



Energy and protein requirements in children with CKD stages 2-5 and on dialysis

A Practical Guide

For Healthcare Professionals practising in Malaysia

Contents

Foreword	Page 3
Clinical questions	Page 4
Flow chart	Page 5
Summarising dietary management	
Step 1: Nutritional assessment	Page 8
Anthropometry	
Dietary assessment	
Biochemical assessment	
Step 2: Energy requirements	Page 9
Aims for energy intake in chronic kidney disease	
Step 3: Protein requirements	Page 11
Aims for protein intake in chronic kidney disease	
Step 4: Management of oral intake - fluid	Page 12
Fortifying expressed breastmilk	
Concentrating infant formula	
Protein energy ratio for optimal growth	
Addition of energy modules to formulas	
Step 5: Management oral intake - food	Page 16
Practical points	
Step 6: Nutritional support – oral supplementation	Page 17
High energy foods	
High protein foods	
Fortifying foods and drinks	
Step 7: Nutritional support – tube feeding	Page 22
Nasogastric and gastrostomy	

Foreword

The Pediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce (PRNT) is an international team of pediatric renal dietitians and pediatric nephrologists who develop clinical practice recommendations (CPRs) for the nutritional management of various aspects of kidney diseases in children.

In 2019, the taskforce published recommendations regarding energy and protein requirements in children with CKD stages 2-5 and on dialysis describing energy requirements in the context of poor growth, obesity, and different levels of physical activity, together with the additional protein needs to compensate for dialysate losses. The CPR describes how to achieve the dietary prescription for energy and protein using breastmilk, formulas, food and dietary supplements.

This booklet aims to provide a practical guide on how to implement these recommendations in every day clinical practice and should be read in conjunction with the published paper.*

* Shaw V, Polderman N, Renken-Terhaerd J et al. Energy and protein requirements for children with CKD stages 2-5 and on dialysis—clinical practice recommendations from the Pediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce. *Pediatric Nephrology*, 2020. 35: 519–531
doi.org/10.1007/s00467-019-04426-0
<https://www.espn-online.org/nutrition-taskforce/>

Question 1

What are the energy requirements?

Assessment of growth, intake and nutritional status
Requirements for optimal growth

Question 2

What are the protein requirements?

Requirements for optimal growth
Modifications for dialysis and uremia

Question 3

How is the nutrition prescription provided?

Dietary management: breastmilk,
formulas, fluids and foods

Flow chart

Summarising dietary management

Use the Suggested Dietary Intake (SDI) (Table 1) to formulate nutrition prescriptions and to assess adequacy of dietary intakes

Step 1: Nutritional assessment

For more details see page 8.

Assessment of nutritional status in children with kidney diseases - clinical practice recommendations

Step 2: Energy requirements

Suboptimal growth

Adjust energy towards the higher end of SDI range to promote growth when weight gain and linear growth are suboptimal

Normal growth

Initial prescription of energy intake should approximate that of healthy children of the same chronological age

Overweight or obese

Adjust energy intake, without compromising nutrition, to achieve appropriate rate of weight gain in those who require weight control

Step 3: Protein requirements

To promote optimal growth

Target protein to the upper end of the SDI
Protein intake at the lowest end of the SDI range is the minimum safe amount

Dialysis

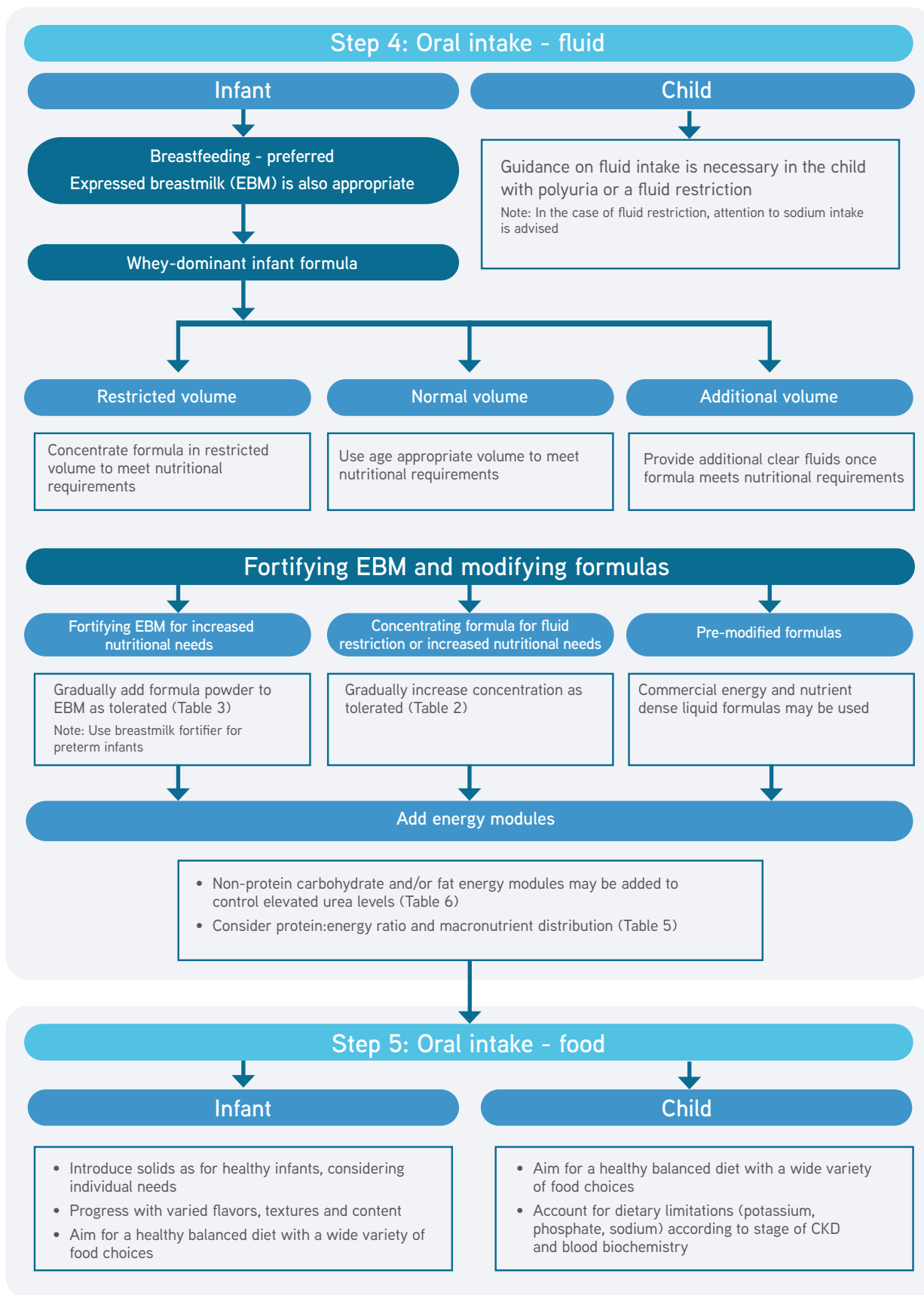
To account for protein losses in dialysate, the nutrition prescription for protein may need to be higher than the SDI

Persistently high blood urea levels

After excluding all other causes of high blood urea levels (catabolic state, acute or chronic dehydration, steroid therapy), the protein prescription may be adjusted towards the lower end of the SDI

Flow chart

Continued



Step 6: Nutritional support - oral supplementation

- Intervene promptly when there is a drop in weight centile
- Start oral supplements when dietary intake is inadequate

Fortifying foods

- Add glucose polymers to 'liquid' foods
- Add sugar, glucose, jams, honey or syrups to foods
- Add fats such as vegetable spreads and oils to foods

Fortifying drinks

- Add glucose polymers to plain water, water with fruit flavorings/ cordials, carbonated drinks/sodas

Oral nutritional supplements

- Use nutritionally complete oral liquids (oral nutritional supplements or sip feeds) to provide additional energy and protein, as well as vitamins and minerals

Monitor, assess and review

- Growth parameters
- Dietary limitations
- Barriers to achieving adequate oral intake
- Medical management
- Current or usual dietary intake
- Nutritional requirements
- Blood biochemistry
- Activity level

Insufficient intake to meet nutritional requirements

Step 7: Nutritional support – tube feeding

To improve nutritional status and promote growth, start nutritional support (supplemental or exclusive enteral feeds) in children who are unable to achieve nutritional requirements orally

For more details see page 21 'Delivery of a nutritional prescription by enteral feeding - clinical practice recommendations'

Nasogastric feeding

- Short-term intervention

Gastrostomy feeding

- Long-term intervention

Step 1: Nutritional assessment



Nutritional assessment is fully described in Nelms CL, Shaw V, Greenbaum LA et al. Assessment of nutritional status in children with kidney diseases - clinical practice recommendations from the Pediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce. *Pediatr Nephrol*, 2021 doi.org/10.1007/s00467-020-04852-5 The three essential elements are summarised below.

Anthropometry



- Measure weight and determine z-score/standard deviation score (SDS). Use euvolemic (dry) weight when indicated e.g. being on dialysis.
- Measure length and determine z-score/SDS. Use recumbent length for children up to 2 years of age and standing height for those over 2 years. For children unable to stand for an accurate height measurement, recumbent length can be measured or use a surrogate measurement of height.
- Measure head circumference in all children up to 2 years of age. When appropriate centile charts are available, continue to measure head circumference until 3 years of age.
- Plot anthropometric measurements serially using World Health Organization (WHO) growth charts. Country-specific growth charts, if available, may be used beyond 2 years of age.
- Calculate weight-for-length in children younger than 2 years of age and body mass index (BMI) for those over 2 years. Calculate weight-for-length or BMI z-scores/SDS to complement growth chart plots.
- Use height age for determining BMI z-score/SDS if the child is shorter than the 3rd centile, provided they have not reached their adult height.
- For premature infants (32 to 37 weeks gestation), plot weight, length and weight-for-length for both gestational and chronological ages for the first year of life. For premature infants born prior to 32 weeks gestation, continue to plot both gestational and chronological ages until 2 years of age.

Dietary assessment



- Conduct a prospective minimum 3-day diet history when accurate, comprehensive information is needed.
- A retrospective diet recall over a 24-hour period, preferably inclusive of more than one 24-hour period, may also be acceptable.

Biochemical assessment



- Calculate normalized protein catabolic rate (nPCR) in adolescent patients on hemodialysis.
- Only consider serum albumin as a measure of nutritional status after all non-nutritional causes of hypoalbuminemia have been excluded.

Step 2: Energy requirements

Compare growth standards and reference charts to determine if growth is suboptimal, normal or the child is overweight or obese.

Using WHO child growth standards charts

- Stunting: height-for-age < -2 standard deviations (SD)
- Underweight children < 5 years: weight-for-age < -2 SD
- Overweight children < 5 years: weight-for-height $> +2$ SD
- Obese children < 5 years: weight-for-height $> +3$ SD

See growth charts <https://www.who.int/toolkits/child-growth-standards/standards>

Using WHO growth reference charts

- Thinness children 5-19 years: BMI < -2 SD
- Severe thinness children 5-19 years: BMI < -3 SD
- Overweight children 5-19 years: BMI $> +1$ SD
- Obese children 5-19 years: BMI $> +2$ SD

See growth charts <https://www.who.int/tools/growth-reference-data-for-5to19-years/indicators/bmi-for-age>

Consider trends or rate of changes in weight: flattening or acceleration of growth curves (e.g. losing or gaining weight more quickly than intended).

Compare intake from dietary assessment with the Suggested Dietary Intake (SDI) for energy.

Table 1: SDI for energy and protein: Birth* to 18 years

Month	SDI** Energy (kcal/kg/day)	SDI Protein (g/kg/day)	SDI Protein (g/day)
0	93-107	1.52-2.5	8-12
1	93-120	1.52-1.8	8-12
2	93-120	1.4-1.52	8-12
3	82-98	1.4-1.52	8-12
4	82-98	1.3-1.52	9-13
5	72-82	1.3-1.52	9-13
6-9	72-82	1.1-1.3	9-14
10-11	72-82	1.1-1.3	9-15
12	72-120	0.9-1.14	11-14

Table 1: SDI for energy and protein (continued)

Year	SDI** Energy (kcal/kg/day)		SDI Protein (g/kg/day)	SDI Protein (g/day)
	Male	Female		
-				
2	81-95	79-92	0.9-1.05	11-15
3	80-82	76-77	0.9-1.05	13-15
4-6	67-93	64-90	0.85-0.95	16-22
7-8	60-77	56-75	0.9-0.95	19-28
9-10	55-69	49-63	0.9-0.95	26-40
11-12	48-63	43-57	0.9-0.95	34-42
13-14	44-63	39-50	0.8-0.9	34-50
15-17	40-55	36-46	0.8-0.9	Male: 52-65 Female: 45-49

Suggested Dietary Intake (SDI) is a novel term. The figures are derived from values published by national and international organizations. The lower and upper limits of the SDI for energy fall within the average amounts given in the published values (i.e. the daily amount of energy considered sufficient to meet the needs of a half a population). The lower and upper limits of the SDI for protein fall within the average amount + 2 SD given in the published values (i.e. the daily amount of protein considered sufficient to meet the needs for nearly all (97.5%) of a population).

* 37/40 weeks gestation. Premature infants have higher energy and protein requirements. The increased need for these and other particular nutrients (sodium, potassium, calcium and phosphorus) must be balanced against the nutritional interventions to control the effects of CKD.

** Suggested Dietary Intake (SDI) is based on the Physical Activity Level (PAL) used by the international bodies: 1-3 yr PAL 1.4; 4-9 yr PAL 1.6; 10-17 yr PAL 1.8. Where guidelines have given a range of energy requirements for different levels of PAL, the lowest PAL has been taken for SDI energy in consideration that children with CKD are likely to have low activity levels.

This table is taken from: Shaw V, Polderman N, Renken-Terhaardt J et al. Energy and protein requirements for children with CKD stages 2-5 and on dialysis—clinical practice recommendations from the Pediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce. *Pediatric Nephrology*, 2020. 35: 519–531, under the Creative Commons Licence (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Aims for energy intake in CKD

Suboptimal growth

Adjust energy towards the higher end of SDI range to promote growth when weight gain and linear growth are suboptimal

Normal growth

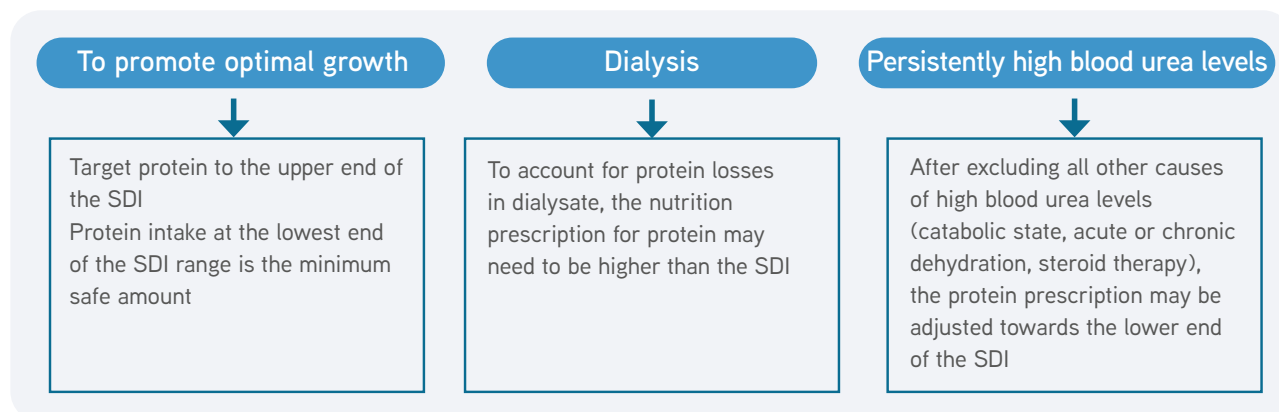
Initial prescription of energy intake should approximate that of healthy children of the same chronological age

Overweight or obese

Adjust energy intake, without compromising nutrition, to achieve appropriate rate of weight gain in those who require weight control

Step 3: Protein requirements

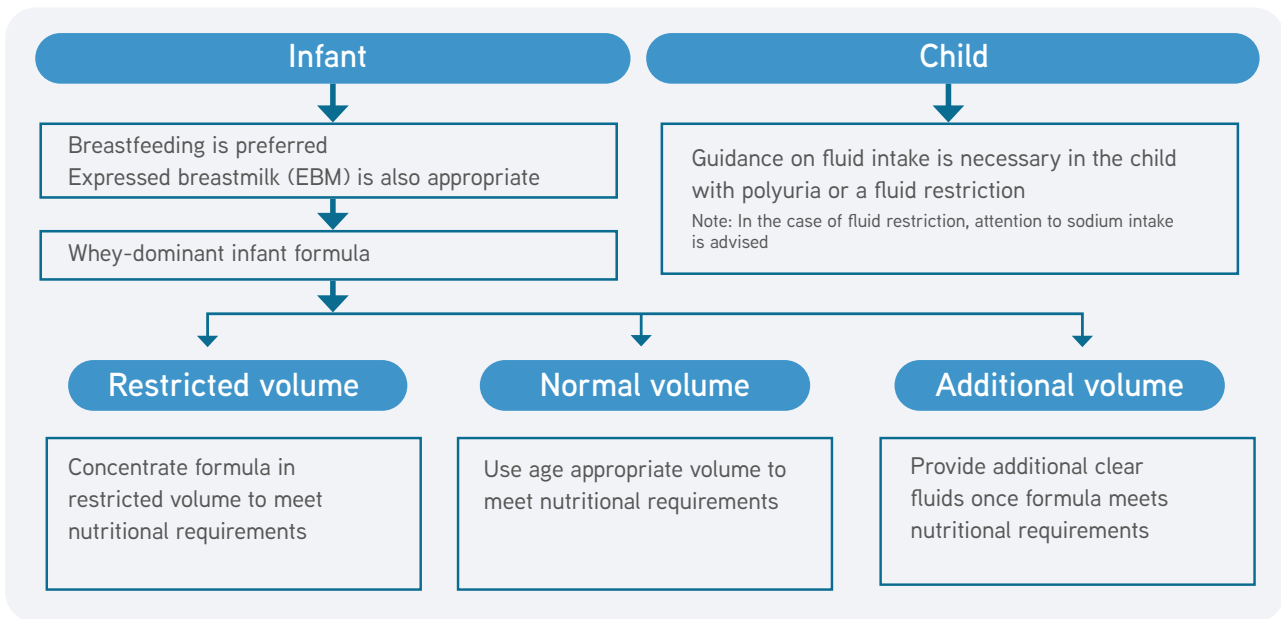
Aims for protein intake in CKD



Practical points to achieve appropriate energy and protein intake

- Use the SDI for height age if the child is <3rd centile for height. Height age is the age that corresponds to the child's or adolescent's height when plotted on the 50th centile on a growth chart.
- In children on peritoneal dialysis (PD), energy intake from dialysate must be considered. Depending on the glucose concentration of the dialysate, dwell times, number of cycles, time on dialysis along with peritoneal membrane transport status, additional energy from dialysate may range from 7.5 ± 7 to 9.08 ± 4.13 kcal/kg/day.
- Some children may benefit from the additional dialysate energy. If there is excessive weight gain, the energy from the dialysate must be taken into account in the nutrition prescription.
- Obesity is increasing in children with CKD. Modification of energy intake and lifestyle changes, including physical activity, may be needed.
- Urea levels may be used as an indicator of protein intake and may help determine if or when a reduction in dietary protein intake might be considered.
- It is not expected that blood urea levels of children with CKD2-5D are in the normal range; low urea levels may indicate insufficient dietary protein intake.
- Urea levels that are chronically higher than expected for the degree of CKD are most commonly due to excessive dietary protein relative to energy intake. Check for secondary causes of elevated urea levels: a catabolic state, acute or chronic dehydration, steroid therapy.
- PD is associated with significant protein losses in the dialysate, with higher losses in small children (0.28 g/kg/day in infants, 0.1 g/kg/day in adolescents).
- Protein intake should be increased above the SDI by at least 0.15-0.3 g/kg/day for children on PD; 0.1 g/kg/day for HD.
- The nutrition prescription for protein must also take into account peritoneal transport status and increased protein losses during peritonitis.

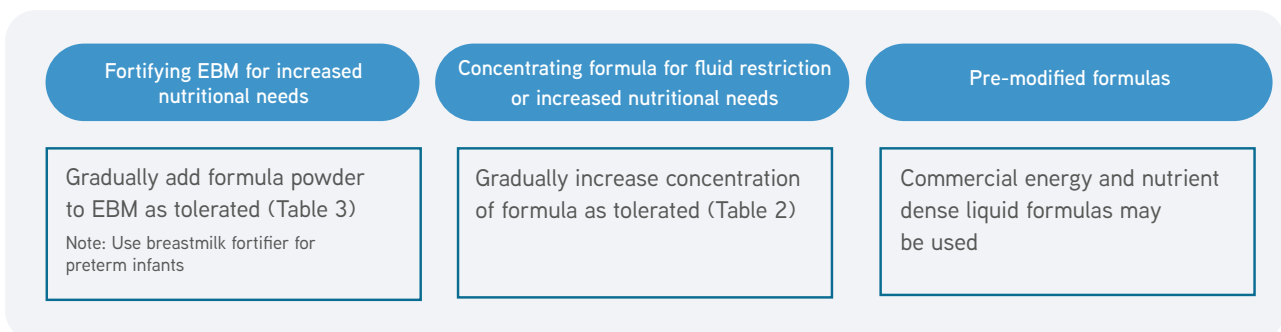
Step 4: Management of oral intake - fluid



Practical points – fluids

- Whey-dominant infant formulas have a protein and electrolyte content closer to that of breastmilk than casein-dominant formulas and are the preferred alternative to breastmilk. They may be beneficial beyond the first year of life.
- Unless there is a specific medical indication, soy-based infant formulas should not be used in the first year of life due to their high phytoestrogen content.
- Powdered infant formulas may be concentrated into smaller volumes when a fluid restriction is indicated or when normal feed volumes exacerbate vomiting or gastro-esophageal reflux.
- Once nutritional requirements are met, any additional fluid requirements (e.g. when there is polyuria) may be given as water.

Fortifying EBM and modifying formulas



Practical points - concentrating infant formulas and fortifying EBM

- Most standard infant formulas are reconstituted to an approximate 13% concentration (i.e. 13 g powder to 100 ml water, providing 0.67 kcal/ml).
- Concentrate formulas gradually to monitor and ensure tolerance. The increase in osmolality may cause diarrhea, vomiting and gastro-esophageal reflux.
- Consider that concentration of formulas increases the renal solute load along with increased/excessive amounts of other nutrients such as phosphate, potassium, vitamins (e.g. toxic levels of Vitamin A) and minerals.
- Increase concentration of formula powder by 1-3% daily, up to 20% (providing 1 kcal/ml), depending on the infant's tolerance.
- The energy and protein profiles of 15% (15 g powder to 100 ml water), 17% (17 g powder to 100 ml water) and 20% (20 g powder to 100 ml water) concentrated formulas are shown (Table 2).

Table 2: Concentrating infant formula (typical whey-dominant infant formula)

Concentration	Energy (kcal/100 ml)	Protein (g/100 ml)	Protein: Energy ratio	% CHO (g/100 ml)	% Fat (g/100 ml)
13% (normal strength) 13g powder/100 ml	67	1.3	7.8	7.2	3.6
15% 15g powder/100 ml	77	1.5	7.8	8.3	4.2
17% 17g powder/100 ml	88	1.7	7.8	9.4	4.7
20% 20g powder/100 ml	103	2.0	7.8	11.1	5.5

- Infant formula powder may also be added to EBM at a concentration of 3-6% (i.e. 3-6 g infant formula powder to 100 ml EBM), increasing the total energy density up to 1 kcal/ml (Table 3).
- For preterm infants, breastmilk fortifier may be added to EBM until term age is reached, according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Table 3: Fortifying expressed breastmilk (typical whey-dominant infant formula)

Concentration	Energy (kcal/100 ml)	Protein (g/100 ml)	Protein: Energy ratio	% CHO (g/100 ml)	% Fat (g/100 ml)
100ml mature breastmilk	69	1.3	7.5	7.2	4.1
Plus 3g infant formula powder	84	1.6	7.6	8.9	4.9
Plus 6g infant formula powder	100	1.9	7.6	10.5	5.8

- The energy content of infant formula may also be concentrated using a modular approach using protein powder and/or energy modules to best meet the infant’s individual nutritional requirements (Table 4).
- When fluid restriction is indicated and the volume of infant formula is reduced, vitamin and mineral supplementation may be required.
- Commercially available ready-to-feed energy and nutrient dense infant formulas may be a suitable option; however, careful attention to the profile of each formula is warranted to ensure that nutrient needs are met but not exceeded e.g. the phosphate content may be higher in a commercial 1 kcal/ml formula than in infant formula at 20% concentration, which provides the same energy density.

Table 4: Example modular feed (adapt ingredients to create a patient specific profile)

Concentration	Energy (kcal/100 ml)	Protein (g/100 ml)	Protein: Energy ratio	% CHO (g/100 ml)	% Fat (g/100 ml)
13 g infant formula powder	67	1.3		7.2	3.6
0.7 g protein powder	3	0.7		0	0
4.0 ml fat emulsion	18	0		0	2.0
3 g glucose polymer powder	12	0		3	0
+ water up to 100 ml					
per 100 ml	100	2.0	8.0	10.2	5.6

- To achieve optimal growth with appropriate deposition of lean and fat tissue in the healthy infant, the protein-energy (P:E) ratio of the infant formula should ideally be in the range 7-12%. A high P:E ratio is required to promote weight gain or catch-up growth (Table 5).

Table 5: Energy and protein requirements for accelerated weight gain or catch-up growth for malnourished infants (WHO/FAO/UNU, 2007)

Rate of weight gain	Energy kcal/kg/d	Protein g/kg/d	Protein:Energy ratio
10g/kg/day	126	2.8	8.9%
20g/kg/day	167	4.8	11.5%

Optimal P:E ratio for catch-up growth is likely to be 11-15%.

- In cases of elevated urea or potassium levels, there may be indication to add a source of non-protein energy (carbohydrate and/or fat) to the formula. This addition of extra energy will reduce the P:E ratio. Ensure that, at a minimum, the SDI for protein is provided.
- Suggested addition of energy modules to formula is given in Table 6.
- Glucose polymers may be added in increments, e.g. 1% daily (1 g extra added to 100 ml formula or EBM per day, an additional 4 kcal/100 ml). Gradually increase the amount in order to monitor and ensure tolerance. High concentrations of glucose polymers may cause loose stools and/or increase vomiting.
- Tolerance to increased carbohydrate concentration depends on the age of the infant, and the maturity and absorptive capacity of the gut, with some infants more tolerant to a more rapid addition of a glucose polymer.
- Fat emulsions may be used and should also be added incrementally, e.g. 1% daily (1 ml added to 100 ml formula or EBM per day) to provide an increase of 0.5 g fat per 100 ml (an additional 5 kcal/100 ml).
- Increasing the fat content of formula may cause delayed gastric emptying, nausea and or vomiting.
- Protein powders are added to formulas or EBM to provide a specific amount of protein per kg of body weight.
- Protein supplements should be added in small increments, 0.1 g protein/kg/day, and urea levels measured to detect excessive intake (i.e. urea levels above expected for degree of CKD).

Practical points – increasing energy content of pediatric formulas

- Energy modules can be added to commercial pediatric enteral formulas and nutritionally complete oral liquids (oral nutritional supplements or sip feeds) designed for children over 1 year of age (Table 6).

Table 6: Suggested addition of energy modules to formulas

Energy module	Age	Amount of CHO/fat module added to formula	Final concentration of CHO/fat in formula
Glucose polymer	<6 months	3-5g (+ 7g CHO from infant formula)	10-12
	6m-1y	5-8g (+ 7g CHO from infant formula)	12-15
	>1yr	8-18g (+ 12g CHO from pediatric formula)	20-23
Fat emulsion (50% fat content)	<1yr	3-5ml (+ 3.5g fat from infant formula)	5-6
	>1yr	9ml (+ 4.5g fat from pediatric formula)	9

CHO, carbohydrate. CHO and fat content of formulas may vary. Adapted from Shaw V (ed) Clinical Paediatric Dietetics, 5th edition, 2020, p 15.

Step 5: Management oral intake - food



Infant

- Introduce solids as for healthy infants, considering individual needs
- Progress with varied flavors, textures and content
- Aim for a healthy balanced diet with a wide variety of food choices

Child

- Aim for a healthy balanced diet with a wide variety of food choices
- Account for dietary limitations (potassium, phosphate, sodium) according to stage of CKD and blood biochemistry

Practical points - oral diet

- Children with CKD may not achieve adequate oral intake due to gastro-oesophageal reflux, reduced appetite, altered smell and taste and abnormal hormone regulation (Appendix 1).
- Solid foods should be introduced as recommended for healthy infants, with progression to varied textures and content according to the infant's cues and oral motor skills.
- Oral feeding is the preferred route whenever possible. Even when oral intake is limited, oral stimulation is desirable to prevent development of food aversion.
- The nutritional content of solid food must be balanced against that provided by the formula to achieve optimum intake of energy, protein and other nutrients.
- Dietary limitations in potassium and phosphate may be necessary according to the stage of CKD and abnormal blood biochemistry (see the practical guides for The dietary management of Potassium, and Calcium and Phosphate). A renal-specific low potassium or phosphate formula may be provided in order that dietary restrictions may be liberalized to allow a greater variety of foods to be offered. A more liberal oral intake may encourage more normal development and feeding behaviors.
- From one year of age, Young Child Formulas (commercially available fortified milk drinks with a suitably low phosphate and potassium content, specifically designed for toddlers) may be useful as they contain iron, vitamin D and n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, which may enhance the diet.
- In the case of significant feeding difficulties, consider referral to speech and language therapy. Input from a psychologist, including family therapy, may also be considered.

Intervene promptly when there is a drop in weight centile
Start oral supplements when dietary intake is inadequate

Step 6: Nutritional support – oral supplementation



Fortifying foods

Fortifying drinks

Oral nutritional supplements

- High energy foods with a low protein content may be useful additions to the diet to achieve energy needs without providing excess protein (Table 7).
- Complex carbohydrates with a higher fiber content are desirable; however refined carbohydrates may be better accepted by a child with a poor appetite.
- Table 8 shows foods with a high protein content, which may need to be given in controlled amounts. The phosphate and potassium contents of these foods may need to be considered.

Table 7: Low protein foods

Food	Portion size	Energy (kcal/portion)
Fruits & vegetables - the amounts shown are for raw, uncooked vegetables		
Red apple	1 whole	52
Grapes	8 grapes	60
Puree avocado	1 tbsp	50
Raisins	1 tbsp	30
Carrot	1 cup diced	45
French beans	1 cup diced	42
Long beans	1 cup diced	39
Cauliflower	½ cup chopped	18
Broccoli	½ cup chopped	14
Swamp cabbage	1 cup chopped	23
Mung bean sprout (taugeh)	1 cup	22
Loofah angled (ketola segi)	1 cup chopped	28
Cabbage	1 cup shredded	15
Celery	1 cup chopped	14
Cucumber	1 cup diced	15
Baby corn	1 whole	5
Oyster mushroom	1 cup	29
Mushroom chinese dried	5 pieces	34
Onion, large	¼ cup chopped	19
Shallots, medium	5 whole	38
Spring onion	1 tbsp chopped	2
Garlic	5 cloves	34
Parsley	1 tbsp chopped	1
Capsicum	1 cup chopped	28
Potato, medium	1 whole	70
Sweet potato	1 whole small	106
Mashed potato	½ cup	105
Spinach	1 cup chopped	26
Spinach red	1 cup chopped	13
Snacks		
Marshmallow	4 pieces	92

Food	Portion size	Energy (kcal/portion)
Cereals & grains		
Lo see fun (noodles rice), wet	1 cup	177
Tang hoon (glass noodle), uncooked	½ cup	38
Rolled oats	1 tbsp	23
Sago noodles	1 cup	103
Mee hoon, uncooked	¾ cup	69
Laksa, wet	⅔ cup	61
Yellow noodles, wet	½ cup	68
Macaroni, cooked	⅔ cup	70
Kuey tew, cooked	½ cup	66
Rice porridge, cooked	1 cup	65
Barley, cooked	¾ cup	70
Cornflakes	½ cup	63
Rice, cooked	1 scoop	65
Putu mayam, cooked	1 piece	76
Dosai (plain)	½ piece	74
Biscuit cream crackers	3 crackers	89
Chapatti (plain)	½ piece	150
White bread	1 slice	73
Steam bun (plain)	1 bun	105
Fats, sauces, condiments		
Vegetable oil	1 tsp	45
Soft margarine	1 tsp	34
Pure butter	1 tsp	34
Whipped cream (heavy)	1 tbsp	26
Non dairy creamer	1 tsp	19
Coconut milk	2 tbsp	79
Mayonnaise	1 tbsp	56
Thousand island (commercial)	1 tbsp	78
Tartar sauce	2 tbsp	159
Jam, various flavours	1 tbsp	66
Syrup (rose)	1 tbsp	48
Honey	1 tbsp	88

Table 8: High protein foods

The following foods, in the portion indicated, contain approximately 7 grams of protein. If the amount of protein in the diet requires modification, and for increased compliance and flexibility, these foods can be swapped for each other.

Food	Portion size	Food	Portion size
Milk and milk products		Fish and shellfish	
Fresh cow's milk	220 ml	Fish	½ piece / 34 g
Full cream milk (powdered)	4 tbsp / 26 g	Fish cutlet	¼ piece / 37 g
Skim milk (powdered)	4 tbsp / 29 g	Squid	¼ cup / 50 g
Cheese cheddar	2 slices / 32 g	Crab meat	¼ cup / 50 g
Cottage cheese	2 tbsp / 45 g	Prawns	6 prawns / 39 g
Yogurt, low fat	1 cup / 150 g	Cockles	20 cockles / 60 g
Poultry and meat		Lobster (Udang galah)	2 pieces small size / 40 g
Chicken breast, raw	1 matchbox size / 26 g	Clams	12 clams / 60 g
chicken drumstick , raw	½ drumstick / 29 g	Plant proteins	
Chicken wing, raw	1 piece / 41 g	Soy milk	200 ml
Chicken thigh, raw	½ piece / 40 g	Soy bean curd (taufua)	½ cup / 65 g
Lamb, lean	1 matchbox size / 34 g	Soy bean curd (soft, tauhoo)	¾ piece / 99 g
Beef, lean	1 matchbox size/ 30 g	Fucuk	½ sheet / 16 g
Quail egg	6 eggs / 60 g	Tempeh	1 piece / 45 g
Hen egg	1 medium / 55 g	Tofu puff (Tau hu pok)	2 pieces / 28 g
Egg tauhoo	⅓ cylinder	Baked beans	½ cup / 167 g
		Dhal, raw	¼ cup / 36 g
		Red bean, raw	¼ cup / 46 g

Household measurement guide

Category	Item	Volume
Cup/glass	Cup	150 ml
	Glass	200 ml
Spoons and ladles	Teaspoon	5 ml
	Dessertspoon	10 ml
	Tablespoon	15 ml
	Rice scoop	30 ml
Bowl	Small bowl	150 ml
	Medium bowl	250 ml
	Large bowl	450 ml

- When dietary intake is inadequate, start supplementation.
- Add energy modules to food and drinks to further improve energy intake.

Table 9: Adding extra energy to food and drinks

Glucose polymer powders and combined fat/glucose polymer powders – have a neutral taste and dissolve easily in 'liquid' or moist foods	Add to sweet foods such as porridge and other hot breakfast cereals, soft desserts such as custards and mousses Add to savoury foods such as soup, mashed potato, baked beans
Sugar, glucose, jams, honey or syrups – will impart a sweet taste which may limit their use	Add to breakfast cereals, desserts; spread on bread, toast, pancakes, crumpets, buns, scones
Fats such as vegetable spreads and oils – choose those with a high content of omega-3 fats, such as soya, walnut, linseed or rapeseed oil, or high in monounsaturated fat such as olive oil	Add to vegetables, rice, pasta, couscous, millet, yam, potatoes Spread on bread, toast, pancakes, crumpets, buns, scones
Glucose polymer powders - can be added to beverages at high concentrations without an osmotic effect on the gut Combined fat/glucose polymer powders	Add to plain water, water with fruit flavorings/ cordials, carbonated drinks/sodas, fruit juices (provided there is no potassium restriction) Add to the above beverages - they impart a white color and a 'milky' mouth feel Start with 5% (5 g added to 100 ml) and gradually increase to 20-30%, as tolerated
Sugar and glucose may be added to drinks, but the quantity may be limited due to their sweet taste and osmotic effect on the gut	

- Nutritionally complete oral liquids (oral nutritional supplements or sip feeds) are suitable for toddlers, older children and adolescents; they provide energy, protein and a range of vitamins and minerals.
- If there are concerns with elevated electrolyte levels, a palatable high energy pediatric renal-specific oral nutritional supplement can be used, if available.
- Standard pediatric enteral formulas can be used if the child will drink them.
- Standard adult enteral and renal-specific formulas can be modified, to meet the nutritional requirements of infants and children. Pay particular attention to potential excesses in vitamin and mineral contents.
- Other options to increase energy intake include 'milks' derived from plants, such as soy, oat, almond or coconut, without calcium phosphate fortification. It is not advisable to give rice milk to infants and young children due to its high arsenic content.
- Protein-free milk replacement drinks, which have low phosphate contents, also provide extra energy.

Monitor, assess, review



- Monitor growth parameters: euvoletic weight, length (<2 years), height (>2 years), head circumference (<2 years or <3 years when appropriate centile charts are available), weight-for-length (<2 years), BMI (>2 years).
- Assess and interpret anthropometric data; diet history including developmental/feeding skills, food intolerances, dietary limitations; exercise/activity level; socioeconomic factors (social/financial) along with clinical assessment including physical, biochemical and hematological status.
- Repeat and review; identify trends to determine required modifications to the nutrition care plan.

To improve nutritional status and promote growth, start nutritional support (supplemental or exclusive enteral feeds) in children who are unable to achieve nutritional requirements orally

Step 7: Nutritional support – tube feeding



Nasogastric feeding

Short-term intervention

Gastrostomy feeding

Long-term intervention

Full details regarding tube feeding are given in Rees L, Shaw V, Qizlbash L et al. Delivery of a nutritional prescription by enteral tube feeding in children with chronic kidney disease stages 2-5 and on dialysis – clinical practice recommendations from the Pediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce. *Pediatr Nephrol*, 2021. 36: 187–204 doi.org/10.1007/s00467-020-04623-2

Appendix 1: Barriers to children with CKD achieving an adequate oral intake

Gastro-esophageal reflux (GER)	<p>A major cause for poor growth in infants: in 22 malnourished infants with CKD (GFR 18.1+12, range 4-44), feeding/eating behavior was abnormal as assessed by parental questionnaire (1):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 73% had significant GER - 59% often refused food - 52% vomited excessively - 70% of caregivers were worried about their infant's nutrition - 78% of caregivers entertained their child during feeding - 50% bargained with child - 71% force-fed their child
Dysgeusia	<p>Smell and taste function may be impaired (2):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lower mean taste identification scores compared to controls - Decreasing taste function with decreasing GFR, but no differences in odor identification - No significant association between the total taste identification scores and BMI
Appetite-regulating hormones: ghrelin and leptin	<p>Leptin is a hormone produced predominantly by adipose cells; it inhibits hunger:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Leptin levels elevated in predialysis, HD and PD patients (3,4) - Leptin levels higher in HD patients than in PD patients or controls (5,6), not well eliminated by HD (7) - Leptin levels may be elevated after renal transplant (8) - Inverse correlation between leptin levels and GFR and leptin in some (9), but not all (10) studies - Higher leptin levels in children with a glomerular etiology of CKD compared with children with a non-glomerular cause; higher levels in females than males; higher levels in obese than non-obese children (10) - Ghrelin is a hormone produced in the gastrointestinal tract. Its acylated form induces hunger and increases gastric acid secretion and gastrointestinal motility. Unacylated ghrelin inhibits appetite; increased levels might contribute to PE wasting. Plasma total ghrelin mainly reflects unacylated ghrelin: - Plasma total ghrelin levels are elevated compared to healthy controls and renal transplant patients (8,11) - Negative correlations reported between GFR and total ghrelin levels (8,12) - Unacylated ghrelin levels higher than controls, highest in HD patients; unacylated ghrelin levels similar in CKD stages 1-4, increasing in stages 5 and dialysis (13) - No change in acylated ghrelin levels according to the degree of renal impairment or between CKD patients and healthy controls (8,12,13) - HD eliminates ghrelin to levels comparable to healthy controls after dialysis, whereas ghrelin levels in PD patients are elevated, comparable to conservatively managed patients (7)

1. Ruley EJ, Bock GH, Kerzner B et al (1989) Feeding disorders and gastroesophageal reflux in infants with chronic renal failure. *Pediatr Nephrol* 3:424-429
2. Armstrong JE, Laing DG, Wilkes FJ et al (2010) Smell and taste function in children with chronic kidney disease. *Pediatr Nephrol* 25:1497-1504
3. Buyan N, Bideci A, Ozkaya O et al (2006) Leptin and resistin levels and their relationships with glucose metabolism in children with chronic renal insufficiency and undergoing dialysis. *Nephrology* 11:192-196
4. Maggio MC, Montaperto D, Maringhini S et al (2014) Adiponectin, resistin and leptin in paediatric chronic renal failure: correlation with auxological and endocrine profiles. *J Nephrol* 27:275-279
5. Agras PI, Baskin E, Cengiz N et al (2013) Leptin and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 levels in children on chronic dialysis. *Ren Fail* 35:1079-1084
6. Besbas N, Ozaltin F, Coşkun T et al (2003) Relationship of leptin and insulin-like growth factor I to nutritional status in hemodialyzed children. *Am J Kidney Dis* 18:1255-1259
7. Nüsken KD, Gröschl M, Rauh M et al (2004) Effect of renal failure and dialysis on circulating ghrelin concentration in children. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 19(8):2156-2157
8. Büscher AK, Büscher R, Hauffa BP et al (2010) Alterations in appetite-regulating hormones influence protein-energy wasting in pediatric patients with chronic kidney disease. *Pediatr Nephrol* 25:2295-2301
9. Daschner M, Tönshoff B, Blum WF et al (1998) Inappropriate elevation of serum leptin levels in children with chronic renal failure. European Study Group for Nutritional Treatment of Chronic Renal Failure in Childhood. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 9:1074-1079
10. Nehus E, Furth S, Warady B et al (2014) Correlates of leptin in children with chronic kidney disease. *J Pediatr* 165:825-829
11. Arbeiter AK, Büscher R, Petersenn S et al (2009) Ghrelin and other appetite-regulating hormones in paediatric patients with chronic renal failure during dialysis and following kidney transplantation. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 24:643-646
12. Naufel MF, Bordon M, de Aquino TM et al (2010) Plasma levels of acylated and total ghrelin in pediatric patients with chronic kidney disease. *Pediatr Nephrol* 25:2477-2482
13. Monzani A, Perrone M, Prodam F et al (2018) Unacylated ghrelin and obestatin: promising biomarkers of protein energy wasting in children with chronic kidney disease. *Pediatr Nephrol* 33:661-672



A Nestlé Health Science Company

The VitaFlo logo is a trademark of Société des Produits Nestlé S.A.
© 2024 All rights reserved. Société des Produits Nestlé S.A

www.vitafloweb.com

We would like to thank VitaFlo (International) Ltd who have provided support and funding for the artwork and production of this booklet.

We would like to thank the following dietitians and nephrologists for devising the content of this booklet:

Dr Caroline Eng Siew Yin (Lead), Hospital Tuanku Jaafar Seremban, Negeri Sembilan
Assoc Prof Dr Karmila Binti Abu Bakar, University Malaya Medical Centre, Kuala Lumpur
Dr Alice Chuah Ming Jie, Hospital Sultanah Bahiyah, Alor Setar
Dr Tan Hai Liang, Hospital Tunku Azizah, Kuala Lumpur
Lai Jaan Jiar, Hospital Tunku Azizah, Kuala Lumpur
Noor Zarirah Binti Jusoh, Hospital Tuanku Jaafar Seremban, Negeri Sembilan
Haninorzaimi Binti Mohd Haimi, Sabah Women And Children Hospital, Likas Sabah
Haszlin Hassim, University Malaya Medical Centre, Kuala Lumpur
Che Shafini Johari, University Malaya Medical Centre, Kuala Lumpur
Muhammad Hazrin Bin Husin, University Malaya Medical Centre, Kuala Lumpur

All information correct at the time of print. The Paediatric Renal Nutrition Taskforce cannot accept responsibility for any unauthorised adaptation or translation of this material.