

Publication on

Child growth & development

The first few years of a child's life are characterized by rapid growth and development, which require a healthy and nutrient-rich diet. Adequate feeding and intake of essential nutrients are important during this critical period of growth and development for children to reach their full potential.



Window of opportunity

Optimal nutrition is vital in the early years, particularly in the first 2 years of life (WHO, 2009). During the early years, cognitive growth and development occur rapidly: the brain forms rapidly in utero and reaches nearly 80% of its adult weight within the first 2 years of life. Throughout this period, the brain undergoes rapid neurogenesis, neuronal proliferation and myelination (Tau *et al.*, 2010), all of which are dependent on optimal nutrition. Hence, proper nutrition during this period is crucial to the child's brain development (Nyaradi *et al.*, 2013). Besides the brain, a child's physical growth and development occur at a rapid pace: a newborn's weight is doubled after 3-4 months and tripled after 12 months (Thomson, 1998). Early nutrition has both direct and indirect effects on an infant's brain growth, development and immunity, which in turn impact the child's long-term cognitive performance and physical health (Hanley *et al.*, 2010). Research indicates that there is a lasting health impact of environment and nutrition during early life, from pre-pregnancy to early childhood (Koletzko *et al.*, 2017; Georgieff *et al.*, 2007). The World Health Organization (WHO) noted that the first two years are an important window of opportunity to correct any nutritional deficiencies (WHO, 2018). Among the long term effects of nutrition deficiency are stunting and wasting. As modifying risk trajectories in early life will have a large impact (WHO, 2018; Koletzko *et al.*, 2017), parents and paediatricians should pay close attention to the nutrition received by infants and young children.

* Stunting is the impaired growth and development that children experience from poor nutrition, repeated infection, and inadequate psychosocial stimulation. Children are defined as stunted if their height-for-age is more than two standard deviations below the WHO Child Growth Standards median.

* Wasting indicates in most cases a recent and severe process of weight loss, which is often associated with acute starvation and/or severe disease. However, wasting may also be the result of a chronic unfavourable condition.

Key nutrients

A well balanced and sufficient intake of essential macro- and micronutrients are important for growth and development. Key essential nutrients include protein, calcium, vitamin D and iron. Protein provides the essential amino acids needed to aid in the building and maintenance of body tissues, helps in tissue building, and height and weight growth (Puentes *et al.*, 2016). Calcium helps to support development of strong bones and teeth. Similarly, vitamin D plays a role in bone strength and the absorption of calcium (International Osteoporosis Foundation, 2001). Iron contributes to normal cognitive development and is needed to produce haemoglobin. Another example of important nutrients are long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFA), particularly n-3 fatty acids, that play a role in the visual, neural and behavioural development of the infant and child (Calder, 2018). Besides physical and brain development, nutrients also play a part in the immune system. The immune system gradually matures during infancy still leaving young children vulnerable to infections (Simon *et al.*, 2015). Research indicates that LCPUFA intake is associated with lower incidence of upper respiratory infections, common allergic diseases, as well as diarrhoea (Lapillonne *et al.*, 2014; Birch *et al.*, 2010). In addition, vitamin A contributes to the normal function of the immune system (Stephensen, 2001), whereas zinc, selenium, iron and copper are crucial for B and T cell function (Maggini *et al.*, 2007). Vitamin D modulates the innate and adaptive immune responses (Momentti *et al.*, 2018).



Growth standards

When given an optimal start, children from all over the world have the potential to grow in similar patterns. There are always individual differences among children, but across large populations, regionally and globally, the average growth is remarkably similar. Differences in growth of children up to the age of 5 are more influenced by healthy nutrition, a healthy environment and good health care, than by genetics or ethnicity. The WHO has published growth standards for infants and young children, and they are widely used across the globe. These standards are a robust tool to monitor the growth and nutritional status of children under 5 years of age, and can be used to assess children all over the world, regardless of ethnicity, socioeconomic status and type of feeding. Some examples of the WHO growth standards are the length/height-for-age, weight-for-age, weight-for-length/height and body mass index-for-age charts. (WHO, 2006)

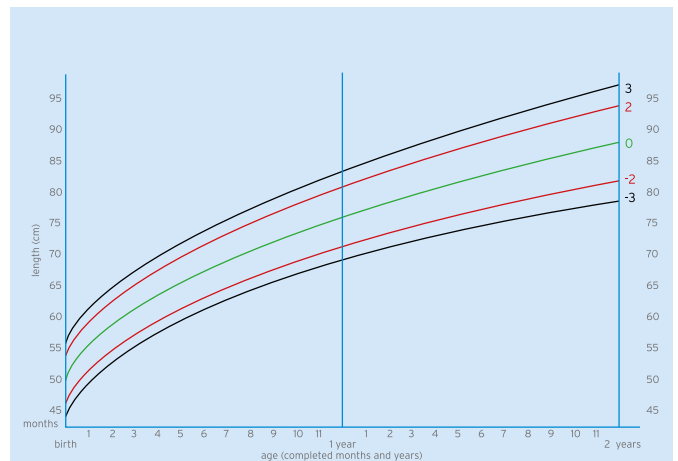


FIGURE 1: Growth standard 'Length-for-age' for Boys from birth to 2 years

Figure adapted from WHO Child Growth Standards

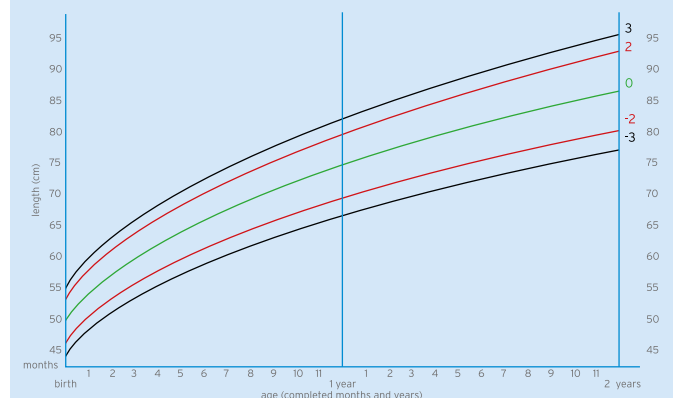


FIGURE 2: Growth standard 'Length-for-age' for Girls from birth to 2 years

Figure adapted from WHO Child Growth Standards

Nutritional status and intake of children in South East Asia

South East Asian Nutrition Survey (SEANUTS), a multicentre study, reveals insights on the nutritional status and dietary intake of 16,744 children between the ages of 0.5- 12 years in four countries in South East Asia; Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam. The survey revealed that the prevalence of stunting in children 0.5-12 years of age in these four countries was around 15%, with rural Indonesia having the highest prevalence (38.8%) and urban Thailand the lowest prevalence (4.2%). The prevalence of underweight varied between 6.4% for urban Thai children and 28.9% for rural Indonesian children. Moreover, SEANUTS also found a high prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency in all of the four countries, varying from 20% in Thailand up to 44% in Malaysia. (Nguyen *et al.*, 2013; Poh *et al.*, 2013 ; Sandjaja *et al.*, 2013; Rojroongwasinkul *et al.*, 2013)

Dairy

Milk is a natural source of essential nutrients like protein, calcium, potassium, phosphorus, iodine, vitamin B2 (riboflavin) and vitamin B12. In many Asian countries milk and other dairy products are fortified with vitamin A and vitamin D. Recent analysis of SEANUTS data shows that the prevalence of stunting and underweight was lower in children who consumed dairy on a daily basis (10.0% and 12.0%, respectively) compared to children who did not use dairy (21.4% and 18.0%, respectively). The prevalence of vitamin A deficiency and vitamin D insufficiency was lower in the group

of dairy users (3.9% and 39.4%, respectively) compared to non-dairy consumers (7.5% and 53.8%, respectively) ($p < 0.05$). This study suggests that dairy as part of a daily diet plays an important role in growth and supports a healthy vitamin A and vitamin D status in children 0.5-12 years in Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam. (Nguyen *et al.*, 2018). This association between dairy consumption and growth among children has also been found in earlier studies in Indonesia (Semba *et al.*, 2011) and Malaysia (Chen, 1989).

Conclusion

- Optimal nutrition is vital in the early years, particularly in the first 2 years of life. During the early years, cognitive growth and development occur rapidly.
- Dietary guidelines recommend a well-balanced diet including all major food groups for sufficient intake of necessary macro- and micronutrients.
- Research among children 0.5-12 years suggests that dairy as part of a daily diet plays an important role in growth and supports a healthy vitamin A and vitamin D status (Nguyen *et al.*, 2018).

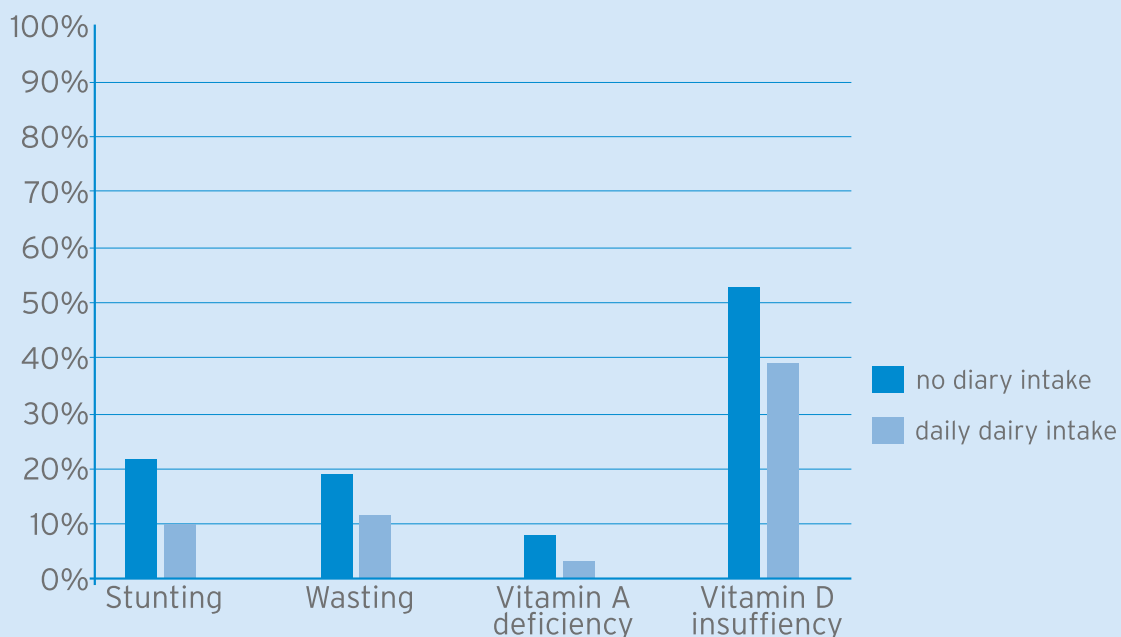


FIGURE 3: Health outcome and nutritional status of children (0.5-12 years) in Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Vietnam who consume dairy on a daily basis vs no dairy intake

References:

Birch, E.E. et al (2010) The impact of early nutrition on incidence of allergic manifestations and common respiratory illnesses in children. *J Pediatr* 2010; 156(6):902-906.

Calder, P.C. (2018) Conference on 'The future of animal products in the human diet: health and environmental concerns'. Plenary Lecture 3 n-3 PUFA and health: fact, fiction and the future. Very long-chain n-3 fatty acids and human health: fact, fiction and the future. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society* (2018), 77, 52-72

Chen S.T. (1989). Impact of a school milk programme on the nutritional status of school children. *Asian Pacific Journal of Public Health*, 1989; 3; 19-25. DOI: 10.1177/101053958900300104.

International Osteoporosis Foundation (2001). Invest in your bones. How diet, life style and genetics affect bone development in young people. International Osteoporosis Foundation, 2001. Zwitserland, Nyon.

Georgieff M.K. (2007). Nutrition and the developing brain: nutrient priorities and measurement. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 2007, 85(2):614S-620S.

Hanley B. et al (2010). Metabolic imprinting, programming and epigenetics – a review of present priorities and future opportunities. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2010, Vol. 104; S1-S25.

Koletzko, B. et al (2017). Long-Term Health Impact of Early Nutrition: The Power of Programming. *Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism*, 2017;70:161-169

Lapillonne A. et al (2014). Infants fed formula with added long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids have reduced incidence of respiratory illnesses and diarrhea during the first year of life. *BMC Pediatrics* 2014 Jul 2;14:168.

Maggini S. et al (2007). Selected vitamins and trace elements support immune function by strengthening epithelial barriers and cellular and humoral immune responses. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2007; 98(Suppl 1): S29-S35.

Momentti, A.C. (2018). Role of vitamin D in pregnancy and Toll-like receptor pathway. *Steroids* 137 (2018) 22-29

Nyaradi A. et al (2013). The role of nutrition in children's neurocognitive development, from pregnancy through childhood. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 2013, Vol. 26;7:97.

Nguyen B.K.L. et al (2018). The consumption of dairy and its association with nutritional status in the South East Asian Nutrition Surveys (SEANUTS). *Nutrients*, 2018, 13;10(6).

Nguyen B.K.L. et al (2013). SEANUTS: the nutritional status and dietary intakes of 0.5-12-year-old Thai children. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2013; 110: S45-S56.

Patterson E., et al (2012). Health implications of high dietary omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids. *Journal of Nutrition and Metabolism*, 2012; 2012: 539426.

Poh B.K. et al (2013). Nutritional status and dietary intakes of children aged 6 months to 12 years: findings of the Nutrition Survey of Malaysian Children (SEANUTS Malaysia). *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2013; 110: S21-S35.

Puentes et al (2016). Early life height and weight production functions with endogenous energy and protein inputs. *Economics & Human Biology*, 2016; 22: 65-81.

Rojroongwasinkul N. et al (2013). SEANUTS: the nutritional status and dietary intakes of 0.5-12-year-old Thai children. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2013; 110: S36-S44.

Sandjaja S. et al (2013). Food consumption and nutritional and biochemical status of 0.5-12-year-old Indonesian children: the SEANUTS study. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 2013; 110: S11-S20.

Semba R.D. et al (2011). Consumption of micronutrient-fortified milk and noodles is associated with lower risk of stunting in preschool-aged children in Indonesia. *Food and nutrition bulletin*, 2011; 32 347-53. DOI: 371 10.1177/156482651103200406.

Stephensen, C.B. (2001). Vitamin A, infection, and immune function. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 2001; 21: 167-192.

Simon, A.K et al (2015) Evolution of the immune system in humans from infancy to old age. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* 282: 20143085.

Tau, G.Z. and Peterson, B.S. (2010). Normal Development of Brain Circuits. *Neuropsychopharmacology REVIEWS* (2010) 35, 147-168.

Thomson JM (1998). Nutritional Requirements of infants and young children. Practical Guidelines, 1998. Blackwell Science Oxford.

World Health Organization (2018). Factsheet Infant and young child feeding. World Health Organization, 16 February 2018. Accessed in August 2018 via <http://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/infant-and-young-child-feeding>

World Health Organization (2018). Early child development – Nutrition and the early years. Accessed in August 2018 via <http://www.who.int/topics/early-child-development/child-nutrition/en/>

World Health Organization (2018). Stunting in a nutshell. Accessed in August 2018 via http://www.who.int/nutrition/healthygrowthproj_stunted_videos/en/

World Health Organization (2009). Infant and Young Child Feeding. Model Chapter for Textbooks for Medical Students and Allied Health Professionals. World Health Organization, 2009.

World Health Organization (2006). Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition: Child growth standards. 2006.

The FrieslandCampina Institute provides nutrition and health professionals with extensive information about dairy, nutrition and health following the most recent scientific developments. This information is solely meant for professionals and not for consumers, clients or patients.

Are you a nutrition or health professional who wants to know all about dairy, nutrition and health? Please contact the FrieslandCampina Institute to find out more.

www.frieslandcampinainstitute.asia
institute@frieslandcampina.com

Follow us on social media

 @FCInstitute_Int

 /FrieslandCampinaInstitute

Disclaimer

© FrieslandCampina 2018

Although the FrieslandCampina Institute has taken the greatest possible care in preparing this document, the information provided and/or displayed in this document may be incomplete or incorrect. The FrieslandCampina Institute assumes no responsibility or obligation whatsoever with respect to any printing, spelling, typographical or other similar errors of any kind in materials published by it.

Version August 2018