Nutrition in Paediatrics





Nabil El-Lababidi

Department of Paediatrics and Inherited Metabolic Disorders

First Faculty of Medicine, Charles University and General University Hospital in Prague



Importance of nutrition

Securing Securing of enough energy energy and and nutrients nutrients for for growth and immidiate use development Improving body Prevention of capability for nutrient fighting deficiency diseases

Basic components of nutrition

Water

Macronutrients

Micronutrients

Water

Makes up to 75-80 % of an infant's weight → higher daily water requirements → higher risk of dehydration development.

Daily water requirements in infants makes up to 10-15 % of their weight.

In comparison, water makes "only" 55-60 % od an adult's weight.

Daily water requirements in adults are 2-4 % of their weight.

Water

Age	Weight	Basal water
		requirements
Newborn 13.	Approx. 2,5-4	30-70 ml/kg/den
days	kg	
Newborn 428.	Approx. 2,6-4,5	90-150 ml/kg/den
days	kg	
Infants 16.	4,6-6 kg	150-130 ml/kg/den
months		
Infants 712.	7-10 kg	130-100 ml/kg/den
months		
Children up to 5	11-20 kg	1000 ml+ 50 ml/kg
years		above10 kg
Children older	>21 kg	1500 ml+20 ml/kg
than 6 years		above 20 kg*

Maximum recommended daily water requirements are 2500 ml/den.

Energy

Daily energy requirements varies based on age and physical activity.

Highest energy requirements are during the first year of life, moving between 80-120 Kcal/kg/day.

Energy requirements decrease by 10 Kcal/kg/day every 3 years until adult requirements of 30-40 Kcal/kg/day are reached.

Energy

- Energy consumption differs based on age.
- In newborns and infants:
 - 85-90 % is used for growth.
 - 5-10 % is used for thermoregulation and physical activity.
- In schoolchildren:
 - 50 % is used for basal metabolism.
 - 25 % for physical activity.
 - 12 % for growth.
 - 8 % is lost with sweat and stools.

Macronutrients

Proteins

Saccharides



Ideal macronutrients composition

Proteins: 9-15 %

Saccharides: 45-55 %

Fats: 35-45 %

Macronutrients

Nutrient	Energy content in kcal/g
Proteins	4
Saccharides	4
Fats	9

Atwater's macronutrients' energetic contents.

Recommended fats component of energy

	% of entire energy
Age	intake coming from
	fats
0-3 months	45-50
4-11 months	35-45
1-3 years	30-40
4-14 years	30-35
15-18 years	30 ^a

^a individuals with physical activity factor (PAL) >1,7 may require higher energy intake from fats

Nutrition of newborns and infants

Dairy nutrition in newborns and infants

Natural

Artificial

Mixed

Natural nutrition in newborns and infants

Maternal milk → breastfeeding.

Lactation



Breast gland prepares for lactation during pregnancy.

Creation of breast milk is influenced by oestrogens and prolactin.

Ejection of milk is controlled by oxytocin.

Starting the second trimester, a small amount of colostrum if being formed.

After delivery, progesterone levels decrease, along with oestrogen and HPL, but prolactin increases.

Prolactin levels increase after the first stimulation (maximum 45th minute).

Lactation reflex is started by suckling of the infant, also by his presence (crying).

Second phase of lactogenesis starts 30-40 hours after giving birth.

The feeling of full breast appears during the second of third day after delivery.



Creation of breast milk during pregnancy and the first days after birth is endocrine.

Afterwards, it changes into autocrine

Volume of breast milk after 1-2 weeks is 700-800 ml daily (450-1200 ml).

Lactogenesis phases



Composition of maternal milk

Composition of Breast Milk Water 86-88% Prebiotics 0.5-2% Vitamins & Minerals 0.2% Fats 4% Carbohydrates 7% Proteins 1%

Composition of maternal milk

Microbiota

Other

Microbiota

Brain

Energy

HUMAN MILK: AN ORCHESTRA OF BENEFITS 88% Water Oligosac-Fat / Nucleo-Living Cells Lactose Proteins Hormons Vitamins Minerals LCPUFA tides charides letabolites Immunity 0 Growth 0 **Gut Health**

https://www.nutriciaresearch.com/gastrointestinal-health/the-impact-of-early-life-nutrition-on-immunity-through-gut/

Signaling

Mood

Brain

Bone & Teeth

Blood

Energy

Composition of maternal milk saccharides

Main saccharide is lactose

Lactose amount is 6,7-7,8 g/100 ml.

Other than nutrition, lactose plays a role in maintaining a physiological GIT and composition of gut microbiota.

Glucose levels and its metabolised are very low in breast milk and their role in nutrition is negligible.

Composition of maternal milk- saccharides

• The second most important saccharides are Human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs).



Human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs) are a key constituent of human milk. They are a structurally and biologically diverse group of complex indigestible sugars (7, 8). To date, more than 200 different oligosaccharides have been identified, varying in size from 3 to 22 monosaccharide units (9).

Roles of HMOs



Diversity in structures and function of HMOS



3. Mucosal barrier maturation





4. Modulation of pathogen recognition



Ayechu-Muruzabal V, et al. Front Pediatr 2018

HMOs in maternal milk





HMOS in breastmilk

McGuire MK, et al. Am J Clin Nutr 2017

Composition of maternal milk - proteins

They are important in the growth and development of a child.

The main maternal milk proteins are whey and casein.

Whey: casein ration changes, in colostrum 90:10 and in mature milk 60:40.

The most important whey proteins: α-lactalbumin, lactoferrin and secretion IgA.

Composition of maternal milk - fats

Are the second largest macronutrient in maternal milk and make up to 50 % of energy intake.

Colostrum contains 2 g/100 ml and mature milk 4g /100 ml.

Maternal milk contains essential fatty acids linolic and α -linolenic acids.

Fats in maternal milk are better digested than in baby milk formula due to lipase content.

Composition of maternal milk – minerals and vitamins Vitamins levels depend on the maternal diet.

Under normal circumstances, maternal milk includes enough of both vitamins and minerals.

Vitamins D and K are the only exceptions.

Maternal milk includes only 40 IU/l of vitamin D \rightarrow supplementation with 400 IU daily is required.

Vitamin K has very limited placenta transportation → 0,5-1 mg i.m. after birth, or 1-2 mg p.o. 1x per week, for 12 weeks. Maternal milk composition – hormones and growth factors Maternal milk contains both hormones and growth factors.

E.g. IGF-I protects enterocytes against oxidation stress, stimulates erythropoiesis and increase haematocrit.

Vascular endothelial growth factor and its antagonists helps in regulating angiogenesis and decreases damage to the retina.

Erythropoietin increases erythrocytes numbers and helps in avoiding anaemia in premature infants and decreases the risk of NEC.

Maternal milk composition -Microbiota

Maternal milk includes bacteria, whicih are suitable for the infantile gut.

Bifidobacterium breve, B. adolescentis, B. longum a *B. dentium* are among maternal milk bacteria.

The aetiology of microbiota is unclear. Endogenous aetiology or from the maternal skin or infant mouth are considered.

Types of maternal milk

Colostrum

Mature milk

Colostrum

Is formed in small amounts a few weeks prior to delivery.

Has low fat and high protein content. Is also rich in immune contents.

Mature milk

In comparison with colostrum is more liquidy and bluish.

Quality of maternal milk changes during the day and even during one breast-feeding session.

"Front" milk is rich in water and has lower fat content.

"Back" milk is highly caloric and has a higher fat content.

Mature milk

Energy: 65-70 Kcal/100 ml

50 % fats

40 % saccharides

10% proteins
Advantages of breastfeeding





Support of breastfeeding

Bonding.

First attempt of breastfeeding within the first 60 minutes of life.

Rooming in.

Breast-feeding as often as the newborn requires.

Correct technique of breastfeeding.

Exprimated breast milk when Mom cannot breastfed.

Disorders of maternal milk production

From the infant's side: ineffective suckling.

From the maternal side:

- Endocrinopathies
- Insufficient development of breasts
- Surgical procedures on the breasts
- Caesarean section delivery
- Medications
- Maternal dehydration
- Insufficient support from the surroundings
- Obesity
- Stress

Contraindications of breastfeeding

Absolute	– Galactosemia.
	 HIV/AIDS (Human immunodeficiency virus/Acquired immune deficiency syndrome).
	 HTcLV (human T-cell lymphotropic virus I and II).
	 Drugs abuse (except for Methadone controlled administration in an HIV negative mother).
	– virus Ebola.
	 Medications: cytostatic, immunosuppressants, oestrogens, addictive substances (heroine, cocaine, amphetamine), alkaloids, lithium, radioactive isotopes therapy, gold salts.

Contraindications of breastfeeding

Relative – Phenylketonuria.

- Active tuberculosis.
- Herpes simplex infection of the breast.
- Herpes Zoster infection of the breast.
- Varicella (possible after drying of the maternal blisters, the infant should be administered and immunoglobulin (VZIG)).
- Cytomegalovirus in premature babies born prior to 32 weeks of gestation/weighing less then 1500 g.
- Hepatitis B (positive HbsAg and HbeAg and anti-HBe negative), the child could be breastfed after both passive and active immunization.
- Influenza $H_2N_{2.}$
- Radioactive isotopes.
- Medications: antidepressants, antipsychotics, Carbamazepine,
 Phenobarbital, Sulphonamide antibiotics, Chloramphenicol,
 Tetracycline, Metronidazole, Ebrantil.

Breastfeeding length

WHO recommends exclusive breastfeeding up to 6 months of age, with complimentary breastfeeding up to 2 years.

ESPGHAN regards breastfeeding up to 6 months as a preferred target.

AAP recommends breastfeeding till at least the age of one year.

Baby-milk formulas

- The majority is produced from cow's milk.
- Adaptation of cow's milk is necessary.

	Cow's milk	Maternal milk
Proteins	2,3-3,3 g/100 ml	0,9-1,2 g/100 ml
Casein	80 % of proteins	20 % of proteins
Whey	20 % of proteins	80 % of proteins
α–lactalbumin	25 % of whey	100 % of whey
β–lactalbumin	50 % of whey	5-800 µl/1ml

Cow's milk adaptation

Reduction of protein content.

Correction of casein-to-whey ratio. Partial replacement of animal fat with polyunsaturated plant fat.

Increment of lactose content.

Reduction of salt.

Increment of both vitamins and iron.

Comparison of maternal milk and baby-milk formula

	Colostrum	Mature milk	Baby-milk
			formula
Energy kcal/100	50–60	65–70	60–70
ml			
Saccharides	5,2 - 6,2	6,7 - 7,2	6,3-9,8
(g/100 ml)			
Proteins (g/100	1,4 - 1,6	0,8 - 1,2	1,26 - 2,1
ml)			
Fats (g/100 ml)	1,5 - 2,0	3,5 - 4,2	3,0-4,2

Classification of baby-milk formulas

Starter "1":

- Fully adapted.
- Up till 6 months of age, or introduction of complimentary feeds.
- Can be given till one year of age.

Continuing "2":

- Incomplete adaptation.
- From 6 months, or since complimentary feeds introduction.

Toddler formula:

- "3": 12-24 months.
- "4": 24-35 months.

Additives to baby-milk formulas

Prebiotics

Probiotics

Synbiotics

Postbiotics

HMOs

Prebiotics

Selectively fermented components, which cause specific changes in the composition and/or activity of gut microbiota with positive effect/s on the host organism.

They are resistant to acidic pH, are unhydrolyzable by mammal enzymes and are not absorbed in the GIT.

They are fermentable by gut microbiota.

Growth and/or activity of select gut microbiota is stimulated harnessing a positive effect on the host organism.

Prebiotics

Table 1. Prebiotics, their source^{8–10} and health benefits

	Prebiotics	Source	Health benefit
1	Inulin	Chicory, asparagus, onion, garlic, artichoke	Treating symptoms of inflammatory bowel disease, immunomodulation ^{11,12}
2	Fructooligosaccharide	Sugar cane, asparagus, sugar beet, garlic, chicory, onion, Jerusalem artichoke, wheat, honey, banana, barley, tomato and rye	Bifidogenic, immunomodulatory, anti-inflammatory, effective in reducing Crohn's disease activity ¹³
3	Galactooligosaccharide	Human milk and cow milk	Bifidogenic, increases calcium absorption, improves immunity ^{14,15}
4	β-Glucan	Cereal grains, mushrooms, algae and yeast cell wall, other marine plants	Decreases body weight, maintains body mass index ¹⁶ ; acts as an immunoadjuvant in vaccines ¹⁷ ; reduces the severity of upper respiratory tract infections, controls blood pressure ¹⁸
5	Xylooligosaccharides	Bamboo shoots, fruits, vegetables, milk, honey and wheat bran	Improves blood sugar and lipid levels in diabetes patients ^{19,20}
6	Arabinoxylooligosaccharides	Wheat bran	Improves digestive health, management of blood sugars and lipids, modification of immune markers ²⁰
7	Isomaltooligosaccharides	Starch	Controls blood glucose levels by stimulating insulin as well as the incretins ²¹

Prebiotics



Probiotics

Are live organisms, which when given in adequate quantities, have a positive effect on the body¹.

Microbes must be viable enough when given².

- Minimum of 10⁶ CFU/ml at exspiration³.
- Minimum effective dose 10⁸-10⁹ CFU³.

The used genus must be clearly defined².

Supported by sufficient, high-quality studies².

Probiotics have specific effects².

¹Reid G, et al. *Front Microbiol* 2019 ²Colin H, et al. *Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2014 ³Shi LY, et al. *Trop Life Sci Res* 2016

Probiotics

Probiotic genera	Probiotic strains	References
Lactobacillus	L. acidophilus, L. amylovorus, L. bulgaricus, L. crispatus, L. casei, L. gasseri, L. helveticus, L. johnsonii, L. pentosus, L. reuteri, L. paracasei, L. plantarum, L. rhamnosus	[<u>17, 18, 30</u>]
Bifidobacterium	B. animalis, B. breve, B. infantis, B. bifidum, B. lactis, B. catenulatum, B. longum, B. adolescentis	[<u>31–34</u>]
Enterococcus	Enterococcus faecium	[<u>35</u>]
Streptococcus	Streptococcus thermophilu	[<u>36]</u>
Lactococcus	Lactococcus lactis, L. lactis, L. reuteri, L. rhamnosus, L. casei, L. acidophilus, L. curvatus, L. plantarum	[<u>37]</u>
Bacillus	Bacillus clausii, B. coagulans, B. subtilis, B. laterosporus	[<u>38, 39]</u>
Pediococcus	Pediococcus acidilactici, P. pentosaceus	[<u>40]</u>
Propionibacterium	P. jensenii, P. freudenreichii	[<u>30]</u>
Streptococcus	Streptococcus sanguis, S. oralis, S. mitis, S. thermophiles, S. salivarius	[<u>36]</u>
Bacteroides	Bacteroides uniformis	[<u>41]</u>
Enterococcus	Enterococcus faecium	[<u>35]</u>
Peptostreptococcus	Peptostreptococcus productus	[<u>39]</u>
Escherichia	Escherichia coli Nissle 1917	[<u>38]</u>
Faecalibacterium	Faecalibacterium prausnitzii	[<u>42</u>]
Akkermansia	A. muciniphila	[<u>41]</u>
Saccharomyces	Saccharomyces cerevisiae, S. boulardi	[<u>43</u>]

Probiotics



Synbiotics

A combination of a prebiotic and probiotic acting in synergy with a positive effect on the host organism¹.

They improve the survivability and implementation of microbial nutritional additives causing stimulation of their growth or activation of metabolism of select genus or narrowly defined microbes' groups with positive effects on host organism².

Synbiotics



Raman M, et al. (2016) Synbiotics and Colorectal Cancer. In: Probiotics and Bioactive Carbohydrates in Colon Cancer Management. Springer, New Delhi

Synbiotics



Athiyyah AF, et al. Iran J Microbiol 2019

Effects of probiotics, prebiotics and synbiotics



Gurry T. Microb Biotechnol 2017

Postbiotics

Are functional bioactive components produced during fermentation.

They can positively affect the organism.

Is a term including all microbial fermentation products.

Postbiotics



Postbiotics



Rad AH, et al. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 2021

Baby-milk formula based on goat's milk Similarly to cow's milkbased formulas, they require modification.

They secure adequate growth, are well tolerated and safe.

Baby-milk formula based on soy protein Are not recommended for infants, mainly with congenital hypothyroidism.

Digestibility and biological value of soy protein is lower in comparison with cow's milk protein.

Can be recommended to vegetarians and vegans, when refusing cow's protein-based baby-milk formula.

Should not be confused with "soy milk".

Volume of required milk

First 7 days of life: Finkelstein formula, required amount of milk in ml = (n-1)*70-80. n = age in newborn in days.

Followed by 150-180 ml/kg/den.

Baby-milk formulas for specific situations Formulas for gastroesophageal reflux (GER).

Formulas for lactose intolerance.

Formulas for cow's milk protein allergy.

GER

GER: is involuntary return of gastric content in the oesophagus with/out the presence of regurgitation and/or vomiting.

"Physiological" GER is regurgitation with spitting in newborns and infants due to immaturity of antireflux mechanisms.

Gastroesophageal reflux disease(GERD): is GER associated with clinical discomfort, damage of tissue or both.

Physiological GER

Caused by immaturity of anti-reflux mechanisms.

Starts subsiding by 6 months of age.

Disappears between 12 and 18 months of age.

Treatment is with milk thickeners with an extract of Midsummer bread:

- In breastfed infants is added into exprimated maternal milk.
- In bottle-fed infants anti-reflux formulas, "AR".

AR formulas do not educe the absolute number of reflux episodes but decreases the number of visible ones.

Lactose intolerance

• Primary lactose intolerance:

- Extremely rare.
- Autosomal recessive (AR) inheritance.
- Manifests with severe diarrhoea after first feeding.
- When continuing feeds, rapid dehydration and severe metabolic acidosis occur.
- Can be confirmed genetically.

Lactose intolerance

- Secondary lactose intolerance:
 - In diarrhoea.
 - In food allergies and intolerances.
 - In immunodeficiencies.
 - In chronic intestinal inflammation.
 - In primary malabsorption syndromes.
 - In eosinophilic gastroenteritis.

Lactose intolerance

• Treatment:

• Low-/lactose-free formula.

Cow's milk protein allergy (CMPA)

CMPA is a reproducible immunologically mediated reaction, caused by contact with cow's milk.

CMPA is the most common food allergy in newborns, infants and toddlers.

Prevalence of 0,4-0,5 % of fully breastfed infants.

In 1,9-4,9 % of bottle-fed infants.

CMPA

Main allergens: α -lactalbumin, β -lactoglobulin and casein.

Sensibilization occurs by the GIT.

Goat and sheep milk are highly homologous, and a cross-reaction is very likely (up to 90 %).

CMPA

- CMPA mechanisms:
 - IgE-mediated.
 - Non-IgE-mediated.
 - Mixed.
CMPA

	Infants and toddlers	Rapid reactions within 2 hours since cow's milk consumption	
GI symptoms	Dysphagia		
	Regurgitations		
	Colic, abdominal pain		
	Vomiting		
	Loss of appetite, feeds refusal	Vomiting	
	Diarrhoea±loss of protein and/or blood with stools		
	Constipation + perianal exanthema		
	Faltering growth		
	Positive occult bleeding		
	Sideropenic anaemia		

CMPS

Respiratory symptoms	Runny nose Wheezing Chronic cough, not associated with infections		Wheezing or stridor Breathing difficulties
Skin symptoms	Urtica not associated with infections, medications or other causes Atopic eczema Angioedema		Hives Angioedema
General symptoms	Anaphylaxis FPIES	Anaphylaxis	Anaphylaxis FPIES

CMPA



To confirm the diagnosis of CMA and avoid overdiagnosis, an oral food challenge test is recommended after a short diagnostic elimination diet

Fully breastfed infant

Maternal elimination diet:

- Milk-free, dairy-free diet is sufficient in 90 % of breastfed infants.
- Supplementation by calcium, at least 1000 mg daily, is mandatory.
- Some infants require elimination of eggs.
- Soy elimination is less frequently required.
- Rarely wheat elimination.

Extensively hydrolysed babymilk formula AAP defines them as formulas with oligopeptides with molecular weight <3000 Da, BSACI <1000 Da.

They lead to CMPA symptom cessation in at least 90 % of newborns and infants.

Hydrolysed formulas based on rice protein Their advantage is total absence of cow's milk protein.

L-lysine, L-threonine and L-tryptophan need to be added in production.

Concerns regarding arsenic content were not proven.

Seems to be a safe alternative to extensively hydrolysed formulas based on cow's milk.

Amino acid formulas (AAF)

The formulas only contain single amino acids.

Required by 10 % of CMPA infants.



Baby-milk formula type	Primary indication	Secondary indication	Rare indication
AAF	Severe CMPA	CMPA with eHF intolerance	CMPA in a breastfed infant, who can't be breastfed anymore.
eHF	CMPA (in none breastfed infants)		
eHF with MCT	CMPA with malabsorption		
eHF with reduced	CMPA with diarrhoea due to lactose		
lactose	intolerance		
pHF	Not indicated		
HRF		CMPA with eHF intolerance	

Exposition to cow's milk protein

In IgE-mediated CMPA after antibody cessation.

In fully breastfed infants via maternal diet.

In infants fed with eHF by formulas with intact cow's milk protein.

In infants on AAF, start with eHF, followed by formulas with intact cow's milk protein.

Exposition to cow's milk protein • The milk ladder can be used in mild to moderate non-IgE mediated CMPA under the supervision of a medical professional or nutrition therapist.







iMAP MLÉČNÝ ŽEBŘÍK (cant.cz)

CMPA

- Prognosis:
 - Favourable.
 - Up to 50 % disappear by 1 year of age.
 - 80-90 % by 5 years.

Complimentary feeds

Complimentary feeds are food given to infants as a complement to their dairy diet.

ESPGHAN recommends complimentary feeds introduction between the completed 17th week of life (completed 4th months and the 26th week (completed 6th month).

WHO a WHA:

- In fully breastfed by 6 months.
- In bottle-fed infants after completion of the 4th month of life.

Conditions for complimentary feeds commencement

Milk is insufficient for the infant.

Psychomotor development permits spoon-feeding introduction:

- Upright head and neck position.
- Active interest in feeds.
- Start of eye-hand-mouth synchronization.

The 4th month is usually the milestone, when expelling reflex diminishes and the GIT and kidneys have matured.

Consistency of feeds

Pureed food to start with.

Followed by well squashed food.

Pieces, which can be held by the infant can be introduced after the 8th month.

Late solid food's introduction (after 9.-10. months) increase the risk of solids tolerance.

Order of complimentary feeds introduction

Monocomponent introduction.

Starting with vegetables, followed by vegetable-meat mixtures and ending with fruits.

Gluten should be introduced between the end of the 4th month of life and before the end of the first year.

All foods should be introduced by 12 months of age.

"Box" milk after the 12th month of life.

Feeding of toddlers and preschool children

Feeding of toddlers and preschool children Solid foods should form the majority of their dietary intake.

Milk volume of 250-500 ml or milk products equivalents should be given daily.

Food should be varied and rich in fibres.

Most common mistakes in feeding toddlers and preschool children

Monotone diet.

High intake of sweets, fried foods and sauces.

Insufficient intake of milk, vegetables and fruits

Bad food hygiene and habits.

Nutrition in puberty

Nutrition in puberty

Puberty has the highest energy requirements.

Teenagers influence their eating more.

Experimentation with food might occur.

Monotonous diet is possible.

They regulate their food.

They can develop feeding disorders.

Alternative diets

Alternative diets

Most commonly:

- Vegetarian
- Vegan
- Macrobiotic

Vegetarian

Excludes all types of meat, meat products, fish and crustaceans

Classification:

- Lacto-ovo-vegetarian, lacto-vegetarian, ovo-vegetarian.
- Flexitarian: sometimes consumes meat, fish or dairy products.
- Pescatarians: consume fish and animal products.

Vegans

Consumption of any meat, dairy products, seafood, eggs and honey is prohibited.

Fruitarians: consume only pulpy and dry fruits.

Macrobiotics

Is vegan diet with exclusion of some fruits and vegetables.

50-60 % of intake is from whole-grain cereals, vegetables, legumes, seaweed and fermented soy products.

Alternative diets

	Flexitarian/ Pescetarian	Lacto-ovo- vegetarian	Lacto- vegetarian	Ovo- vegetarian	Vegan
Mean	Sometimes/no	No	No	No	No
Fish and seafood	Yes/yes	No	No	No	No
Milk and dairy products	Yes/yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Eggs	Yes/yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Honey	Yes/yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

Energy:

- Most at risk ages: toddlers and teenagers.
- Follow-up of growth charts is mandatory.

Proteins:

- Digestibility of vegetable proteins is mostly lower than of animal proteins:
 - Soy and gluten: similar digestibility (> 95 %).
 - Whole grain cereals and legumes: 80-90 %.
 - The rest: 50-80 %.
- Vegans should consume more proteins than RDI.

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

- N-3 long-chained fatty acids:
 - In adequate quantities only α-linolenic acid (ALA) → eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) a docosahexaenoic acid (DHA).
 - Process is elongated and enzyme activity is variable.
 - Production of EPA a DHA is suppressed by high intake of n-6 linolenic acid.
 - ALA intake increment is recommended.
 - Reduction of linolenic acid intake is advised (sunflower oil).

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

- Vitamin B₁₂:
 - Inadequate intake is the largest issue in vegan diets.
 - Insufficiency manifests after:
 - 4-6 months in infants.
 - 1-2 years in teenagers.
 - In sufficient amounts is only available in animal products.
 - In plants can be present in some seaweed (nori) and shiitake.
 - Adequate intake in vegans can be achieved only by food supplements.

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

Vitamine D:

• Similar recommendations like in non-vegan children.

Iron:

- Plant non-hem iron has lower availability than hem iron.
- Iron absorption is increased with ascorbic acid.
- Is lower by phytates, polyphenols, tannins, calcium, zinc and copper.
- Fully breastfed infants of vegan mothers should have iron supplementation started by 4 months of age.
- Older children should receive more iron than the RDI and with increased vitamin C intake.

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

Calcium:

- Lower intake in vegans is caused by exclusion of milk and dairy products and by low biologic availability due to oxalates and phytates.
- Not only calcium quantity, but also availability should be evaluated (from spinach 5-9 %, from cauliflower, broccoli and cabbage 40-48 %.

Zinc:

- Absorption from plant diet is lower.
- Vegans should consume higher amounts than RDI.

Possible deficiencies when switching to a vegetable diet

Iodine:

- Plant food has low iodine amounts and depends on the type of soil, used fertilizers and food supplements.
- Iodine salt can be a source.
- Lower biologic availability due to strumigens (cabbage, soy, sweat potatoes).

Macrobiotic diet

Absolutely not suitable for children and can lead to both physical and psychomotor development disruptions.

In infants and toddlers, deficiency of energy, proteins, vitamin B_{12} , calcium and magnesium is documented.

Enteral nutrition

Enteral nutrition

Enteral nutrition (EN) is administration of pharmaceutically produced therapeutical products into the GIT.

Is the method of choice in patients at risk of or with developer malnutrition.

Requires a functional GIT.

Can be given orally, by a tube, or via PEG/PEG-J.

Indications:

TABLE 1. Suggested criteria for nutritional support (4,11)

Insufficient oral intake

Inability to meet $\geq 60\%$ to 80% of individual requirements for >10 days

In children older than 1 y, nutrition support should be initiated within 5 days, and in a child younger than 1 y within 3 days of the anticipated lack of oral intake

Total feeding time in a disabled child >4 to 6 h/day

Wasting and stunting

Inadequate growth or weight gain for >1 mo in a child younger than 2 years of age

Weight loss or no weight gain for a period of >3 mo in a child older than 2 years of age

Change in weight for age over 2 growth channels on the growth charts

Triceps skinfolds consistently <5th percentile for age

Fall in height velocity >0.3 SD/y

Decrease in height velocity >2 cm/y from the preceding year during early/mid-puberty
Specific indications

Neurologically disabled child

Cystic fibrosis

Preterm newborns and infants. Crohn's disease: Exclusive enteral nutrition (EEN).

Period surrounding surgery.

Contraindications

Absolute:

- Paralytic or mechanical ileus.
- GIT perforation.
- NEC.

Relative:

- GIT bleeding.
- Toxic megacolon.
- Peritonitis.
- Intestinal dysmotility.
- Intestinal fistulas with large secretions.
- Severe vomiting.
- Intractable diarrhoea.

Complications

Are rare.

Refeeding syndrome.

Nausea and vomiting, regurgitations and aspiration.

Frequent stools.

Pancreas irritation.

EN classification

Based on caloric intake.

Based on age.

Methods of administration

Orally, sipping.

NG/NJ tube.

Per PEG or PEG/J.

Method of administration





Peg and PEG/J

Laskavě poskytnuto MUDr. Véghovou–Velgáňovou, FN Olomouc

Feeds administration into tubes or stomas

Bolus or continual feeds.

Jejunal feeds are always continual!!!

Based on caloric content

Isocaloric: 1 ml = 1 Kcal.

Hypercaloric: 1 ml = 1,5-3,2 Kcal.

Hypocaloric: 1 ml = < 1 Kcal.

Based on age

For newborns and infants.

For children between 1 and 6 years of age.

For children older than 6 years.

For newborns and infants

Up to 8 kg or 12 months of age.

Isocaloric with intact protein.

Isocaloric with partially hydrolysed protein.

Isocaloric with extensively hydrolysed protein.

For children aged 1-6 years

In liquid or "yoghurt" form.

Isocaloric with intact, partially or extensively hydrolysed protein, with/out fibre.

Hypercaloric with intact or partially hydrolysed protein.

For children older than 6 years

Isocaloric with/out fibre.

Hypercaloric with/out fibre.

High protein content.

Without fat.

Parenteral nutrition

Parenteral nutrition

Parenteral nutrition (PN) is administration of nutrients (proteins, fats, saccharides, vitamins and trace elements) intravenously.

Indications:

Insufficient enteral intake (partial PN).

In afunctional GIT, e.g. SBS or intestinal failure (total PN).

Classification

Based on route of administration: peripheral or central.

Based on administration schedule: continuous or cyclic.

Based on composition individually made or commercially produced.

Energy requirements

Age	Acute	Stabilization	Recovery
	phase	phase	phase
0-1 years	45-50	60-65	75-85
1-7 years	40-45	55-60	65-75
7-12 years	30-40	40-55	55-65
12-18	20-30	25-40	30-55
years			

Composition of nutrients

Substrate	Percentage of energy intake
Proteins	10-20 %
Fats	20-50 %
Saccharides	40-60 %

Requirements of proteins and fats

Age	Proteins	Age	Fats
		0-1 years	2,5-3 (max. 15 g/kg/hour)
1 mont-3 years	1-2,5		
3-12 years	1-2	1-10 years	2-2,5
Puberty	1-2	Puberty	1-2

Goudoever JB, et al. Clin Nutr. 2018

http://nutritotal.com.br/pro/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/PN-DosingASPEN.pdf

Glucose requirements

Age (weight)	Acute phase	Stabilization	Recovery	
		phase	phase	
28 days - 10 kg	2-4 (2,9-5,8)	4-6 (5,8-8,6)	6-10 (8,6-14)	
11-30 kg	1,5-2,5 (2,2-	2-4 (2,8-5,8)	3-6 (4,3-8,6)	
	3,6)			
31-45 kg	1-1,5 (1,4-2.2)	1,5-3 (2,2-4,3)	3-4 (4,3-5,8)	
above 45 kg	0,5-1 (0,7-1,4)	1-2 (1,4-2,9)	2-3 (2,9-4,3)	

Liquids and ions requirements

	1 month -1 year	1-2 years	3-5 years	6-12 years	13-18 years
Liquids (ml/kg/day)	120-150	80-120	80-100	60-80	50-70
Sodium (mmol/kg/day)	2-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3
Potassium (mmol/kg/day)	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3	1-3
Chlorides (mmol/kg/day)	2-4	2-4	2-4	2-4	2-4

Vitamins requirements

	Infants	1-18 years
Vitamin A	150-300 µg/kg/day or 2300 IU/day (697 µg/d)	150 µg/day
Vitamin D	400 IU/day or 40-150 IU/kg/day	400-600 IU/day
Vitamin E	2,8-3,5 mg/kg/day or 2,8-3,5 IU/kg/day	11 mg/day or 11 IU/day
Vitamin K	10 µg/kg/day	200 µg/day
Vitamin C	15-25 mg/kg/day	80 mg/day
Thiamine	0,35 -0,50 mg/kg/day	1,2 mg/day
Riboflavin	0,15-0,2 mg/kg/day	1,4 mg/day
Pyridoxin	0,15-0,2 mg/kg/day	1 mg/day
Niacin	4-6,8 mg/kg/day	17 mg/day
Vitamin B12	0,3 µg/kg/day	1 µg/day
Pantothenic acid	2,5 mg/kg/day	5 mg/day
Biotin	5-8 μg/kg/day	20 µg/day
Folic acid	56 µg/kg/day	140 µg/day

Trace elements requirements

	0-3 months	3-12 months	1-18 years	Maximum dose
Zinc	250	100	50	5 mg/day
Copper	20	20	20	0,5 mg/day
lodine	1	1	1	
Selenium	2-3	2-3	2-3	100 µg/day
Mangan	≤1	≤1	≤1	50 µg/day
Molybden	0,25	0,25	0,25	5 µg/day
Chrom	-	-	-	5 µg/day

Complications

Related to i.v. lines

Metabolic:

- Overfeeding.
- Refeeding syndrome.
- Micronutrients deficiency.
- Incompatibility of some components.
- IFALD.

Rizikové faktory IFALD

Fig. 1 Risk factors for developing intestinal failure-associated liver disease. *CLABSI* central line-associated blood stream infection, *IFALD* intestinal failure-associated liver disease, *PN* parenteral nutrition, *PUFA* polyunsaturated fatty acid



Complications

- Metabolic:
 - Kidney disease.
 - Metabolic bone disease.
 - Growth failure.
 - SIBO.
 - D-lactic acid acidosis.

Refeeding syndrome

Refeeding syndrome (RS) is the sum of metabolic and electrolyte changes in malnutrient patients, in whom nutrition intake was renewed or significantly increased.

Hypophosphatemia is a landmark, hypokalaemia and hypomagnesaemia may be also present.



Food intake disorders, mainly mental anorexia.

Malabsorption (SBS, coeliac disease, Crohn's disease, cystic fibrosis).

Dysphagia (EoE, achalasia).

Neurological disease (CP, mental retardation).

Psychiatric disorders.

Postoperative conditions (complications, insufficient perioperational nutrition).

CAN.

Drug addiction, ethylism.

Oncological disease.

Chronic organ dysfunction (kidney, heart failure, liver cirrhosis)

Pathogenesis of RS



Diagnostics



Risk factors

	Moderate RS risk	High RS risk
	(presence of at least 2	(presence of at least one
	criteria)	criteria)
BMI (z-score)	z – score -2 up to - 2,9	z -score \geq -3
Weight loss	< 50 % of expected weight	< 25 % of expected weight
	gain	gain
Energy intake	5-7 days, energy intake <	>7 days, energy intake <
	75 %	75 %
Ions levels (K, P, Mg)	Low levels	Low levels
Loss of subcutaneous fat	Arm circumference: z-	Arm circumference: z-
and muscle mass	score -2 up to -2,9	score \geq -3
At risk diagnoses	Moderate disease	Severe disease

Clinical approach to RS

Evaluation of energy intake and ion levels.

Commencement of realimentation with 10-20 Kcal/kg/day, in infants 50-75 % energy intake.

Daily Thiamine 100-200 mg.

Full nutrition within 5-7 days.

Monitoring a patient with RS



Thank you for your attention!