

Validation of a pre-coded food record for infants and young children

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1	Validation of a pre-coded food record for infants and young children				
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3	Running title: Validation of a pre-coded food record for infants and young children				
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Background/Objectives: To assess the validity of a 7-day pre-coded food record (PFR)
 method in 9-month-old infants against metabolisable energy intake (ME_{DLW}) measured by
 doubly labelled water (DLW); additionally to compare PFR with a 7-day weighed food record
 (WFR) in 9-month-old infants and 36-month-old children.

Subjects/Methods: The study population consisted of 36 infants (age: 9.03 ± 0.2 months) and 36 young children (age: 36.1 ± 0.3 months) enrolled in a cross-over design of 7 consecutive days PFR vs. 7 consecutive days WFR. Children were randomly assigned to one method during Week 1, crossing over to the alternative method in Week 2. Total energy expenditure (TEE) and ME_{DLW} was obtained in the 9-month-old infants using the DLW technique for 7 days while recording with PFR.

11 Results: For the 9-month-old group, PFR showed a mean bias of +726 kJ/day, equivalent to 12 24 %, (P<0.0001) compared to ME_{DLW} (n=29). Using WFR as the reference in this group no 13 between-method differences were found for energy, fat and carbohydrate. Energy intake in 14 the 36-month-old children was 12% higher in the PFR vs. WFR ($P \le 0.0001$) and protein plus 15 total fat intake were overestimated with the PFR (P=0.008, P<0.0001, respectively). 16 **Conclusions:** The study indicates that the PFR may be a valuable tool for measuring energy, 17 energy-yielding nutrients and foods in groups of 9-month-olds infants and 36-month-olds 18 young children.

19 Keywords: Pre-coded food record; validation; energy intake; doubly labelled water; energy

20 expenditure; dietary assessment

1 Introduction

2 Detailed information regarding energy and nutrient requirements during infancy and early 3 childhood is critical to the provision of sound nutritional advice consistent with growth and 4 development plus the prevention of diet-related disease (Berenson, 2002; Guo et al., 2002). 5 Dietary intake assessment is integral to research as well as in the clinical setting. However, 6 assessment of dietary intake in infants and young children is extremely challenging, requires 7 special methodology and is further complicated by the rapid growth changes that occur during 8 a relatively short period of time. In addition, not all food served to an infant or young child is 9 necessarily consumed, some may be wasted, and if the child attends daycare, adults other than 10 the parents may be involved in dietary assessment. Several studies of estimated food records 11 in children and adolescents have shown an underestimation of food intake by up to 35% 12 (Bandini et al., 1997; Champagne et al., 1998; Singh et al., 2009). However, only little 13 research on the validation of dietary intake methodology in infants and young children exist 14 (Burrows et al., 2010; Davies et al., 1994; Lanigan et al., 2004). 15 The weighed intake record has long been recognized as the most precise method available 16 for estimating usual intakes (Gibson, 1990). However, the method is costly and time 17 consuming for both researchers and participants, and alternate methods are necessary in larger 18 studies. A pre-coded food record (PFR) method was developed to assess the diet of infants 19 and young children between 6 months and 4 years of age (Trolle et al., 2002). We chose a 7-20 day record rather than a 4-day, because 7 days is more representative of habitual diet, percent 21 consumers of different foods decrease with fewer days of recording (Biltoft-Jensen et al., 22 2009), and we wanted to be able to compare the results with The Danish National Survey of 23 Dietary Habits using a similar method (Pedersen *et al.*, 2010). In contrast to the traditional 24 estimated food record method, the PFR uses household measures and photographs for portion

size estimation, and is useful for both infants and toddlers. Furthermore, it is less expensive,
 simpler for parents to administer and is able to be scanned which makes it ideal for use in a

3 range of studies.

The objective of the present study was to assess the validity of a 7-day pre-coded food record (PFR) method in 9-month-old infants against metabolisable energy intake (ME_{DLW}) measured by doubly labelled water (DLW); additionally to compare PFR with a 7-day weighed food record (WFR) in 9-month-old infants and 36–month-old children.

8

9 Materials and methods

10 Subjects

11 Nine-month-old infants and thirty-six-month-old children living in the Copenhagen area were 12 recruited through the central governmental register. Children were identified according to 13 their date of birth and included those born between September 2004 and February 2005 and 14 from July 2007 – March 2008. An invitation letter was sent to 3400 families two weeks 15 before the children turned 9 and 36 months of age, respectively. Inclusion criteria were: age 16 either 9 months \pm 2 weeks or 36 months \pm 3 months, cared for by parents (9-months only), 17 eating a Western diet, kindergarten agreed to participate (36 months only), and parents 18 read/speak Danish. Exclusion criteria were: breastfed, a chronic illness that may impact the 19 energy metabolism, and if regurgitating of milk after ingestion was frequent. One hundred 20 and twenty-two families were interested in participating in the study and 76 were eligible. 21 The study protocol was approved by the ethical committee of the *Capital region* of 22 Denmark and written informed parental consent was obtained (journal no. H-B-2007-022). 23

24

1 Study design

2 Parents were randomly assigned – with stratification for age (9 or 36 months) - to record their 3 child's diet during the first week with PFR or WFR and instructed by the responsible 4 investigator during the first home visit. After the first week, parents were instructed in the 5 other method during a second home visit. We aimed for a one-week period between the two 6 recording periods however up to 10 days was acceptable for the infants and one month for the 7 children. A third home visit was made after the last recording, and the weight and height of 8 the 36-month-olds were recorded. Children were weighed in their underwear and barefoot to 9 the nearest 0.1 kg on a digital scale (Soehnle Verona 63686, www.MEDShop.dk). Height was 10 measured to the nearest 0.5 cm with a stadiometer. 11 If the child was not at home during the last home visit (3 children), the weight and height of 12 the child were collected from the child's health cards, measured by healthcare personnel at the 13 scheduled third year examination. For length and body weight of the infants see DLW section. 14 Pre-coded food record (PFR) 15 The diet was recorded for 7 consecutive days in booklets with pre-coded response categories 16 which included open-answer options and covered meals and snacks. Quantities were 17 estimated from either predefined household measures or from a series of 12 food photographs 18 (Trolle et al., unpublished), depending on the specific food or drink. For food items not 19 included in PFR, parents recorded type of food and portion size eaten in open-answer 20 categories. If the child attended daycare, food and drink was recorded in household measures 21 by the daycare staff on a separate sheet, and then transferred to the pre-coded food record by 22 the parents. 23 All intakes of energy, nutrients and food items recorded in the precoded food record were

24 calculated for each individual using the software system GIES (version 1.000 d), a system

developed at National Food Institute, Technical University of Denmark, and the Danish Food
 Composition Databank (version 7; Søborg; Denmark; www.Foodcomp.dk). The intake model
 in GIES operates with three separate data layers: the recorded food intake, recipes, and food
 composition data. Prior to this study the Danish Food composition Databank and the recipes
 were amended to include products and recipes common for infants and young children.

6 Weighed food record (reference method) (WFR)

7 Parents were provided with structured recording sheets and a digital scale (Soehnle, attaché,

8 A-L Isenkram En Gros AS) with a precision of ± 1 g (0-1000 g) and ± 2 g (1000-2000 g), and a 9 maximum of 2 kg. Practical and written instructions were provided on how to weigh and 10 describe in detail the consumption of food and beverages, how to record food items 11 individually and cumulatively using the scales, and estimate waste by recording all food or 12 beverage not consumed. Parents were asked to provide brand names, detailed descriptions of 13 ingredients used in home-prepared meals and cooking methods. If the child attended daycare 14 the main scientist instructed the daycare staff and provided them with a digital scale and 15 recording sheets. All intakes recorded in the WFR were manually coded in duplicate and 16 calculations were completed in GIES as described above.

17 Doubly labelled water (DLW)

In the 9-month-old group, total energy expenditure (TEE) was measured during the PFR recording period using the DLW technique. DLW is acknowledged as the gold standard measure of TEE in free-living individuals (Ainslie *et al.*, 2003) and has been widely used in infants (Butte *et al.*, 2000). The isotopes were administrated orally either as water or added to approximately 10 ml infant formula. Close to the expected time of a feed the pre-weighed dose was brought to the home of the infant in a small feeding bottle, sealed in a polythene bag. Most infants drank the dose easily and quickly. Pre-weighed tissues were used to mop

1	up any loss that occasionally occurred while the infant was drinking the dose. When infant
2	formula was added to the dose, the portion of DLW was calculated and subsequently, any
3	dose loss. Prior to administration of the DLW dose, the infant was weighed naked at an extra
4	home visit for the 9-month-olds on a baby scale with a precision of 0.001 g (0-15 kg)
5	(Sartorius IP 65, Bie & Berntsen AS). The dose was calculated according to the body weight
6	of the infant as 0.10 g $^{2}\text{H}_{2}\text{O}/\text{kg}$ body weight and 2.8 g $^{18}\text{O}/\text{kg}$ body weight prepared from
7	99.8% 2 H ₂ O and 10.0% H ₂ 18 O, respectively (Cambridge Isotopes Laboratories, Inc., Andover,
8	Massachusetts, USA) and accurately weighed off to the nearest 0.001 g (Mettler PL 200,
9	Mettler-Toledo AS).
10	A pre-dose urine sample was collected from each infant before administering the DLW,
11	and subsequently on days 1 and 7 according to the method described in detail elsewhere
12	(IAEA, 2009). In brief, cotton wool balls were left inside the infants' nappy, which the
13	parents checked frequently for urination. When the infant had urinated the urine sample was
14	obtained by inserting the cotton wool into a 50 ml syringe. The time for voiding was taken as
15	the midpoint between the time for leaving the cotton balls in the nappy and the time for
16	collection of the wet cotton balls. The isotopic enrichment of the prepared samples and
17	references were measured by isotope ratio mass spectrometry (20:20 Hydra Model, PDZ
18	Europa, Crewe, UK).
19	Anthropometric measurements were entered into the software program WHO Anthro 2005
20	(World Health Organization, 2010).
21	Statistics
22	As the SD of the expected mean difference between energy intake estimated from PFR and
23	WFR was not available, the SD for energy intake for children between one and three years of

24 age (1333 kJ) was used from The Danish National survey of Dietary habits (Lyhne *et al.*,

1996). With a significance level of 0.05, and a power of 90%, 35 participants were needed in
 each group to be certain of detecting a mean difference between PFR and WFR of 650 kJ
 (Lenth, 2006).

4 Data were analyzed with SAS (version 9.1 for windows, SAS institute Inc., Cary, NC,

5 USA) with a level of significance of P < 0.05. Data are presented as means and SD.

6 Differences between methods were analysed using paired *t*-tests. Visual agreement between

7 methods was analysed using the Bland and Altman approach (Bland *et al.*, 1986).

8

9 **Results**

10 For the 9-month group 37 children were recruited, and one dropped out because of persistent 11 illness. Data from one infant were excluded due to illness of the child during the recording 12 period. Measurement of TEE was successful in 29 infants with data lost due to either poor 13 parental compliance in collecting urine samples, illness during the study, or regurgitating 14 within 2 h of the dose being given. 42 children were recruited to the 36-month-old group 15 however 6 were lost due to failure of kindergartens to participate and personal problems for 16 families. Data from two young children were excluded due to illness during the recording 17 period. Thus the final study sample included 35 infants and 34 young children. Characteristics 18 of the children are shown in Table 1.

19 TEE results are presented in Table 2. Comparisons with estimated energy intake are 20 possible by including a factor equivalent to the energy cost of growth to derive ME_{DLW} . In 21 absolute terms, the energy cost of growth is 115 kJ/day by 9 months of age (Butte *et al.*, 22 2000).

For the 9-month-old group, no significant between-method differences were found for the
absolute values except for mean protein intake (g/day) where the WFR was significantly

higher (Table 3). For the 36-month-old group, mean energy intake and mean intake of energyyielding nutrients were significantly higher with the PFR. No significant difference was found
for mean intake of total carbohydrate (Table 4). When nutrient density was compared, the
percentage of energy provided by each macronutrient differed significantly for all nutrients,
except protein for the 36-month-old group.

PFR data showed that infants' intake was significantly higher with regard to bread, fruit
and berries and showed significantly higher consumption of milk products (not potable) and
fatty spread for the 36-month-old group, than with the WFR (data not shown).

9 The difference between energy intake from the PFR and ME_{DLW} plotted against the mean of 10 the two methods is presented in Fig. 1. As the observed differences are primarily positive, 11 parents mostly overestimated energy intake using the PFR. The width of 95 % limits of 12 agreement varied from -589 kJ to 2072 kJ (± 2 s.d.). Mean difference between the two 13 methods as percentage of ME_{DLW} was 24 %. The plot demonstrates an increase in differences 14 with increasing energy intake. However, log transforming the data did not change the plot 15 considerable (plot not shown). Energy intake differences between WFR and PFR for the 36-16 month-old group are shown in Fig. 2 which illustrates that overestimation of energy intake 17 with the PFR is pronounced compared to WFR. The width of 95 % limits of agreement varied 18 from -787 kJ to 1959 kJ (± 2 s.d.). Both plots indicate wide discrepancies between the two

- 19 methods for individual subjects.
- 20

21 **Discussion**

22 The present study showed that in 9-month-old infants, PFR substantially overestimated

- 23 energy intake in the infants compared to ME_{DLW}. Using WFR as the reference, in the 9-
- 24 month-olds, energy intake and energy-yielding nutrients were similar for the infants with the

exception of protein. In contrast, for 36-month-old children, PFR overestimated energy intake
 and most energy-yielding nutrients compared to WFR.

3 The DLW technique is non-invasive, completely safe, and involves minimal subject 4 burden. The technique enables a precise estimation of metabolisable energy intake among 5 free-living individuals, including infants and young children (Jones et al., 1987; Roberts et 6 al., 1986). The mean TEE in the current study was $309\pm46 \text{ kJ/kg/day}$ for the 9-month-old 7 infants. This is similar to earlier reported figures of between 306-343 kJ/kg/day for 9-month-8 old infants (Tennefors et al., 2003; Davies et al., 1997; Butte et al., 2000). Slightly higher 9 TEE figures of up to 393 kJ/kg/day for infants between 9 and 12 months of age have been 10 reported (Davies et al., 1991; Vasquez-Velasquez, 1988). Discrepancies in reported TEE 11 findings may be due to differences in the proportion of breast- and formula-fed infants (Butte 12 et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 1998) and differences in the estimated energy deposition for growth 13 and the wide spectrum of nutritional status. We are not aware of any validation studies to 14 have compared PFR with ME_{DLW} in infants and young children. However, validation studies 15 undertaken with older children (aged 10-15 y) estimating food records, have reported an 16 underestimation of habitual energy intake compared with TEE measured by DLW of up to 35 17 % (Bandini et al., 1997; Champagne et al., 1998; Singh et al., 2009). For comparison, the 18 present study found an overestimation of mean energy intake of 24 % compared to ME_{DLW} for 19 the 9-month group. 20 The plot demonstrating the difference between energy intake from the PFR and ME_{DLW} 21 plotted against the mean of the two methods showed a tendency of an increase in the

22 difference with increasing energy intake (Fig. 1), indicating larger difference between the two

23 methods with increasing energy intake for the 9-months-olds.

The higher mean protein intake from the PFR, compared to the WFR, for the infants cannot be explained by significant differences in any of the food groups. Summation of minute differences may have contributed to the observed differences. The nutrient densities showed more significant differences between the two methods than the absolute figures. However, this may be of less importance since the figures are still within the nutrient recommendations for this age group (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2004).

7 In the 36-month-olds, energy intake estimated from the PFR was 12% higher than from the 8 WFR with relatively overestimation of total fat, saturated fat, and added sugars. A highly 9 significant difference was found for intake of fatty spread, a 56% higher intake, and milk 10 products (P < 0.0003 and P < 0.0003, respectively) (data not shown). Differences in these two 11 food groups could explain the overall difference in fat and saturated fat in this age group. The 12 overestimation could be due to difficulties in recording the correct portion size, or the use of 13 too large portion sizes in the PFR. Clearly, one possibility is also that some of the differences 14 simply are caused by the fact that the children had different intakes in the different weeks 15 where the diet was recorded either with the PFR or WFR.

A study validating a semi-quantitative food-frequency questionnaire against a weighed record among 2-year-old children showed a tendency of underreporting unhealthy foods like cake, soft drinks and sweets, while more healthy foods like bread, fruit and potatoes were overreported (Andersen *et al.*, 2004). This tendency was not found in the present study for the 36-month group. However, for the 9-month group bread, fruit and berries were overestimated with the PFR. This overestimation may be caused by too large portion sizes and could be reduced by changing the units of measurement for these food items.

Based on body weight, the mean energy intake for the 36-month-old group was 5370

24 kJ/day, only 2 kJ/day lower than estimated from PFR. This may indicate that there was a

1	degree of underestimation with the WFR while the PFR could be closer to the actual intake.
2	However, estimated values for energy expenditure using the DLW method plus energy stored
3	for growth (2 %) in this age group are around 5000 kJ/day (Torun et al., 1996). For the 9-
4	month-old infants, the recommended energy intake expressed per kilogram body weight was
5	between ME_{DLW} and EI_{PFR} . This may be due to the infants in the current study being less
6	active than would be expected for their age. The boys participating in the study were
7	relatively big, having a weight-for-age z-score of 0.9 and a BMI-for-age of 0.5 (data not
8	shown), indicating that they were larger and heavier than the WHO child growth standards,
9	and must have had a period of surplus energy intake. It is conceivable that their high body
10	weight discouraged physical activity and that they were in a state of positive energy balance,
11	making the bias between ME_{DLW} and EI_{PFR} smaller than presented.
12	It is notoriously difficult to measure food intake accurately for all age groups. Food
13	records, weighed records or recall methods each have their strengths and weaknesses.
14	Measuring food intake for infants and young children has an obvious dependency on the
15	parents or proxy person of the child studied. As the parents normally control the dietary intake
16	of the infant and this age-group primarily eats at home, this provides potential for an accurate
17	recording. However, when the children are at day-care, other caregivers must be involved,
18	who might approach the task of recording with varying levels of motivation and interest.
19	Other factors could include conscious or unconscious modification of usual dietary habits in
20	an attempt to present a more wholesome picture, and omissions or additions, especially if the
21	record was not filled out immediately. Lastly, it is very difficult for the parents to estimate the
22	exact amount of food eaten by the child even while trying. Food may be wasted, perhaps not
23	only on the plate but around and on the child. Sometimes the child may even take the food
24	into his/her mouth, chew it, and subsequently spit it out. Even when using a scale as in

recording with WFR registering the waste and estimating the actual amount consumed can be
 very difficult.

3 A limitation of the present study was the relatively small sample size with lack of finance 4 influencing the use of the DLW technique in only the younger cohort. However, the sample 5 size is consistent with numbers in other validation studies using the technique. 6 In conclusion, the study indicates that the PFR, produces acceptable estimates for energy, 7 energy-yielding nutrients and foods in groups of 9-months-old infants and 36-month-olds 8 young children, and may be a valuable tool for future dietary assessments in infants and 9 young children. 10 11 12 Acknowledgements 13 We gratefully acknowledge the contribution of all the families and children who participated 14 in the study and Majken Ege for help during data collection. The work was supported by 15 grants from the Danish Directorate for Food, Fisheries and Agri Business.

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Conflict of interest: None to declare

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Table 1 Characteristics of subjects 1

2 3

	9-month-old	36-month-old
	(n=35)	(n=34)
Age (months)	9.03±0.2	36.1±0.3
Body weight (kg)	9.4±1.0	15.5±2.0
Height (cm)	73.2±3.2	97.9±3.7
Body weight for age z score ¹	0.7 ± 0.8	0.6±1.0
Energy requirement ² (kJ/child)	3330±355	5369±720
Duration of exclusive breastfeeding (months)	2.9	-
Duration of partial breastfeeding (months)	5.5	-

1) Body weight for age z score was derived from the software program WHO Anthro (World 4

Health Organization, 2010) 5

2) Energy requirement is calculated as kJ/kg body weight of the child (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2004) 6

7

8 Values are means \pm s.d.

9 Percentage male = 56% in both groups

1 Table 2 Energy expenditure (TEE_{DLW}), metabolisable energy intake (ME_{DLW}), energy

2 intake determined by the pre-coded food record (EI_{PFR}) and the weighed food record

3 (EI_{WFR}), and the difference between EI_{PFR} and ME_{DLW} for 9-month-old group (n=29)

	Mean	s.d.
TEE _{DLW} (kJ/day)	2881	118
TEE _{DLW} (kJ/kg/day)	309	46
ME _{DLW} (kJ/day)	2996	493
EI _{PFR} (kJ/day)	3722	901
EI _{WFR} (kJ/day)	3640	846
Difference (EI _{PFR} -ME _{DLW})(kJ/day)	726	673

1 Table 3 Total energy and energy-yielding nutrients obtained from the pre-coded food

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2 record or the weighed food record method in 9-month-old children (n=35)
```

- 3
- 4

	Pre-coded food record		Weighed food record		
Dietary component					P-value
Energy (kJ/day)	3677	884	3825	1036	0.47
Protein (g/day)	27.3	6.3	31.1	9.6	0.03
Protein (E%)	12.7	1.7	13.8	1.8	0.005
Fat (g/day) Fat (E%)	37.9 38.0	11.3 6.0	34.5 34.0	7.4 4.8	0.13 0.0005
Saturated fat (g/day)	14.7	6.8	13.3	3.2	0.29
Saturated fat (E%)	14.5	5.1	13.3	2.4	0.18
Carbohydrate ¹ (g/day) Carbohydrate ² (E%)	111.4 49.3	28.9 6.0	124.3 52.2	42.6 5.1	0.08 0.01
Added sugars (g/day)	3.5	3.8	2.2	2.4	0.05
Added sugars (E%)	1.6	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.036

5 Values are means \pm s.d.

6 1) Available carbohydrates plus fibres

7 2) For carbohydrates E% is the percentage of energy provided by available carbohydrates (17

8 kJ/g) and fibres (8 kJ/g).

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1 Table 4 Total energy and energy-yielding nutrients obtained from the pre-coded food

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2 record or the weighed food record method in 36-month-old children (n=34)
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	Pre-coded food record		Weighed food record		
Dietary component					P-value
Energy (kJ/day)	5372	760	4786	810	<0.0001
Protein (g/day)	47.0	9.7	43.0	9.1	0.008
Protein (E%)	14.8	1.5	15.2	1.7	0.065
Fat (g/day) Fat (E%)	50.9 35.2	9.6 5.2	39.7 30.8	8.1 4.3	<0.0001 <0.0001
Saturated fat (g/day)	21.6	4.7	16.5	3.7	<0.0001
Saturated fat (E%)	14.9	2.8	12.8	2.3	<0.0001
Carbohydrate $(g/day)^1$ Carbohydrate $(E\%)^2$	165.6 50.0	28.4 4.8	159.7 54.0	31.2 4.4	0.116 <0.0001
Added sugars (g/day)	22.1	11.1	15.9	7.7	0.0001
Added sugars (E%)	7.0	3.4	5.8	3.1	0.004

5 Values are means \pm s.d.

6 1) Available carbohydrates plus fibres

7 2) For carbohydrates E% is the percentage of energy provided by available carbohydrates (17

8 kJ/g) and fibres (8 kJ/g).

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- Fig. 1 Difference between energy intake estimated from pre-coded food record (EI_{PFR})
- and metabolisable energy intake as measured by doubly labelled water (ME_{DLW}) plotted
- against the mean of EI_{PFR} and ME_{DLW} for the 9-month-old group., Mean difference; ----, ±2SD (n=29)

- Fig. 2 Difference between weighed food record (WFR) and pre-coded food record (PFR) plotted against the mean of WFR and PFR for the 36-month-old group......, Mean difference; $,\pm 2SD (n=34)$



