

# Position of The American Dietetic Association: Dietary guidance for healthy children aged 2 to 11 years

## ABSTRACT

It is the position of The American Dietetic Association that children aged 2 to 11 years should achieve healthful eating habits and participate in regular physical activity to promote optimal physical and cognitive development, attain a healthful weight, and reduce the risk of chronic disease. The health status of US children has generally improved over the past 3 decades; however, the number of children who are overweight more than doubled. This change has broadened the focus of dietary guidance to address nutrient overconsumption, physical activity patterns, and the attainment of optimal health through chronic disease prevention. This position reviews what US children are eating and explores trends in dietary, food, and nutrient intakes, and the impact of school meals on children's diets. Dietary recommendations, guidelines, and the impact of physical activity are also presented. The position outlines the roles of parents and caregivers in influencing the development of healthful eating behaviors. Public policy implications provide guidance to dietetics and other health professionals. The position calls for The American Dietetic Association to join forces with other health and food industry professionals for translating dietary recommendations and guidelines into achievable and healthful messages. Specific directions are provided to improve the nutritional well-being of children. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 1999; 99:93-101.

## POSITION STATEMENT

*It is the position of The American Dietetic Association that children aged 2 to 11 years should achieve healthful eating habits and participate in regular physical activity to promote optimal physical and cognitive development, attain a healthful weight, and reduce the risk of chronic disease.*

## INTRODUCTION

The health status of US children has generally improved over the past 3 decades as evidenced by lower rates of infant mortality and a decline in the major deficiency diseases of the past (1). During the past decade, however, the number of children who are overweight has more than doubled. Approximately 11% of American children are overweight and an additional 14% have a body mass index between the 85th and 95th percentiles, which puts them at increased risk for becoming overweight (2). Thus, overweight is currently a much more prevalent condition among US children, including low-income children, than underweight and growth retardation (3,4). In the face of this change, dietary guidance for US children has broadened from an earlier focus on issues of nutrient underconsumption and deficiency to include concerns related to nutrient overconsumption, physical activity patterns, and the attainment of optimal health through chronic disease prevention (5). Because children younger than 2 years of age and adolescents (aged 12 years or older) have unique nutritional requirements and concerns, this position focuses on healthy children aged 2 to 11 years. This position does not include children with special health needs who are at increased risk for nutrition-related problems (6).

Healthful eating habits in childhood prevent chronic undernutrition and growth retardation as well as immediate childhood health problems such as iron-deficiency anemia and dental caries (7). Although chronic undernutrition is now rare in the United States, it has been estimated that as many as 8% of 12-year-olds in the United States experience food insecurity, which has profound effects on children's emotional, behavioral, and cognitive development (8,9). However, the availability of feeding programs in schools increases the probability that children will eat breakfast and thus improve their educational (10) and nutritional status (11). Also, iron-deficiency anemia has an adverse effect on cognitive development. Although the prevalence of iron deficiency has decreased among preschool children during the past decade, continued efforts are needed to monitor its impact, particularly among children in low-income households. Healthful eating habits for all children can best be achieved by consumption of a varied diet in moderation (12) that includes foods from each of the major food groups, as illustrated by the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) Food Guide Pyramid (13).

There is a pressing need for US children to achieve eating and physical activity patterns that will enable them to attain healthful weights and prevent long-term health problems, such as coronary heart disease, cancer, stroke, and osteoporosis. Childhood adiposity, in and of itself, has been shown to influence adult mortality and morbidity (14,15). In addition, chil-

dren who are overweight are more likely than normal-weight children to become obese adults (16), which increases their lifetime risk of coronary heart disease, hypertension, type 2 diabetes mellitus, gallbladder disease, osteoarthritis, and some cancers (17,18). Children who are overweight also often experience psychological stress, poor body image, and low self-esteem (19,20).

Excessive intake of fat, especially saturated fat, has been associated with subsequent development of chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and certain cancers (21,22). The important role of fiber in the diet has been recognized by numerous health organizations (12,22,23). Dietary fiber decreases the risk of several chronic diseases, including heart disease, obesity, diabetes, and colon cancer (23-25). Diets high in fiber also contain less fat, cholesterol, and energy than diets low in fiber. Data indicate that higher intakes of fruits and vegetables are associated with a lower risk of cancer at most sites (26,27) and may reduce the risk of coronary heart disease (28,27). Failure to meet calcium requirements in childhood can impede the achievement of maximal skeletal growth and bone mineralization, increasing the risk of developing osteoporosis later in life (7,30). Lastly, food choice and physical activity behaviors have been shown to track throughout childhood until late adolescence (31). Given these findings, it has been suggested that major gains in public health would be made if children's diets in the United States were more in line with the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (12,32) and if physical activity levels were increased (33).

#### WHAT ARE AMERICAN CHILDREN EATING?

Dietary intake data have been collected from US children in both large, nationwide surveys and smaller, longitudinal studies (34-43). Despite some survey design differences, there are consistent findings of trends in children's current nutrient intakes and eating patterns.

#### Trends in Dietary Intake

Total energy intake of US children has increased or, in some cases, remained stable, whereas energy intake per kilogram body weight has decreased (43-45). The percentage of energy intake from protein and carbohydrate has increased. In contrast, the percentage of energy intake from total fat has decreased from 38% to 33%, and percentage of energy from saturated fat has decreased from 16% to 11% (43,44,46). The decrease in fat intake reflects a decrease in intakes of palmitic, stearic, and oleic fatty acids.

Trends in nutrient intakes of 10-year-old children are consistent with national trends in the food supply and trends in the types of foods consumed by children (47-49). In the Bogalusa Heart Study (42), there was an overall decline in the total amount of milk, vegetables, soups, breads, grains, and eggs consumed, with an increase in the total amounts of fruits and fruit juices, carbonated beverages, poultry, and cheese consumed. The percentage of total fat from milk, fats/oils, pork, mixed meats (ie, combination dishes including meat), eggs, and desserts has decreased, and the percentage of fat from poultry, cheese, and snacks has increased. Between 1977 and 1994, milk consumption declined by 24% among boys and by 32% among girls aged 6 to 11 years (50). During the same period, there were changes in the type of milk children consumed. The proportion of children drinking reduced-fat or fat-free milk has doubled since the late 1970s, and by 1994 these milk categories were consumed more frequently than whole milk (51). Other shifts in food consumption include a decrease in egg consumption, an increase in consumption of poultry, and substitution of margarine for butter (42,49,50).

#### Current Food and Nutrient Intake

On average, reported mean energy intakes of children aged 2 to 11 years meet the 1989 Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs) for energy (43). However, energy intakes are often underreported in dietary surveys (52) and it has been demonstrated that the 1989 RDA for energy is set higher than children's actual energy needs (53), indicating that many US children are in positive energy balance. Although the diets of children are healthier today, approximately 70% of US children still exceed the current dietary recommendations for total and saturated fats (43).

Average intake of most vitamins and minerals in 2- to 11-year-olds exceed 100% of the RDA (43). After age 11, there is an increase in the percentage of youth and adolescents who do not meet the RDAs, particularly for iron (in girls) and zinc, or the Dietary Reference Intakes (DRIs) for calcium (43,54,55).

The macronutrient composition of children's diets is no different from that shown in young adults (44,46). What may be different, however, are the types of foods consumed and their contribution to intakes of specific nutrients (41,42). Lifestyles and eating behaviors, which change throughout the life cycle, influence the types of foods consumed. For example, the percentage of total fat from milk decreases and the percentage of total fat from meats increases in the diet as children get older (40). Similarly, studies have shown regional and ethnic variations in types of foods consumed and their contribution to the diet, yet the macronutrient composition of children's diets remain unchanged (38,39).

Average dietary fiber intake among children ranges from 11.2 g (3- to 5-year-olds) to 14.0 g (6- to 11-year-olds) (43); these levels of intake have remained virtually the same since 1976 (55,56). Vegetables, soups, fruit, and fruit juices contribute close to 40% of the total dietary fiber of 10-year-olds (56).

Children are not eating the recommended amounts of fruits and vegetables (43,57,58). Ninety-one percent of children aged 6 to 11 years are not consuming the recommended minimum of 5 servings of fruits and vegetables per day, averaging 2.5 servings daily. Similarly, in a study of 4-year-old Latino children, the mean number of servings of fruits and vegetables consumed per day was 2.8 (59).

The food choices of most US children do not meet the recommended intake of food groups outlined in the Food Guide Pyramid (40). The percentage of 2- to 19-year-olds who do not meet recommendations ranges from approximately 70% for fruits, grains, meats, and dairy to approximately 64% for vegetables. The number of servings from the vegetable and meat groups increased in 2- to 19-year-olds, whereas those from the fruit group decreased. These data emphasize the need for a total diet approach that encourages the consumption of fruits, vegetables, and grains, with an emphasis on lower-fat options (41).

Approximately 82% of children aged 6 to 11 years consume snacks, accounting for 20% of total daily energy intake and 19% of total fat and saturated fat intake (43). Sixty-seven percent of children aged 6 to 11 years consume food away from home, accounting for close to one third of total daily energy, fat, and saturated fat intakes (43).

#### Impact of School Meals on Children's Diets

More than 26 million children, 66% of children aged 6 to 10 years, participate in the National School Lunch Program daily (60). For some 10-year-olds, approximately 50% to 60% of their total daily intake of energy, protein, cholesterol, carbohydrate, and sodium comes from school meals (61). The contribution of school meals to total daily intake of vitamins and minerals ranges from 45% for iron to 77% for calcium. School

lunch provides 22% of energy intake, with 39% of the energy coming from fat and 14% of energy from saturated fatty acid. One third of the total sodium intake and 8% of total sucrose intake comes from school lunch (61).

Breakfast is an important meal for growing children. Studies have documented a significant positive relationship between eating breakfast and school performance (62,63) and overall nutritional well-being of children (64-66). Children who skip breakfast (approximately 14%) have total nutrient intakes that are lower than children who consume breakfast at school or at home (64).

Beginning with the 1996-1997 school year, schools participating in the USDA's national school meals programs were required to serve meals that complied with the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (67). This change enhances the coordination of school foodservice with classroom nutrition education; reinforces messages about healthful eating, which emphasizes the total diet and not any single food or nutrient; and gives students opportunities to practice healthful eating skills (7). Across the country, school meals are becoming more healthful in an effort to improve the nutritional status of children. Dietetics professionals need to partner with the food industry in promoting this national effort.

### **Tracking of Nutrient Intakes in Children**

Tracking is a term used to indicate the likelihood of a child to remain in a respective rank for nutrient intake in relation to his or her peers. Several studies have examined the nutrient intakes of children at 2, 3, and 4 years old and compared them with their intake in subsequent years to determine whether nutrient intakes tracked over time (68,69). Data suggest that tracking nutrient intake should begin in children as young as 3 to 4 years. One study showed that 36% to 57% of children in the highest quintile of fat intake at 3 to 4 years old remained in that quintile at 5 to 6 years old, and 57% to 86% remained in the top 2 quintiles. At 7 to 8 years old, 40% to 67% of those with the highest fat intake at baseline were still in the top quintile, and 60% to 93% remained in the top 2 quintiles (69). Milk consumption during childhood can also track over time, affecting lifetime milk consumption. Among a sample of elderly adults, the frequency of milk consumption during childhood was found to be the strongest predictor of current milk intake (70). Other evidence indicates that children's food choices track from 6th to 12th grade and, therefore, suggest that health promotion interventions should begin before 6th grade, before these patterns become resistant to change (31).

### **DIETARY RECOMMENDATIONS AND GUIDELINES FOR CHILDREN**

In the late 1980s, sufficient evidence of the relationship between dietary factors and chronic disease risk in children existed to prompt more than 10 scientific organizations to issue dietary recommendations and guidelines for children older than 2 years old (71). These dietary recommendations and guidelines for children should be viewed both quantitatively (recommendations) and qualitatively (guidelines). The quantitative recommendations are ultimately to reduce total fat and saturated fat intakes. However, the precise percentage of dietary fat intake to support normal growth and development while still reducing atherosclerosis risk is not known, and there are case studies of parents and children who overinterpret the need to restrict fat intakes. Therefore, the American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Nutrition (72) recommends that children older than 2 years old gradually adopt a diet that by the age of 5 years reflects the following pattern of nutrient intake: saturated fatty acids should be less than 10%

of total energy; total fat over several days should be no more than 30% of total energy and no less than 20% of total energy, and dietary cholesterol should be less than 300 mg per day.

Ideal dietary fiber intake has not been defined; however, several organizations and researchers have proposed a daily intake of 25 to 35 g dietary fiber for adults (73-75). More recently, the recommendation for children older than 2 years is to increase dietary fiber intake to an amount equal to or greater than their age plus 5 g per day (76), to achieve intakes of 25 to 35 g per day after the age of 20 years.

Recommendations have also been made that children should increase their fruit and vegetable consumption to 5 or more servings daily (77). Qualitative guidelines are put forth in the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (12), and the Food Guide Pyramid (13) is an excellent tool for educating consumers on how to achieve the dietary recommendations.

The DRI for calcium exceeds the 1989 RDA for calcium by 500 mg for 9- and 10-year-olds (1989 RDA=800 mg, 1997 DRI=1,300 mg) (78). This change was based primarily on evidence that calcium intakes at levels above the 1989 RDA can increase bone mineral density in children (79,80), thus decreasing their risk of developing osteoporosis later in life (30). It is very difficult to meet children's calcium needs without a source of milk in the diet (81). Among a large sample of US children, only those with a source of milk in the noon-time meal met or exceeded 100% of the 1989 RDA for calcium (82). Thus, including 3 servings a day of milk or dairy products in children's diets is recommended (12).

### **Can Children Follow These Dietary Recommendations and Guidelines and Have Adequate Intake of Energy, Protein, Vitamins, and Minerals Essential for Growth?**

The appropriateness and safety of applying dietary recommendations for fat to young children is still debated (83-86). Numerous studies have been conducted to assess the feasibility, efficacy, and safety of lowering children's dietary fat intake in an effort to determine if the dietary guideline to limit total energy from fat to 30% is appropriate for children over the age of 2 years. These include population studies (87), therapeutic attempts for children with hyperlipidemia (88-90), and community- or school-based interventions that were designed for a general population (91-93). In the Dietary Intervention Study in Children (89), lower fat intake in high-risk children receiving a dietary intervention did not result in adverse effects on growth or serum measures of micronutrients (94). These findings are consistent with other studies that clearly demonstrate the positive effect of modifying the eating behaviors of children on their serum lipid profiles, while maintaining adequate intakes of energy, essential fatty acids, vitamins, and minerals (95). Other studies have shown that the vitamin and mineral content of the diet can potentially be improved when fat is reduced in the diet (96-98). Several of these studies were of short duration, although well controlled and closely monitored.

A select number of studies, several of which have methodologic limitations, imply that unsupervised dietary fat restriction can have negative effects on childhood growth, development, and nutritional status (99-103). Because the observations from these studies were not longitudinal in nature and the subjects were not instructed on fat-modified diets, the effect of low fat intakes on long-term growth and development of cardiovascular risk factors cannot be determined. Data from the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey show that total energy intake has increased and fat intake has decreased in the diets of US children, yet the prevalence of obesity has increased (2,46). Thus, decreasing

fat intakes in US children has not resulted in an increased prevalence of growth retardation or poor weight gain.

Data from Nicklas et al (98) document the positive impact of educational efforts on promoting the US Dietary Guidelines in children in a general population without compromising their nutritional status. In fact, data from the Child and Adolescent Study for Cardiovascular Health showed that vitamin and nutrient density in the diet increased with decreasing fat intake (98). Computer modeling studies have proposed changes showing that the RDA for most minerals, trace elements, and vitamins can be met within a fat-reduced, balanced diet, without major changes in meal patterns or dietary habits (104-106). Peterson and Sigman-Grant (107) showed that exclusive use of selected fat-reduction strategies (ie, nonfat milk instead of reduced-fat or whole milk, lean meats instead of higher-fat meats, or fat-modified products instead of full-fat products) can facilitate achievement of the current dietary recommendations in children. Yet children's overall nutrient intake differs depending on the strategies used. Dietetics professionals working with children and their parents need to be alerted to the potential pitfalls of specific fat-reduction strategies and be knowledgeable of ways to overcome them.

These studies answer the questions raised by some researchers (84,86,108,109) regarding the appropriateness of applying adult dietary recommendations to children. The body of evidence from research now indicates that children can safely consume a diet that conforms to the US Dietary Guidelines, as long as energy intake is adequate and there is variety and moderation in the diet. There is no evidence that children's diets that contain adequate energy and 30% of total energy from fat have any negative health effects (5).

### **Long-Term Health Benefits of Following a Diet that Conforms with Current Dietary Recommendations**

Childhood eating patterns can have long-term health effects. Although heart disease generally does not become symptomatic until adulthood, risk factors associated with coronary artery and hypertensive disease develop during childhood (110-114). Dietary intake is a major environmental determinant of cardiovascular disease, the No. 1 killer in the United States. Yet limited information is available about the influence of diet on cardiovascular disease early in life. However, descriptive studies of diets of children and young adults (34-39,41-45,115,116), observations of diets in different international populations (21), and observations of serum lipoprotein changes with diet manipulation in children (88-90) show that dietary intake relates to cardiovascular disease risk factors. Studies confirm that children with hypercholesterolemia consuming diets containing 30% of energy from fat not only grow and develop normally, they also have decreases in their elevated low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels (89).

Clinical studies demonstrate that calcium intakes at levels above the 1989 RDA can increase bone mineral density in children (79,80). As a result, the Food and Nutrition Board established DRIs for calcium that are higher than the 1989 RDA for older children (78). Getting enough calcium in childhood, adolescence, and early adulthood, when bones reach their maximum density, lowers the risk of developing osteoporosis later in life (117).

### **PHYSICAL ACTIVITY**

Physical activity can aid children in achieving healthful weights (118) as well as promoting their attainment of psychological well-being (119) and optimal bone health (120). Hence, physical activity is an important component of any effort to reverse the trend of increased obesity in US children and osteoporosis

later in life. Although US children are more active than US adults, a Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) survey showed that 48% of girls and 26% of boys do not exercise vigorously on a regular basis (33). At the same time, participation in school-based physical education classes is declining; daily enrollment dropped from 42% of students in 1991 to 25% in 1995 (119). Vigorous activity levels are the lowest among girls (121,122), non-Hispanic blacks, and Mexican Americans (121). In addition, one quarter of all US children watch 4 or more hours of television each day, and hours of television watched is positively associated with increased body mass index and skinfold thickness (121).

In 1997, CDC published guidelines for school and community programs aimed at promoting physical activity among young people (33). Included in the guidelines are a recommendation for daily physical education in schools and suggestions on how to develop effective programs that modify the focus from competitive sports toward emphasizing an active lifestyle through enjoyable participation in physical activity. Clearly there is nothing wrong with competitive youth athletic programs, but these cannot serve the needs of all children. Programs need to be broadened to include activities that appeal to all children, not just those who are athletically gifted. Figure 1 includes suggestions on ways to encourage children to be more active.

### **ROLE OF PARENTS AND CAREGIVERS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF HEALTHY EATING BEHAVIORS**

Environmental and personal factors have an important influence on dietary behavior. Factors other than health concerns, such as taste preferences, cultural norms, and food availability, influence dietary behavior when it comes to making food choices (123). Parents have a major impact on their children's eating and physical activity patterns. Nutrient intakes are known to aggregate in families, with the strongest associations found between mothers and their children (124). In addition, children's eating behaviors are influenced by characteristics within the family unit, such as the number of meals eaten together (125). Children's preferences for high-fat foods, total fat intakes (126), and time spent in sedentary activities (127) have been positively associated with parental adiposity.

It is well known that children's food preferences are a major determinant of their food selection; that is, "children won't eat what they don't like" (128). It is important to realize, however, that children's food preferences are learned through repeated exposure to foods. With a minimum of 8 to 10 exposures to a food, children will develop a clear increase in preference for that food (129). Thus, parents and other child caregivers can provide opportunities for children to learn to like a variety of nutritious foods by exposing them to these foods.

Young children are known to adjust their meal size according to the energy density of food available (130) and are able to adjust their food intake across successive meals to tightly regulate energy intake for 24-hour periods (131). However, child feeding practices have been shown to influence children's responsiveness to energy density and meal size (132). When parents assume control of meal size or coerce children to eat rather than allowing them to focus on their internal cues of hunger, children's ability to regulate meal size in response to energy density is diminished (133). This seems especially problematic among girls with a high body mass index and may play a later role in the chronic dieting and dietary restraint that has become common among US adolescent girls (133). In summary, perhaps some of the best advice regarding child feeding practices continues to be the division of parental and child responsibility advocated by Satter (134), who states that

# Fitness Pyramid for Kids

Frequency: 1 time per week  
Intensity: 90%-100% of HRM\*  
Time: 1-5 minutes

## Red Zone

stair climbing  
sprinting or jogging fast  
jumping rope  
high-intensity aerobic exercise

## Power zone

soccer  
running  
basketball  
racquetball  
tennis  
gymnastics  
ice skating  
cross country skiing

Frequency: 2 times per week  
Intensity: 80%-95% of HRM  
Time: 5-10 minutes

## Kick It Zone

swimming  
wallyball  
in-line skating  
downhill skiing

Frequency: 3 times per week  
Intensity: 70%-85% of HRM  
Time: 15-30 minutes

canoeing  
cycling  
walking (5 miles per hour  
or 2.5 miles in 30 minutes)

## Healthy Heart Zone

volleyball  
dancing  
hunting  
table tennis (1 game)  
walking (3-4 miles per hour  
or 15 minutes each mile)

Frequency: 4-5 times per week  
Intensity: 50%-70% of HRM  
Time: 30 minutes

## Fat Burning Zone

playtag  
hopscotch  
softball  
golf  
bowling  
sledding  
sailing  
biking  
horseshoes  
fishing  
badminton  
archery

Frequency: 6 times per week  
Intensity: 40%-50% of HRM  
Time: 60 minutes

\*HRM—Heart Rate Maximum

Adapted from Mauch, Razler, Schumacker, Strand, Terbizza.

1. Mauch L, Roesler R, Strand B, Terbizan D, and Schumacher J. The Middle School Fitness Education Pyramid. F.E.P. Sales and Consulting. 1977.  
2. Strand B, Mauch L, Terbizan D. The Fitness Education Pyramid—Integrating the Concepts with the Technology. Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Vol 68, no 6, August 1997.

3. Web site: <http://www.corpcomm.net/inrmauch/index.html>.

parents are responsible for presenting a variety of healthful foods to children and deciding the manner in which these foods are presented and children are responsible for whether and how much they eat.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC POLICY

Implications from the pediatric studies of chronic disease risk indicate that it has become imperative for dietetics professionals to develop practical methods to begin prevention of chronic disease early in life. Prevention strategies, both the high-risk (89,135) and public health approach (92,113,136,137), encourage primary intervention to follow the dictum of "first do no harm." As quoted from Berenson et al (138), their central thrust should be to help young generations grow up with healthful habits from the beginning, liberated from the harm of adverse lifestyles that were unwitting consequences of 20th century economic development. Beginning prevention early by improving lifestyles and focusing on healthful food choices within the context of the total diet has the potential for a major impact on the future of adult chronic diseases.

The school is consistently recognized as an appropriate site for health education and promotion (7). Much of the early research in school health education focused on knowledge-based classroom programs. These early studies typically reported positive changes in student knowledge and attitudes but failed to improve health behaviors or make positive changes in physiological risk. Many knowledge-based studies did not consider the multiple factors in the etiology of health behaviors. Eating habits appear to be influenced by the interaction between individuals and their social and physical environments, not simply by knowledge of the healthfulness of foods. Lytle and colleagues (116) emphasized the importance of making nutrition messages developmentally appropriate and delivering specific behavioral messages to help children make informed food choices. Several successful programs incorporate the multicomponent prevention model, beginning in elementary school and extending to high school (92,110,113, 136,137). All of these programs include school meals as a component for promoting the intake of a varied diet within the context of the Dietary Guidelines for Americans. Other community-based settings, such as day care, youth clubs, and sports facilities, provide access to children but have not been adequately explored as sites for providing health promotion and education for children.

The effect of television commercials on children's food consumption and behavior is an important public health issue and needs to be addressed on a national level. It is evident that food advertisements aimed at children are generally contrary to what is recommended for healthful eating for children (139). Dietetics professionals need to be proactively involved in providing leadership in helping parents and teachers educate children to become responsible and informed consumers. Dietetics professionals can also provide input during the development of federal legislation and regulations to advocate for actions that ensure that the messages reaching children are consistent with dietary recommendations.

Finally, the high prevalence of prolonged food insufficiency and episodic hunger among low-income children and its devastating effects (8) indicate an urgent need for sustained government funding of food and nutrition programs designed to create a safety net of public assistance for these children. Safety net programs include the USDA Food Stamp Program; the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children; School Breakfast Programs; School Lunch Programs; the Summer Food Service Program; and the Child and Adult Care Feeding Program.

## CONCLUSION

Most US children do not meet the Food Guide Pyramid (13) recommendations, especially for the fruit, grain, and dairy groups. In addition, the majority of US children do not meet the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (12) for total and saturated fat. The dietary guidelines were meant to be just that: guidelines that are an achievable goal for all Americans over the age of 2 years. The strategies one uses to achieve those guidelines should reflect age, gender, ethnic, and regional differences in food consumption patterns. The best tool for helping the US public meet the US Dietary Guidelines is the Food Guide Pyramid. This tool is broad enough to encompass food preferences and differences in food choices among various segments of the population. Key messages of the US Dietary Guidelines are the importance of variety, moderation, and balance in food choices. These key messages need to be sensitive to cultural diversity. Various ethnic food guide pyramids and a vegetarian meal planning pyramid are available from The American Dietetic Association (140). In addition to providing key messages, there is a need to incorporate behavioral strategies that build on enhancing self-efficacy and self-esteem in children. Children need to develop the confidence that they can successfully make changes in their eating and physical activity patterns. There is an ongoing need for nutrition intervention and education for the US pediatric population (41), and dietetics professionals have the training and skills to meet these needs.

Dietetics professionals can take an active role in promoting dietary recommendations and guidelines for children after the age of 2 years. The American Dietetic Association needs to join forces with other health professional organizations and food industries to work toward translating dietary recommendations and guidelines into achievable and healthful messages for children in the United States.

## Directions for Dietetics Professionals

- Support and promote the Dietary Guidelines for Americans for healthy children after the age of 2 years.
- Support and promote the use of the Food Guide Pyramid as a guide for meeting the dietary recommendations.
- Support and promote the use of the Kid's Activity Pyramid to encourage physical activity among children.
- Disseminate existing comprehensive health education programs.
- Support and promote the implementation of the Dietary Guidelines for Americans in school meals.
- Conduct effective nutrition education training programs for physicians, child nutrition personnel, and other health care providers.
- Foster communication and partnerships across all health-related disciplines.
- Develop and implement strategies for educating parents and caregivers on how to foster a more healthful lifestyle in the home environment.
- Advocate for the need to increase federal and state funding of nutrition education programs.

## References

1. Public Health Service, US Department of Health and Human Services. *Mid-Term Review of Nutrition Objectives 2000*. Washington DC: Government Publishing Office; 1994.
2. Troiana RP, Flegal KM. Overweight children and adolescents; description, epidemiology, and demographics. *Pediatrics*. 1998;101:497-504.
3. McPherson RS, Montgomery DH, Nichaman MZ. Nutritional status of children: what do we know? *J Nutr Educ*. 1990;27:225-234.
4. Mei Z, Scanlon KS, Grummer-Strawn LM, Freedman DS, Yip R, Trowbridge FL. Increasing prevalence of overweight among US low-income preschool children: the Centers for Disease Control and

- Prevention Pediatric Nutrition Surveillance, 1983 to 1995. *Pediatrics* [serial online]. 1998;101:E12. Available at: <http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/content/full/101/1/e12>. Accessed March 16, 1998.
5. Kennedy E, Goldberg J. What are American children eating? Implications for public policy. *Nutr Rev*. 1995;53:111-126.
6. Position of The American Dietetic Association: nutrition services for children with special health needs. *J Am Diet Assoc* 1995;95:809-812.
7. Guidelines for school health programs to promote lifelong healthy eating. *MMWR*. 1996;45:RR-9, 1-41.
8. Kleinman RE, Murphy JM, Little M, Pagano M, Wehler CA, Regal K, Jellinek MS. Hunger in children in the United States: potential behavioral and emotional correlates. *Pediatrics* [serial online]. 1998;101:E3. Available at: <http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/content/full/101/1/e3>. Accessed December 4, 1998.
9. Tufts Center of Hunger, Poverty and Nutrition Policy. *The Link Between Nutrition and Cognitive Development in Children*. Boston, Mass: Tufts University School of Nutrition; 1995.
10. Pollitt E. Does breakfast make a difference in school? *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1995;95:1134-1139.
11. Nicklas TA, O'Neil CE, Berenson GS. Nutrient contribution of breakfast, secular trends, and the role of ready-to-eat cereals: a review of data from the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1998;67(suppl):757S-763S.
12. *Nutrition and Your Health: Dietary Guidelines for Americans*. 4th ed. Washington, DC: US Depts of Agriculture and Health and Human Services; 1995. Home and Garden Bulletin No. 252.
13. *Food Guide Pyramid: A Guide to Daily Food Choice*. Washington, DC: US Dept of Agriculture, Human Nutrition Information Service; 1992. Home and Garden Bulletin No. 252.
14. Power C, Lake JK, Cole TJ. Measurement and long-term health risks of child and adolescent fatness. *Int J Obesity*. 1997;21:507-526, 810-819.
15. Must A, Jacques PF, Dallal GE, Bejaema CJ, Dietz W. Long-term morbidity and mortality of overweight adolescents: a follow-up of the Harvard Growth Study of 1922 to 1935. *N Engl J Med*. 1992;327:1350-1355.
16. Guo SS, Roche AF, Chumlea WC, Gardner JD, Siervogel RM. The predictive value of childhood body mass index values for overweight at age 35 y. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1994;59:547-555.
17. Pi-Sunyer FX. Health implications of obesity. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1991;53(suppl):1595S-1603S.
18. Prentice AM. Obesity—the inevitable penalty of civilization? *Br Med Bull*. 1997;53:229-237.
19. Brownell KD. The psychology and physiology of obesity: implications for screening and treatment. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1984;84:406-414.
20. Wadden TA, Stunkard AJ. Social and psychological consequences of obesity. *Ann Intern Med*. 1985;103:1062-1067.
21. National Research Council, Food and Nutrition Board. *Diet and Health: Implications for Reducing Chronic Disease Risk*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1989.
22. *The Surgeon General's Report on Nutrition and Health*. Washington, DC: Public Health Service, US Dept of Health and Human Services; 1989. Publication No. (PHS) 88-50210.
23. Anderson JW. Fiber and health: an overview. *Am J Gastroenterol*. 1986;81:892-897.
24. Anderson JW, Gustafson NJ. Dietary fiber in disease prevention and treatment. *Compr Ther*. 1987;13:43-53.
25. Council on Scientific Affairs. Dietary fiber and health. *JAMA*. 1989;262:542-546.
26. Steinmetz KA, Potter JD. Vegetables, fruit and cancer. *Epidemiology*. 1991;2:325-357.
27. Block G, Patterson B, Subar A. Fruit, vegetables, and cancer prevention: a review of the epidemiologic evidence. *Nutr Cancer*. 1992;18:1-29.
28. Gey KF. The antioxidant hypothesis of cardiovascular disease: epidemiology and mechanisms. *Cardiovas Res*. 1990;18:1041-1045.
29. Steinberg D. Antioxidants and the prevention of human atherosclerosis. *Circulation*. 1992;85:2338-2344.
30. Matkovic V, Ilich JZ. Calcium requirements for growth: are current recommendations adequate? *Nutr Rev*. 1993;51:171-180.
31. Kelder SH, Perry CL, Knut-Inge K, Lytle LL. Longitudinal tracking of adolescent smoking, physical activity, and food choice behaviors. *Am J Public Health*. 1994;84:1121-1126.
32. McGinnis JM, Foege WH. Actual causes of death in the United States. *JAMA*. 1993;270:2207-2212.
33. Guidelines for school and community health programs to promote lifelong physical activity among young people. *MMWR*. 1997;46:RR-6.
34. Block G, Dresser CM, Hartman AM, Carroll MD. Nutrient sources in the American diet: quantitative data from the NHANES II survey, II: macronutrients and fats. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1985;122:27-40.
35. Block G, Dresser DM, Hartman AM, Carroll MD. Nutrient sources in the American diet: quantitative data from NHANES II survey, I: vitamins and minerals. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1985;122:13-26.
36. Dennis BH, Haynes SG, Anderson JJB, Liu-Chi SBL, Hosking JD, Rifkind BM. Nutrient intakes among selected North American populations in the Lipid Research Clinics Prevalence Study: composition of energy intake. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1985;41:312-29.
37. Goor R, Hosking JD, Dennis BH, Graves KL, Waldman GT, Haynes SG. Nutrient intakes among selected North American populations in the Lipid Research Clinics Prevalence Study: composition of fat intake. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1985;41:299-311.
38. Johnson RK, Johnson D, Wang M, Smiciklas-Wright H, Guthrie H. Characterizing nutrient intakes of adolescents by sociodemographic variables. *J Adolesc Health*. 1994;15:149-154.
39. Johnson RK, Guthrie H, Smiciklas-Wright H, Wang M. Characterizing nutrient intakes of children by sociodemographic variables. *Public Health Rep*. 1994;109(3):414-420.
40. Lytle L, Ebzery MK, Nicklas T, Montgomery D, Zive M, Evans M, Snyder P, Nichaman M, Kelder S, Reed D, Busch E, Mitchell P. Nutrient intakes of third graders: results from the Child and Adolescent Trial for Cardiovascular Health (CATCH) Baseline Survey. *J Nutr Educ*. 1996;28:338-347.
41. Munoz KA, Krebs-Smith SM, Ballard-Barbash R, Cleveland LE. Food intakes of US children and adolescents compared with recommendations. *Pediatrics*. 1997;100:323-329.
42. Nicklas TA. Dietary studies of children and young adults (1973-1988): the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Am J Med Sci*. 1995;310(suppl):S101-S1080.
43. Wilson JAW, Enns CS, Goldman JD. Data tables: Combined results from USDA's 1994 and 1995 Continuing Survey of Food Intakes of Individuals [serial online]. Available at: <http://www.barc.usda.gov/bhnrc/foodsurvey/home.htm>. Accessed February 10, 1998.
44. Nicklas TA, Webber LS, Srinivasan SR, Berenson GS. Secular trends in dietary intakes and cardiovascular risk factors of 10-yr-old children: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1993;57:930-937.
45. Albertson AM, Tobelmann RC, Engstrom A, Asp EH. Nutrient intakes of 2- to 10-year-old American children: 10-year trends. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1992;92:1492-1496.
46. McDowell MA, Briefel RR, Alaimo K, Bischof AM, Caughman CR, Carroll MD, Loria CM, Johnson CJ. *Energy and macronutrient intakes of persons ages 2 months and over in the United States: Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, Phase 1, 1988-1991*. Hyattsville, Md: National Center for Health Statistics; 1994. Advance Data from Vital and Health Statistics, No. 255.
47. Brewster L, Jacobson M, eds. *The Changing American Diet: A Chronicle of American Eating Habits from 1910-1980*. Washington, DC: Center for Science in the Public Interest; 1983:1-78.
48. Byers T. Dietary trends in the United States—relevance to cancer prevention. *Cancer*. 1993;72(3 suppl):1015-1018.
49. Nutrient content of the US food supply, 1909-1994: a summary. Washington, DC: US Dept. of Agriculture, Center for Nutrition Policy and Promotion, 1998. Available at: <http://www.usda.gov/fcs/cnpp/whtsnew.htm>. Accessed November 13, 1998.
50. Borrud L, Enns CW, Mickle S. What we eat: USDA surveys food consumption changes. *Nutrition Week*. Community Nutrition Institute. April 18, 1997:4-5.
51. United States Department of Agriculture (1996) Press Release: What and where our children eat - 1994 nationwide survey results. Release No. 0197.96.
52. Hildreth HG, Johnson RK. The doubly labeled water technique and its role in the determination of energy requirements throughout the life cycle. *Nutr Today*. 1995;30:254-260.
53. Goran MI, Poehlman ET, Johnson RK. Energy requirements across the life span: new findings based on measurements of total energy expenditure with doubly labeled water. *Nutr Res*. 1994;15:115-150.
54. Zive MM, Nicklas TA, Busch EC, Myers L, Berenson GS. Marginal vitamin and mineral intake of young adults: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *J Adolesc Health*. 1996;19:39-47.
55. Alamo K, McDowell MA, Briefel RR, Bischof AM, Caughman CR,

- Loria CM, Johnson CL. *Dietary intake of vitamins, minerals, and fiber of persons ages 2 months and over in the United States: Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, Phase I, 1988-1991*. Hyattsville, Md: National Center for Health Statistics, 1994. Advance Data from Vital and Health Statistics: No. 258.
56. Nicklas TA, Farris RP, Myers L, Berenson GS. Dietary fiber intake of children and young adults: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1995;95:209-214.
57. Kirby S, Baranowski T, Reynolds K, Taylor G, Binkley D. Children's fruit and vegetable intake: socioeconomic, adult, child, regional, and urban-rural influences. *J Nutr Educ*. 1995;27:261-271.
58. Baranowski T, Smith M, Davis HM, Lin LS, Baranowski J, Doyle C, Resnicow K, Wang DT. Patterns in children's fruit and vegetable consumption by meal and day of the week. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 1997;15:216-223.
59. Basch CE, Zybert P, Shea S. 5-A-Day: dietary behavior and the fruit and vegetable intake of Latino Children. *Am J Public Health*. 1994;84:814-816.
60. Burghardt J, Devany B. *The School Nutrition Dietary Assessment Study. Summary of Findings*. Princeton NJ: Mathematica Policy Research;1993.
61. Farris RP, Nicklas TA, Webber LS, Berenson GS. Nutrient contribution of the School Lunch Program: implications for Healthy People 2000. *J Sch Health*. 1992;62(5):180-184.
62. Simeon DT, Grantham-McGregor S. Effects of missing breakfast on the cognitive functions of school children of differing nutritional status. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1989;49:646-653.
63. Dickie N, Bender A. Breakfast and performance in school children. *Br J Nutr*. 1982;48:483-496.
64. Nicklas TA, Weihang B, Webber LS, Berenson GS. Breakfast consumption affects adequacy of total daily intake in children. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1993;93:886-891.
65. Hanes S, Vermeersch J, Gale S. The national evaluation of school nutrition programs: program impact on dietary intake. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1984;40:390-413.
66. Morgan KJ, Zabik ME, Leveille GA. The role of breakfast in nutrient intake of 5-to 12-year old children. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1981;34:1418-1427.
67. Eadie RE. Child nutrition programs: school meal initiatives for healthy children; final rule. 60 Federal Register 31188-31222 (1995).
68. Nicklas TA, Weihang B, Webber LS, Srinivasan, SR, Berenson GS. Dietary intake patterns of infants and young children over a 12-year period: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *J Adv Med*. 1992;5(2):89-103.
69. Singer MR, Moore LL, Garrahe EJ, Ellison RC. The tracking of nutrient intake in young children: The Framingham Children's Study. *Am J Public Health*. 1995;85:1673-1677.
70. Elbon SM, Johnson MA, Fischer JG. Predictors of milk consumption in older Americans. *FASEB J*. 1996;10:A725.
71. Boyle MA, Morris DH. A National Nutrition Agenda for the Public's Health. In: *Community Nutrition in Action: An Entrepreneurial Approach*. St Paul, Minn: West Publishing Co;1994:12-163.
72. American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Nutrition. Cholesterol in children. *Pediatrics*. 1998;101:141-147.
73. Butrum RR, Clifford CK, Lanza E. NCI dietary guidelines: rationale. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1988;48:888-893.
74. Nutritional guidelines for health education in Britain. *Nutr Today*. 1986;21:21-22.
75. Position of The American Dietetic Association: health implications of dietary fiber. *J Am Diet Assoc* 1997;97:1157-1159.
76. Williams CL. Importance of dietary fiber in childhood. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1995;95:1140-1146.
77. *Healthy People 2000: National Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives*. Washington, DC: Public Health Service, US Dept of Health and Human Services;1991:117-119.
78. Food and Nutrition Board. *Dietary Reference Intakes for Calcium, Phosphorus, Magnesium, Vitamin D, and Fluoride*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 1997.
79. Johnston CC, Miller JZ, Slemenda CW, Reister TK, Hui S, Christian JC, Peacock M. Calcium supplementation increases in bone mineral density in children. *N Engl J Med*. 1992;327:82-87.
80. Chan GM, Hoffman K, McMurry M. Effects of dairy products on bone and body composition in pubertal girls. *J Pediatr*. 1995;126:551-556.
81. Magarey A, Seal J, Boulton J. Calcium, fat and the p/s ratio in children's diets: a mixed public health message? *Aust J Nutr Diet*. 1991;48:58-61.
82. Johnson RK, Panely C, Wang MQ. The association between noon-time beverage consumption and the diet quality of school-aged children. *Child Nutr and Mgmt*. In press.
83. Kleinman RE, Finberg LF, Klesh WJ, Lauer RN. Dietary guidelines for children: US recommendations. *J Nutr*. 1996;126(suppl):1028S-1030S.
84. Lifshitz F, Tarim O. Considerations about dietary fat restrictions for children. *J Nutr*. 1996;126(suppl):1031S-1041S.
85. Joint Working Group of the Canadian Paediatric Society and Health Canada. Nutrition recommendations update: dietary fats and children. *Nutr Rev*. 1995; 53:367-375.
86. Zlotkin SH. A review of the Canadian nutrition recommendations update: dietary fat and children. *J Nutr*. 1996;126(suppl):1022S-1027S.
87. Shea S, Basch CE, Stein AD, Contento IR, Irigoyen M, Zybert P. Is there a relationship between dietary fat and stature or growth in children three to five years of age? *Pediatrics*. 1993;92(4):579-586.
88. Langstrom H, Jokinen E, Seppenen R, Ronnema R, Viikari J, Valimaki I, Venetoklis J, Myyrimnaa A, Niinikoski H, Lapinleimu H, Simell O. Nutrient intakes by young children in a prospective randomized trial of a low-saturated fat, low cholesterol diet: the STRIP baby project. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 1997;151:181-188.
89. Writing Group for the DISC Collaborative Research Group. Efficacy and safety of lowering dietary intake of fat and cholesterol in children with elevated low-density lipoprotein cholesterol. *JAMA*. 1995;273:1429-435.
90. Copperman N, Schebendach J, Arden MR, Jacobson MS. Nutrient quality of fat- and cholesterol-modified diets of children with hyperlipidemia. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 1995;149:333-335.
91. Nicklas TA, Johnson CC, Webber LS, Berenson GS. School-based programs for health risk reduction. *Ann NY Acad Sci*. 1997;17:208-224.
92. Johnson CC, Nicklas TA, Webber LS, Berenson GS. Health promotion. In: Ammerman RT, Hersen M, eds. *Handbook for Prevention and Treatment with Children and Adolescents: Intervention in the Real World Context*. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons;1997:287-331.
93. Niinikoski H, Viikari J, Ronnema R, Jokinen E, Seppanen R, Terho P, Tuoinene J, Valimaki I, Simell O. Growth until 3 years of age in a prospective, randomized trial of a diet with reduced saturated fat and cholesterol. *Pediatrics*. 1997;99:687-694.
94. Obarzanek E, Hunsberger SA, Van Horn L, Hartmuller VV, Barton BA, Stevens VJ, Kwiterovich PO, Franklin FA, Kimm SYS, Lasser NL, Simons-Morton DG, Lauer RM. Safety of a fat-reduced diet: the Dietary Intervention Study in Children (DISC). *Pediatrics*. 1997;100:51-59.
95. Dixon LB, McKenzie J, Shannon BM, Mitchell DC, Smicklas-Wright H, Tershakovec AM. The effect of changes in dietary fat on the food group and nutrient intake of 4- to 10-year-old children. *Pediatrics*. 1997;100:863-872.
96. Pietinen P, Dougherty R, Mutanen M, Leino U, Moisio S, Iacono J, Puska P. Dietary intervention study among 30 free-living families in Finland. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1994;84:313-318.
97. Dougherty RM, Fong AKH, Iacono JM. Nutrient content of the diet when fat is reduced. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1988;48:970-979.
98. Nicklas TA, Dwyer J, Mitchell P, Zive M, Montgomery D, Lytle L, Cutler J, Evans M, Cunningham A, Bachman K, Nichaman M, Snyder P. Impact of fat reduction on micronutrient density of children's diets: the CATCH Study. *Prev Med*. 1996;25:478-485.
99. Vobecky JS, Vobecky J, Normand L. Risk and benefit of low fat intake in childhood. *Ann Nutr Metab*. 1995;39:124-133.
100. Stephen AM, Deneer MJ. The effect of dietary fat reduction on intake of major nutrients and fat soluble vitamins. *J Can Diet Assoc*. 1990;51:281-285.
101. Nicklas TA, Webber LS, Koschak ML, Berenson GS. Nutrient adequacy of low fat intakes for children: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Pediatrics*. 1992;89:221-228.
102. Lifshitz F, Moses N. Growth failure: a complication of dietary treatment of hypercholesterolemia. *Am J Dis Child*. 1989;143:537-542.
103. Pugliese MT, Weyman-Daum M, Moses N, Lifshitz F. Parental health beliefs as a cause of nonorganic failure to thrive. *Pediatrics*. 1987;80:175-182.
104. Sigman-Grant M, Zimmerman S, Kris-Etherton PM. Dietary approaches for reducing fat intake of preschool-age children. *Pediatrics*. 1993;91:955-960.
105. Hartmuller VW, Snetselaar L, Van Horn L, Steinmuller P, Smith

- K, Gernhofer N, Evans M, Lasser V, Cecil M, Brown KM, Craddock S, Stevens VJ, von Almen K, Chiostri J, Moag-Stahlberg A. Creative approaches to cholesterol lowering used in the Dietary Intervention Study in Children. *Top Clin Nutr*. 1994;10:71-78.
- 106.** Kersting M, Schoch G. Achievable guidelines for food consumption to reach a balanced fat and nutrient intake in childhood and adolescence. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 1992;11(5, suppl):74S-78S.
- 107.** Peterson S, Sigman-Grant M. Impact of adopting lower-fat food choices on nutrient intake of American children. *Pediatrics* (serial online). 1997;100. Available at: <http://www.pediatrics.org/cgi/content/full/100/3/e4>. Accessed June 10, 1998.
- 108.** Gaull GE. Pediatric dietary lipid guidelines: a policy analysis. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 1995;14:411-418.
- 109.** Canadian consensus conference on cholesterol: final report. *Can Med Assoc J*. 1988;139(11, suppl):1-8.
- 110.** Nicklas TA, Webber LS, Johnson CC, Srinivasan SR, Berenson GS. Foundations for health promotion with youth: a review of observations from the Bogalusa Heart Study. *J Health Educ*. 1995;26(2 suppl):S18-S26.
- 111.** Berenson GS. *Causation of Cardiovascular Risk Factors in Children: Perspectives on Cardiovascular Risk in Early Life*. New York, NY: Raven Press;1986.
- 112.** Berenson GS, McMahan CA, Voors AW, Webber LS, Srinivasan SR, Frank GC, Foster TA, Blonde CV. *Cardiovascular Risk Factors in Children—The Early Natural History of Atherosclerosis and Essential Hypertension*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press;1980.
- 113.** Berenson GS, Areit ML, Hunter S, Johnson CC, Nicklas TA. Cardiovascular health promotion for elementary school children: the Heart Smart Program. In: Williams CL, Ernst L, Wynder, eds. *Hyperlipidemia in Childhood and the Development of Atherosclerosis. Part V. School and Community-Based Interventions*. New York, NY: Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, The New York Academy of Sciences;1991:299-313.
- 114.** Report of a WHO Expert Committee. *Prevention in Childhood and Youth of Adult Cardiovascular Diseases: Time for Action*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization;1990. Technical Report Series 792.
- 115.** McNamara JJ, Molot MA, Stremple JP, Cutting RT. Coronary artery disease in combat casualties in Vietnam. *JAMA*. 1971;216:1185-1187.
- 116.** Lytle LA, Eldridge AL, Kotz K, Piper J, Williams S, Kalina B. Children's interpretation of nutrition messages. *J Nutr Educ*. 1997;29:128-136.
- 117.** Sandler RB, Slemenda CW, LaPorte RE. Postmenopausal bone density and milk consumption in childhood and adolescents. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1985;42:270-274.
- 118.** Troiana RP, Flegal KM, Kuczmarski RJ, Campbell SM, Johnson CL. Overweight prevalence and trends for children and adolescents—the National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys, 1963-1991. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 1995;149:1085-1091.
- 119.** *Physical Activity and Health: A Report by the Surgeon General*. Atlanta, Ga: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention;1996.
- 120.** Ulrich C, Georgiou C, Snow-Harter C, Gillis D. Bone mineral density in mother-daughter pairs: relations to lifetime exercise, lifetime milk consumption, and calcium supplements. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1996;63:72-79.
- 121.** Andersen RE, Crespo CJ, Bartlett SJ, Cheskin LJ, Pratt M. Relationship of physical activity and television watching with body weight and level of fitness among children: results from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *JAMA*. 1998;279:938-942.
- 122.** Goran MI, Gower BA, Nagy TR, Johnson RK. Developmental changes in energy expenditure and physical activity in children: evidence for a decline in physical activity in girls before puberty. *Pediatrics*. 1998;101:887-891.
- 123.** Hornack L, Block G, Lane S. Influence of selected environmental and personal factors on dietary behavior for chronic prevention: a review of the literature. *J Nutr Educ*. 1997;29:306-312.
- 124.** Oliveria S, Ellison R, Moore L, Gillman M. Parent-child relationships in nutrient intake: the Framingham Children's Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1992;56:594-598.
- 125.** Vauthier J, Luch A, Lecomte E, Artur Y, Herbeth B. Family resemblance in energy and macronutrient intakes: The Stanislas Family Study. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1996;25:1030-1037.
- 126.** Fisher JO, Birch LL. Fat preferences and fat consumption of 3- to 5-year-old children are related to parental adiposity. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1995;95:759-764.
- 127.** Eck LH, Klesges RC, Hanson CL, Slawson D. Children at familial risk for obesity: an examination of dietary intake, physical activity and weight status. *Int J Obesity*. 1992;16:71-78.
- 128.** Birch LL, Fisher JO. Appetite and eating behavior in children. *Pediatric Clin North Am*. 1995;42:931-953.
- 129.** Birch LL, Marline DW. I don't like it; I never tried it: effects of exposure to food on two-year-old children's food preferences. *Appetite*. 1982;4:353-360.
- 130.** Birch LL, Deysher M. Caloric compensation and sensory specific satiety: evidence of self-regulation of food intake by young children. *Appetite*. 1986;7:323-331.
- 131.** Birch LL, Johnson SL, Andersen G, Peters JC, Schulte MC. The variability of young children's energy intake. *N Engl J Med*. 1991;324:232-235.
- 132.** Birch LL, Fisher JO. Development of eating behaviors among children and adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 1998;101(suppl):539-549.
- 133.** Johnson SL, Birch LL. Parents' and children's adiposity and eating style. *Pediatrics*. 1994;94:653-661.
- 134.** Satter E. *Child of Mine*. Palo Alto, Calif: Bull Publishing;1986.
- 135.** Johnson CC, Nicklas TA, Arbeit ML, Harsha DW, Mott DS, Hunter SM, Wattigney W, Berenson GS. Cardiovascular intervention for high-risk families: the Heart Smart Program. *South Med J*. 1991;84:1305-1312.
- 136.** Nicklas TA, Johnson CC, Farris RP, Rice RR, Lyon L, Shi R. Development of a school-based nutrition intervention for high school students: Gimme 5. *Am J Health Prom*. 1997;11:315-322.
- 137.** Luepker RV, Perry DL, McKinlay SM, Nader PR, Parcel GS, Stone EJ, Webber LS, Elder JR, Feldan HA, Johnson CC, Kelder SH, Wu M. Outcomes of a field trial to improve children's dietary patterns and physical activity: the Child and Adolescent Trial for Cardiovascular Health (CATCH). *JAMA*. 1996;275:768-776.
- 138.** Berenson GS, Srinivasan SR, Webber LS. Cardiovascular risk prevention in children: a challenge or a poor idea? *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*. 1994;4:46-52.
- 139.** Kotz K, Story M. Food advertisements during children's Saturday morning television programming: are they consistent with dietary recommendations? *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1994;94:1296-1300.
- 140.** Position of The American Dietetic Association: vegetarian diets. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1997;97:1317-1321.
- ADA Position adopted by the House of Delegates on October 5, 1998. This position will be in effect until December 31, 2002. ADA authorizes republication of the position statement/support paper, *in its entirety*, provided full and proper credit is given. Requests to use portions of the position must be directed to ADA Headquarters at 800/877-1600, ext. 4896 or [hod@eatright.org](mailto:hod@eatright.org).
- Recognition is given to the following for their contributions:
- Authors:**
- Rachel K. Johnson, PhD, MPH, RD (University of Vermont, Burlington) and Theresa A. Nicklas, DrPH (North Dakota State University, Fargo)
- Reviewers:**
- School Nutrition Services dietetic practice group (Tami Cline, MS, RD); Dietitians in General Clinical Practice dietetic practice group (Lucille S. Duba, RD; Loren Rosenzweig, RD); William Dietz, MD (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention); Madeleine Sigman-Grant, PhD, RD; National Center for Nutrition and Dietetics (Lorri Fishman, MS, RD); Public Health Nutrition dietetic practice group (Doris Fredericks, MEd, RD; Mary T. Story, PhD, RD); Etta Angel Saltos, PhD, RD; Ellyn Satter, MS, RD; Research dietetic practice group (Linda Snetselaar, PhD, RD); Linda Van Horn, PhD, RD; Pediatric Nutrition dietetic practice group (Robynette L. H. Wong, MPH, RD, CSP)