



# NCC Pediatrics Continuity Clinic Curriculum: Nutrition II: Infants & Toddlers *Faculty Guide*



## Goal:

To understand the pediatric nutrition recommendations for *infants & toddlers* and to be able to translate them into practical, anticipatory guidance for parents.

## Pre-Meeting Preparation:

- “Infant & Toddler Nutrition” (*Excerpts from HealthyChildren.org*)
- “Standard Infant Formula and Formula Feeding. . .” (*Pediatrics in Review*)
- “Specialized Infant Formulas” (*Pediatrics in Review*)
- “Rice Cereal Can Wait, Let Them Eat Meat” (*Pediatric News, 2009*)
- **Be prepared to provide a case-example or FAQ related to Infant & Toddler Nutrition from your continuity clinic experience.** (Examples: formula switching, food allergies, picky eaters.) Discuss how you approached the case or question.

## Conference Agenda:

- Review Nutrition II Quiz
- Complete Nutrition II Case
- Round table discussion of *resident Infant & Toddler cases*

Post-Conference: Board Review Q&A

## Extra Credit:

Please review the following enclosures, related to the practical guidelines, above:

- ["Fruit Juice in Infants, Children, and Adolescents: Current Recommendations"](#) (*Pediatrics 2017*)
- ["Prevention of Rickets & Vitamin D Deficiency"](#) (*AAP CPG, 2008*)
- ["Vitamin D: Health Professional Fact Sheet"](#) (*NIH*)
- ["Effects of Early Nutritional Interventions on Atopic Disease"](#) (*Pediatrics, 2008*)
- ["Managing Feeding Problems and Feeding Disorders"](#) (*Pediatrics in Review, 2013*)
- ["Updates in Infant Nutrition"](#) (*PIR, 2017*)
- [Baby Food Safety Act of 2021](#)

## Infant Nutrition

Material adapted from: <http://www.healthychildren.org/English/ages-stages/>

**Breastfeeding:** See *Nutrition I Module*

**Formula Feeding:** See “*Infant Formula Choice Guide*” on next page

After the first few days, your formula-fed newborn will take from **2 to 3 ounces** of formula per feeding and will eat **every three to four hours** on average during her first few weeks. During the first month, if your baby sleeps longer than four to five hours and starts missing feedings, wake her up and offer a bottle.

By the end of her first month, she'll be up to at least **4 ounces per feeding**, with a fairly predictable schedule of feedings about every four hours. By six months, your baby will consume **6 to 8 ounces** at each of four or five feedings in twenty-four hours. On average, your baby should take in about 2.5 oz of formula a day for every pound of body weight.

**Initially it is best to feed your formula-fed newborn on demand.** As time passes, he'll begin to develop a fairly regular timetable of his own. As you become familiar with his signals and needs, you'll be able to schedule his feedings around his routine. If he becomes fidgety or easily distracted during a feeding, he's probably finished. If he drains the bottle and still continues smacking his lips, he might still be hungry.

There are high and low limits, however. **Your baby should drink no more than 32 oz of formula in 24 hours.** Some babies have higher needs for sucking and may just want to suck on a pacifier after feeding.

Between two and four months of age (or when baby weighs more than 12 lbs), most formula-fed babies no longer need a **middle-of-the night feeding**, because they're consuming more during the day and their sleeping patterns have become more regular. Their stomach capacity has increased, too, which means they may go longer between daytime feedings—occasionally up to four or five hours. If your baby still seems to feed very frequently or consume larger amounts, try distracting him with play or with a pacifier. Sometimes patterns of obesity begin during infancy, so it is **important not to over-feed your baby.**

### Vitamin Supplementation:

The current AAP recommendation is that all infants have a minimum intake of **400 IU of vitamin D per day** soon after birth. Breastfed infants need supplemental vitamin D. Prepared formula has vitamin D added to it; so if your baby is drinking at least **32 ounces**, supplementation is not needed. In addition, once your baby is one year old and on vitamin D milk, extra vitamins may not be needed. Please note that the NIH and the AAP now recommend **600 IU of vitamin D per day** for children > 1yr.

*(See "Vitamin D: Health Professional Fact Sheet" Extra-Credit article).*

A regular, well-balanced diet should provide all the vitamins necessary for both nursing mothers and their babies. However, pediatricians recommend that mothers continue taking a **daily prenatal vitamin**. If you are on a strict **vegetarian diet**, you need to take an extra **B-complex supplement**, since certain B vitamins are available only from meat, poultry, or fish. If your baby is on infant formula, he generally will receive adequate vitamins. *(See Nutrition III Module for Vegetarian Guidelines).*

If your baby is breastfed, there is sufficient, well-absorbed **iron** to give her an adequate supply so that no additional supplement is necessary. When she is between 4-6 months old, you should be starting baby

Note that per the above info, 32 ounces is the maximum recommended volume, so **most babies on formula do need vitamin D supplementation**

foods that contain supplemental iron. If you are bottle-feeding, all formula options contain sufficient iron

**Infant Formula Choice Guide** (adapted from CHOP Dept of Clinical Nutrition)

Patient	Feeding	Considerations
Premature infants	Breastmilk	- Feeding of choice (except: maternal substance abuse, HIV) - Fortify with HMF when at full volume feeds
	Enfamil Premature Lipil (Mead Johnson)	- Use for ELBW infants; higher in Vitamin A
	Similac Special Care Advance (Ross)	- Use if infant is osteopenic; higher in Ca/Phos
Premature close to discharge	Neosure Advance (Ross)	- Available as ready-to-feed 22 cal/oz or powder - Has 25% MCT
	Enficare (Mead Johnson)	- Available as ready to feed 22 cal/oz or powder - Has 20% MCT - Has slightly more Ca/Phos
Full term	Breastmilk	- Feeding of choice (except: maternal substance abuse, HIV)
	Good Start Supreme (Gerber)	- Whey PRO hydrolysate - Low renal solute load (use if breastmilk not available)
	Enfamil Lipil (Mead Johnson)	- Higher in DHA/ARA than Similac Advance - Whey:Casein ratio 60:40. Ready-to-feed 20 & 24 cal/oz
	Similac Advance (Ross)	- Lower in DHA/ARA than Enfamil Lipil - Whey:Casein ratio 48:52. Ready-to-feed 20 cal/oz only
Chylothorax	Portagen (Mead Johnson)	- Only indication: chylothorax/ chylous ascites - Has 85% MCT
Galactosemia Lactose Intol. Vegetarian	Isomil (Ross)	- Soy formula containing sucrose and corn syrup
	Prosobee (Mead Johnson)	- Sucrose-free soy formula
Full Term w/ 2 <sup>o</sup> Lactose Intolerance	Similac Lactose Free (Ross)	- Lactose-free cow's milk based - Whey:Casein ratio 20:80 - NOT for preterm infants
Cow's Milk Protein Allergy	Similac Expert Care Alimentum (Ross)	- Protein:Casein hydrolysate - Contains sucrose (sweeter taste) - Lactose free
	Nutramigen (Mead Johnson)	- Protein:Casein hydrolysate - Sucrose & Lactose free
	Neocate (SHS)	- Amino acid based (elemental) - Sucrose, lactose, soy, whey, and casein free (for severe allergy) - Use if patient is having heme-(+) stools on above formulas
	Elecare (Ross)	- Amino acid based (elemental) - Sucrose, lactose, soy, whey, and casein free (for severe allergy) - Use if patient is having heme-(+) stools on above formulas
Malabsorption	Similac Expert Care Alimentum (Ross)	- Protein:Casein hydrolysate - Contains sucrose; Lactose free - Has 33% MCT - Available ready-to-feed 20 cal/oz only
	Pregestimil (Mead Johnson)	- Protein:Casein hydrolysate - Sucrose & Lactose free - Has 55% MCT - Available ready-to-feed 20 & 24 cal/oz
	Neocate (SHS)	- Amino-acid based (Elemental) - Use if pt has heme(+) stools on above formulas or fails to tolerate - Has 5% MCT (LCT may be trophic for short gut patients).
	Elecare	- Amino-acid based (elemental)

	(Ross)	-Use if pt has heme(+) stools on above formulas or fails to tolerate -Has 33% MCT (LCT may be trophic for shot gut patients) - 10% less CHO than Neocate
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### Water & Juice:

Until your baby starts eating solid foods, he'll get all the water he needs from breastmilk or formula. **In the first six months, additional water or juice is generally unnecessary.** After a bottle-fed baby is six months old, you may offer him water between feedings, but don't force it on him or worry if he rejects it. Breastfed infants generally do not need extra water if they are permitted adequate access to the breast for feeding.

Once your baby is eating solid foods, his need for liquid will increase. Getting your infant used to the taste of plain water is a healthy habit that will last a lifetime. **Juice is not recommended.** Most fruit juices do not contain any significant amount of protein, fat, minerals, or vitamins other than vitamin C. *(See Extra Credit—"Fruit Juice in Infants, Children, and Adolescents: Current Recommendations")*

### Introducing Solid Foods:

**Most babies are ready to eat solid foods at 4 to 6 months of age.** Before this age, instead of swallowing the food, babies push their tongues against the spoon or food, a reflex necessary for breast or bottle-feeding. In addition, by 6 months of age, most babies are able to sit independently. Finally, energy needs begin to increase, making this a good time to introduce solids.

**Start with simple, basic foods such as cereal.** You should add breast milk or warm formula to the cereal, mixing about 1 tablespoon of cereal with every 4 to 5 tablespoons of breast milk. Look for infant cereals that are fortified with iron, which provide about 30-45% of your infant's daily iron needs. **Newer guidelines recommend pureed meats as the first solid food, based on their high protein, iron, and zinc content** *(See "Rice Cereal Can Wait")*.

Here are some additional recommendations to keep in mind:

- Introduce your baby to other solid foods gradually. Good initial choices are other simple cereals, such as oatmeal, as well as vegetables and fruits. **There is no medical evidence that introducing solid foods in any particular order has an advantage for your baby.**
- **Start these new foods one at a time, at intervals of every 2 to 3 days.** This approach will allow your infant to become used to the taste and texture of each new food. It can also help you identify any food sensitivities or allergies that may develop as each new food is started.
- In the beginning, feed your infant small serving sizes—even just **1 to 2 small spoonfuls to start.**
- **Within about 2 to 3 months** after starting solid foods, your infant should be consuming a daily diet that includes not only breast milk or formula, but also cereal, vegetables, fruits, and meats, divided among **3 meals.**
- Pediatricians no longer recommend against giving eggs, fish, or other highly allergenic foods in the first year of life. There is no evidence that introducing these foods after 4 to 6 months of age determines whether your baby will be allergic to them, and in fact there is evidence to say that the opposite is true. *(See "Effects of Early Nutritional Interventions on Atopic Disease")*.
- When your infant is about 8 to 9 months old, give her finger foods or table foods that she can pick up and feed to herself. Do not give small infants raisins, nuts, popcorn, or small or hard food pieces that can be easily aspirated.

The need for such an interval is debatable.

## Toddler Nutrition

Material adapted from: <http://www.healthychildren.org/English/ages-stages/>

### Feeding Your One-Year Old

You'll probably notice a sharp **drop in your toddler's appetite** after his first birthday. It may seem as if he should be eating more now that he's so active, but there's a good reason for the change. His growth rate has slowed, and he really doesn't require as much food now.

Your toddler needs about **1,000 calories a day** to meet his needs, generally divided among **three small meals and two snacks** a day. Don't count on his always eating it that way, however, because the eating habits of toddlers are erratic and unpredictable from one day to the next. Your child's needs will vary, depending on his activity level, his growth rate, and his metabolism.

Remember that cholesterol and other fats are important for your toddler's growth and development, so they should not be restricted. Babies and young toddlers should get **about half of their calories from fat**. You can gradually decrease the fat consumption once your child has reached the age of two (lowering it to about one-third of daily calories by ages four to five).

By his first birthday, your child should be able to handle most of the foods you serve the rest of the family—but with a few **precautions**. First, be sure the food is cool enough so that it won't burn his mouth. Also, don't give foods that are heavily spiced, salted, buttered, or sweetened. These additions prevent your child from experiencing the natural taste of foods and may be harmful to long-term health.

Finally, your little one can still **choke on chunks of food that are large enough to plug his airway**. Keep in mind that children don't learn to chew with a grinding motion until they're about four years old. Make sure anything you give him is mashed or cut into small, easily chewable pieces. Never offer him peanuts, whole grapes, cherry tomatoes (unless they're cut in quarters), carrots, seeds (i.e., processed pumpkin or sunflower seeds), whole or large sections of hot dogs, meat sticks, or hard candies (including jelly beans or gummy bears), or chunks of peanut butter (it's fine to thinly spread peanut butter on a cracker or bread). Hot dogs and carrots in particular should be quartered lengthwise and then sliced into small pieces. Also make sure your toddler eats only while seated and supervised by an adult.

### Feeding Your Two-Year Old

By age two, your toddler should be eating **three healthy meals a day plus one or two snacks**. He can eat the same food as the rest of the family. With his improved language and social skills, he'll become an active participant at mealtimes if given the chance to eat with everyone else.

**Do not fixate on amounts and do not make mealtimes a battle.** Many toddlers resist eating certain foods, or for long periods insist on eating only one or two favorite foods. The more you struggle with your child over his eating preferences, the more determined he'll be to defy you. If he rejects everything, you might try saving the plate for later when he's hungry. However, don't allow him to fill up on cookies or sweets after refusing his meal, since that will just diminish his appetite for nutritious ones.

Offer him a selection of nutritious foods at each sitting, and let him choose what he wants. Vary the tastes and consistencies as much as you can. He may be more interested in healthful foods if he can feed them to himself. So, whenever possible, offer him finger foods (i.e., fresh fruits or raw vegetables other than carrots and celery) instead of cooked ones that require a fork or spoon to eat. Hard as it may be to believe, your child's diet will balance out over several days if you make a range of wholesome foods available and don't pressure him to eat a particular one at any given time.

Fortunately, your child's feeding skills have become relatively "civilized" by now. At age two, he can use a spoon, drink from a cup with just one hand, and feed himself a wide variety of finger foods. But while he can eat properly, he's still learning to chew and swallow efficiently, and may gulp his food when he's in a hurry to get on with playing. Continue to avoid the "chokable" foods, listed above.

Vitamin supplements are rarely necessary for toddlers who eat a varied diet. However, **supplemental iron** may be needed if your child eats very little meat, iron-fortified cereal, or iron-rich vegetables. Large quantities of milk (more than 32 oz/day) also may interfere with the proper absorption of iron. Your child should drink 16 oz of low-fat or nonfat milk each day. This will provide most of the calcium he needs for bone growth and still not interfere with his appetite for other foods, particularly those that provide iron.

A **vitamin D supplement of 600 IU per day** is important for children who are not regularly exposed to sunlight, are consuming less than 32 ounces per day of vitamin D–fortified milk, or do not take a daily multivitamin containing at least 600 IU of vitamin D.

### Feeding Your Three-Year Old

As a preschooler, your child should have a **healthy attitude toward eating**. Ideally, by this age she no longer uses eating—or not—to demonstrate defiance, nor does she confuse food with love or affection.

Despite your preschooler's general enthusiasm for eating, she still may have very **specific preferences**, some of which may vary from day to day. As irritating as it may be to have her turn up her nose at a dish she devoured the day before, it's normal behavior for a preschooler, and best not to make an issue of it. Let her eat the other foods on her plate or select something else to eat.

However, **encourage her to try new foods** by offering her very small amounts to taste, not by insisting that she eat a full portion of an unfamiliar food. Your job is to make sure that your preschooler has nutritious choices at every meal. **Keep giving healthy foods** to her even if she repeatedly turns up her nose at the sight of them. Before long, she may change her mind.

**Television advertising** can be a serious obstacle to your preschooler's good nutrition. Some studies show that children who watch over twenty-two hours of TV per week (over 3 hrs/day) have a greater tendency to become obese. Children this age are extremely receptive to ads for candy and other sugary sweets, especially after they've visited other homes where these foods are served.

### Feeding Your Four-Year Old

Between the ages of 4 and 5 years, you can start to gradually reduce the levels of fat that your child consumes. By serving her lower fat meals, you'll help keep her weight under control and lower her risk of heart disease and other chronic illnesses later in life. At this time, most of your family's calories (about 55% to 60%) should come from carbohydrates, with more modest amounts of fat and protein.

What kind of fat-reducing changes should you be making?

- Switch your preschooler from whole milk to skim or 2% milk. She should be drinking 2 cups a day of fat-free or low-fat milk (or equivalent milk products). Select grilled or broiled fish or lean meats. The advantage is that more quality protein is consumed and this develops a healthier habit for life.
- Serve cheese only in modest portions.
- Give your child whole fruit to meet her recommended fruit intake, limiting fruit juice consumption to no more than 4 to 6 oz per day (from ages 1 to 6 years). Remember, this is 100% juice, not juice drinks.
- For snacks, rely on low-fat choices like pretzels, fresh fruit, air-popped popcorn, or low-fat yogurt.
- When preparing food, use cooking methods like steaming, broiling, and roasting.



# Standard Infant Formula and Formula Feeding—Cow Milk Protein Formulas

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**AUTHOR DISCLOSURE** Dr Milbrandt has disclosed no financial relationships relevant to this article. This commentary does not contain a discussion of an unapproved/investigative use of a commercial product/device.

The number and variety of infant formulas have increased tremendously during the past decade. Although standard infant formulas make up approximately 75% of the infant formulas currently sold, the remaining include a variety of specialized formulas that are designed for specific medical indications or symptoms. This *In Brief* presents information on standard infant formulas, and a separate *In Brief* focuses on specialized formulas.

Despite the preponderance of evidence that human milk has a large variety of nutritional and nonnutritional advantages, the most recent data from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2015) indicate that only 79% of women will start breastfeeding their babies at birth, and by 6 months of age that proportion drops to approximately 19%. Based on the birth of approximately 4,000,000 infants during the time of data collection, nearly 1,000,000 infants were fed formula from birth and more than 3,000,000 received at least some formula by 6 months of age. The large number of formula choices available to families can be confusing. Thus, pediatricians should have a good working knowledge of the infant formula products available on the market, any benefits and/or ramifications from specific formula choices, as well as the knowledge to identify the small percentage of infants who might require a specialized infant formula.

The use of alternatives to human milk dates back to 4,000 years ago. Over time, the most commonly used substitute was cow milk, but a variety of different animal milks have been used, including sheep, goat, and camel, based on availability. In the late 18th century, scientific interest led to the comparison of the composition of human milk with that of a variety of different animal milks. In the mid-1860s, chemist Justus von Liebig developed and patented the first infant formula based on cow milk, a powdered formula made from wheat flour, cow milk, malt flour, and potassium bicarbonate. Soon after this, and continuing for more than a century, many other infant formulas were introduced to the market.

The Infant Formula Act of 1980 authorized the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to ensure quality control of infant formulas. Based on American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) recommendations, a standard list of 29 nutrients was to be present in all infant formulas. In 2014, the FDA finalized a rule that set standards for manufacturers of infant formulas. These standards required manufacturers to prove that the infant formulas they produce support normal physical growth, to test for nutrient content in the final product stage and at the end of the product shelf life, and to undergo yearly FDA inspections at all facilities. Because both brand name and store brand infant formulas are subjected to the same standards, brand name infant formulas should not be considered superior to store brand formulas. Thus, parents may choose the significant cost savings of a store brand formula without hesitation.

**Breastfeeding and the Use of Human Milk.** AAP Section on Breastfeeding. *Pediatrics*. 2012;129(3):e842–e856

**A History of Infant Feeding.** Stevens E, Patrick T, Pickler R. *J Perinatal Educ*. 2009;18(2):32–39

**Infant Formulas.** Martinez JA, Ballew MP. *Pediatr Rev*. 2011;32(5):179–189

**Breast Feeding Report Card: United States/2014.** National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion. CDC website. Available at: <http://www.cdc.gov/breastfeeding/pdf/2014breastfeedingreportcard.pdf>. Published July 2014. Accessed May 2016.

**Choosing a Formula.** American Academy of Pediatrics. [Healthychildren.org](http://healthychildren.org) website. Available at: <https://healthychildren.org/English/ages-stages/baby/feeding-nutrition>

**Questions and Answers for Consumers Concerning Infant Formula.** US Food and Drug Administration. US FDA website. Available at: <https://www.fda.gov/80/FDAgov/ForConsumers/ConsumerUpdates/ucm048694.htm>

In standard infant formulas, the protein source is cow milk, lactose is the main carbohydrate source, and the fats are from a blend of vegetable oils. Standard infant formulas are available in powder or liquid concentrates to be mixed with a predetermined amount of water and as ready-to-use liquids, with caloric densities of 19 to 20 kcal/oz. Both the powder and concentrate preparations allow for the formula to be mixed with less water to provide a higher caloric density when needed. Iron is an essential mineral, and the AAP currently recommends that from birth to 1 year of age a standard, iron-fortified formula be used for all infants who are not breastfed. Although low-iron formulas are available, they should be considered nutritionally inadequate and are not recommended.

Because levels of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFAs), specifically, docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and arachidonic acid (ARA), had been found to be higher in the brains of breastfed infants compared with those formerly fed formula, LCPUFAs have been included in most marketed standard infant formulas since 2002. The addition of LCPUFAs is marketed as improving the visual development and neurodevelopment of infants. Although early meta-analyses did not support this claim, more recent studies examining infants fed with higher doses of DHA and ARA have reported benefits. However, because most randomized control trials do not support these claims, there is no recommendation for the routine supplementation of infant formula with LCPUFAs.

Because of parental perceptions of changes in bowel movements being a potential reason for formula changes, physicians need to be familiar with the difference in the feeding and stooling patterns of breastfed versus formula-fed infants. Infants who are formula fed generally take larger, less frequent feeds than breastfed infants. The stools of formula-fed infants tend to be thicker in consistency, darker in color, and less frequent than those of breastfed infants during the first few weeks after birth. Overall, the

volume of stool tends to be the same for breastfed and formula-fed infants. However, there is some variation based on the type of infant formula used. Specifically, infants fed hydrolyzed protein formulas have stooling patterns and stool appearance more like those of breastfed infants.

A variety of specialized infant formulas are also available on the market, with a significant number of new products available in the past decade. These will be discussed in an upcoming *In Brief* on specialized infant formulas.

**COMMENT:** Guiding parents through formula options is an important component of anticipatory guidance by primary care providers. Although it can be challenging to reassure parents that gassiness, minimal grunting with defecation, spitting up, and crying in the first few weeks after birth may be normal behaviors or symptoms in young infants, assisting families in these decisions is an important part of our job. However, families may not seek advice but instead make the changes on their own based on symptoms they have observed or advice from family members. I am reminded of 2 interesting studies that Dr Brian Forsythe and colleagues published. In the first study, published in 1985, his team interviewed a group of mothers when their infants were 4 months of age. They found that the mothers of infants who underwent formula changes were more likely to think that their infant had an intrinsic problem, such as an illness. When these mothers were again interviewed 3½ years later, those whose children were managed with formula changes for perceived feeding problems or crying were more likely to perceive their children as vulnerable (relative risk, 2.18; 95% confidence interval, 1.05–4.53). These studies raise concerns that benign formula changes may not always be innocuous and pediatricians need to seriously consider and identify infants who truly meet the criteria for a change in formula.

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## Specialized Infant Formulas

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**AUTHOR DISCLOSURE** Dr Milbrandt has disclosed no financial relationships relevant to this article. This commentary does not contain a discussion of an unapproved/investigative use of a commercial product/device.

As reported in a previous *In Brief* on standard infant formulas, there are many choices for both standard (cow milk protein formulas) and specialized infant formula products available on the market. It is, therefore, incumbent on the pediatrician to have a good working knowledge of the indications for and benefits of the use of specialized formulas. This *In Brief* addresses the topic of specialized infant formulas.

The first soy formula was marketed in the 1920s, and soy formula currently makes up most of the nonstandard infant formulas sold, which includes approximately 20% of the US formula market. Soy formulas contain soy as the protein, and the primary carbohydrate sources are glucose polymers, corn syrup, maltodextrin, and sucrose. Hence, all soy formulas are lactose free. Although the American Academy of Pediatrics generally supports the use of standard cow milk protein infant formulas as the formula of choice for those who choose not to breastfeed, there are a few circumstances in which soy formulas should be selected. Children with galactosemia and hereditary lactase deficiency need to eliminate lactose intake from their diet, and families seeking a vegan alternative want to avoid the cow milk protein. It is rare for infants to have significant lactose intolerance before 2 years of age, hence there is little evidence that soy formulas or lactose-reduced or lactose-free formulas reduce the symptoms of colic or stooling difficulties despite the perceptions of parents. Soy formula is not recommended for use in preterm infants with a birthweight less than 1,800 g because premature infants who have been fed this have had lower serum phosphorous levels, higher alkaline phosphatase levels, and an increased degree of osteopenia. Also, for infants suspected of having a cow milk protein allergy (CMPA), soy formula should not be used because 5% to 14% of those who have cow milk allergy also have soy protein allergy. Concerns have been raised about the potential effects of phytoestrogens and isoflavones, which are present in higher levels in soy formula. However, retrospective follow-up studies of adults who were fed exclusively with soy formula during infancy show no reproductive or estrogen-related consequences.

During the past decade, a variety of more specialized infant formulas have reached the market. These formulas claim to treat or prevent conditions such as fussiness, gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD), and atopy, among others. These formulas include those that may contain partially hydrolyzed proteins, carbohydrate blends that are lactose free or lactose reduced, thickeners, prebiotics/probiotics, or a combination thereof. The evidence is inconclusive as to whether these formulas make a difference for children with GERD or fussiness.

Formulas that contain partially hydrolyzed cow milk protein (PHFs) or extensively hydrolyzed cow milk protein (EHFs) are another group of specialty formulas. Hydrolyzed proteins consist of a combination of short-chain peptides and free amino acids. There is evidence that the use of EHF or PHF in high-risk infants (first-degree relatives who had allergy) reduces infant and childhood

**Infant Formulas.** Martinez JA, Ballew MP. *Pediatr Rev.* 2011;32(5):179–189

**Use of Soy Protein-Based Formulas in Infant Feeding.** Bhatia J, Greer F. *Pediatrics.* 2008;121(5):1062–1068

**Infantile Colic: Crying Time Reduction with a Whey Hydrolysate: A Double-Blind, Randomized, Placebo-Controlled Trial.** Lucassen PL, Assendelft WJ, Gubbels JW, van Eijk JT, Douwes AC. *Pediatrics.* 2000;106(6):1349–1354

**Questions and Answers for Consumers Concerning Infant Formula.** US Food and Drug Administration. US FDA website. Available at: <https://www.fda.gov:80/FDAgov/ForConsumers/ConsumerUpdates/ucm048694.htm>

allergy and atopic dermatitis compared with standard cow milk-based formula. There is no evidence that the hydrolyzed formulas are superior to human milk in preventing these conditions. True CMPA has an incidence of 2% to 5% in infants. Infants with a confirmed diagnosis of CMPA should be fed human milk or, if formula fed, EHF. A more severely affected group of infants, including those with non-IgE-mediated enterocolitis, failure to thrive, severe eczema, and/or symptoms during exclusive breastfeeding, may respond better to elemental/amino acid-based formulas than to hydrolyzed formulas that additionally contain short-chain peptides. Hence, if an infant does not respond appropriately to EHF, an elemental formula is next trialed. A small number of infants with colic do respond to hydrolyzed formulas, so a short trial of these formulas could be considered.

Formulas marketed to treat GERD include rice starches and/or other thickeners. The data are also mixed and inconclusive as to whether thickened milk is associated with reduced GERD symptoms such as crying and irritability. Prethickened formulas are not superior to the postmarket addition of cereals to standard infant formula or human milk. Owing to the recent concerns about arsenic in rice, and the prolonged exposure to rice cereals in infants that use thickened formulas, the American Academy of Pediatrics has made a recommendation to substitute oatmeal instead of rice cereal for postmarket thickening of formula or human milk. Commercial thickening agents should not be used owing to the association with necrotizing enterocolitis.

The addition of prebiotics and probiotics to some infant formulas is designed to more closely align the intestinal flora of formula-fed infants to that of breastfed infants. Specifically, most intestinal flora in breastfed infants consists of *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus*. Meta-analyses show that there is some evidence that the addition of prebiotics (nondigestible carbohydrates that promote the development of these bacteria in the colon) or probiotics (live organisms that colonize the colon) to infant formula may prevent the atopic conditions eczema and asthma. These bacteria seem to be an integral part of the development of the intestinal and systemic immune response. In addition,

they are believed to be a component of the development of protection against pathogen colonization in the gut and aid nutrient absorption. There is also evidence that probiotics may prevent necrotizing enterocolitis in very low birthweight (1,000–1,500 g) infants.

In summary, there are myriad infant formula choices available to families. During the past 15 years there have been significant strides by infant formula manufacturers to more closely mimic the gold standard, human milk. There are data to support claims of health benefits from some of these changes, but not for all. The pediatrician plays an integral role in navigating these choices.

**COMMENT:** Only a small proportion of infants truly meet the criteria to require a specialized formula. Pediatricians need to be knowledgeable about these criteria and provide accurate advice. Although it used to be relatively easy to know the components of specialized formulas based on their names (ie, soy formulas had soy in their name and those with hydrolyzed proteins were confined to a few brands, the more widespread incorporation of hydrolyzed protein in brand names that were previously standard formulas has made this confusing. Specialized formulas for reflux, gassiness, or fussiness may have modifiers such as gentle, sensitive, for spit up, etc.

Special formulas for preterm infants have been developed and used for infants in the NICU, although breastfeeding is always encouraged. These preterm formulas have a higher caloric density of 24 kcal/oz and contain higher amounts of taurine, whey as the predominant protein, medium-chain triglycerides, calcium, phosphorous, and vitamins A and D. Preterm formulas are usually discontinued at hospital discharge when the infant weighs between 1,800 and 2,000 g and is approximately 34 weeks' gestation. These formulas are then replaced with preterm transitional formulas that have caloric densities of 22 kcal/oz and are continued until 6 to 9 months of age. Dr Milbrandt's *In Brief* can serve as a helpful guide to pediatricians to navigate formula choices.

– Janet R. Serwint, MD  
Associate Editor, *In Brief*

## [“Rice Cereal Can Wait, Let Them Eat Meat First”: AAP committee has changes in mind](#)

There is no good reason not to introduce meats, vegetables, and fruits as the first complementary foods, according to Dr. Frank R. Greer, a member of the American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Nutrition. Introducing these foods early and often promotes healthy eating habits and preferences for these naturally nutrient-rich foods, said Dr. Greer, who is a professor of pediatrics at the University of Wisconsin in Madison.

Rice cereal has traditionally been the first complementary food given to American infants, but “Complementary foods introduced to infants should be based on their nutrient requirements and the nutrient density of foods, not on traditional practices that have no scientific basis,” Dr. Greer said in an interview. In fact, the AAP's Committee on Nutrition is working on a statement that will include these new ideas, Dr. Greer said in an interview. Currently, there are no official recommendations for introduction of complementary foods. “There are suggestions of what complementary foods to introduce in various AAP-sponsored publications, which are based on the traditional introduction of solid foods starting with infant iron-fortified cereals and progressing through vegetables and fruits.”

Complementary foods are any nutrient-containing solid or liquid foods other than breast milk or formula given to infants, excluding vitamin and mineral supplements. By 6 months of age, human milk becomes insufficient to meet the requirements of an infant for energy, protein, iron, zinc, and some fat-soluble vitamins (*J. Pediatr. Gastroenterol. Nutr.* 2008;46:99–110).

Rice cereal has been the first complementary food given to infants in the United States for many reasons, including cultural tradition. By the 1960s, most U.S. infants (70%–80%) were fed cereal by 1 month of age. By 1980, rice cereal predominated, as it was considered to be well tolerated and “hypoallergenic”—given growing concerns about food allergies, he said. However, newer thinking is that the emphasis for complementary foods should be on naturally nutrient-rich foods. This includes protein and fiber, along with vitamins A, C, D, and E and the B vitamins. In addition, saturated and trans fats should be limited, as should sugar, said Dr. Greer.

In light of this thinking, rice cereal is a less than perfect choice for the first complementary food given to infants, he said. Rice cereal is low in protein and high in carbohydrates. It is often mixed with varying amounts of breast milk or formula. Although most brands of formula now have added iron, zinc, and vitamins, iron is poorly absorbed—only about 7.8% of intake is incorporated into red blood cells.

In contrast, meat is a rich source of iron, zinc, and arachidonic acid. Consumption of meat, fish, or poultry provides iron in the form of heme and promotes absorption of nonheme iron, noted Dr. Greer. Red meat and dark poultry meat have the greatest concentration of heme iron. Heme iron is absorbed intact into intestinal mucosal cells and is not affected by inhibitors of nonheme iron from the intestinal tract. Iron salts present in infant cereal are generally insoluble and poorly absorbed.

Another issue is when to begin introducing complementary foods, said Dr. Greer. This varies by nationality. In Germany for example, complementary foods are introduced to 16% of infants by 3 months. A third (34%) of infants in Italy and half (51%) of infants in the United Kingdom are introduced to complementary foods by 4 months. In the United States, 18% of infants are introduced to complementary foods—cereal—by 3 months, 40% by 4 mo, 71% by 5 mo, and 81% by 6 mo.

Those complementary food choices for infants aren't always the most nutritious either. By 6 months, roughly a third of U.S. infants have been introduced to fruit (71%) and vegetables (73%), but only 21% have been introduced to meat. In a 2008 study in *Pediatrics*, researchers reported that 15% of infants have less than one serving of fruit or vegetable per day by 8 months of age (*Pediatrics* 2008;122[suppl. 2]:S91–7). In contrast, half of 10-month-old infants had eaten at a fast food restaurant, 22% had eaten carryout food, and 28% had eaten restaurant or carryout food at least twice in the previous week.

Early experiences promote healthy eating patterns, said Dr. Greer. It's known that food flavors are transmitted to breast milk; infants whose mothers eat fruits and vegetables during lactation will have greater consumption of fruits and vegetables during childhood (*Public Health Nutr.* 2004;7:295–302). It's also been shown that infants are more accepting of food after repeated exposure (*Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 2001;73:1080–5).

### **Don't Avoid or Delay Introducing Allergenic Foods**

Delaying or avoiding the introduction of allergenic foods during a critical window in the first year of life doesn't appear to prevent the development of food allergies and may even put children at increased risk, according to Dr. Greer. There is a lack of evidence to support food allergen avoidance in infants, he said. Any benefits appear to be largely in the first 3–4 months of life, when exclusive breastfeeding is of the greatest benefit for prevention of atopic disease.

Oral tolerance is an antigen-driven process and depends on regular exposure to food antigens during a critical early window. Allergen avoidance may be unsuccessful or detrimental in allergy prevention in infants, he said. There is some evidence that continued breastfeeding during new food introduction is beneficial in preventing atopic disease.

In 2008, the AAP recommended that complementary foods should not be introduced before 4–6 months and noted that there is no indication that delayed introduction of certain foods, including allergenic foods such as wheat, fish, egg, and peanut-containing products, protects against atopic disease (*Pediatrics* 2008;121:183–91). Likewise, the European Society for Paediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition (ESPGHAN) recommended in 2008 that complementary foods should be introduced between 17 and 26 weeks. The group also recommended against the avoidance or late introduction of allergenic foods such as wheat, fish, egg, and peanut (*J. Pediatr. Gastroenterol. Nutr.* 2008;46:99–110).

Most allergic reactions to foods (90%) are due to eight food types: milk, eggs, peanuts, tree nuts, fish, shellfish, soy, and wheat. However, studies generally have not supported a protective effect for a maternal exclusionary diet during pregnancy; a diet excluding cow's milk, eggs, peanuts, and fish has not been found to protect against the development of atopic disease in infants.

Dietary food allergens, including peanuts, cow's milk protein, and egg, can be detected in breast milk. In the majority of studies, especially those with follow-up beyond 4 years of age, there is no convincing evidence that restricting the maternal diet results in long-term prevention of atopic disease in infants.

## Nutrition II Quiz:

1. Complete this Feeding Chart:

Age	Foods	Serving Size	Feeding Tips
0-4 mo	Breast milk or Formula	On demand or <b>4oz x 6 feedings @ 1mo</b> <b>6-8 oz x 4-5 feedings @ 6mo</b>	-Max milk ~ 32oz/day -Vitamin D supplementation, 400 IU/day
4-6 mo	-BM or Formula -complementary solids w/Fe	-Same as above -1-2 Tbsps x 2/day	- Start solids at 4-6 mo, -Vitamin D 400 IU/day
6-8 mo	-BM or Formula -complementary solids w/ emphasis on iron-content	-Same as above - 2-4 Tbsps x2/day -2-3 servings/day	- Introduce cup? - Can add water (via cup) -- Vit D 400 IU
8-12 mo	-BM or Formula  -Purees + Finger foods	-On demand or 6-8 oz x 3-4 feedings (amt decreases) -2-4 Tbsps/serving -3 "meals" daily	-Watch for "chokables" -Drink milk only from cup @ 12mo -Switch to whole milk @ 12mo -Vitamin D 400 IU/day
12-24 mo	-BM or Formula -Finger/Table foods— all food groups	-On demand, or ½ cup = serving (~size of child's fist)	-Diet should be 50% fat -Vitamin D <b>600</b> IU/day

2. Complete this Formula Comparison Chart:

Class	Brand Names	Indications
Term Formula	Gerber Good Start; Enfamil w/Iron; Similac w/Iron	Appropriate for most infants
Preterm Formula	Enfamil 24 Premature; Similac 24 Special Care	< 34 wEGA; 24kcal
Enriched Formula	Enficare; Neosure (22kcal)	34-36 wEGA or ready-for-d/c
Soy Formula	Enfamil Prosobee; Similac Isomil; Good Start Soy	Congenital lactase deficiency; galactosemia
Hypoallergenic Formula	Similac Alimentum; Enfamil Nutramigen; Enfamil Pregestimil	CMPA; extensively hydrolyzed
Nonallergenic Formula	Elecare; Neocate; Nutramigen aa	CMPA; amino acids-based

### 3. Old School vs. New School:

Old School: Daily intake of 200IU/day of Vitamin D for all infants, children, & adolescents.

New School: Daily intake of **400IU/day** of Vitamin D for all infants. Please note **600IU/day for all children >1yr** (see Extra-Credit).

Old School: Start with cereal, then vegetables, then fruits.

New School: The type of first food **doesn't matter**. In fact, the AAP Handbook on Nutrition now recommends starting with pureed meats to decrease risk of iron-deficiency anemia.

Old School: Delay introducing certain foods.

New School: **No evidence** that delaying foods decrease the risk of developing allergies; in fact, the contrary may be true. Eggs, fish, shellfish, nut products (but not whole nuts) and citrus are fair game after 4-6 months.

4. How many times might a food be presented before a child will accept it? **8-15 times.**

## Nutrition II Cases:

### **Case 1: Toddler**

A father presents to your clinic with his 2-year old son, Bobby. The family has just moved from Colorado and the chief complaint on your clinic sheet reads “weight concerns”. In your chart review, you note that Bobby’s weight has tracked along the 5-10<sup>th</sup> percentile for weight, height, and HC since his 2 month checkup.

You reassure the father that his weight pattern is normal, but the father insists that Bobby is a “picky eater” and THAT’S why his percentiles are less than average. He says that he and his wife struggle to get Bobby to eat ANY vegetable; most fruits are also a struggle. As an example, they have introduced green beans “three or four times” in the past 3 months, but Bobby continues to refuse to eat them, which often results in disagreements and tantrums at the dinner table. They usually use dessert as a reward for “cleaning his plate”.

**What are nutritional “red flags” in this scenario? What further information would you like from this father?**

- Age = 2-years-old. Highest prevalence of “picky eaters” (47% males and 54% females in one study).
- Fruit & Veggie intake is low. Studies of picky eaters show that they are less likely to consume vegetables and fruits and more likely to eat sugary cereals and French fries.
- Novel food attempts: In studies of picky eaters, caregivers offered a food only 3-5x before deciding their child disliked it. A food must be presented between 8-15x before a child will accept it.
- Negative food interactions: Reported more commonly by parents of picky eaters. Struggles at mealtimes, leading to frequent food concessions to the children.
- Dessert as a reward: Studies have found a positive relationship between food controlling/ withholding and food rewarding strategies by parents and subsequent child overeating.

Other important information:

- The child’s nutritional history (e.g. Breastfed or formula-fed? When were solids introduced? What is the eating schedule—3 meals & 2 snacks vs. grazing throughout the day? What is his fluid intake?),
- The family’s nutritional history (e.g. Are parents overweight? Do parents have eating-disorders or food-controlling behaviors? What is the family’s eating schedule?)
- Any other past-medical history? Allergies?

You and Bobby’s father decide to undertake a plan to increase Bobby’s vegetable consumption.

**What would you recommend in order to get Bobby to eat his veggies?**

*See BOX in “Helping Preschoolers”.* Here are some tips for getting picky eaters to try new foods:

- Offer small portions of new foods along with your child’s favorite foods.
- Make food fun (e.g. Cauliflower Sheep and Ants on a Log)
- Encourage your child to use different senses to explore their food
- Keep a tasting chart
- Be a good role model



Studies show that presenting a novel vegetable in a positive, interactive manner increases the willingness of children to taste new foods (e.g. kohlrabi study- p.181). In additional play-based interventions were more successful than those that focused on nutritional qualities of food.

A more “controversial” approach is presented in the book [Deceptively Delicious, Simple Secrets to Get Your Kids Eating Good Food](#) by Jessica Seinfeld (Jerry’s wife!), which promotes hiding vegetable purees in otherwise appealing food (e.g. brownies).

### **Case 2: Infant**

You are seeing Mrs. Thomas and her now 4 month-old son (*from Nutrition I*). As you recall, mom is a 24 yo G1P1 who presented with concern for low milk supply, in the context of poor weight gain for her 7 week-old. Over the last 2 mo, she followed all of your recommendations for augmenting her supply: she double-pumped, power-pumped, took Fenugreek, drank Mother’s Milk Tea, and even tried a 3 week course of Reglan. However, she was unable to produce enough milk to satisfy her son. She presents today for his well-baby check and reports that at 3 mo she gave up breast-feeding, other than “comfort-feeds” at night, and is now formula feeding.

### **How do you respond?**

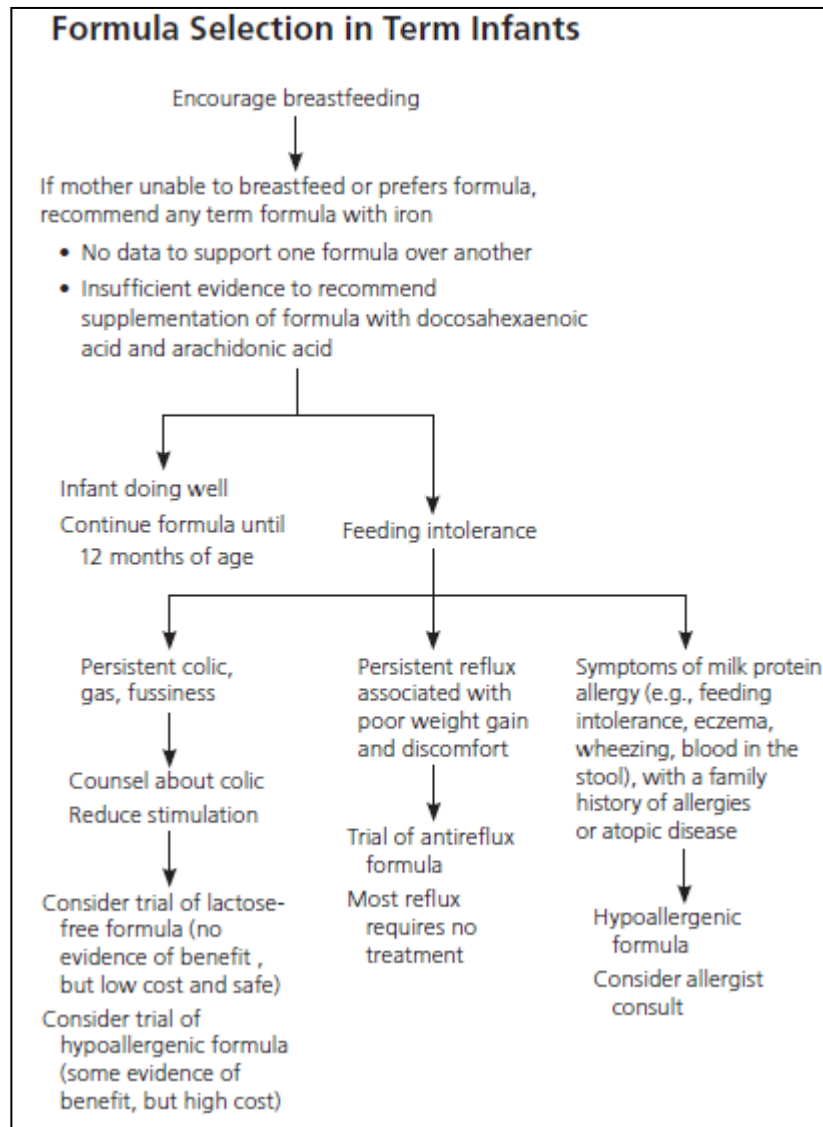
Answers will vary— Some clinicians may continue to encourage breastfeeding through 6 months. Most would argue that supporting a mother’s decision, regardless, is most important.

Mrs. Thomas tells you that the switch to formula feeding has not been much easier than her prior attempts at exclusive breastfeeding. She initially started with Similac with Iron, but that made her son “gassy”, so she switched to Enfamil with Iron. This caused “diarrhea”, so she switched back to Similac with Iron. The “gassiness” did not improve, so she switched to Similac Sensitive — on the recommendation of a co-worker. This formula caused “constipation”, so— after reading her favorite “Circle of Moms” Blog— she finally switched to Enfamil Prosobee. She’s not quite sure that this formula is working either, plus it is a little more expensive.

### **Now, how do you respond?**

Again, answers will vary to this all-too-common scenario. A good general approach is to clarify and attempt to normalize—if appropriate—the symptoms mom described (i.e. Is the baby really gassy? Really having diarrhea or constipation?). Then, clarify the true indications for all the different formulas mom has tried (e.g. Prosobee is for infants with lactase deficiency or galactosemia; Similac Sensitive is for infants with lactase deficiency; Enfamil and Similac products in the same class are similar, other than a slightly different whey: casein ratio).

In most cases, the infant can switch back to the most basic term formula, also the cheapest. The following Algorithm is from “Infant Formula” (AAPF, 2009):



After you confirm that the likelihood of an underlying enzyme-deficiency or IgE-mediated allergy (i.e. to milk protein) is low, Mrs. Thomas reluctantly agrees to switch back to Similac term formula. She then asks, “**Well, how much should he be getting and how often?**”

A ball-park number is 4-6oz x 4-5 feedings, with a max of 32oz/day. However, most providers try to avoid giving parents an absolute volume and frequency, and instead try to encourage for bottle-fed babies the same principles of “feeding on demand” that are taught for breastfed babies.

**Does Baby Thomas still need Vitamin D drops now that mom is no longer breastfeeding?**

Yes. Unless he is drinking at least 32 oz. of formula, he will require supplementation to reach 400IU. Also note that the NIH now recommends 600 IU/day for Vitamin D for all children, and adolescents >1 yr (*See Extra Credit*). This is equivalent to FIVE 8 fl oz. cups (40 ounces) per day! **So generally speaking, all people should be taking a daily vitamin D supplement.**

## Nutrition II Board Review:

1. You are counseling the mother of a 3-month-old breastfed infant whose family has been urging her to introduce cereals to her baby's diet. She asks your advice.

**Of the following, the MOST likely outcome of introducing solid foods at this age is to**

- A. accelerate the development of oral-motor skills
- B. help the infant sleep through the night
- C. increase the risk of food allergies
- D. increase the risk of gastroesophageal reflux
- E. increase the risk of gastrointestinal infections**

The most likely consequence of early (before 6 months of age) feeding of complementary foods such as cereals to breastfed infants is an increased likelihood of gastrointestinal infection. The direct relationship between early complementary feedings and the incidence of diarrheal illness is based on several case-control studies. In one investigation from Belarus, a large group of infants who were exclusively breastfed for more than 6 months was compared with a group receiving a mixed diet of human milk plus solids, with solids introduced between 3 and 6 months of age. Exclusively breastfed infants had a significantly reduced risk of one or more gastrointestinal illnesses. Furthermore, other observations suggest that this effect may be enhanced with greater duration and exclusivity of breastfeeding. However, prior studies have failed to show any clear risk reduction in the prevalence of upper and lower respiratory tract illnesses, asthma, and otitis media among exclusively breastfed infants compared with infants who received a mixed diet of human milk and solids.

No available evidence supports the hypothesis that the introduction of solid foods either accelerates the development of oral-motor skills or helps infants to sleep through the night. Data concerning the effect of early introduction of solids on the development of allergies are conflicting. The Belarus study found no reduction in risk for atopic eczema in exclusively breastfed infants; a Finnish investigation showed a reduced eczema risk at 1 year but not at 5 years in a similar group. Although the Finnish study demonstrated a small reduction in any atopic condition for exclusively breastfed infants, the results were not statistically significant. Evidence also failed to demonstrate that early solid food introduction was associated with an increased incidence of positive skin prick tests.

Results of obesity studies also are inconclusive. In exclusively breastfed infants, solid food introduction prior to 6 months of age generally is associated with reduced human milk intake without accelerated weight gain. However, formula-fed infants may be encouraged to consume the same amount of formula, even after complementary feedings are introduced. This may lead to increased calorie consumption and excessive weight gain.

Gastroesophageal reflux (GER) is the result of transient relaxations of the lower esophageal sphincter. Studies using intraesophageal pH probe monitoring data have shown that the reflux index (RI) (percent time that esophageal pH is less than 4) is significantly greater in infants (RI mean upper limit of normal: ~12) than in older individuals (mean: ~6). The addition of solids to the diet does not influence the time to resolution of clinical GER during infancy, although the frequency and severity of symptomatic reflux episodes may be reduced, at least in part, by thickening feedings or increasing solid consumption in appropriately aged infants.

The appropriate timing for introducing solid foods to the infant diet depends on development of both neuromuscular function and gastrointestinal maturation. The American Academy of Pediatrics supports exclusive breastfeeding for the first 6 postnatal months. However, from a developmental perspective, term infants often are capable of accepting solids (complementary foods) between 4 and 6 months of age. Maturation readiness to tolerate complementary feedings is indicated by loss of the extrusion reflex (usually by 4 months) and by the ability to swallow non-liquid foods. The most obvious risk posed by solid food consumption prior to reaching these developmental milestones is that failure to achieve oropharyngeal coordination may lead to aspiration.

2. During a routine health supervision visit, the mother of a 2½ month-old male infant tells you that the baby has been experiencing bloating and flatulence. His diet consists of 5 to 6 oz of a cow milk-based formula given five times per 24 hours. Because of frequent spitting-up, his mother recently added rice cereal to each bottle. He has two to three seedy stools per day. On physical examination, the baby is alert and vigorous. His length and weight are tracking between the 50<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles. The infant's mother asks you whether switching to a soy protein-based formula will help her baby's "gassiness."

**Of the following, the MOST likely the cause of this infant's symptoms is**

- A. cow milk protein allergy
- B. excessive energy intake
- C. incomplete starch digestion**
- D. lactose malabsorption
- E. sucrase-isomaltase deficiency

The infant described in the vignette has been given formula thickened with rice cereal to ameliorate spitting-up. Following the introduction of cereal, his mother has noted increased "gassiness." The most likely cause of this symptom is incomplete starch digestion.

Development of the digestive-absorptive function of the gastrointestinal tract is not complete at birth. The newborn can assimilate considerable amounts of complex carbohydrates through hydrolysis by salivary gland amylase until pancreatic function and small intestinal intraluminal pancreatic amylase activity mature. Nevertheless, until pancreatic maturity is achieved, and certainly in infants younger than 4 months of age, dietary starches may be hydrolyzed incompletely. As a result, increased amounts of undigested carbohydrate pass into the colon, where bacterial fermentation results in gas production that may cause the symptoms described for the infant in the vignette.

A diagnosis of cow milk protein allergy frequently is considered in the differential diagnosis of a variety of diverse gastrointestinal complaints. Symptoms that may be associated with cow milk protein intolerance include diarrhea, failure to thrive, hypoproteinemia, hematochezia, anemia, and vomiting as well as other cutaneous and systemic manifestations of atopy. The relationship between infantile colic and cow milk protein allergy remains highly controversial, particularly when fussiness or irritability is the sole complaint. For a thriving infant who develops vague gastrointestinal symptoms after the type of dietary changes described in the vignette cow milk protein allergy should be considered only after ruling out other, more likely causes, such as incomplete digestion of complex carbohydrates.

It is unlikely that the infant described in the vignette has excessive energy intake because his weight gain is not excessive, and thickening of the formula does not appreciably add to energy intake in an infant who is consuming 25 to 30 oz of formula per day. Lactase concentrations reach mature values in the small intestine by the 36th week of gestation in all healthy infants. Congenital or early-onset primary lactose intolerance is an extremely rare condition that is associated with severe diarrhea and inanition. It typically presents with voluminous diarrhea soon after the first feedings of human milk or cow milk-based formula. During infancy and childhood, secondary lactase deficiency may occur as a consequence of intestinal mucosal damage following a prolonged diarrheal illness, as a result of other intestinal disorders (eg, celiac disease), or in association with malnutrition.

Sucrase-isomaltase (SI) deficiency is the most common congenital disaccharidase deficiency. Diarrhea is a virtually universal symptom of SI deficiency and may be associated with poor weight gain. Symptoms usually appear in older infants following the introduction of sucrose containing foods, particularly fruits and juices. Infants who have SI deficiency also do not tolerate soy or protein hydrolysate formulas because both sucrose and glucose polymers are maldigested and malabsorbed.

3. You are addressing a group of new mothers regarding infant feeding. One asks you when an infant can be switched from formula to whole cow milk.

**Of the following, you are MOST likely to respond that whole cow milk**

- A. can be introduced at 6 months of age if an infant has significant gastroesophageal reflux
- B. can be given at 9 months of age if the infant is also taking a wide variety of supplemental foods
- C. may be given as a supplement at any age as long as the infant also receives human milk
- D. should be avoided until 12 months of age because its iron content is absorbed poorly**
- E. should be avoided until 2 years of age because its caloric content is inadequate for optimal growth

Iron-fortified formulas are the preferred nutrition for infants up to 12 months of age if a mother is unable or chooses not to breastfeed. These formulas contain 10 to 12 mg/L of iron, approximately 4% of which is absorbed by the infant. This amount of iron is sufficient to prevent iron deficiency in most term infants until 4 to 6 months. At this age, iron stores become depleted and supplemental foods, such as iron-fortified cereals, should be added.

The iron content of cow milk is approximately 0.5 mg/L, and although up to 10% of the iron is absorbed, it is inadequate to prevent iron deficiency, even if iron-fortified foods are added. In addition, cow milk may cause increased fecal blood loss in some infants, further exacerbating iron deficiency. Cow milk also has a higher content of protein and electrolytes, such as sodium and potassium, which results in a renal solute load that is too high for the infant kidney. For these reasons, cow milk is not recommended until 12 months of age. It is appropriate to switch to whole cow milk at this time because the caloric content (19 kcal/oz) is adequate for growth at this age, and the child's diet generally includes more iron-containing foods.

The introduction of cow milk does not prevent or treat gastroesophageal reflux and should not be recommended for this condition. Breastfeeding mothers wishing to provide additional nutrition because of inadequate milk supply or other reasons should be advised to use iron-fortified formulas for supplementation.