

# PHOTOTHERAPY

**Overview** — Phototherapy, using light of specific wavelengths and doses, is considered safe and effective for reducing plasma bilirubin (TB) levels based upon its extensive use in millions of infants over six decades. The most commonly used green light wavelength range (425 to 475 nm) that reduces TB, it also contains the harmful ultraviolet (UV) radiation (risk of sunburn and potential for skin malignancies. Therefore, unfiltered sunlight should not be used for phototherapy (see below.)

Phototherapy, using approved light sources, is the most commonly used treatment for neonatal hyperbilirubinemia (micromol/L) [1]. However, there is growing concern that phototherapy may be overprescribed and its potential harm exceeds its potential benefit. There is some evidence that there may be long-term adverse effects. Inappropriate use may unnecessarily prolong birth hospitalization and impede maternal bonding. Phototherapy must be treated like any other medication and administered using regulated and approved devices. Appropriate and correct dosing of phototherapy based on a risk/benefit assessment for each infant is essential for phototherapy. (See "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in term and late preterm infants: Epidemiology and clinical manifestations](#)" and "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in term and late preterm infants: on risk severity assessment](#)".)

**Efficacy** — Phototherapy reduces TB concentrations and decreases the trajectory or burden of hyperbilirubinemia, regardless of the patient's ethnicity or the etiology of the hyperbilirubinemia. Phototherapy prevents the TB from rising to a level at which exchange transfusion is recommended. It also prevents the development of chronic bilirubin encephalopathy (CBE), previously referred to as kernicterus. The indications for phototherapy are generally considered to be well below those at which bilirubin neurotoxicity occurs. (See "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in term and late preterm infants: Epidemiology and clinical manifestations](#)".)

Effective phototherapy results in a decline of TB of at least 2 to 3 mg/dL (34 to 51 micromol/L) measured as soon as two hours after initiation of treatment. Twenty-four hours of phototherapy results in a 50% decrease in initial TB levels [14-16]. (See '[Dosing](#)' below.)

**Dosing** — The rate of declining TB is dose-dependent and based on the amount of phototherapy the infant is exposed to the light [1]. In turn, the amount of irradiance (measured as microW/cm<sup>2</sup>) depends upon the light source used (wavelength, bandwidth, and intensity), the distance of the light source from the exposed BSA of the infant. The product of the irradiance and BSA is known as the specific dose of phototherapy provided [3]. Under standard phototherapy, an infant is exposed to an irradiance of 30-40 microW/cm<sup>2</sup>. The 2004 American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) Guideline primarily focused on preventing the development of CBE (342 micromol/L), rapidly rising TB levels or if TB >25 mg/dL (428 micromol/L), intensity of phototherapy should be increased to 40-50 microW/cm<sup>2</sup>.

For TB levels >20 mg/dL (342 micromol/L), phototherapy should be administered continuously. Phototherapy can be interrupted for feeding and/or parental holding. The use of fiber-optic blankets is discussed below.

**Intensive phototherapy ("crash-cart" phototherapy)** — Intensive phototherapy (also called "crash-cart" phototherapy) is used for infants with severe hemolysis, poor responses to standard phototherapy, TB levels close to the exchange transfusion threshold, or a time period needed to set up for the exchange transfusion [1]. Intensive therapy could be used for infants with TB levels >20 mg/dL (ABE) and may avoid the need for exchange transfusion. This approach should also be used for infants with TB levels not known or are pending. Intensive phototherapy uses higher levels of irradiance. An irradiance of 30 microW/cm<sup>2</sup>/nm can be used in term infants [gestational age (GA) ≥37 weeks]) with exposure of as much of an infant's BSA as possible with a combination of available devices, and/or in the form of a fiber-optic blanket, pad/mattress, or special blue lights placed below the infant. Another option is the use of fiber-optic blankets that it provides increased efficacy [17].

**Light sources and devices** — Although several light sources are available for phototherapy, blue LEDs are considered the safest and most efficacious [19,20]. Other alternate light sources include fluorescent lights. If fluorescent lighting is temporarily suspended, LED-based pads/mattresses or fiberoptic blankets can be used.

- **Blue LEDs** – Blue LEDs uses high-intensity gallium nitride gas that emits light at a wavelength of 460 nm, which is in the absorption spectrum of bilirubin and do not emit UV light [19,20]. Reviews of the literature have identified blue LEDs as the safest and most effective [19,20]. A subsequent trial in extreme prematurity found that the absolute and relative decrease of TB during the first 24 hours of life was similar for blue LEDs, fluorescent blue lights, and then fiberoptic blankets [23]. (See "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in the newborn \(>37 weeks gestation\)](#)", [section on 'Initiation of phototherapy'](#).)

LED-based mattresses are preferable to fiberoptic pads because they are large enough to cover the entire body of the infant.

- **Fiberoptic blankets or pads** – Fiberoptic blankets or pads generate little heat and low irradiances than fluorescent lights [14]. However, blankets are typically small and may not cover the entire body of term infants. They can be used as an adjunct to overhead lights. Fiberoptic blankets should be used with caution to minimize risk of skin breakdown.

## Sunlight exposure

- **Direct sunlight** — Although exposure to sunlight is known to lower TB levels [24], direct sunlight is **not** recommended as a therapeutic option to prevent hyperbilirubinemia (TB >20 mg/dL).

phototherapy to assess its effectiveness.

- For infants who required phototherapy during the birth hospitalization, TB levels should be measured after phototherapy.

If TB levels have effectively declined, subsequent measurements can be obtained even if the infant was not receiving phototherapy based on the subsequent measurements with intensifying dosing with inadequate response or with an adequate response.

If, despite intensive phototherapy, TB levels are at or approach the threshold for exchange transfusion, a blood type and cross-match. In addition, if exchange transfusion is being considered, serum albumin (total and free) and plasma) bilirubin/albumin (B/A) ratio can be calculated and used in conjunction with the TB level to determine the need for exchange transfusion. (See "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in term and late preterm infants: A clinical practice guideline for intervention based on risk severity assessment](#)" and "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in the newborn infant 65 to 94 days of age: A clinical practice guideline on 'Exchange transfusion'](#).)

**Hydration** — It is important to maintain adequate hydration and urine output during phototherapy. The primary principal mechanism by which phototherapy reduces TB levels. Thus, during phototherapy, the infant should be kept hydrated. For TB levels that approach the exchange transfusion level, phototherapy should be interrupted for feedings. For TB levels > 20 mg/dL (342 micromol/L), and LED mattress or fiberoptic blankets/pads can be used. If the infant is not receiving enteral nutrition at the threshold, phototherapy can be interrupted for feedings. Enteral nutrition with phototherapy can be interrupted for feedings to enterohepatic circulation.

There is no evidence that intravenous (IV) fluid supplementation provides significant benefit. However, IV hydration is a potential option to correct for dehydration, hypovolemia, and electrolyte depletion whose oral intake is inadequate [1].

**Breastfeeding** — Breastfed infants whose intake is inadequate, who have evidence of hypovolemia should receive supplementation with human milk either expressed maternal milk or donor human milk. Formula may be used if these preferred sources of human milk are not available. If breastfeeding is not possible, formula should be used. (See "[Unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia in the newborn: Pathogenesis and etiology](#)" and "[Initiation of breastfeeding](#)", section on 'Assessment of intake' and "[Breastfeeding the newborn](#)".)

**Discontinuation** — We generally discontinue phototherapy:

- For infants who have been readmitted for phototherapy, when their TB levels are < 20 mg/dL (342 micromol/L).
- For those who required phototherapy during the birth hospitalization, when the TB level is < 20 mg/dL (342 micromol/L).



**Childhood cancer** — Concerns that neonatal phototherapy may increase the risk of childhood cancer (a concern of overprescription causing unnecessary exposure with potential adverse effects) is challenging to determine if there is a direct association between cancer and the recommended phototherapy (due to challenges of controlling confounding factors (eg, exposure to direct sunlight and other sources of light sources (some of which do not filter out UV radiation)). If phototherapy is a risk factor for childhood cancer, this concern of potential long-term risk of cancer serves as another reminder that phototherapy should be used judiciously.

Data that demonstrated an association between phototherapy and childhood cancer include:

- A retrospective cohort single network study of infants born  $\geq 35$  weeks GA between 1990 and 2000. Childhood cancer in children exposed to phototherapy compared with unexposed children. Overall rates were for any cancer (adjusted hazard ratio [aHR] 1.0, 95% CI 0.7-1.6), leukemia (aHR 1.9, 95% CI 0.6-6.9), and liver cancer (aHR 1.2, 95% CI 0.2-12).
- A study that used linked state-wide data from California with follow-up to one year. Infants diagnosed more frequently for infants with diagnostic codes for phototherapy compared with unexposed infants. For every 100,000 patients, relative risk [RR] 1.6, 95% CI 1.2-2.0 [41]. After adjusting for phototherapy, Down syndrome still remained for infants exposed to phototherapy at one year of age for overall cancer (aOR 1.6, 95% CI 1.2-2.0), myeloid leukemia (aOR 2.6, 95% CI 1.3-5.0) and kidney cancer (aOR 2.5, 95% CI 1.2-5.0). The risk of cancer was higher in patients with Down syndrome.

**Skin manifestations** — Data are conflicting regarding the association between phototherapy and skin manifestations. A review of studies that used blue light phototherapy (using broadband blue fluorescent lamps) reported an increased risk of melanocytic nevi in children and adolescents [42], other skin manifestations [43] and melanocytic nevi [43,44]. One of the studies reported there was an increased risk of melanocytic nevi [43].

**Unproven retinal effects** — Although the effect of phototherapy on the retina is unclear, retinal degeneration may occur after 24 hours of continuous exposure [45]. As a result, infants receiving phototherapy are covered to eliminate any potential exposure to light, including the risk of retinal damage. Primary infantile response and eye shades serve as additional aides for comfort and protection.

**No effect on childhood asthma** — There is limited evidence that moderate levels of phototherapy do not increase the risk of childhood asthma but phototherapy does not alter this risk [46].

---

## EXCHANGE TRANSFUSION

**Overview** — Exchange transfusion, an intervention with known risks, should be avoided.

of re-equilibration between extravascular and vascular bilirubin. Several studies have shown a positive response (BAER) in infants following exchange transfusion for hyperbilirubinemia [[51-](#)

**Procedure** — Infants who are close to meeting or meet the criteria for exchange transfusion are typically in the NICU or PICU. Urgent and intensive phototherapy (see ['Intensive phototherapy \("crash course"\)](#)) is initiated during the time period needed to set up for the exchange transfusion. On admission, a type and crossmatch and umbilical catheter are performed promptly, so that exchange transfusion, if needed, can be performed.

The procedure involves umbilical catheter placement and removing and replacing blood to replace approximately 80 to 100 mL/kg of the infant's blood volume. The infant's circulating blood volume is approximately 80 to 100 mL/kg (180 mL/kg) replaces approximately 85 percent of the infant's circulating red blood cells (from packed RBCs and fresh frozen plasma) blood. It is vital that reconstituted blood be given with adequate bilirubin binding, as packed RBC is inadequate and may potentiate ongoing bilirubin toxicity. Irradiated blood products should be used to reduce the risk of graft versus host disease. Irradiated blood products should be used to reduce the transmission of CMV in seronegative recipients. (see [on 'Red blood cells'.](#))

Infusion of albumin (1 g/kg) one to two hours before the procedure shifts more extravascular bilirubin into the vascular space, theoretically allow removal of more bilirubin, has not been shown to decrease the need for exchange transfusion. At our center, we do not administer albumin prior to exchange transfusion.

**Post-procedure management** — Following exchange transfusion, phototherapy is reinitiated and continued at the same therapeutic dose used prior to exchange. TB is measured and decisions are made dependent on the level of TB.

**Complications** — The risks of exchange transfusion result from the use of blood products (see ["Red blood cell transfusion in infants and children: Administration and complications"](#))

- Blood-borne infections
- Thrombocytopenia and coagulopathy
- Graft versus host disease
- Necrotizing enterocolitis
- Portal vein thrombosis
- Electrolyte abnormalities (eg, hypocalcemia and hyperkalemia)
- Cardiac arrhythmias

**Morbidity and mortality** — Because exchange transfusions are rarely performed, it is

(See '[Intensive phototherapy \("crash-cart" phototherapy\)](#)' above.)

- During phototherapy, infants should be placed supine in an open crib or bassinet covered by the diaper, and the eyes shielded with an opaque blindfold ([picture 1](#)). Irradiance dose are monitored throughout the procedure. (See '[Technique](#)' above.)
- Although several light sources are available for phototherapy, we suggest using blue light as prescribed to treat neonatal hyperbilirubinemia (**Grade 2B**). (See '[Light sources and phototherapy](#)' above.)
- For resource-limited areas where approved phototherapy devices are not available, fluorescent lights that remove ultraviolet (UV) and infrared light rays, be used to treat mild to moderate neonatal hyperbilirubinemia. (See '[Phototherapy in resource-limited areas](#)' and '[exposure](#)' above.)
- Common short-term adverse effects of phototherapy include hyperthermia, intertrigo, and erythematous rashes. Increased insensible water losses that are not replaced may lead to dehydration. (See '[Adverse effects](#)' above.)
- Because of the possibility of long-term adverse effects (childhood seizure and cancer), phototherapy should be prescribed only when target thresholds are not met. For preterm infants (GA <28 weeks), phototherapy should be prescribed only when target thresholds are not met. During phototherapy, there is ongoing monitoring of vital signs and hydration. (See '[Adverse effects](#)' above and '[Extremely preterm infants and mortality](#)' above.)
- Exchange transfusion is a potentially life-saving emergency procedure that acutely removes bilirubin. It is a rare, expensive, time-consuming procedure, which requires clinical expertise, exchange transfusion rapidly removing bilirubin. It is used to treat symptomatic infants with moderate to severe hyperbilirubinemia. It fails to effectively reduce TB in infants with or at-risk for developing severe hyperbilirubinemia. (See '[Exchange transfusion](#)' above.)
- Exchange transfusions should be performed only by trained personnel in a neonatal intensive care unit with full monitoring and resuscitation capabilities. Patients who are admitted after hours for exchange transfusion should be admitted to the intensive care unit to expedite care, bypassing the emergency room and avoiding unnecessary delay of therapy. (See '[Exchange transfusion](#)' above.)

Use of UpToDate is subject to the [Subscription agreement](#)

---

## REFERENCES

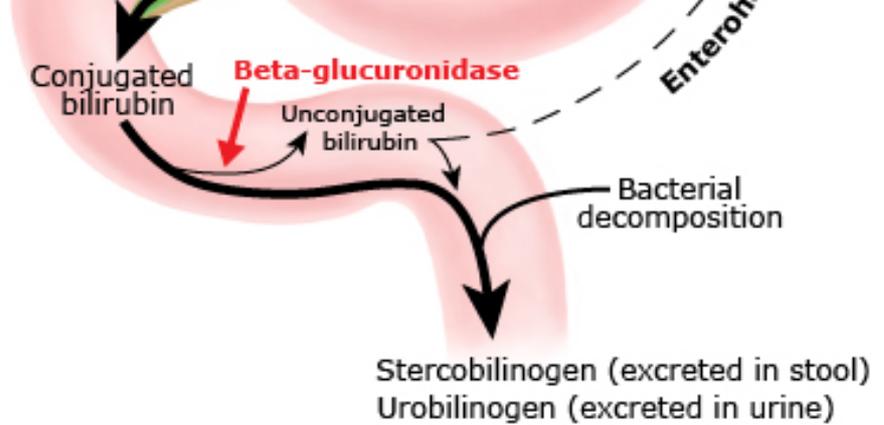
1. [American Academy of Pediatrics Subcommittee on Hyperbilirubinemia. Management of neonatal hyperbilirubinemia. Pediatrics. 2004;114\(5\):e283-291.](#)

12. [Ebbesen F, Andersson C, Verder H, et al. Extreme hyperbilirubinaemia in term and](#)
13. [Manning D, Todd P, Maxwell M, Jane Platt M. Prospective surveillance study of severe neonatal jaundice in Ireland. Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed 2007; 92:F342.](#)
14. [Holtrop PC, Madison K, Maisels MJ. A clinical trial of fiberoptic phototherapy vs conventional phototherapy in neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 1995; 95:914.](#)
15. [Garg AK, Prasad RS, Hifzi IA. A controlled trial of high-intensity double-surface phototherapy in neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 1995; 95:914.](#)
16. [Tan KL. Comparison of the efficacy of fiberoptic and conventional phototherapy for neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 1995; 95:914.](#)
17. [Bhutani VK, Committee on Fetus and Newborn, American Academy of Pediatrics. Guidelines for the management of hyperbilirubinemia in the newborn infant 35 or more weeks of gestation. Pediatrics 2004; 114:976-984.](#)
18. [Ennever JF, Costarino AT, Polin RA, Speck WT. Rapid clearance of a structural isomer of bilirubin by phototherapy. Pediatrics 1979; 79:1674.](#)
19. [Kumar P, Chawla D, Deorari A. Light-emitting diode phototherapy for unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia. Cochrane Syst Rev 2011; :CD007969.](#)
20. [Tridente A, De Luca D. Efficacy of light-emitting diode versus other light sources for neonatal jaundice: a review and meta-analysis. Acta Paediatr 2012; 101:458.](#)
21. [Vreman HJ, Wong RJ, Stevenson DK, et al. Light-emitting diodes: a novel light source for neonatal phototherapy. Pediatrics 2000; 106:1000-1004.](#)
22. [Seidman DS, Moise J, Ergaz Z, et al. A new blue light-emitting phototherapy device for neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 2000; 136:771.](#)
23. [Morris BH, Tyson JE, Stevenson DK, et al. Efficacy of phototherapy devices and outcomes in a tertiary care center observational study. J Perinatol 2013; 33:126.](#)
24. [CREMER RJ, PERRYMAN PW, RICHARDS DH. Influence of light on the hyperbilirubinemia of the newborn infant. Pediatrics 1971; 48:1000-1004.](#)
25. [Slusher TM, Vreman HJ, Olusanya BO, et al. Safety and efficacy of filtered sunlight for neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 2014; 133:e1568.](#)
26. [Slusher TM, Olusanya BO, Vreman HJ, et al. A Randomized Trial of Phototherapy vs Sunlight for Neonatal Jaundice. Pediatrics 2015; 373:1115.](#)
27. [Eggert P, Stick C, Schröder H. On the distribution of irradiation intensity in phototherapy for neonatal jaundice. Pediatrics 1995; 95:914.](#)

40. [Newman TB, Wickremasinghe AC, Walsh EM, et al. Retrospective Cohort Study of Pediatrics 2016; 137.](#)
41. [Wickremasinghe AC, Kuzniewicz MW, Grimes BA, et al. Neonatal Phototherapy and Pediatrics 2016; 137.](#)
42. [Oláh J, Tóth-Molnár E, Kemény L, Csoma Z. Long-term hazards of neonatal blue-light Pediatrics 2016; 137.](#)
43. [Mahé E, Beauchet A, Aegerter P, Saiag P. Neonatal blue-light phototherapy does not Pediatrics 2009; 123:e896.](#)
44. [Wintermeier K, von Poblitzki M, Genzel-Boroviczény O, et al. Neonatal blue light therapy Pediatrics 2014; 133:1519.](#)
45. [Messner KH, Maisels MJ, Leure-DuPree AE. Phototoxicity to the newborn primate Pediatrics 1987; 79:1000.](#)
46. [Kuzniewicz MW, Niki H, Walsh EM, et al. Hyperbilirubinemia, Phototherapy, and Pediatrics 2016; 137.](#)
47. [Steiner LA, Bizzarro MJ, Ehrenkranz RA, Gallagher PG. A decline in the frequency of Pediatrics 2007; 120:27.](#)
48. [Flaherman VJ, Kuzniewicz MW, Escobar GJ, Newman TB. Total serum bilirubin exchange Pediatrics 2012; 130:796.](#)
49. [Bhutani VK, Meng NF, Knauer Y, et al. Extreme hyperbilirubinemia and rescue exchange Pediatrics 2016; 36:853.](#)
50. Kaplan M, Wong RJ, Burgis JC, et al.. Neonatal jaundice and liver disease. In: Neonatal sh MC (Eds), Mosby, Elsevier Science, Philadelphia 2019. p.1788.
51. [Funato M, Teraoka S, Tamai H, Shimida S. Follow-up study of auditory brainstem Pediatrics 1996; 38:17.](#)
52. [Hung KL. Auditory brainstem responses in patients with neonatal hyperbilirubinemia Pediatrics 1986; 2:127.](#)
53. [Kuriyama M, Tomiwa K, Konishi Y, Mikawa H. Improvement in auditory brainstem Pediatrics 1986; 2:127.](#)
54. [Nwaesei CG, Van Aerde J, Boyden M, Perlman M. Changes in auditory brainstem Pediatrics 1984; 74:800.](#)



## EXCRETION



---

Schematic diagram demonstrating the production, metabolism, and excretion of bilirubin.

---

\*Physiologic mechanisms that reduce the movement of free bilirubin across the blood-brain barrier include binding to plasma albumin and rapid uptake, conjugation, and clearance by the liver. These protective mechanisms are less efficient in neonates (especially preterm infants) and individuals with inherited disorders of bilirubin conjugation. As a result, these patients are at risk for bilirubin-induced neurotoxicity.

---

*Adapted from: Hansen TWR, Bratlid D. Physiology of neonatal unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia. In: Care of the Jaundiced Neonate, Stevenson DK, Maisels MJ, Watchko JF (Eds), McGraw-Hill Companies, New York 2012.*

Graphic 121543 Version 4.0

CPAP: continuous positive airway pressure.

Graphic 116147 Version 1.0























