

Physiology and Targeted Nutrition in Infants



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Learning Objectives

Evaluate how targeted nutrition impacts physiological development

Apply evidence-based nutrient research to disease risk and long-term development in preterm and term infants

Recognize the role of nutrition in early brain development to improve postnatal outcomes



INTRODUCTION



Rigor and Reproducibility in Science Nutrition Research

Scientific rigor and credibility in the nutrition research landscape

Cynthia M Kroeger, ¹ Cutberto Garza, ² Christopher J Lynch, ³ Esther Myers, ⁴ Sylvia Rowe, ⁵ Barbara O Schneeman, ⁶ Arya M Sharma, ⁷ and David B Allison ¹

Best practices in nutrition science to earn and keep the public's trust

Cutberto Garza, Patrick J Stover, Sarah D Ohlhorst, Martha S Field, Robert Steinbrook, Sylvia Rowe, Catherine Woteki, and Eric Campbell



The Challenge of Reforming Nutritional Epidemiologic Research



The Need for Greater Rigor in Childhood Nutrition and Obesity Research



Rigor and Reproducibility in Science Nutrition Research







Neonatal Nutrition: Unique Opportunity to Reveal Nutrient-Directed Effects on Human Physiology

The calls for increased rigor and reproducibility

- Should not detract from the evidence supporting the role of nutrition in improving survival and outcomes in preterm infants; a unique population that is captive, with limited exogenous exposures, and is in a rapidly developing window
- Should not lead to assumptions that adult physiological response to nutrition/nutrients is the same as the neonate
- Neonatal response to nutrition is unique and has a fundamental role in developmental physiology impacting health and disease risk
- It is imperative that all aspects of nutrition—practice and substrate delivery—be thoroughly investigated given the profound impact on health in the immediate and in the long term



Developmental Origins

- Developmental perspective on risk for adult disease
 - The "Barker Hypothesis" → "Fetal Origins" → DOHaD
- Early life events affect relevant long-term health outcomes
 - Cardiovascular
 - Metabolic
 - Immunologic and allergic
 - Cancer
 - Mental Health
- Potential biological mechanisms of the long-term neurobehavioral effects
- Clinical implications

DOHaD, Developmental Origins of Health and Disease.



Early Events and Later Outcomes

- Development is based on
 - Genetics
 - Epigenetics (experience-dependent influences)
- All organs, especially the brain, grow rapidly in late fetal/early neonatal period
 - Highly vulnerable to insults
 - Demonstrates its greatest plasticity/resilience and response to therapy



Fetal Programming

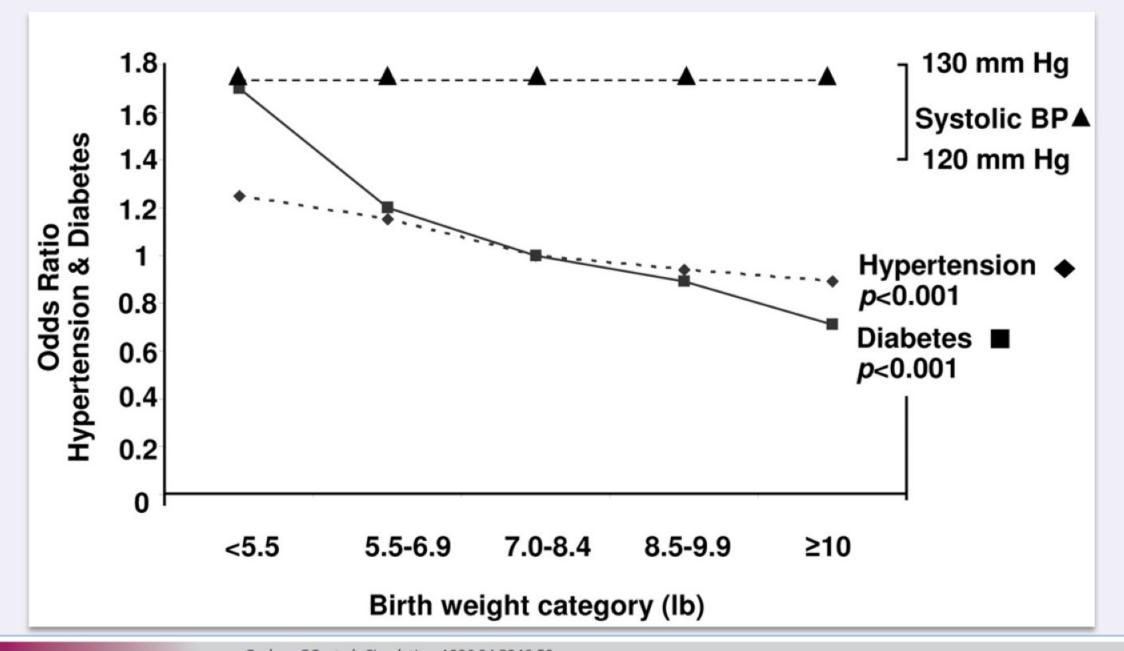
- "Programming" refers to epigenetic process
 - Early environmental stimuli (eg, nutrition) alter how genes are expressed throughout the lifetime
- Best described in fetal period with effect of prenatal nutrition → adult cardiovascular health (D. Barker)
- May also apply to postnatal nutrition in
 - Term and preterm infants
 - Adopted, orphaned children
 - Foster children
 - Children after severe illness
- Suggests vulnerable period based on postconceptional age irrespective of in utero vs ex utero (ie, no longer 'fetal')



What is the Barker Hypothesis?

- Studies by David Barker's group
 - Cohorts of adults in Britain with heart disease, diabetes mellitus, hypertension
 - Risk related, in part, to birth weight
 - Lower birth weight (ie, <7.0 lbs) increased risk
- Concept of altered metabolic set points in utero
 - Altered hypothalamic/pituitary/adrenal axis regulation (stress hormones)
 - Altered hepatic metabolism (especially carbohydrate handling)
 - Activation of proinflammatory cytokines







NUTRITIONAL PROGRAMMING IN THE EARLY POSTNATAL PERIOD AND RISK OF NEONATAL MORBIDITIES



Nutrient-Directed Effects on Human Physiology

Adult Viewpoint

The potential to modulate the activity of the immune system by interventions with specific individual nutrients is termed *immunonutrition*.[†]

Infant Viewpoint

In the developing neonate, complex diets, medical practices, and individual nutrients have the potential to modulate the activity of the immune system, inflammation, and organogenesis—<u>nutritional programming</u>.





"...human infants actually remain helpless longer than infants of any other species and, ...must also go through a distinct period of gestation outside of the womb."

"This period of exterior gestation needs to be respected not just as a sentimental matter, but as one that has a profound and major impact on an infant's physical, emotional, and psychological development."

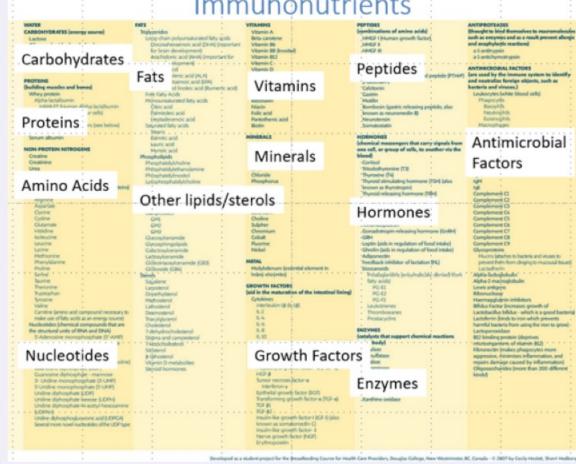
-Elizabeth Antunovic



In Utero to Ex Utero Transition

	Amniotic Fluid
Hormones	growth hormone, gastrin-releasing peptide, prolactin
Trophic or growth factors	epidermal growth factor, transforming growth factor- alpha, transforming growth factor beta-1; insulin- like growth factor I; erythropoietin, granulocyte colony-stimulating factor; hepatocyte growth factor, vasoactive endothelial growth factor
Nutrients and other proteins	water, electrolytes, carbohydrates, amino acids, lipids, albumin, serotransferrin, ceruloplasmin, alpha-fetoprotein, vitamin d-binding protein; apolipoprotein a1
Modulators of coagulation	antithrombin III, plasminogen
Modulators of immunity and inflammation	immunoglobulins, interleukins, complement, a- defensins, lactoferrin, lysozyme, calprotectin, cathelicidin, alpha1-antitrypsin, alpha1- microglobulin
Cell growth and differentiation	fibronectin; periostin; TGF-beta induced protein ig- h3 precursor; polyamines
Microbes	?

Breast Milk – Complex Matrix of Vital Immunonutrients





Mom's milk (nutrition) is critical in this period of exterior gestation.





Even more true for our preterm infants who still have to complete their first gestation!



Protection

Development

Independence

During exterior gestation Mom's milk/nutrition provides necessary bioactive components to protect the infant from adverse environmental influences (as the infant is not ready to protect itself) while continuing the biological signaling for optimal organ development and ultimately healthy independence.



General Nutritional Delivery and Neonatal Outcomes

Early Nutrition Mediates the Influence of Severity of Illness on Extremely Low-Birth-Weight Infants¹

 First 7 days, OR of NEC, late-onset sepsis, BPD, and NDI decreased by ~2% for each 1 kcal/ kg/d of total energy intake

First-Week Protein and Energy Intakes Are Associated With 18-Month Developmental Outcomes in Extremely Low-Birth-Weight Infants²

- An increase of 42 kJ (10 kcal)/kg per day independently associated with a ~5-point increase in MDI
- An increase of 1 g/kg per day of protein independently associated with a ~8-point increase in MDI

Early Energy and Protein Intakes and Associations With Growth, BPD, and ROP in Extremely Preterm Infants³

- Every 10 kcal/kg/d associated with 0.08 higher weight SD score
- Between d7-27, every 10 kcal/kg/d reduced risk of BPD of 9% and any grade of ROP of 6%
- Interaction MV, energy, protein: mean energy intake of 120 kcal/kg/d, every 0.5 g/kg/d reduced risk of BPD by 25%

BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia; MDI, mental developmental index; NDI, neurodevelopmental impairment; NEC, necrotizing enterocolitis; ROP, retinopathy of prematurity.

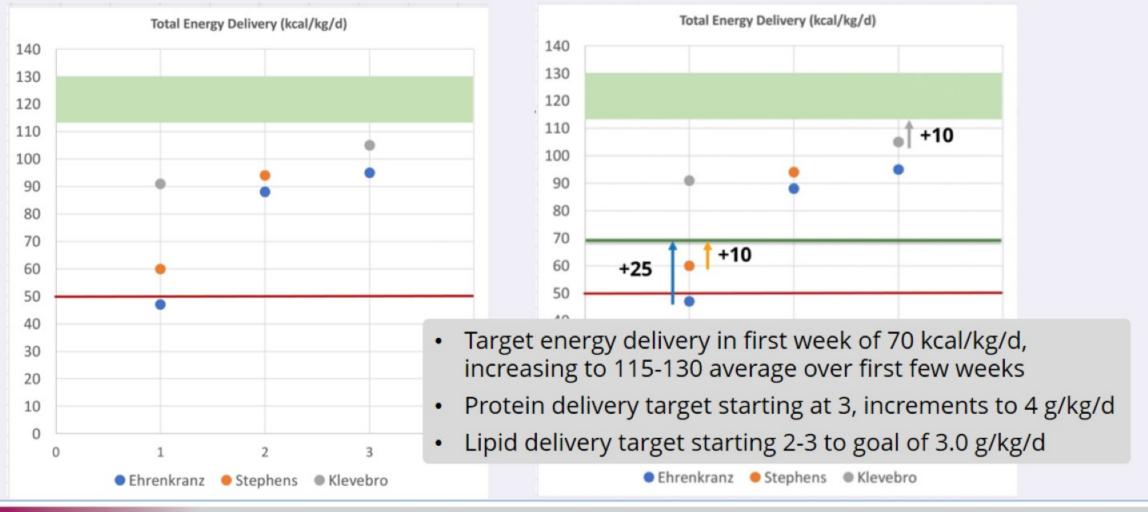


^{2.} Stephens BE, et al. Pediatrics. 2009;123:1337-43.

^{3.} Klevebro S, et al. Clin Nutr. 2018. pii: S0261-5614:30197-3.

General Nutritional Delivery and Neonatal Outcomes







General Nutritional Delivery and Neonatal Outcomes (continued)

Day	Lipids	Protein	Carbs	Rate - ml/k/d	Lipids	Protein	Carbs	Total=
1	2	3	10	100	18	12	40	70
	2.5	3	10	100	22.5	12	40	74.5
	3	3	10	100	27	12	40	79
2	2	3	10	120	18	12	48	78
	2.5	3	10	120	22.5	12	48	82.5
	3	3	10	120	27	12	48	87
3	2	3	10	140	18	12	56	86
	2.5	3	10	140	22.5	12	56	90.5
	3	3	10	140	27	12	56	95

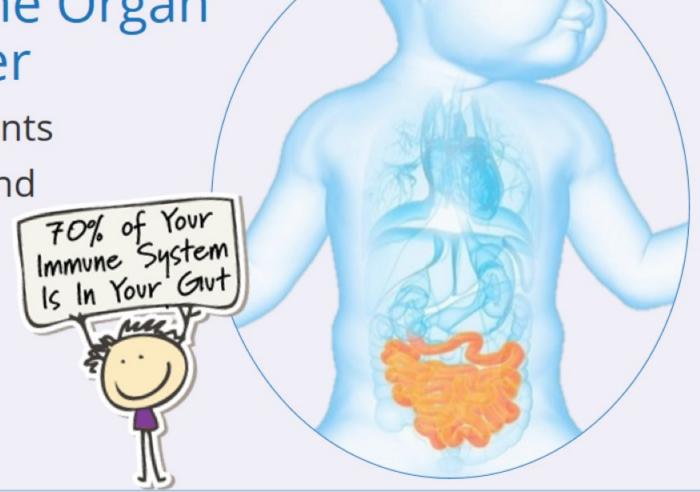


INTESTINAL TRACT: The Largest Immune Organ and Defense Barrier

Direct exposure to nutrients

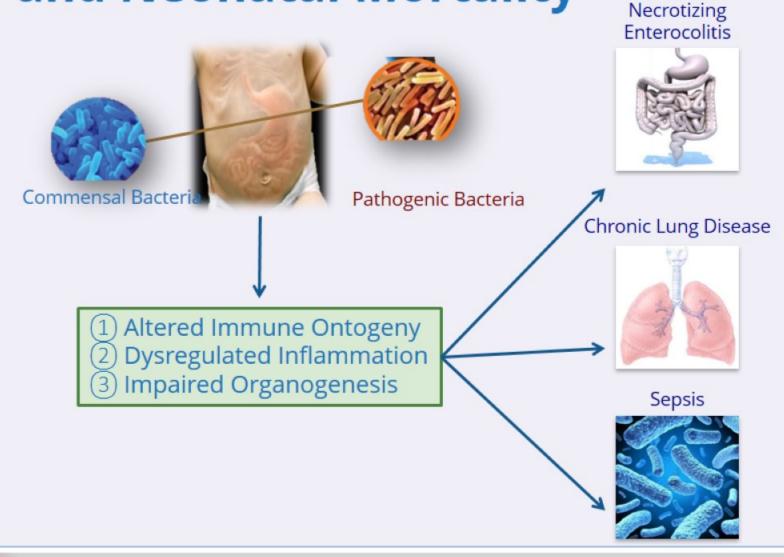
Largest immune organ and defense barrier

Gut-systemic health axis





Dysbiosis and Neonatal Mortality







Skin-to-Skin

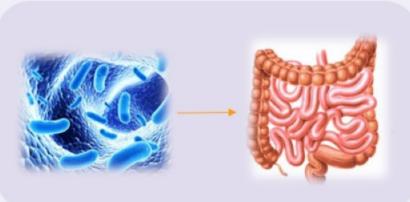
Influences on **Postnatal Gut Development**

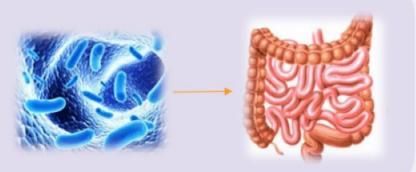


Cesarean Section

Medications









Breastfeeding



Delayed Feedings/Formula Limited MM/DM

DM, donor milk; MM, mother's milk.



Breast Milk Increases Intestinal Barrier Function Compared to Formula

TAE	BLE 2. COMPARISON OF MED ANY HUMAN MIL	ian L/M Ratios (Range) k and Those Receiving C		
		Median L/M	ratio (range)	
Type of feeding	Study time 1 $(n = 47)$	Study time 2 $(n = 33)$	Study time 3 $(n = 20)$	Composite
Any human milk	0.076 (0.013–1.337)	0.167 (0.011–8.468)	0.178 (0.031–1.791)	0.343 (0.014–8.838)
Formula only	0.205 (0.062–2.178)	1.371 (0.218–30)	0.347 (0.247–1.887)	0.962 (0.576–32.525)

L/M, lactulose to mannitol.





Breastfeeding

Influence of Diet on Intestinal Gene Expression

Table 2 Relative gene expression levels in breast-fed (BF) versus formula-fed (FF) infants following a 3-month feeding period

Gene	BF/FF	P-value	q-value
TACR1	1.80	0.0189	0.1670
REL	1.62	0.0047	0.1026
DUOX2	1.45	0.0215	0.1670
VAV2	1.36	0.0088	0.1404
NDST1	0.79	0.0103	0.1477
AOC3	0.78	0.0202	0.1670
SP2	0.76	0.0030	0.0860
IL1A	0.71	0.0089	0.1389
ALOX5	0.69	1.40E-05	0.0008
BPIL1	0.37	1.43E-05	0.0008
KLRF1	0.35	3.16E-05	0.0015

Fold change represents relative expression level in BF divided by FF infants for the 11 genes exhibiting the strongest multivariate relationships to microbiota virulence characteristics.

Formula:

- Lower phylogenetic heterogeneity (and decreased diversity) of the microbiome
- Lower overall gene expression by the intestinal epithelium

Gut motility, bacterial-mediated reactive oxygen species signaling, epithelial homeostasis

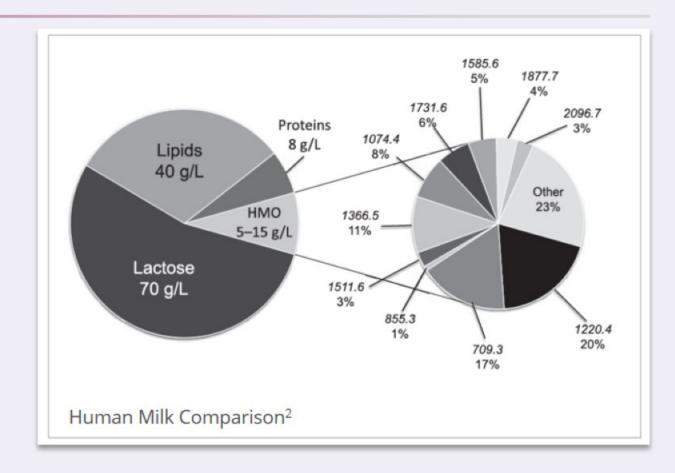
Mucosal inflammatory responses, permeability-increasing, vascular adhesion

RNA-seq on host RNA from shed intestinal cells in fecal samples.



Human Milk Oligosaccharides

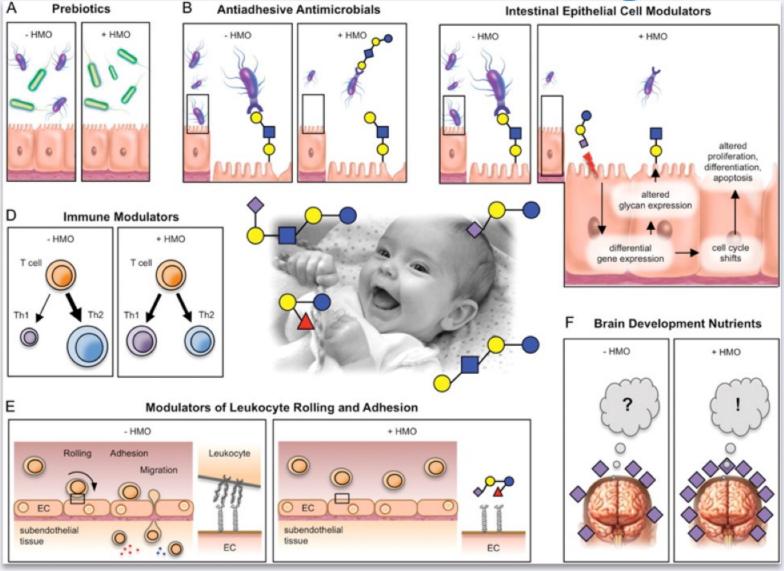
- Diverse unconjugated glycans
- Abundant in and unique to human milk
- More than a hundred different HMOs have been identified
- Not every woman synthesizes the same set of oligosaccharides
- HMOs reach the distal small intestine and colon in an intact form and are excreted with the infant's feces¹



HMOs, human milk oligosaccharides.



Pleiotropic Effects of Human Milk Oligosaccharides







Nutrition Practices

Table 5. Univariate Analysis of Fecal Cytokine Expression in Association with Early vs. Late Groups.

Variables	Early (p50±lQR)	Late (p50±IQR)
IL-8 (pg/ml)	1.9±3.2	6.1±22.8*
IL-1RA:IL-8	40.5±82.3	13.5±65.5*
IL-10:IL-8	8.2±1.2	5.9±1.6*

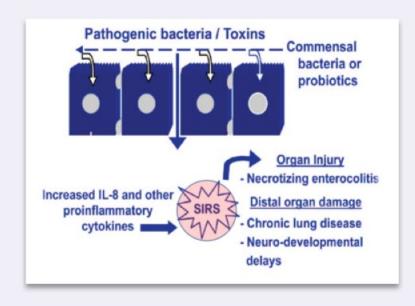
Table 6. Univariate Analysis of Serum Cytokine Expression (in pg/mL) in Association with Early vs. Late Group.

Variables	Early (p50±IQR)	Late (p50±IQR)
IL-1RA	175.8±316.2	316.2±569.1*
CRP	447.7±1227.4	948.8±4371.5*

Early = initial enteral feeding at the third postnatal day or less; Late = initial enteral feeding after the third postnatal day.



Evidence for Gut to Systemic Health Link



- Delayed feedings after 3 days leads to detectable inflammation at 2 weeks postnatal age and increased risk of CLD at 36 weeks PMA¹
- Intestinal injury leads to sustained <u>systemic</u> inflammatory response; sustained systemic inflammatory response leads to poor neurocognitive outcomes, as does NEC^{2,3}
- NEC a common node in clustering of neonatal morbidities⁴

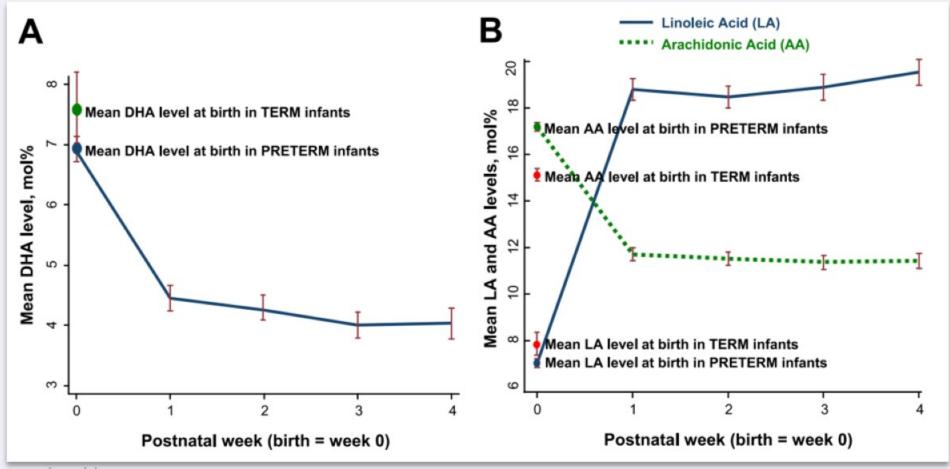
	Bowel	Brain	Retina	Lung
	NEC	VM/EL	ROP	BPD
Bowel		2.3 (1.2, 4.3)	3.1 (1.7, 5.8)	3.7 (1.9, 7.1)
Brain	14/6.9		1.1 (0.8, 1.6)	1.0 (0.6, 1.7)
Retina	30/14.5	61/50.8		2.6 (1.7, 3.9)
Lung	18/6	19/17	62/34	
Blood early	3/3.2	14/11.1	35/23.3	5/8.0
Blood late	17/12.6	52/44.1	118/92.6	42/31.6

 Humanized gnotobiotic mice with preterm microbiota results in dysregulated systemic inflammation and altered growth⁵

CLD, chronic lung disease; NEC, necrotizing enterocolitis; PMA, postmenstrual age; SIRS, systemic inflammatory response syndrome.



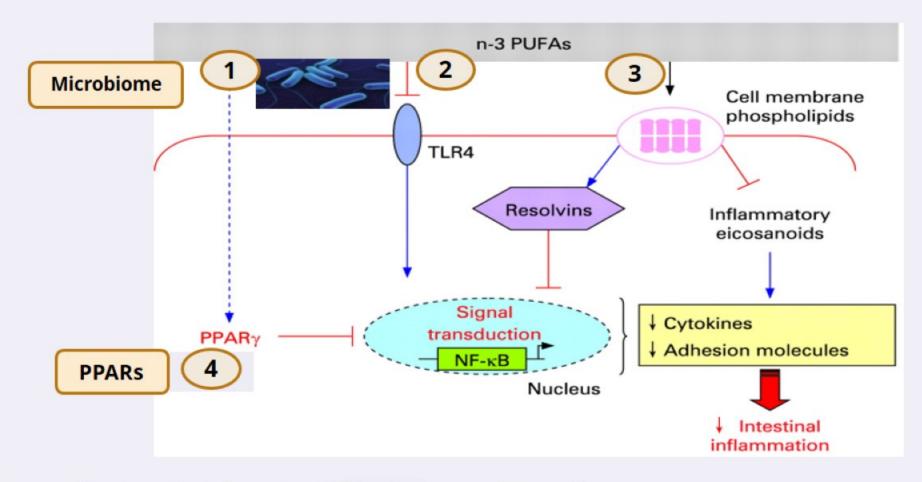
Nutrient-Specific Postnatal Transitions in the Preterm Infant Case Study: Long-Chain Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids



DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.



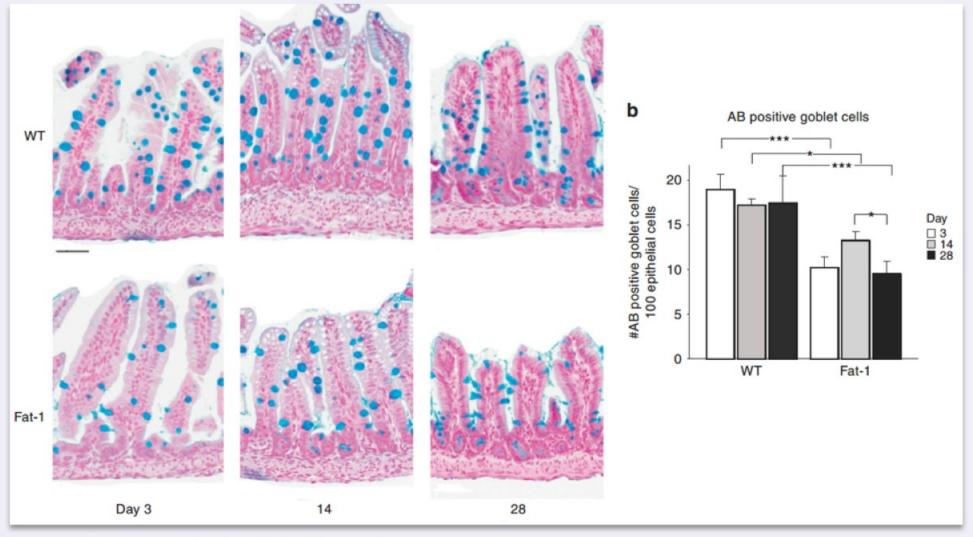
n-3 PUFAs and Gut Health



PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids.



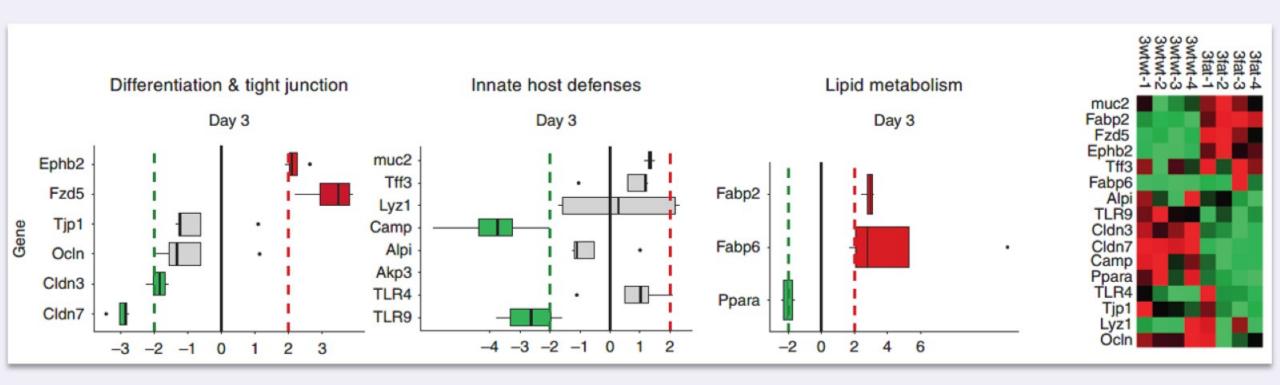
n-3 Dominant Fatty Acid Profiles Decrease Number of Goblet Cells



AB, Alcian Blue; Fat-1, fat-1 transgenic mice; WT, wild-type mice,



n-3 Dominant Fatty Acid Profiles Increase Cell Differentiation Markers, Decrease Genes Regulating Tight Junction





Nutrient Specific Impact on Gut Development

- As a package of care (breast milk vs other), or as specific elements, direct impact on the intestinal environment (microbiome/inflammation) and development that determine the balance between health and disease
- Not just local, for the gut, also systemic ramifications
- We should not presume safety, or likely no harm, with these bioactive molecules
- Need to understand dose, balance, windows of opportunity, and best delivery strategies



NUTRITION AND LUNG DEVELOPMENT





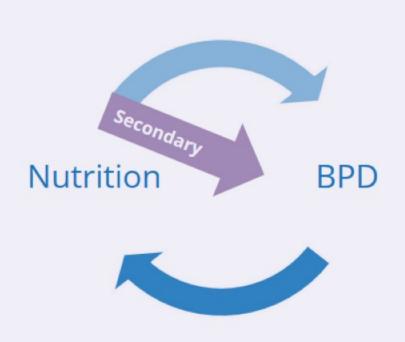
Epidemiologic Data Demonstrate that Growth Attainment in NICU is Associated with BPD Risk

TABLE 2 Characteristics of Follow-up Cohort by Weight Gain Quartile						
	Variable ^a	Quartile 1 (<i>n</i> = 124)	Quartile 2 (<i>n</i> = 122)	Quartile 3 (<i>n</i> = 123)	Quartile 4 (<i>n</i> = 121)	Pb
Weight gain	, mean (SD), g/kg per d	12.0 (2.1)	15.6 (0.8)	17.8 (0.8)	21.2 (2.0)	_
BPD, %		56	41	30	31	<.001

BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia.



Nutrition and BPD: Mechanisms?



? Increased energy expenditure

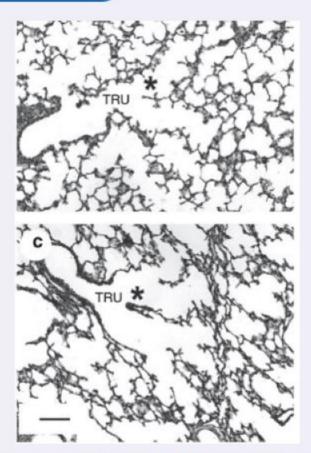
- Is nutrition driving the lung disease
 (A), or is the lung disease driving the nutritional intake (B)
- Role of nutrition:
 - Primary—Direct evidence that a specific nutritional parameter or nutrient is in the pathway of lung injury or repair
 - Secondary—A proxy to our practices around lung disease (fluid restriction, diuretics, steroids)

BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia.



Preclinical Animal Data

Restricted Nutrition/Postnatal Growth Restriction



Alveolar formation is dysregulated by restricted nutrition

- Lamb
- NIS vs NIS + RN; RN = lower fluids, fat, protein, calories (150 kcal/k/d v 60 kcal/k/d)
- 21 day model
- RN = reduced alveolar count, increased septal wall thickness, decreased caspase-3 (apoptosis), decreased PCNA (proliferation)
- Unable to determine specific nutrient effects; or windows of opportunity/vulnerability

NIS, noninvasive support; PCNA, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; RN, restricted nutrition.



Base Diet—Breast Milk

Beyond Necrotizing Enterocolitis Prevention: Improving Outcomes With an Exclusive Human Milk-Based Diet¹

- Multicenter, <u>retrospective cohort</u>
- Pre-, Post-exclusive HUM diet
- n= 1,587
- BPD defined as need for oxygen at 36 weeks PMA
- BOV 56.3% vs HUM 47.7% (*p*=0.0015)

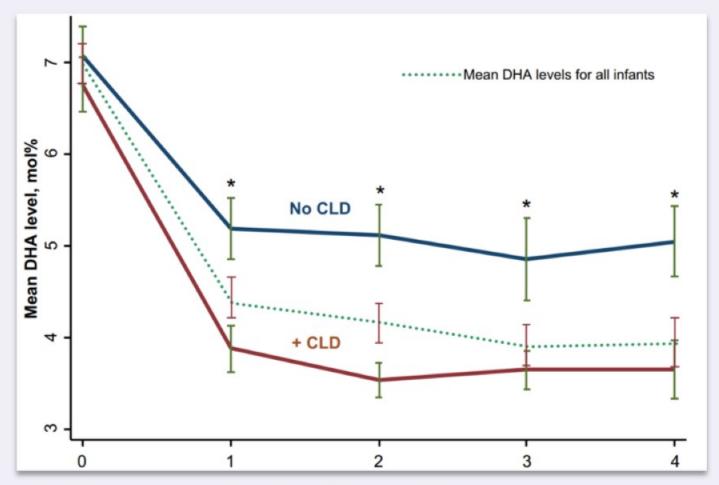
Does Breastmilk Influence the Development of BPD?²

- Multicenter, <u>prospective cohort</u>
- Exclusive formula vs exclusive breast milk
- n= 462
- BPD defined as need for oxygen at 36 weeks PMA + moderate/severe categories as defined by the NIH
- Formula 20.9% vs BM 11.2% (p=0.005)

BM, breast milk; BOV, bovine-based diet; BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia; HUM, human milk-based diet; PMA, postmenstrual age.



Low Blood Levels of DHA Associated With Increased Risk of BPD



BPD, bronchopulmonary dysplasia; CLD, chronic lung disease; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.

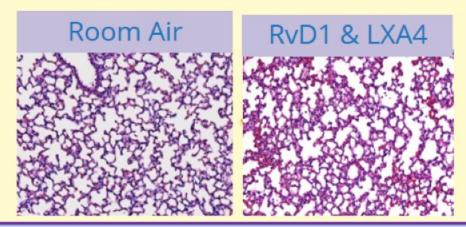


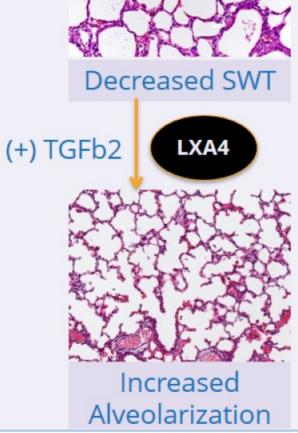
DHA and AA Terminal Mediators Reduce Hyperoxia-Induced

Changes in Lung Development



- Resolvin D1 (DHA product) reduces lung inflammation
- Lipoxin A4 (AA product) reduces lung inflammation and improves lung (alveoli) development
- Together, protect against lung injury in face of high oxygen exposure

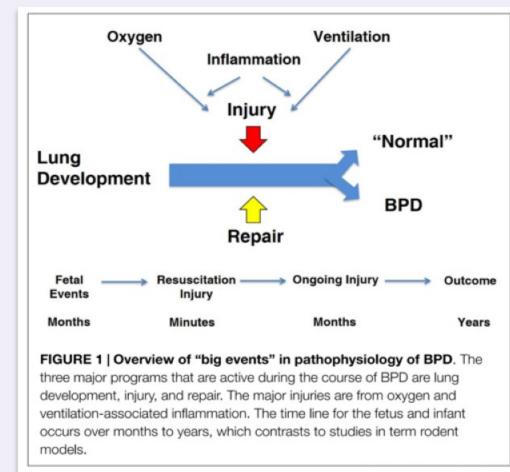






Nutrition Interfaces Throughout Lung Development, Injury, and Repair

- T1 preclinical/animal <u>evidence strongly links nutrition</u> <u>with lung development</u> and disease pathogenesis
- Epidemiology studies and small clinical trials support nutrition modulating disease
- T3 translation challenging mostly due to:
 - Lack of well-designed studies
 - Need to ensure adequate numbers of infants at highest risk
 - Not understanding the what, why, how, and when dynamic; no biomarkers of nutritional efficacy
 - Animal models incomplete representative of the preterm biology and competing exposures antenatal to postnatal; and models may need to be iteratively reassessed as the disease changes





Physiology and Development Driven by Lipid-Derived Nutrients

Lipids constitute an example of what needs to be considered when investigating nutrient driven research

- Must be thoroughly studied with the goal of rigor and reproducibility; just because it is a constituent of nutrition, breast milk or formula, cannot presume safety
- Giving in isolation or at a wrong dose, DHA—in and of itself or due to the ancillary effects to other fatty acids—may drive unwanted biological effects

DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.



Docosahexaenoic Acid and Bronchopulmonary Dysplasia in Preterm Infants

Table 2. Primar	y Outcome and Secondary	Respiratory-Rel	ated Outcomes.*
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Outcome	DHA Group (N = 592)	Control Group (N = 613)	Adjusted Effect (95% CI)	Adjusted P Value
Physiological BPD: primary outcome — no. (%)†	291 (49.1)	269 (43.9)	1.13 (1.02-1.25)	0.02
Physiological BPD or death before 36 wk of postmenstrual age — no./total no. (%)†‡	330/631 (52.3)	298/642 (46.4)	1.11 (1.00–1.23)	0.045
Clinical BPD — no./total no. (%)	315/592 (53.2)	304/612 (49.7)	1.09 (1.00-1.18)	0.06
Severity of BPD				
Mild — no. (%)†∫	80 (13.5)	108 (17.6)	0.76 (0.58-0.99)	0.04
Moderate — no. (%)†∫	65 (11.0)	50 (8.1)	1.35 (0.95-1.92)	0.10
Severe — no./total no. (%)¶	202/592 (34.1)	194/612 (31.7)	1.07 (0.93-1.22)	0.36
Surfactant use — no./total no. (%);	533/631 (84.5)	516/642 (80.4)	1.05 (1.00-1.10)	0.06
Days of respiratory support**	41.5±28.7	40.4±27.7	1.02 (0.94-1.10)	0.63
Postnatal glucocorticoids — no./total no. (%)	128/604 (21.2)	132/622 (21.2)	0.98 (0.80-1.19)	0.81
Days of caffeine use††	61.9±19.3	60.7±18.9	1.01 (0.99-1.04)	0.29
Days of diuretic use††	4.5±13.2	5.2±13.7	0.70 (0.46-1.07)	0.10

DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.



A Word of Caution

Intravenous lipid emulsions providing DHA at doses similar to those given in our trial are being used to provide nutritional support during the transition to full enteral feeding in preterm infants, although with limited testing in clinical trials.^{34,35} Our results raise questions about the safety of this strategy and suggest the need for further study.

DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.



Essentiality of Arachidonic Acid

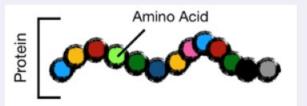
- Growth and neurodevelopment^{1–3}
- Primary fatty acid in preterm brains until early term⁴
- Reduction associated with 40% increase in nosocomial sepsis⁵
- Provision of its distal metabolite (Lipoxin A4) improves alveologenesis in murine hyperoxia induced lung injury;⁶ reduced AA decreases alveologenesis⁷
- Reduction associated with increased risk of retinopathy of prematurity⁸

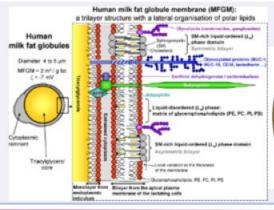
AA, arachidonic acid.



Understanding Nutrition at the Molecular Level

- Total calories (energy)
- Protein
- Fat
- Breast Milk





The rate of growth in NICU



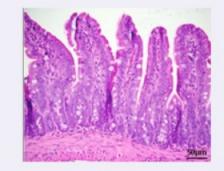
- Likelihood of disease <u>while</u> in the NICU (chronic lung disease)
- Neurocognitive development <u>after</u> the NICU

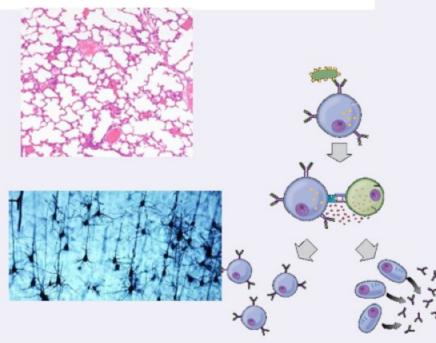
What? When? How?

Fatty Acid

Fatty Acid

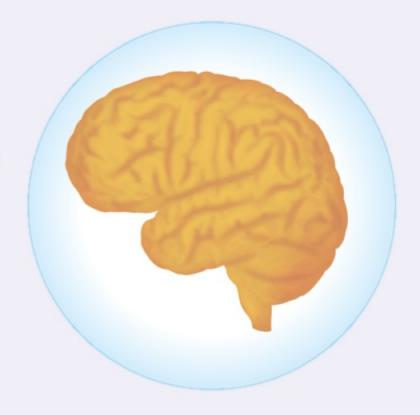
Fatty Acid







DEVELOPMENTAL ORIGINS AND THE BRAIN





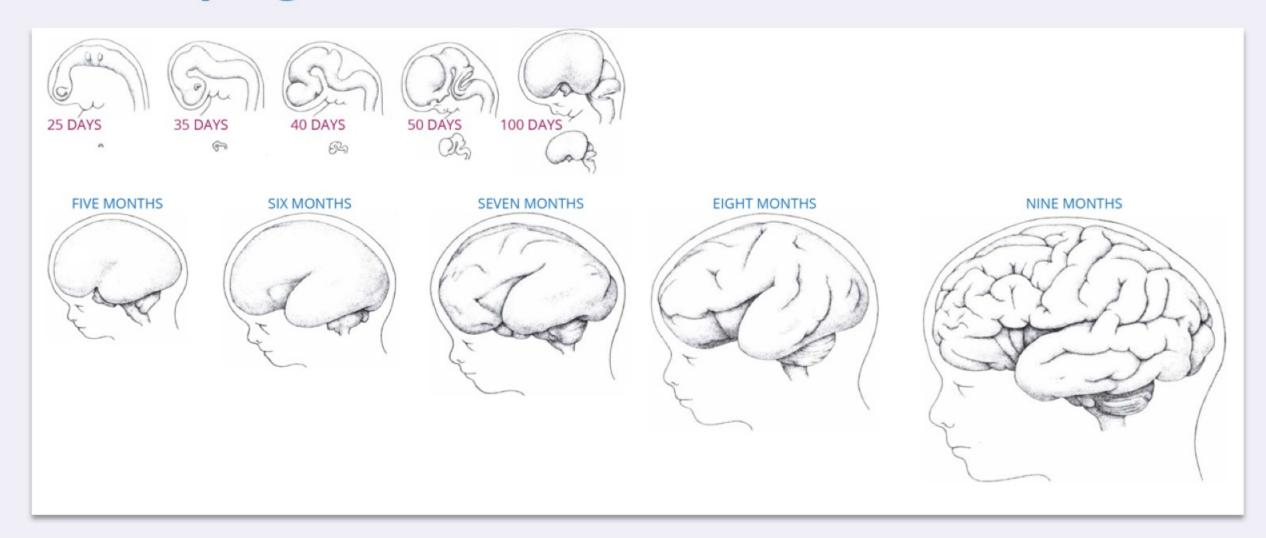
Early Neural Development Is Important— Immediately and Later

- Early years (fetal to 3 years): Development and sensitivity of early neural systems to extrinsic influences
 - Primary systems
 - Learning and memory (hippocampus/striatum)
 - Speed of processing (myelination)
 - Reward (dopamine/serotonin)
- Later developing higher order neural systems: Rely on early developing neural systems
 - Prefrontal Cortex
 - Initial connectivity from HC, striatum (early in life)
 - » Examples: Prematurity, IUGR, newborn ID
 - Maintenance (throughout development)
 - » Example: Preschool development programs

HC, hippocampus; ID, iron deficient; IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.

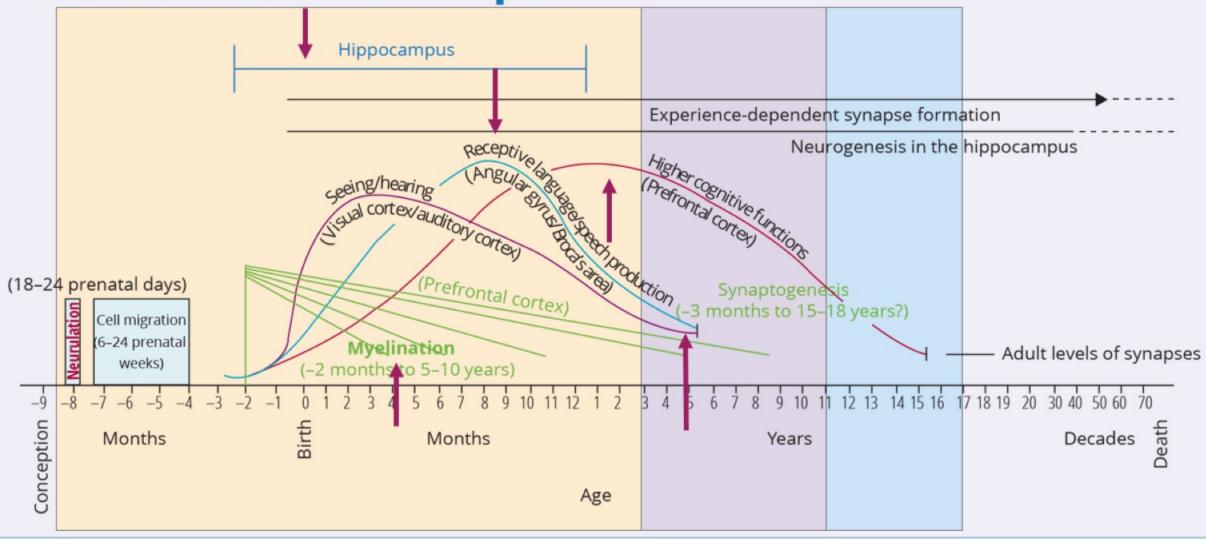


Developing Human Brain





Human Brain Development





Role of Nutrition in Brain Development

- Brain is developing in the late fetal and early neonatal period
 - Regionalized process
 - At risk: Hippocampus, myelination, neurotransmitters
- Highly metabolic process
 - 60% of total body O₂ consumption[†]
 - Reliant on metabolic substrates (nutrients) that support metabolism (eg, O₂, glucose, amino acids, iron, copper, iodine)



Nutrients and Brain: Importance of Timing

- Brain is not a homogenous organ
 - Regions (cortex, hippocampus, striatum, cerebellum)
 - Processes (myelin, neurotransmitters)
- All have <u>different</u> developmental trajectories
- Vulnerability to nutrient deficit is based on
 - When nutrient deficit occurs
 - Region's requirement for that nutrient at that time



Nutrients That Affect Early Brain Development and Later Adult Function

Macronutrients

- Protein^{1,2}
- Fats (LC-PUFA)^{1,2,3}
- Glucose^{1,2}

Micronutrients

- Iron^{1,2,3}
- Zinc^{1,2}
- Copper^{1,2}
- Iodine (Thyroid)^{1,2}

Vitamins/Cofactors

- B vitamins (B6, B12¹)
- Vitamin A
- Vitamin K
- Folate^{1,2,3}
- Choline^{1,2,3}

¹Exhibits critical/sensitive period for neurodevelopment ²Early deficiency results in long-term dysfunction ³Evidence for epigenetic mechanism



Examples of Nutrients and Regional vs Global Perinatal Brain Effects

Nutrient Brain Requirement for Nutrient		Affected Areas	
Protein-energy	Cell proliferation, Cell differentiation, Synaptogenesis, Growth factors	Global Cortex Hippocampus	
Iron	Myelin Dopamine Energy	White matter Striatal-frontal Hippocampal-frontal	
Zinc	DNA Neurotransmitter release	Autonomic NS Hippocampus Cerebellum	
LC-PUFAs	Synaptogenesis Myelin	Eye Cortex	

ANS, autonomic nervous system; LC-PUFAs, long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids.



Evidence for Long-Lasting Effects of Early Nutritional Status on Brain in Humans

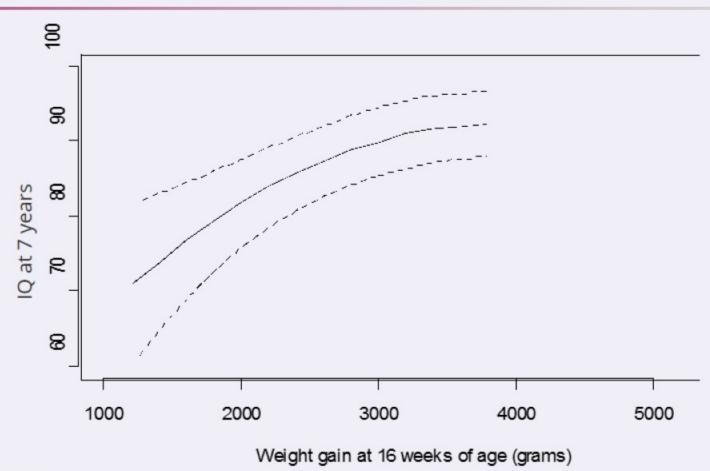
- Outcomes of IUGRs¹
 - Lower IQ
 - Poorer verbal ability
 - Worse visual recognition memory
 - 15% with mild neurodevelopmental abnormalities
 - 30% increased risk of schizophrenia²

- Guatemalan studies show effects 25 years after protein supplementation in childhood³
- Fetal iron deficiency increases risk of
 - Schizophrenia⁴
 - Autism⁵
 - Depression/anxiety⁶
 - Poorer executive function⁷

ID, iron deficient; IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.



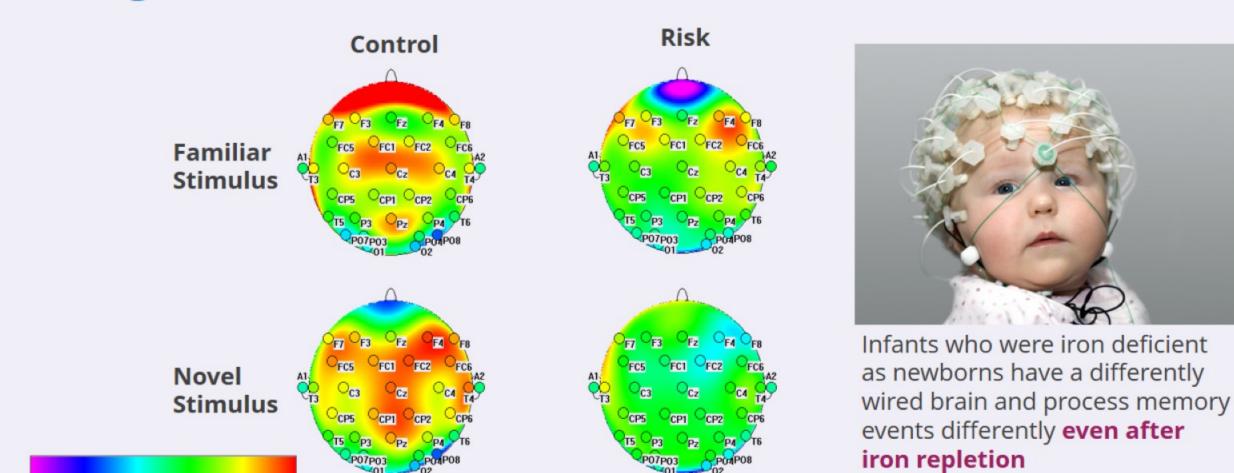
Effect of Postnatal Failure to Gain Weight after IUGR on 7-year IQ



IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.



Long-Term Effects of Newborn ID at 3.5 Years



Fetal ID disrupts neonatal learning and memory



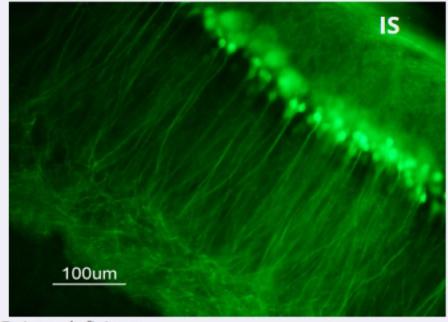
ID, iron deficient.

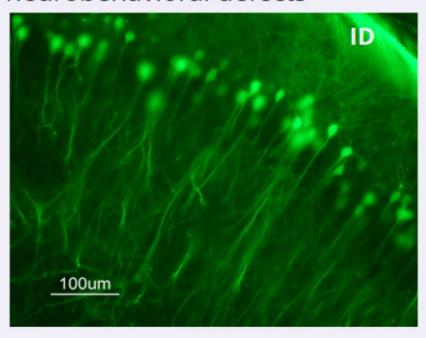
Two Major Theories for Long-term Loss of Synaptic Plasticity



Residual Structural Deficits

- Nutrient deficiencies during critical periods of development result in permanent structural change¹⁻⁴
- Disordered neuronal structures relate to neurobehavioral defects^{5,6}





IS, iron sufficient; ID, iron deficient.



Critical Periods

- As the brain ages, it loses plasticity and ability to recover
- Developing brain is highly vulnerable but also has greater plasticity
- Cellular basis of critical periods being elucidated in
 - Visual system, cortex, hippocampus, language nuclei (bird)
- Lower efficiency
- Higher plasticity
- More amenable to treatment

Critical period of rapid development

- Higher efficiency
- Lower plasticity
- Less amenable to treatment



Two Major Theories for Long-Term Loss of Synaptic Plasticity (continued)

- - Altered Regulation of Synaptic Plasticity Genes Through Epigenetic Modification
 - Gene networks responsible for neurobehavioral performance and risk of psychopathology
 - Specific genes: eg, BDNF
 - Critical for
 - Neuronal differentiation during development
 - Maintenance of adult plasticity
 - Epigenetically modifiable by
 - Fetal and neonatal stress
 - Early life nutrition

BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor.



Epigenetic Modifications of Chromatin

- Methylation of CpG Islands
 - Methyl (CH₃) groups attach to "islands" of DNA where C (Cytosine) and G (Guanine) nucleotides are next to each other
 - More methylation; less DNA transcription → less protein
- Histone Acetylation and Methylation
 - Histones found outside of DNA nucleotides and wind around them
 - Histone status can "open up" gene to more transcription or "close it off" leading to less transcription
- Overall effects depend on whether genes are active or repressive
 - Difficult to make predictions on effect without mapping pathways



Nutrients, Epigenetics, and the Developing Brain

Several fetal/neonatal nutritional conditions associated with brain epigenetic modifications in rodents

 Generalized fetal malnutrition: Responsible nutrients have not been isolated **IUGR** Activation of glucocorticoids: Stress alters BDNF DNA methylation LC-PUFA DNA methylation of BDNF Choline Methyl donors and DNA methylation Folate Iron • Iron deficiency, anemia (hypoxia), or both Vitamin A Vitamin A supplementation reduces DNA methylation Riboflavin Cofactor for small family of lysine histone demethylases

No current evidence for zinc, copper, iodine, selenium, B12, thiamine, other B vitamins, vitamin E, vitamin D

BDNF, brain derived neurotrophic factor; IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction; LC-PUFA, long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids.

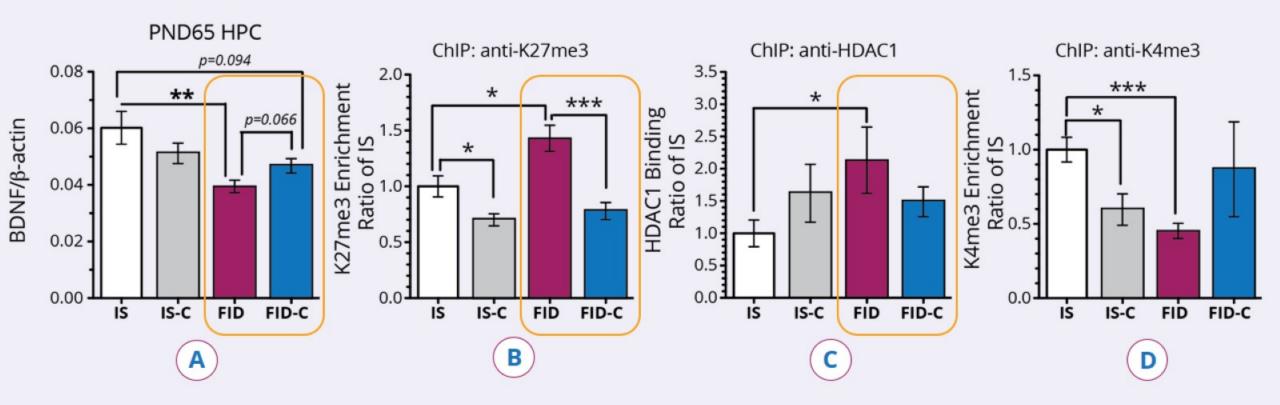


Prenatal Choline Supplementation

- Many populations do not get adequate iron in their diet
 - Grain based
 - Iron inhibitors (eg, phytates, tea)
- Choline
 - Common B-complex vitamin found in eggs, cruciferous vegetables
- Improved electrophysiology, biochemistry, brain morphology, learning, and memory when given during gestation
- Potential biological mechanisms
 - Acetylcholine (neurotransmitter)
 - Phosphotidylcholine (myelin component)
 - Epigenetic modification (CH₃ donor)[†]



Prenatal Choline Rx Reverses Long-term Epigenetic Modifications Caused by Early Life ID



BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; ChIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation assay; FID, formerly iron deficient; HDAC, histone deacetylases; IS, iron sufficient.



Refinement of the Barker Hypothesis

- Barker's associations stronger if difference between degree of IUGR and rapidity of postnatal growth is considered¹
 - High weight gain in first year after IUGR
 - Isn't that "catch-up growth"?
- Concept of a "thrifty phenotype" in utero = "fetal anticipation"
 - Designed to preserve vital systems during periods of relative nutrient insufficiency (IUGR)
 - Caloric demand of human fetal brain, up to 60%³
 - Programming of peripheral muscle insulin resistance to divert glucose to brain
 - Not designed to handle sudden large amounts of nutrient delivery (rapid postnatal re-feeding)

IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.



Fetal Programming in IUGR: Is Catch-up Growth a Good Idea?

- Term, SGA infants given a "growth promoting formula" had higher diastolic BP at 6–8 years of age compared to those on standard formula[†]
- Rat model of maternal <u>protein</u> restriction during pregnancy:
 - Feeding extra protein for catch-up growth resulted in early adult death, especially in males

SGA, small for gestational age.



Does the Postnatal Growth Pattern After IUGR Affect Later IQ?

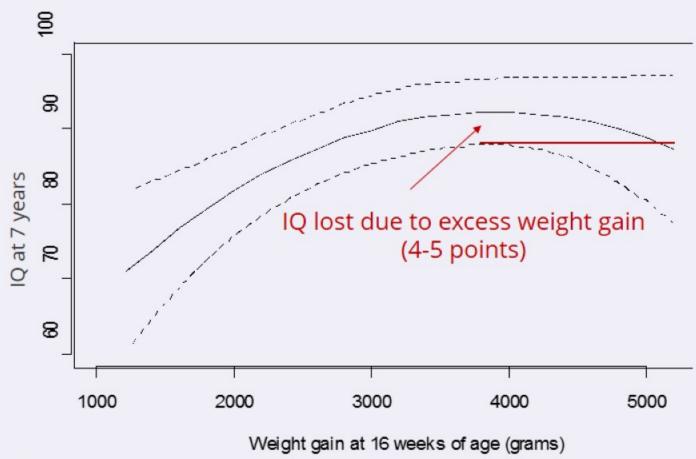
Slow postnatal growth after IUGR decreases IQ even further^{1,2}

- Does excessive growth also affect IQ?
 - 464 IUGR infants (<2.2 kg at >37 weeks)²
 - IQ as a function of postnatal weight gain in the first 4 postnatal months

IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.



Effect of Postnatal Excess Weight Gain After IUGR on 7-year IQ



IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction.

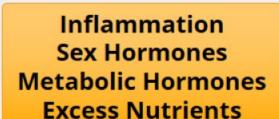


Effect of Maternal Obesity on Offspring Mental Health

Excessive GWG

Maternal Obesity, High-Fat Diet, Metabolic Disease

Intrauterine Development



Early Post-natal Development



Impaired Brain Development

5-HT Melanocortin DA

↑Risk of Mental Health and Neurodevelopmental Disorders



Clinical Implications

Preconception			
Weight management in women of child-bearing age	Reduction of obesity		
Nutrient sufficiency	 Not just macronutrients, but micronutrients 25%–40% of women of CBA are iron deficient Not just a low- and middle-income country problem 		

CBA, child-bearing age.



Clinical Implications (continued)

Gestation	
Blood pressure control	 10% of population suffered IUGR 75% of IUGR in US is due to maternal hypertension or preeclampsia during pregnancy 50% are iron deficient at birth All have protein malnutrition
Blood sugar control	 10% of pregnancies complicated by maternal diabetes (pregestational or gestational) 65% of infants of diabetic mothers are iron deficient at birth
Stress reduction	 Maternal stress → fetal stress → abnormal fetal brain development (and iron deficiency)
Weight management	Reduction of obesity
Nutrient sufficiency	 Prenatal vitamins, including iron LC-PUFA (DHA) supplementation

IUGR, intrauterine growth restriction; LC-PUFA, long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.



Clinical Implications (continued)

Postnatal (especially 0–3 years)		
	BREAST MILK	
Nutrition	 LC-PUFA (DHA) supplementation of formula-fed babies 	
Nutrition	Maintain iron and zinc sufficiency	
	Screen for thyroid status	
Avoidance/reduction of	Steroids alter brain development	
glucocorticoid steroid use	Steroids alter how critical nutrients are accreted	
Reduce infectious burden	 Infection and inflammation alter brain development during critical periods of growth 	

LC-PUFA, long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid.

