4	0.321
Patent ductus arteriosus, n	3	3	0.878
Bronchopulmonary dysplasia, n	3	1	0.357
Intubation duration, days			0.720
Mean (SD)	2.40 (0.84)	1.37 (0.35)	
Median (range)	1 (0-19)	1 (0-6)	
Duration of umbilical venous catheter placement, days			0.105
Mean (SD)	6.6 (1.09)	4.0 (0.90)	
Median (range)	6 (0-20)	2.5 (0-130)	
Duration of peripheral central venous catheter placement, days			0.705
Mean (SD)	2.0 (1.18)	1.6 (0.78)	
Median (range)	0 (0-25)	0 (0-11)	
Duration of nasogastric tube placement, days			0.455
Mean (SD)	15.2 (3.42)	10.3 (1.98)	
Median (range)	8 (1-70)	7.5 (1-37)	
Duration of total parenteral nutrition, days			0.638
Mean (SD)	6.9 (1.98)	4.3 (0.98)	
Median (range)	5 (0-48)	7.5 (1-37)	
Duration of full enteral feeding, days			0.192
Mean (SD)	13.4 (2.21)	9.6 (1.26)	
Median (range)	11 (3-60)	7.5 (0-25)	
Exposure to oxygen, days			0.549
Mean (SD)	9.7 (3.61)	6.3 (1.56)	
Median (range)	2 (1-74)	2.5 (1-28)	
Time to first positive culture, days			0.237
Mean (SD)	7.1 (0.67)	6.0 (0.60)	
Median (range)	7 (2-17)	5 (2-16)	
Total duration of antibiotic use, days			0.236
Mean (SD)	13.7 (2.35)	9.7 (1.31)	
Median (range)	9 (6-45)	8 (3-30)	

Table 2. Clinical features, diagnoses, and interventions in the two study groups (continued)

Variables	Group 1 (n=27)	Group 2 (n=24)	P value
Hospital stay, days			
Mean (SD)	22.1 (3.52)	15.0 (1.82)	0.121
Median (range)	15 (6-74)	13 (6-43)	
Weight at discharge, g			0.278
Mean (SD)	2085.9	2148.3 (57.93)	
Median (range)	2050 (1620-2900)	2150 (1740-2700)	
Deaths, n	0	1	0.284

Table 3. Diagnostic value of IT ratio and procalcitonin as compared to blood cultures

	Culture type						
	Throat swab	DTA	ETA	Central catheter tip	Blood	Urine	Total
Group 1 (probiotics)							
Negative cultures	7	13	3	17	53	11	104
<i>Enterococcus spp</i>	0	0	0	1	0	2	3
<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	0	3	1	0	0	0	4
<i>E. coli</i>	0	1	0	0	0	2	3
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
<i>Burgholderia spp</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
<i>Candida parapsilosis</i>	0	0	0	1	3	0	4
Group 2 (no probiotics)							
Negative cultures	7	11	2	8	41	7	76
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
<i>Streptococcus spp.</i>	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Total	14	28	7	28	100	27	204

DTA=deep tracheal aspirate; ETA=endotracheal tube aspirate

the preterm newborn infants.²² In contrast, we found that intestinal bacterial colonization was higher in Group 1 than in Group 2, but the risk of sepsis did not increase in either group (Table 4 and 5).

Another study on very low-birth weight infants (VLBW, <1500 g), reported that colonization in stool samples were *Lactobacillus* sp. 71% and *Klebsiella* sp. 0%, within the first week of life without oral administration of probiotics.²³ Jacquot *et al.* reported that the most common bacteria in stool specimens found at 3 - 4 weeks postnatally was *Clostridium*.²⁴ The same study showed that *Enterobacteriaceae* accounted for less than < 10% and 44.4% in stool cultures at 6 and 8 weeks of life, respectively, and *Bifidobacterium* was < 10% at 8 weeks.²⁴ Rougé *et al.* investigated intestinal microbiota in 10 preterm

infants. They reported that *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* and *Bifidobacterium longum* were in the intestinal flora of preterm infants who received probiotics. However, in preterm infants not receiving probiotics, *Staphylococci* was the first isolated bacteria in the intestinal flora.²⁵ Unlike these three reports, our study revealed higher *Klebsiella* spp in stool cultures in three weeks in both intervention and control groups. These differences may be explained by the blockage of saprophytic flora formation due to the use of antibiotics in both of our study groups. So, oral probiotic administration did not enhance the development of saprophytic flora. Vidal *et al.* investigated the impact of probiotics on the intestinal colonization of vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE) in mice receiving oral vancomycin. Administration of probiotics did not affect the density

Table 4. Microorganisms isolated from the weekly stool cultures for the two groups

	Admission to NICU	1 wk	2 wks	3 wks	4 wks	5 wks	6 wks
Group 1* (probiotics)							
Negative cultures	24	10	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	1	8	13	5	3	0	0
<i>Enterococcus</i>	0	1	5	1	1	1	2
<i>E. coli</i>	1	3	4	2	0	1	0
<i>Enterobacter</i>	0	1	4	4	1	0	0
<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	1	3	1	2	1	0	0
<i>Proteus spp</i>	0	0	1	1	1	0	1
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
<i>Citrobacter spp</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total cultures**	27	30	30	17	8	3	3
Microorganism isolated, n(%)	3 (11.1)	20 (66.6)	29 (96.6)	17 (100)	7 (87.5)	3 (100)	3 (100)
Group 2* (no probiotics)							
Negative cultures	22	7	0	0	1	0	0
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	0	6	13	8	1	1	1
<i>Enterococcus spp</i>	0	2	2	2	0	1	1
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	2	4	0	1	0	0	0
<i>E. coli</i>	0	0	2	1	1	0	1
<i>Enterobacter spp</i>	0	4	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Proteus spp</i>	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Serratia SPP</i>	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>A. baumannii</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Total cultures**	24	25	19	14	3	2	3
Microorganisms isolated. n(%)	2 (8.3)	18 (72.0)	19 (100)	14 (100)	2 (66.7)	2 (100)	3 (100)

Notes: *Between the two groups weekly positive culture status in stool cultures was found significant by Cochran Q test (P=0.009). Positive culturing rates were higher in the probiotic group than in the no probiotic group. **Total cultures performed for the group. All patients had samples cultured on admission to the NICU. In following weeks, the numbers of cultures dropped as patients were discharged from hospital.

of VRE colonization in the gut.²⁶ Similarly, we found that the use of probiotics did not prevent development of resistant microorganisms in preterm infants.

The limitations of our study were the small sample size and the lack of ability to culture anaerobic microorganisms. In our study, rates of antibiotic-resistant microorganisms were found to be high in both groups. Clearly, our study shows that the use of probiotics does not prevent the colonization of antibiotic-resistant pathogens. We suggest that the antibiotic regimens and NICU conditions play the greatest role in the development of the intestinal microbiota and microbes cultured.

In conclusion, our study revealed that the use of probiotics do not prevent development of antibiotic resistant microorganisms in preterm infants

receiving antibiotics in the NICU. Further studies may investigate the potential of oral supplementation of other probiotic strains in preventing antibiotic-resistant bacteria.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

Table 5. Microorganisms isolated from the weekly nasal swab cultures for the two groups

	Admission to NICU	1 wk	2 wks	3 wks	4 wks	5 wks	6 wks
Group 1* (probiotics)							
Negative cultures	26	20	15	8	5	1	3
<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>	0	6	8	5	1	2	0
<i>Streptococcus pneumonia</i>	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Klebsiella spp</i>	0	0	2	1	1	0	0
<i>Enterococcus spp</i>	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>E. coli</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Total cultures**	28	27	27	15	7	3	3
Microorganism isolated, n(%)	2 (7.1)	7 (25.9)	12 (44.4)	7 (46.6)	2 (28.5)	2 (66.6)	0
Group 2* (no probiotics)							
Negative cultures	24	17	12	5	2	0	0
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	0	4	4	5	0	2	0
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Stenotrophomonas maltophilia</i>	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
<i>S. marcescens</i>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
<i>Acinobacter baumannii</i>	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Total cultures**	24	24	18	13	3	2	1
Microorganisms isolated. n(%)	0	7 (29.1)	6 (33.3)	8 (61.5)	1 (33.3)	2 (100)	1 (100)

Notes: *Weekly positive culture status in nasal swab cultures was not significantly different between the two groups by Cochran Q test (P=0.097). **Total number of cultures performed for the group. In following weeks, the numbers of cultures dropped as patients were discharged from hospital.

Table 6. Distribution of microorganisms isolated from the two groups listed according to categories of antibiotic resistance

Category of antibiotic resistance	Group 1	Group 2	P value*
Not resistant	8 (6.5)	8 (8.5)	> 0.05
Resistant to one drug	13 (10.5)	7 (7.4)	> 0.05
Resistant to two drugs	5 (4.0)	6 (6.3)	> 0.05
Resistant to three or more drugs	105 (85.3)	73 (77.6)	> 0.05
Total	123 (100)	94 (100)	> 0.05

*Chi-square test

References

- Dai D, Walker WA. Protective nutrients and bacterial colonization in the immature human gut. *Adv Pediatr.* 1999;46:353-82.
- Deshpande G, Rao S, Patole S, Bulsara M. Updated meta-analysis of probiotics for preventing necrotizing enterocolitis in preterm neonates. *Pediatrics.* 2010;125:921-30.
- Indrio F, Neu J. The intestinal microbiome of infants and the use of probiotics. *Curr Opin Pediatr.* 2011;23:145-50.
- Indrio F, Riezzo G, Raimondi F, Bisceglia M, Cavallo L, Francavilla R. The effects of probiotics on feeding tolerance, bowel habits, and gastrointestinal motility in preterm newborns. *J Pediatr.* 2008;152:801-6.

5. Lin HC, Hsu CH, Chen HL, Chung MY, Hsu JF, Lien RI, *et al.* Oral probiotics prevent necrotizing enterocolitis in very low birth weight preterm infants: a multicenter, randomized, controlled trial. *Pediatrics*. 2008;122:693-700.
6. Martin CR, Walker WA. Probiotics: role in pathophysiology and prevention in necrotizing enterocolitis. *Semin Perinatol*. 2008;32:127-37.
7. Romeo MG, Romeo DM, Trovato L, Oliveri S, Palermo F, *et al.* Role of probiotics in the prevention of the enteric colonization by *Candida* in preterm newborns: incidence of late-onset sepsis and neurological outcome. *J Perinatol*. 2011;31:63-9.
8. Deshpande G, Rao S, Patole S. Progress in the field of probiotics: year 2011. *Curr Opin Gastroenterol*. 2011;27:13-8.
9. Gill HS. Probiotics to enhance anti-infective defences in the gastrointestinal tract. *Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol*. 2003;17:755-73.
10. Macfarlane GT, Cummings JH. Probiotics, infection and immunity. *Curr Opin Infect Dis*. 2002;15:501-6.
11. Westerbeek EA, van den Berg A, Lafeber HN, Knol J, Fetter WP, van Elburg RM. The intestinal bacterial colonisation in preterm infants: a review of the literature. *Clin Nutr*. 2006;25:361-8.
12. Hall MA, Cole CB, Smith SL, Fuller R, Rolles CJ. Factors influencing the presence of faecal lactobacilli in early infancy. *Arch Dis Child*. 1990;65:185-8.
13. Penders J, Thijs C, Vink C, Stelma FF, Snijders B, Kummeling I, *et al.* Factors influencing the composition of the intestinal microbiota in early infancy. *Pediatrics*. 2006;118:511-21.
14. Young RJ, Huffman S. Probiotic use in children. *J Pediatr Health Care*. 2003;17:277-83.
15. Mohan R, Koebnick C, Schildt J, Schmidt S, Mueller M, Possner M, *et al.* Effects of *Bifidobacterium lactis* Bb12 supplementation on intestinal microbiota of preterm infants: a double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized study. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2006;44:4025-31.
16. Gewolb IH, Schwalbe RS, Taciak VL, Harrison TS, Panigrahi P. Stool microflora in extremely low birthweight infants. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 1999;80:167-73.
17. Lin PW, Nasr TR, Stoll BJ. Necrotizing enterocolitis: recent scientific advances in pathophysiology and prevention. *Semin Perinatol*. 2008;32:70-82.
18. Cockerill FR, Wikler MA, Alder J, Dudley MN, Eliopoulos GM, Ferraro MJ, *et al.* Performance standards for antimicrobial disk susceptibility tests. Approved Standards- 11th ed. CLSI, USA 2011;32:M02-A11.
19. Cockerill FR, Wikler MA, Alder J, Dudley MN, Eliopoulos GM, Ferraro MJ, *et al.* Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing. 22nd informational supplement CLSI, USA 2012;32:M100-S22.
20. Toltzis P, Dul MJ, Hoyen C, Salvator A, Walsh M, Zetts L, *et al.* The effect of antibiotic rotation on colonization with antibiotic-resistant bacilli in a neonatal intensive care unit. *Pediatrics*. 2002;110:707-11.
21. Hoyos AB. Reduced incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis associated with enteral administration of *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and *Bifidobacterium infantis* to neonates in an intensive care unit. *Int J Infect Dis*. 1999;3:197-202.
22. Ren YF, Wang LL. Effects of probiotics on intestinal bacterial colonization in premature infants. *Zhongguo Dang Dai Er Ke Za Zhi*. 2010;12:192-4.
23. Björkström MV, Hall L, Söderlund S, Hakansson EG, Hakansson S, Domellof M. Intestinal flora in very low-birth weight infants. *Acta Paediatr*. 2009;98:1762-7.
24. Jacquot A, Neveu D, Aujoulat F, Mercier G, Marchandin H, Jumas-Bilas E, *et al.* Dynamics and clinical evolution of bacterial gut microflora in extremely premature patients. *J Pediatr*. 2011;158:390-6.
25. Rougé C, Goldenberg O, Ferraris L, Berger B, Rochat F, Legrand A, *et al.* Investigation of the intestinal microbiota in preterm infants using different methods. *Anaerobe*. 2010;16:362-70.
26. Vidal M, Forestier C, Charbonnel N, Henard S, Rabaud C, Lesens O. Probiotics and intestinal colonization by vancomycin-resistant enterococci in mice and humans. *J Clin Microbiol*. 2010;48:2595-8.