

1 **Draft**

2 **Principles for deriving and applying Dietary Reference Values**

3 **Opinion of the Scientific Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies**

4 **(Question No EFSA-Q-2005-015a)**

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11 **SUMMARY**

12 The European Commission has requested EFSA to review the existing advice of the Scientific  
13 Committee for Food on population reference intakes for energy, nutrients and other substances  
14 with a nutritional or physiological effect. These reference values date from 1993. Since then  
15 new scientific data have become available for some of the nutrients, and scientific advisory  
16 bodies in many EU member states and in the US have reported on recommended dietary  
17 intakes.

18 This opinion focuses on the general principles for development and application of dietary  
19 reference values (DRV) - quantitative reference values for nutrient intakes for healthy  
20 individuals and populations which may be used for assessment and planning of diets.

21 Similarly to the earlier SCF report in 1993 the Panel proposes to derive the following DRV:

- 22 - *Population reference intakes (PRI)*: the level of (nutrient) intake that is adequate for  
23 virtually all people in a population group.
- 24 - *Average requirement (AR)*: the level of (nutrient) intake that is adequate for half of the  
25 people in a population group, given a normal distribution of requirement.
- 26 - *Lower threshold intake (LTI)*: the level of intake below which, on the basis of current  
27 knowledge, almost all individuals will be unable to maintain metabolic integrity, according  
28 to the criterion chosen for each nutrient.

29 In addition, the Panel also proposes to derive the following DRV:

- 30 - *Adequate Intake (AI)*: the value estimated when a PRI cannot be established because an  
31 average requirement cannot be determined. An AI is the average observed daily level of  
32 intake by a population group (or groups) of apparently healthy people that is assumed to be  
33 adequate.

34 - *Recommended intake ranges for macronutrients (RI)*: the recommended intake range for  
35 macronutrients, expressed as % of the energy intake. These apply to ranges of intakes that  
36 are adequate for maintaining health and associated with a low risk of selected chronic  
37 diseases.

38 The Panel will not address the *Tolerable upper intake level (UL)* as this has been assessed  
39 previously. The UL is the maximum level of total chronic daily intake of a nutrient (from all  
40 sources) judged to be unlikely to pose a risk of adverse health effects to humans<sup>1</sup>

41 Some of the DRV - the AR, PRI and LTI - relate to nutrient requirements that are defined by  
42 specific criteria of nutrient adequacy. In defining nutrient requirement the selection of criteria  
43 to establish nutrient adequacy is an important step. For most nutrients a hierarchy of criteria for  
44 nutrient adequacy can be established, ranging from prevention of clinical deficiency to  
45 optimisation of body stores, or status. Which criterion, or combination of criteria, will be the  
46 most appropriate will be decided on a case-by-case basis.

47 Within any lifestage group, nutrient requirements vary between individuals and the AR, PRI  
48 and LTI represent different points on distribution individual requirements. Nutrient  
49 requirements also differ with age, sex and physiological condition, due to differences in the  
50 velocity of growth for the younger age groups, and age-related changes in nutrient absorption  
51 and body functions and/or functional capacity, such as renal function. Especially in older  
52 subjects, variability in functional capacity and in energy expenditure appears higher than in  
53 younger adults, particularly for elderly above 75 yr.

54 Because of this, DRV are developed for different life stage and sex groups. The panel proposes  
55 to establish DRV for the following age groups, like in the SCF reports of 1993 and 2000: *6-11*  
56 *months; 1-3 years; 4-6 years; 7-10 years; 11-14 years; 15-17 years; 18-29 years; 30-59 years;*  
57 *60-74 years; and  $\geq 75$  years.* For the age group < 6 months requirements are considered to be  
58 equal to the supply from breast-milk, except in those cases where this does not apply. Separate  
59 reference values will be established for pregnant and lactating women, taking into account the  
60 additional nutrient requirement for the formation of new tissues, or to compensate for the  
61 nutrients lost to the body in the form of human milk, respectively, and considering the  
62 physiological adaptations that occur during these conditions.

63 Interpolation or extrapolation between population groups will be used in instances where no  
64 data are available for defined age and sex groups. Both isometric (linear with body weight) or  
65 allometric (body weight to the power of a chosen exponent) scaling methods are being used.  
66 Which method is the most appropriate will be decided on a case-by-case basis.

67 Reference heights and weights are useful when more specificity about body size and nutrient  
68 requirements are needed than that provided by life stage categories. Reference weights will be  
69 the same as in the SCF report, and for children <1 year, as established by the WHO for fully  
70 breastfed infants.

71 Dietary reference values can be used for different purposes, such as in diet assessment and diet  
72 planning, both at the population and individual level, but also as a basis for reference values in  
73 food labelling, and in establishing food based dietary guidelines.

74 In *dietary assessment* of groups the AR can be used to estimate the prevalence of inadequate  
75 intakes of micronutrients (the AR cut-point method), if the distribution of nutrient intakes is  
76 normal, and intakes are independent from requirements. The PRI should not be used for this

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<sup>1</sup> An opinion on tolerable upper intake levels for vitamins and minerals was published in February 2006  
([http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda\\_opinions.html](http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda_opinions.html)).

77 purpose as this would result in overestimation of the proportion of the group at risk of  
78 inadequacy.

79 For macronutrients with a defined recommended intake range for individuals, the distribution  
80 of usual intake of individuals may be assessed to ascertain what proportion of the group lies  
81 outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the range. In case of energy, the mean  
82 usual intake of energy of a defined group, relative to the average requirement, may be used in  
83 assessing the adequacy.

84 For assessment of adequacy of nutrient intakes in individuals dietary reference values are of  
85 limited use. Usual intakes below the AR are likely inadequate, and below the LTI very  
86 probably inadequate, while chronic intakes above the UL may be associated with an increased  
87 risk of adverse effects. For a valid assessment of the adequacy of an individual's usual intake,  
88 combined information with clinical, biochemical (status), and anthropometric data, are needed.

89 In *dietary planning* for groups the usual intake *distribution* should be between the AR and UL  
90 to avoid inadequate, respectively excessive intakes. For nutrients such as vitamins, minerals,  
91 and protein, the PRI can be a practical starting point. However, target median intakes higher  
92 than the PRI might be considered, especially in case of a skewed intake distribution.

93 For macronutrients the distribution of usual intake of individuals should be such as to minimize  
94 the proportion of the group that lies outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the  
95 range. For energy, the reference intake (estimated average energy requirement) of the group  
96 based on sex, age, height, weight, and physical activity level of the group may be used as a  
97 planning goal.

98 **Key words**

99 Dietary reference values (DRV), Population reference intakes (PRI), Recommended intake  
100 ranges for macronutrients (RI).

101

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140 **BACKGROUND AS PROVIDED BY EC**

141 The scientific advice on nutrient intakes is important as the basis of Community action in the  
142 field of nutrition, for example such advice has in the past been used as the basis of nutrition  
143 labelling. The Scientific Committee for Food (SCF) report on nutrient and energy intakes for  
144 the European Community dates from 1993. There is a need to review and if necessary to update  
145 these earlier recommendations to ensure that the Community action in the area of nutrition is  
146 underpinned by the latest scientific advice.

147 In 1993, the SCF adopted an opinion on the nutrient and energy intakes for the European  
148 Community<sup>2</sup>. The report provided reference intakes for energy, certain macronutrients and  
149 micronutrients, but it did not include certain substances of physiological importance, for  
150 example dietary fibre.

151 Since then new scientific data have become available for some of the nutrients, and scientific  
152 advisory bodies in many EU member states and in the US have reported on recommended  
153 dietary intakes. For a number of nutrients these newly established (national) recommendations  
154 differ from the reference intakes in the SCF (1993) report. Although there is considerable  
155 consensus between these newly derived (national) recommendations, differing opinions remain  
156 on some of the recommendations. Therefore, there is a need to review the existing EU  
157 reference intakes in the light of new scientific evidence, and taking into account the more  
158 recently reported national recommendations. There is also a need to include dietary  
159 components that were not covered in the SCF opinion of 1993, such as dietary fibre, and to  
160 consider whether it might be appropriate to establish reference intakes for other (essential)  
161 substances with a physiological effect.

162 In this context the EFSA is requested to consider the existing population reference intakes for  
163 energy, micro- and macronutrients and certain other dietary components, to review and  
164 complete the SCF recommendations, in the light of new evidence, and in addition advise on a  
165 population reference intake for dietary fibre.

166 For communication of nutrition and healthy eating messages to the public, it is generally more  
167 appropriate to express recommendations for the intake of individual nutrients or substances in  
168 food-based terms. In this context the EFSA is asked to provide assistance on the translation of  
169 nutrient based recommendations for a healthy diet into food based recommendations intended  
170 for the population as a whole.

171 **TERMS OF REFERENCE AS PROVIDED BY EC**

172 In accordance with Article 29 (1)(a) and Article 31 of Regulation (EC) No. 178/2002, the  
173 Commission requests EFSA to review the existing advice of the Scientific Committee for Food  
174 on population reference intakes for energy, nutrients and other substances with a nutritional or  
175 physiological effect in the context of a balanced diet which, when part of an overall healthy  
176 lifestyle, contribute to good health through optimal nutrition.

177 In the first instance the EFSA is asked to provide advice on energy, macronutrients and dietary  
178 fibre. Specifically advice is requested on the following dietary components:

- 179
- Carbohydrates, including sugars;

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<sup>2</sup> Scientific Committee for Food, Nutrient and energy intakes for the European Community, Reports of the Scientific Committee for Food 31<sup>st</sup> series, Office for Official Publication of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 1993.

- 180           • Fats, including saturated fatty acids, poly-unsaturated fatty acids and mono-  
181           unsaturated fatty acids, *trans* fatty acids;  
182           • Protein;  
183           • Dietary fibre<sup>3</sup>.

184 Following on from the first part of the task, the EFSA is asked to advise on population  
185 reference intakes of micronutrients in the diet and, if considered appropriate, other essential  
186 substances with a nutritional or physiological effect in the context of a balanced diet which,  
187 when part of an overall healthy lifestyle, contribute to good health through optimal nutrition.

188 Finally, the EFSA is asked to provide guidance on the translation of nutrient based dietary  
189 advice into guidance, intended for the European population as a whole, on the contribution of  
190 different foods or categories of foods to an overall diet that would help to maintain good health  
191 through optimal nutrition (food-based dietary guidelines).

## 192 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

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196 Przyrembel, Sean (J.J.) Strain, Inge Tetens and Henk van den Berg.

## 197 **ASSESSMENT**

### 198 **1. Introduction**

199 Acknowledging the magnitude of the task involved for this request and considering the  
200 resource implication and time-constraint, the Panel decided on the following approach:

- 201 – To lay down the general principles for the basis of deriving and applying dietary reference  
202 values (DRV).  
203 – DRV comprise both nutrient recommendations and reference intake levels.

204 For each nutrient/dietary component:

- 205 – to review existing DRV and relevant related scientific publications;  
206 – to identify criteria (endpoints), and key evidence / data on which to base the DRV; and  
207 – based on the above, to give a critical and independent judgement on the appropriate DRV.

208 The main objective for nutrition recommendations is to ensure a diet that provides energy and  
209 nutrients for optimal growth, development, function and health during the whole life. Nutrient  
210 requirements can be deduced from physiological needs and metabolic demand. There is also  
211 increasing evidence that nutrients and diet composition influence the risk of chronic diseases  
212 (WHO, 2003). In more recent editions of (national) nutrient recommendations, epidemiological  
213 and other data on disease risk have therefore been used, if available, as an additional criterion  
214 in estimating nutrient requirements, such as for calcium and vitamin D, but also in establishing  
215 recommendations for safe and adequate intake ranges for macronutrients.

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<sup>3</sup> There is no harmonised definition of dietary fibre at the European Community level.

At the international level the recent meeting of the Codex Committee on Nutrition and Foods for Special Dietary Uses made a recommendation for the definition of dietary fibre for nutrition labelling purposes but a definition has not yet been adopted.

(see Alinorm 05/28/26 Appendix III - <http://www.codexalimentarius.net/web/reports.jsp?lang=en>)

216 In this task, the Panel will focus on establishing dietary reference values for energy and  
217 nutrients. The Panel assumes that, in general, for any given population group, physiological  
218 requirements will not vary across populations in Europe and therefore allow defining a  
219 common set of dietary reference values for the European population.

## 220 **2. General principles for deriving dietary reference values**

221 As nutrients are consumed as foods, nutrient requirements need translation into recommended  
222 nutrient intakes and finally into food-based dietary guidelines to help consumers to meet  
223 recommended intakes (FAO/WHO, 1998; Eurodiet, 2000; USDA, 2005). In setting dietary  
224 (nutrient) recommendations, the following four separate steps can be identified:

### 225 **2.1. Estimating the physiological requirement and metabolic demand**

226 Metabolism embraces the processes through which life is maintained, and there are on-going  
227 needs for energy and nutrients to support these processes. The rate at which a nutrient has to be  
228 provided to the body to support metabolism and maintain function represents the physiological  
229 requirement or metabolic demand for that nutrient. The physiological requirement varies  
230 between individuals dependent upon genetic and epigenetic differences, age, sex, physiological  
231 state such as pregnancy, and also varies in the same individual in response to environmental  
232 stress such as infection, trauma, behavioural or social stressors. For a group of people of similar  
233 age, sex and state, the variation in the requirement for a nutrient has been presumed to  
234 approximate a normal distribution which can be characterised by its central tendency (mean),  
235 and its distribution (standard deviation). The metabolism is tightly regulated and its adaptation,  
236 by modifications of absorption, elimination, recycling, degradation, constitution or  
237 mobilization of body stores, allows individuals to cope with the large variations of day to day  
238 intakes, in the short- and medium term. This metabolic adaptation should be taken into account,  
239 if appropriate, when setting recommendations for populations.

### 240 **2.2. Establishing the dietary requirement of nutrients**

241 Some nutrients need to be provided in the diet, and for others metabolism can contribute to  
242 their formation and availability to the body. The amount of a nutrient which has to be provided  
243 preformed in the diet, or the amount of the precursor which has to be taken in the diet in order  
244 to meet the physiological requirement is known as the dietary requirement. The dietary  
245 requirement has been identified as that amount of a nutrient which must be consumed on a  
246 regular basis to maintain health in an otherwise healthy individual, on the assumption that the  
247 requirements for energy and all other nutrients have already been satisfied. The dietary  
248 requirement will differ from the physiological requirement depending on a range of factors,  
249 such as the efficiency or effectiveness of absorption and utilisation of the nutrient, or the extent  
250 to which the nutrient can be formed as a part of metabolic interchange. The requirement is a  
251 characteristic of an individual and the magnitude of the dietary requirement varies amongst  
252 individuals of similar age, sex and physiological state. This variation has been presumed to  
253 approximate a normal distribution which can be characterised by its central tendency (mean),  
254 and its distribution (standard deviation).

### 255 **2.3 Establishing recommendations for nutrient intakes**

256 A number of different terms have been used to characterise a habitual level of intake of a  
257 nutrient which will satisfy the needs of most of the members of a population group. For a  
258 number of purposes it is desirable to be able to identify this level of intake. For nutrients for  
259 which an average dietary requirement can be established, this level of intake has been set as the

260 mean plus two standard deviations of the average requirement. The assumption is that if the  
261 intake of all members of the group were at this level, the risk of an inadequate intake for any  
262 member of the group would be small (<2.5%).

263 The definition of the dietary reference values has found great practical utility in the planning of  
264 food provisions and the characterisation of the nutritional status of populations.

265 Recommendations on nutrient intakes include the adequate intake (AI), the population  
266 reference intake (PRI), and the recommended intake ranges (RI) used for macronutrients.

267 When no average requirement can be established, adequate intake levels, and recommended  
268 intake ranges can be used. Recommendations for energy are derived on a different basis than  
269 recommended intakes for nutrients.

#### 270 **2.4. Food-based dietary guidelines**

271 Food-based dietary guidelines represent the form in which advice is provided to people to assist  
272 them in selecting a diet to meet their needs for health.

273 Nutrients are consumed as food. A wide range of foodstuffs together comprise the diet of the  
274 individual, group or population. Advice to people about selecting foods based on their  
275 nutritional composition is not helpful without giving advice on how to select a suitable mix of  
276 foods to meet their nutritional requirements on the basis of foods. Increasingly it is being found  
277 that particular patterns of food consumption appear to confer health benefits that cannot simply  
278 be ascribed to their containing an adequate mix of individual nutrients, suggesting that there are  
279 unidentified factors which may contribute to the health benefit conferred.

### 280 **3. Terminology and definitions**

281 Wide range of terminologies have been used by different national Agencies. In 2007, an expert  
282 group from WHO/FAO discussed the concept of nutrient based dietary standards. They  
283 proposed a harmonization of terminology used by national and international groups, and to  
284 limit the number of nutrient intake values (King et al., 2007). The Panel decided to derive a set  
285 of dietary reference values following on from an earlier report (SCF, 1993) and using the same  
286 definitions:

287 **Dietary reference values (DRV):** the complete set of nutrient recommendations and reference  
288 values such as the adequate intake level, the lower threshold and upper intake levels.

289 **Population reference intakes (PRI):** the level of (nutrient) intake that is enough for virtually  
290 all healthy people in a group.

291 **Average requirement (AR):** the level of (nutrient) intake that is enough for half of the people  
292 in a healthy group, given a normal distribution of requirement.

293 **Lower threshold intake (LTI):** the level of intake below which, on the basis of current  
294 knowledge, almost all individuals will be unlikely to maintain metabolic integrity, according to  
295 the criterion chosen for each nutrient.

296 In addition to these values defined by the SCF (1993), the Panel will also use the following:

297 **Adequate Intake (AI):** it is the value estimated when a PRI cannot be established because an  
298 average requirement cannot be determined.

299 **Recommended intake ranges for macronutrients (RI):** the recommended intake range for  
300 macronutrients, expressed as % of the daily energy intake.

301 **Tolerable upper intake level (UL):** the maximum level of total chronic daily intake of a  
 302 nutrient (from all sources) judged to be unlikely to pose a risk of adverse health effects to  
 303 humans.

304 Similar recommendations and definitions are being used by other authorities and in other  
 305 countries, although the terminology may vary (Table 1).

306 Table 1. **Terminology used for dietary reference values used by different bodies.**

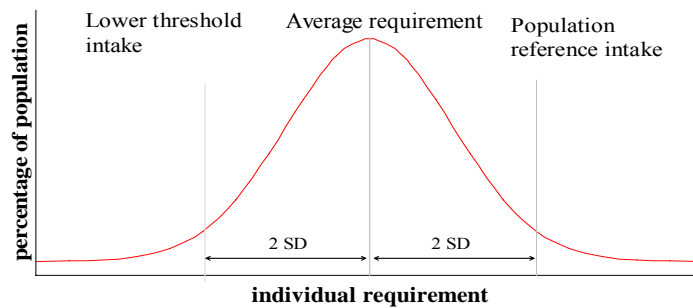
This report	Population reference intake (PRI)	Average requirement (AR)	Lower threshold intake (LTI)	Adequate intake (AI)	Recommended intake range (RI)	Tolerable upper intake level (UL)
UK (DoH, 1991)	Recommended intakes (RI)	Average requirement	Lower level of intake			
SCF, 1993	Population reference intake	Average requirement	Lower threshold intake (LTI)	Adequate intake	-	-
United States (IoM 1997, IoM 1998, IoM 2002)	Recommended dietary allowance (RDA)	Estimated average requirement (EAR)	-	Adequate Intake	Acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges (AMDR)	Tolerable upper intake level
Germany, Austria, Switzerland (D-A-CH, 2000)	Empfohlene Zufuhr	-	-	Schätzwerte Richtwerte	-	-
The Netherlands (GR, 2000)	Aanbevolen dagelijkse hoeveelheid (ADH)	Gemiddelde behoefte	-	Adequate inneming	-	Aanvaardbare bovengrens
France (AFSSA, 2001)	Apport nutritionnel conseillé (ANC)	Besoin nutritionnel moyen	-	Apport nutritionnel conseillé (ANC)	Apport nutritionnel conseillé (ANC)	Limite de sécurité
Nordic countries (NNR, 2004)	Recommended intakes (RI)	Average requirement	Lower limit of intake (LI)	-		Upper intake level (UL)

307

308 **4. CONCEPTUAL BASIS FOR DERIVATION OF DIETARY REFERENCE VALUES**

309 **PRI**

310 The PRI is derived from the average requirement (AR) of a defined group of individuals in an  
 311 attempt to take into account the variation of requirements between individuals, as well as other  
 312 factors affecting the requirement.



313

314 Figure 1. **Population reference intakes (PRI) and average requirement (AR), if the**  
 315 **requirement has a normal distribution and the inter-individual variation is**  
 316 **known**

317 By convention and on the assumption that the individual requirement for a nutrient is normally  
 318 distributed and the inter-individual variation is known, the PRI is calculated on the basis of the  
 319 AR plus twice its standard deviation (SD) (Figure 1). This will meet the requirements of 97.5%  
 320 of the individuals in the population. When the distribution of the requirement among  
 321 individuals is not normal, data may be transformed to normality. The magnitude of the PRI in  
 322 relation to the AR depends on the estimated variation between individuals.

323 However, data on inter-individual variation in requirements are limited to a few nutrients. For  
 324 nutrients for which the variation in requirement is unknown, a default coefficient of variation  
 325 (CV) of 10% to 20% is used assuming a normal distribution (IoM: 10%; AFSSA: 15%; GR:  
 326 10-20%). Depending on the CV used the PRI is set at 1.2 (CV=10%), 1.3 (CV=15%), or 1.4  
 327 (CV=20%) times the estimated AR. In this task, the coefficient of variation will be decided on  
 328 a case-by case basis.

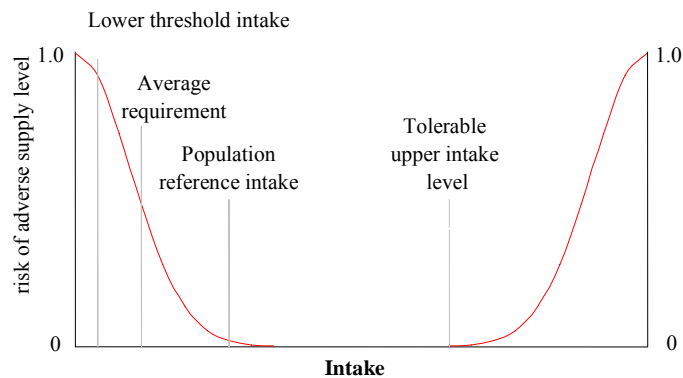
329 PRI are expressed on a daily basis, but are applied to usual intakes averaged over longer  
 330 periods of time e.g. one week or longer.

331 **AR**

332 The average requirement is the level of intake of a defined group of individuals estimated to  
 333 satisfy the physiological requirement or metabolic demand, as defined by the specified criterion  
 334 for adequacy for that nutrient, in half of the healthy individuals in a life stage or sex group, on  
 335 the assumption that the supply of other nutrients and energy is adequate.

336 **LTI**

337 The LTI is the lowest estimate of the requirement from the normal distribution curve, and is  
 338 generally calculated on the basis of the AR minus twice its SD (Figure 1). This will meet the  
 339 requirements of only 2.5% of the individuals in the population. When the distribution of the  
 340 requirement among individuals is not normal, data may be transformed to normality.



From: Health and Welfare, Canada, 1983; as adapted by Netherlands Health Council, 2000

341

342 Figure 2. **Relationship between individual intake and risk of adverse effects due to**  
 343 **insufficient or excessive intake**

344 **AI**

345 An AI is the average (median) daily level of intake based on observed, or experimentally  
 346 determined approximations or estimates of nutrient intake, by a group (or groups) of apparently  
 347 healthy people that is assumed to be adequate. The practical implication of an AI is similar to  
 348 that of a PRI, i.e. to describe the level of intake that is considered adequate for health reasons.  
 349 The terminological distinction relates to a difference in the way in which these values are  
 350 derived and to the resultant difference in the ‘firmness’ of the value.

351 **RI**

352 For some energy-yielding macronutrients, recommended intakes are expressed as the  
 353 proportion (percentage) of energy derived from that macronutrient. These are usually derived  
 354 from data on intake in healthy populations and on data on risk of chronic disease and apply to  
 355 ranges of intakes that are adequate for maintaining health and associated with a low risk of  
 356 selected chronic diseases.

357 **UL**

358 The tolerable upper intake level (UL) is the maximum level of total chronic daily intake of a  
 359 nutrient (from all sources) judged to be unlikely to pose a risk of adverse health effects to  
 360 humans<sup>4</sup>.

361 **Energy**

362 Recommendations for energy have a different basis than those for other nutrients. The energy  
 363 intake should balance total energy expenditure to avoid under- or overweight, and it is  
 364 generally presented as estimated average requirement for a defined group with a specified mean  
 365 height and weight, and a specified age, sex and activity level.

<sup>4</sup> An opinion on tolerable upper intake levels for vitamins and minerals was published in February 2006 ([http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda\\_opinions.html](http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda_opinions.html)). In this task, therefore, only UL’s for macronutrients will be established, if appropriate.

366 **5. Methods for determining dietary reference values – types of data used**

367 A variety of data and methods can in principle be used in deriving estimates on (average)  
368 nutrient requirements and establishing nutrient-diet-health relationships. These may vary  
369 between *in vitro* studies, animal studies, human experimental nutrition studies, and  
370 epidemiological studies. Which methods and data are most appropriate depends on the criterion  
371 or criteria chosen.

372 **5.1. Criteria for assessment of nutrient requirement**

373 In defining nutrient requirement the selection of criteria to establish nutrient adequacy is an  
374 important step. An obvious criterion would be the risk of deficiency, i.e. the amount of a  
375 nutrient needed to prevent, or reverse clinical deficiency symptoms. This criterion has been  
376 used in earlier recommendations, as well as criteria based upon functional competence, i.e. the  
377 amount needed to maintain a critical nutrient-related function, biochemical or physiological,  
378 such as maintenance of a desirable plasma level or nutrient-dependent enzyme activity over a  
379 certain time period, in otherwise healthy people. Maintenance of cell (organ) integrity or data  
380 on body composition, nutrient body stores or pool size, are other typical criteria that can be  
381 used. In the more recently published recommendations, epidemiological and clinical data on  
382 health outcome, such as disease risk reduction in relation to the nutrient intake pattern and/or  
383 diet composition, are also taken into consideration, if available. Although clinical endpoints,  
384 e.g. data on morbidity or mortality, are considered the most relevant, surrogate markers of  
385 health outcome can provide useful information (IoM 1997, 1998, and 2002; Diplock et al.,  
386 1999; Asp et al., 2003 & 2004).

387 For most nutrients a hierarchy in criteria for nutrient adequacy can be established, ranging from  
388 prevention of clinical deficiency to optimisation of body stores or status, to minimising chronic  
389 disease risk.

390 Which criterion, or combination of criteria, is the most appropriate remains a matter of  
391 scientific judgement, taking into account all available data and weighing of the evidence, and  
392 should be decided on a case-by-case basis.

393 **5.2. Methods for establishing nutrient requirements**

394 Experimental feeding studies in humans, such as depletion-repletion and nutrient balance  
395 studies, are classical approaches for assessing the basic (average) requirement for a nutrient.  
396 Due to the limited time of observation they may not reflect the steady state and they may  
397 underestimate the possibility of adaptation to lower intakes.

398 In balance studies under- or overestimation of excretory losses and/or retention are a problem  
399 due to incomplete collection of urine and faeces, and/or through the skin, depending on the  
400 level of intake. This is especially true for nutrients that are highly conserved in the body, such  
401 as iron and calcium. Balance studies indicated higher iron retentions than observed in the more  
402 reliable radio isotope studies (Green, 1968). In case of calcium apparent nutrient balance has  
403 been observed, even at relatively high intakes (around 2 g/day), and this approach likely  
404 overestimates actual requirements (Heaney, 1977; Matkovic, 1990).

405 For some B-vitamins, metabolic conversion (or synthesis) by the intestinal bacteria might  
406 complicate balance studies. Results from depletion-repletions studies tend to overestimate  
407 requirements, most likely due to incomplete equilibration, as was shown for vitamin B-6 (see  
408 IoM report, 1998)

409 Biochemical markers of the nutritional (nutrient) status, or combinations of different markers,  
410 are widely used to assess nutritional adequacy.

411 Data on the dose response between nutrient intake and status indicators, such as the nutrient (or  
412 metabolite) blood or tissue level, enzyme activity, are useful, but also data on physiological  
413 (functional) response measures, such as immune competence, nerve conduction velocity, or  
414 physical or cognitive performance, etc. are potentially valuable but are difficult to standardise.

415 For some nutrients, the so-called factorial method is used in establishing nutrient needs, which  
416 involves adding up the various factors that determine the requirement for maintenance of a  
417 defined plasma level or body store, and that is associated with the absence of adverse health  
418 effects, respectively normal tissue or body function. This needs measuring of the amounts of  
419 nutrients that leave the body via the faeces, urine and skin, either unchanged or as metabolites  
420 and also estimating the amounts that are required for growth, pregnancy or lactation. State of  
421 the art isotope techniques now enable accurate estimation of nutrient kinetics, i.e. nutrient  
422 fluxes and measurement of 'true' absorption and retention rates.

423 The extra requirement during growth and pregnancy is due to the amounts of nutrients that  
424 become incorporated into newly formed tissues, an effect which is referred to as 'retention'.

425 During pregnancy body weight increases by 10-15 kg, with a stage-specific rate, which is low  
426 in the first half, highest in the second trimester and slightly lower in the third trimester (0,15-  
427 0,69 kg/wk during wks 13-20; 0,31 – 0.65 kg/wk during wks 20 – 30, and 0,18 – 0,61 kg/wk  
428 during wks 30- 36, respectively) (IoM, 1990). The total weight gain includes the weight of the  
429 foetus (ca 25%), the placenta (ca 5%) and the amniotic fluid (6%). In setting recommendations  
430 for growing children and pregnant women consideration is also given to the many  
431 physiological adaptations that occur during these conditions, such as an increased absorption,  
432 and/or greater nutrient retention or losses.

433 Extra requirements during lactation are determined in part by the amounts of nutrients lost to  
434 the body in the form of human milk.

435 For infants during the first half of the first year of life (0 to 6 months) the nutrient intake of  
436 healthy well-growing exclusively (fully) breast-fed infants is generally considered to be  
437 adequate and, therefore, to correspond to the requirement for nutrients. The average measured  
438 concentration of the nutrient in milk obtained from a representative sample of adequately  
439 nourished women is multiplied by the average intake volume of breast-fed infants over the first  
440 six months of life and regarded to be the AI over this period.

441 Exceptions to this rule are vitamin D and K, the intake of which is generally insufficient with  
442 human milk feeding. It is, moreover, important to ascertain the adequacy of the nutritional  
443 status of the lactating woman providing milk samples, especially with respect to those nutrients  
444 whose contents in milk depend on the dietary intake of the mother (i.e., iodine, selenium,  
445 vitamin A, vitamin B6, vitamin B12).

446 For older infants between 7 and 11 months a combination of the nutrient intake from human  
447 milk plus the intake from typical complementary food can be used, if no other data are  
448 available.

449 Basic research in animal models can produce valuable knowledge on mechanisms and/or dose-  
450 response relationship. However, due to inter-species differences, extrapolation from animal  
451 models to humans is subject to considerable uncertainties and data from animal models are  
452 rarely used in the setting of DRV, e.g. in case of ULs, when data from human studies are  
453 insufficient.

### 454 **5.3. Diet and health relationship: risk of chronic disease**

455 In addition to data on basic nutrient requirements based on maintenance of body stores and  
456 function, evidence is accumulating on the relationship between dietary intake and risk of

457 chronic disease and obesity (WHO, 2003). For some nutrients such as sodium, calcium and  
458 vitamin D, but especially for the energy-yielding macronutrients such as fatty acids, data from  
459 clinical and epidemiological studies are now used in deriving nutritional recommendations.

460 Observational epidemiological studies can provide valuable data on the association between  
461 dietary nutrient intake and health effects, such as disease risk or mortality, in free-living  
462 subjects, but by themselves cannot prove causal relationships. Additional pieces of evidence  
463 are therefore needed to establish causality. Other limitations include confounding and  
464 systematic bias in nutrient and energy intake estimates from self-reporting.

465 Randomised, controlled intervention studies with ‘hard’ clinical endpoints, such as morbidity  
466 and mortality, are considered as the most reliable, and to have the highest strength of evidence.

467 However, also intervention trials have their limitations. Representativity of the data and  
468 extrapolation of the results to the general population can be a problem, as intervention studies  
469 are often done in selected subgroups, such as persons with an already increased disease risk or  
470 history of disease. Follow-up periods are relatively short compared to the long periods of  
471 disease development, especially in chronic disease, such as cancers. Intervention with  
472 relatively high dosages and using isolated or purified nutrients will also affect the outcome, and  
473 represent a different situation as in studies with complete diets and nutrients consumed as food  
474 at usual intake level.

475 Judgement should therefore be based on the consistency, strength and quality of the studies,  
476 and take into account all the available evidence obtained with the various methods, including  
477 knowledge on the mechanism linking nutrient intake and the occurrence of chronic disease.

#### 478 **5.4. Interpolation or extrapolation between population groups**

479 Interpolation or extrapolation will be used in instances where no data are available for defined  
480 age and sex groups which permit proceeding according to Sections 4.1 to 4.3. Interpolation  
481 between different population groups, whether isometric (linear with body weight) or allometric  
482 (body weight to the power of a chosen exponent), has limitations and will be made according to  
483 scientific judgement on a case-by-case basis (see Appendix I).

484 Because of the assumptions made in interpolation or extrapolation, due to lack of knowledge  
485 on the proportionality of nutrient requirements with parameters such as body or metabolic  
486 weight during growth, reference values for the age groups between 6 months and 18 years,  
487 might have a higher uncertainty than those for adults. Metabolic weight has been defined as  
488 0.75 power of body mass (weight), and is also used as the preferred method by some authorities  
489 to adjust for metabolic differences between age groups (see Appendix I).

#### 490 **5.5. Factors that affect nutrient requirements**

491 Nutrient requirements vary between individuals due to differences in absorption and utilization  
492 of nutrients from the diet. This may be related to the food matrix, i.e. liberation of nutrients  
493 from the food matrix in the course of the digestive process, as well as to diet composition and  
494 interactions with other diet-related factors.

495 Bio-availability has been defined as the fraction of an ingested nutrient which is absorbed from  
496 the gastro-intestinal tract and utilised for normal physiological function or storage (Jackson,  
497 1997). Host-related factors may play a role, such as stomach acidity, and in some cases nutrient  
498 status, but food/diet composition and food preparation are the main determinants of nutrient  
499 bio-availability. Iron in the form of haem-iron is much better available than non-haem iron due  
500 to a different absorption mechanism. The absorption of iron also depends on the size of the

501 body iron store. Calcium from e.g. dairy products is in general better absorbed than that from  
502 vegetable sources.

503 Nutrient-nutrient interactions may result from competition at the level of absorption, such as  
504 between copper and zinc. Vitamin C enhances the absorption of non-haem iron through  
505 formation of a soluble complex with ferrous iron in the stomach.

506 Dietary protein requirements depend on the protein quality of the diet, and present another  
507 example of a food-related factor affecting dietary requirements (Millward and Jackson, 2003).  
508 Dietary protein requirements may be slightly higher for groups consuming mainly vegetable  
509 proteins, e.g. vegans.

## 510 **5.6. Lifestage and sex**

511 In this task, the reference weights for different age and sex groups from the SCF reports (1993  
512 and 2000) will be considered (Table 2). Reference weight are used in interpolation, or  
513 extrapolation of nutrient requirements for population (sub)groups for which insufficient or no  
514 data are available to set a reference value. Reference weights are also used in calculation of the  
515 average energy requirements. The Panel recognizes that the reference weights used in the SCF  
516 report were based upon pooling of national data from a limited number of EU member states.  
517 These data are relatively old and not necessarily representative for the newer EU member  
518 states, but will be used until more recent and representative data will become available. The  
519 Panel would recommend the development of a database with reference weights and heights  
520 representative for the total European population.

521 The age group < 6 months will not be considered given that requirements will refer to amounts  
522 of nutrients provided by breast-milk, except on a case-by-case basis where this does not apply.  
523 The choice of life stage groups is based upon differences in requirements related to velocity of  
524 growth, change in endocrine status, such as in puberty, and age-related changes in nutrient  
525 absorption and body functions and/or functional capacity, such as renal function. In older  
526 subjects, especially in elderly above 75 yr, variability in functional capacity and in energy  
527 expenditure appears higher than in younger adults. Separate recommendations will be made for  
528 pregnant and lactating women.

529 The age ranges used in this report slightly differ from those used in some of the national  
530 reports. The differentiation between the younger age groups between 4 and 18 years is the same  
531 as used in the earlier SCF report, while in the IoM and other (national) reports, this group is  
532 split in 4-8, 9-13, and 14-18 years, respectively, but the actual choice of age ranges remains  
533 somewhat arbitrary. The differentiation between young adulthood (18-29 yr) and middle age  
534 (30-59 yr) relates to the observed decrease in the mean energy expenditure and the achievement  
535 of an optimal peak bone mass, which affect requirements for some of the nutrients. In case of  
536 the elderly, the differentiation between 60-74 yr and >75 yr is based upon observed differences  
537 in functional and physiological capacity, and in energy expenditure.

538 Table 2. **Reference weights of population groups in Europe (source: SCF, 1993 and**  
 539 **2000)**

Age (yr)	Reference weight (kg) <sup>1</sup>	
	Males	Females
0-6 months	6.0	5.5
7-11 months	9.0	8.3
1-3	13.0	12.5
4-6	20.0	19.0
7-10	28.5	29.0
11-14	44.5	45.0
15-17	61.5	53.5
18-29	74.6	62.1
30-59	74.6	62.1
60-74	73.5	66.1
≥75	73.5	66.1

540 <sup>1</sup> Based upon median weights of European men and women from various studies (for references see SCF, 1993). Weights  
 541 for the age groups up to 1 year are based upon median values from the WHO Multicentre Growth Reference Study  
 542 (WHO, 2006).

## 543 **6. Application of dietary reference values for nutrients**

544 Applications of dietary reference values fall into the two interrelated general categories, i.e.  
 545 diet assessment and diet planning. Both can be done for individuals or for population(s)  
 546 (groups). Dietary reference values are also applied as the basis for reference values in food  
 547 labelling.

548 Diet assessment applications involve determining the probable (in)adequacy or excess of  
 549 observed intakes. Diet planning applications involve using dietary reference values to develop  
 550 recommendations for what food intakes should be in order to achieve nutritional balance.  
 551 Rather than focussing on a fixed recommended or advised intake level, the distribution of  
 552 nutrient intakes among the population is now considered of more importance. For that purpose  
 553 a set of dietary reference values is derived that can be used both for diet assessment and  
 554 planning.

### 555 **6.1. Assessment of (in)adequacy of nutrient intake**

#### 556 **6.1.1. Assessment of (in)adequacy of nutrient intake in populations**

557 Intakes of individuals vary from day-to-day, and thus many days of intake are needed to  
 558 estimate a person's usual intake. Because it is seldom practical to collect data for many days,  
 559 statistical methods are available to remove the effect of day-to-day variation from the intake  
 560 distribution for a group. This general approach was proposed by NRC (1986), was further

561 developed by Nusser et al. (1996) and shown to be robust (Hofmann et al., 2002). It can also be  
562 adapted to take into account the effects of age (Waijers et al., 2006). To adjust intake  
563 distributions it is necessary to have at least two independent days of dietary intake data for a  
564 representative subsample of individuals in the group (IoM, 2000).

565 Most dietary assessment methods result in some underreporting of food (and nutrient) intakes  
566 at the group level, and the methods of removing day-to-day variation do not remove this  
567 negative effect. Therefore, the prevalence of inadequacy in populations may be overestimated  
568 for some nutrients (Murphy et al., 2006).

569 The proportion of the population with an inadequate intake may be estimated using the AR cut-  
570 point method, originally proposed by Beaton (1994) and adopted by the US Food and Nutrition  
571 Board (IoM, 2000). This method requires knowledge of the AR and the distribution of habitual  
572 nutrient intakes and has been shown to be effective in obtaining a realistic estimate of the  
573 prevalence of dietary inadequacy (Carriquiry, 1999). The percentage of the population with a  
574 habitual daily nutrient intake that is lower than the AR is taken as an estimate of the percentage  
575 of the population with probable inadequate intakes. For example, at a median intake equal to  
576 the AR, 50% of a population group will have intakes that may be inadequate for the chosen  
577 criterion of nutritional status. At a median intake level around the PRI, intakes are considered  
578 adequate for 97,5% of the population group. Higher intakes usually convey no additional health  
579 benefit. For nutrients for which a UL has been established intakes above the UL may be  
580 associated with increased prevalence of adverse effects in the population.

581 The AR cut-point method only holds if the distribution of nutrient intakes is normal and  
582 requirements and intakes are independent. It is generally assumed that the average daily intakes  
583 of vitamins and minerals are not related to requirements, and that the average requirements for  
584 vitamins and minerals, except iron, are symmetrically distributed (SCF, 1993; IoM, 1997).  
585 However, in the case of skewed distributions, such as in the case of iron, use of the cut-point  
586 method would lead to an underestimate of the prevalence of inadequacy in menstruating  
587 women (SCF, 1993; IoM, 2000). The SD of the habitual daily intakes of vitamins and minerals  
588 are generally greater than 30% of the mean (O'Brien *et al.*, 2001; Hannon *et al.*, 2001) and are  
589 almost always more than twice the commonly assumed variance of requirement of 10–15% of  
590 the mean

591 Energy and protein maintenance requirements are correlated with energy expenditure and body  
592 protein mass, respectively, and energy and protein intakes, together with energy and protein  
593 requirements may therefore behave collinear. Actually, this relationship may involve other  
594 nutrients, because their intakes are often correlated (Day et al., 2001 and 2004).

595 In these cases, application of the AR cut-point method may result in an overestimation of risks  
596 of inadequacy.

597 Probabilistic methods, which take into account both the intake and requirement variability  
598 might be a useful alternative for the AR cut-point method, and give a better estimation of the  
599 real prevalence of inadequacy (de Lauzon et al., 2004).

600 The PRI is an intake level that covers the requirement of 97-98% of all individuals when  
601 requirements of the group have a normal distribution. The PRI should therefore not be used as  
602 a cut-point for assessing nutrient intakes of groups because a certain overestimation of the  
603 proportion of the group at risk of inadequacy would result.

604 The prevalence of inadequacy of intake of a nutrient in a population cannot be estimated using  
605 as comparator the less precise estimates of recommended intake, e.g. nutrients with “adequate  
606 intake” (IoM, 1997), ‘acceptable range of intakes’ (SCF, 1993) or “safe and adequate intake”  
607 (DoH, 1991), because the relationship of such reference values to the requirement for the

608 nutrient is not known. Groups with mean intakes at or above the AI can be assumed to have a  
609 low prevalence of inadequate intakes for the defined criterion of nutritional status.

610 For macronutrients which have a recommended intake range for individuals, the distribution of  
611 usual intake of individuals may be assessed to ascertain what proportion of the group lies  
612 outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the range.

613 Recommended intakes of energy for groups is based on estimated average energy expenditure  
614 associated with the sex, age, height, weight, and physical activity level of the group. Mean  
615 usual intake of energy relative to the average requirement may be used in assessing the  
616 adequacy of energy intakes of groups. Because there is a high correlation between energy  
617 intake and energy expenditure (requirement), median intake of food energy should be close to  
618 the requirement for there to be low risk of inadequate or excessive intake. However, because of  
619 an expected correlation between energy intakes and energy needs at the group level, it is not  
620 possible to generate an unbiased estimate of the prevalence of inadequate or excessive intakes.

### 621 **6.1.2. Assessment of (in)adequacy of nutrient intake in individuals**

622 Usual nutrient intakes of individuals may be compared with specific dietary reference values,  
623 even though dietary intake data alone cannot be used to ascertain an individual's nutritional  
624 status. However, such comparisons are of limited use because of inherent problems in the  
625 validity of the assessment of usual dietary intake in individuals. Ideally, usual intake data  
626 should be combined with clinical, biochemical, and anthropometric information to provide a  
627 valid assessment of an individual's nutritional status.

628 For nutrients with an AI (i.e. without an AR), if an individual's usual intake equals or exceeds  
629 the AI, it can be concluded that the diet is almost certainly adequate. If, however, an  
630 individual's intake falls below the AI, no quantitative (or qualitative) estimate can be made of  
631 the probability of nutrient inadequacy (IoM, 2000).

632 Observed intakes below the LTI have a very high probability of inadequacy.

633 Observed intakes of an individual below the AR very likely are inadequate because the  
634 probability of inadequacy is up to 50 percent, and an intake between the AR and the PRI may  
635 be adequate because the probability of adequacy is higher than 50 percent. For nutrients for  
636 which a UL has been established chronic intakes above the UL may be associated with an  
637 increased risk of adverse effects, and should therefore be avoided.

638 For macronutrients which have a recommended intake range for individuals, usual intake of  
639 individuals may be assessed to ascertain whether it lies between the recommended lower and  
640 upper limits of the range.

641 Recommended intakes of energy for individuals is based on estimated average energy  
642 expenditure associated with an individual's sex, age, height, weight, and physical activity level.  
643 As such, it exceeds the needs of half the individuals with specified characteristics, and is below  
644 the needs of the other half. Because it is difficult to determine energy balance, even from  
645 several days of intake, recent weight history is used as an indicator of the likely adequacy of  
646 energy intake.

## 647 **6.2 Dietary planning**

### 648 **6.2.1. Dietary planning for groups**

649 Planning diets for groups may include institutional food planning, military food and nutrition  
650 planning, planning for food assistance programs, food fortification, and assuring food safety.

651 For groups, the goal of planning is to determine a usual intake *distribution* that results in a low  
652 prevalence of intakes that are inadequate (i.e. less than the AR) or at risk of being excessive  
653 (i.e. greater than the UL). For nutrients such as vitamins, minerals, and protein, the PRI could  
654 be a practical starting point. However, target median intakes higher than the PRI might be  
655 considered, especially in case of a skewed intake distribution (WHO, 2006). The AI may be  
656 used as an appropriate target average when no AR has been established. For macronutrients  
657 which have a recommended intake range for individuals, the distribution of usual intakes of  
658 individuals should be such as to minimize the proportion of the group whose intake lies  
659 outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the range. For energy, the recommended  
660 intake (average energy requirement) of the group based on sex, age, height, weight, and  
661 physical activity level of the group may be used as a planning goal (IoM, 2003).

### 662 **6.2.2. Dietary planning for individuals**

663 Planning diets for individuals may include: (1) providing guidance to healthy individuals to  
664 assist them in meeting their nutrient needs, (2) counseling those with special lifestyle  
665 considerations (e.g., athletes and vegetarians) or those requiring therapeutic diets, (3)  
666 formulating diets for research purposes, (4) developing food-based dietary guidance for  
667 individuals. In addition, providing consumer information on food and supplement labels can  
668 assist consumers in planning their own diets.

669 The goal of planning diets for individuals is to have a low probability of inadequacy while  
670 minimizing potential risk of excess for each nutrient. For energy, the recommended intake  
671 (average energy requirement) based on an individual's sex, age, height, weight, and physical  
672 activity level may be used as an initial planning goal; however, body weight must be monitored  
673 and intake adjusted as appropriate (IoM, 2003). For macronutrients which have a recommended  
674 intake range for individuals, the usual intake of individuals should be between the  
675 recommended lower and upper limits of the range. For nutrients such as vitamins, minerals, and  
676 protein, this is done by ensuring that the usual intake meets the PRI or AI while not exceeding  
677 the UL. PRIs would be an overestimation for most individuals.

### 678 **6.3. Reference values for labelling**

679 Dietary reference values are used for nutrition information on food and dietary supplements so  
680 that consumers can compare products and see how a food fits into their overall daily diet. In the  
681 SCF opinion on the revision of reference values for nutrition labelling (2003), the PRI was  
682 suggested as a basis for reference labelling values (RLV). An 'overall' PRI was extracted,  
683 based upon PRI- (RDA-) values for adults taken from a number of European countries, as well  
684 as values from the US and FAO/WHO.

685 Also the population-weighted mean of the AR has been suggested for use in nutrition labelling  
686 as this lower value might be a better statistical approximation of the nutrient requirement for  
687 any one individual in the population (IoM; 2003; Tarasuk, 2006; Yates, 2007). Accepting the  
688 lower AR values rather than the PRI as a basis for RLV will affect the use of nutrient content  
689 claims on foods that are linked to RLVs, and therefore the number of foods that might claim  
690 that the product is 'source' or 'high' in a certain nutrient.

691 However, the substantial differences in the RLVs derived by taking the AR as the basic value,  
692 compared to the existing RLVs, which are closer to existing RDAs/PRI, might be confusing  
693 for the consumer, and for that reason, the SCF Committee accepted the RDA/PRI as the basis  
694 for the RLV. Which value to take is not a scientific decision, but a management decision after  
695 careful consideration of all implications.

696 **6.4. Food-based dietary guidelines**

697 As diets are composed of foods, food-based dietary guidelines (FBDG) are the form in which  
698 advice is provided to the consumer. FBDG are generally based upon scientific evidence on the  
699 relationship between diet and chronic disease risk, taking into account nutrient  
700 recommendations (WHO 2003). The FBDG are intended for use by individual members of the  
701 general public, and as a tool for use by policymakers, nutritionists, nutrition educators and  
702 healthcare providers, to help consumers in planning an overall healthy diet, while achieving an  
703 adequate nutrient intake.

704 **CONCLUSIONS**

705 This opinion focuses on the general principles for development and application of dietary  
706 reference values (DRV) - quantitative reference values for nutrient intakes for healthy  
707 individuals and populations which may be used for assessment and planning of diets.

708 Similarly to the earlier SCF report in 1993 the Panel proposes to derive the following DRV:

- 709 - *Population reference intakes (PRI)*: the level of (nutrient) intake that is adequate for  
710 virtually all people in a population group.
- 711 - *Average requirement (AR)*: the level of (nutrient) intake that is adequate for half of the  
712 people in a population group, given a normal distribution of requirement.
- 713 - *Lower threshold intake (LTI)*: the level of intake below which, on the basis of current  
714 knowledge, almost all individuals will be unable to maintain metabolic integrity, according  
715 to the criterion chosen for each nutrient.

716 In addition, the Panel also proposes to derive the following DRV:

- 717 - *Adequate Intake (AI)*: the value estimated when a PRI cannot be established because an  
718 average requirement cannot be determined. An AI is the average observed daily level of  
719 intake by a population group (or groups) of apparently healthy people that is assumed to be  
720 adequate.
- 721 - *Recommended intake ranges for macronutrients (RI)*: the recommended intake range for  
722 macronutrients, expressed as % of the energy intake. These apply to ranges of intakes that  
723 are adequate for maintaining health and associated with a low risk of selected chronic  
724 diseases.

725 The Panel will not address the *Tolerable upper intake level (UL)* as this has been assessed  
726 previously. The UL is the maximum level of total chronic daily intake of a nutrient (from all  
727 sources) judged to be unlikely to pose a risk of adverse health effects to humans<sup>5</sup>

728 Some of the DRV - the AR, PRI and LTI - relate to nutrient requirements that are defined by  
729 specific criteria of nutrient adequacy. In defining nutrient requirement the selection of criteria  
730 to establish nutrient adequacy is an important step. For most nutrients a hierarchy of criteria for  
731 nutrient adequacy can be established, ranging from prevention of clinical deficiency to  
732 optimisation of body stores, or status. Which criterion, or combination of criteria, will be the  
733 most appropriate will be decided on a case-by-case basis.

734 Within any lifestyle group nutrient requirements vary between individuals and the AR, PRI  
735 and LTI represent different points on distribution individual requirements. Nutrient  
736 requirements also differ with age, sex and physiological condition, due to differences in the

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<sup>5</sup> An opinion on tolerable upper intake levels for vitamins and minerals was published in February 2006 ([http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda\\_opinions.html](http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/science/nda/nda_opinions.html)).

737 velocity of growth for the younger age groups, and age-related changes in nutrient absorption  
738 and body functions and/or functional capacity, such as renal function. Especially in older  
739 subjects, variability in functional capacity and in energy expenditure appears higher than in  
740 younger adults, particularly for elderly above 75 yr.

741 Because of this, DRV are developed for different life stage and sex groups. The panel proposes  
742 to establish DRV for the following age groups, like in the SCF reports of 1993 and 2000: *6-11*  
743 *months; 1-3 years; 4-6 years; 7-10 years; 11-14 years; 15-17 years; 18-29 years; 30-59 years;*  
744 *60-74 years; and  $\geq 75$  years.* For the age group  $< 6$  months requirements are considered to be  
745 equal to the supply from breast-milk, except in those cases where this does not apply. Separate  
746 reference values will be established for pregnant and lactating women, taking into account the  
747 additional nutrient requirement for the formation of new tissues, or to compensate for the  
748 nutrients lost to the body in the form of human milk, respectively, and considering the  
749 physiological adaptations that occur during these conditions.

750 Interpolation or extrapolation between population groups will be used in instances where no  
751 data are available for defined age and sex groups. Both isometric (linear with body weight) or  
752 allometric (body weight to the power of a chosen exponent) scaling methods are being used.  
753 Which method is the most appropriate will be decided on a case-by-case basis.

754 Reference heights and weights are useful when more specificity about body size and nutrient  
755 requirements are needed than that provided by life stage categories. Reference weights will be  
756 the same as in the SCF report, and for children  $< 1$  year, as established by the WHO for fully  
757 breastfed infants.

758 Dietary reference values can be used for different purposes, such as in diet assessment and diet  
759 planning, both at the population and individual level, but also as a basis for reference values in  
760 food labelling, and in establishing food based dietary guidelines.

761 In *dietary assessment* of groups the AR can be used to estimate the prevalence of inadequate  
762 intakes of micronutrients (the AR cut-point method), if the distribution of nutrient intakes is  
763 normal, and intakes are independent from requirements. The PRI should not be used for this  
764 purpose as this would result in overestimation of the proportion of the group at risk of  
765 inadequacy.

766 For macronutrients with a defined recommended intake range for individuals, the distribution  
767 of usual intake of individuals may be assessed to ascertain what proportion of the group lies  
768 outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the range. In case of energy, the mean  
769 usual intake of energy of a defined group, relative to the average requirement, may be used in  
770 assessing the adequacy.

771 For assessment of adequacy of nutrient intakes in individuals dietary reference values are of  
772 limited use. Usual intakes below the AR are likely inadequate, and below the LTI very  
773 probably inadequate, while chronic intakes above the UL may be associated with an increased  
774 risk of adverse effects. For a valid assessment of the adequacy of an individual's usual intake,  
775 combined information with clinical, biochemical (status), and anthropometric data, are needed.

776 In *dietary planning* for groups the usual intake *distribution* should be between the AR and UL  
777 to avoid inadequate, respectively excessive intakes. For nutrients such as vitamins, minerals,  
778 and protein, the PRI can be a practical starting point. However, target median intakes higher  
779 than the PRI might be considered, especially in case of a skewed intake distribution.

780 For macronutrients the distribution of usual intake of individuals should be such as to minimize  
781 the proportion of the group that lies outside the recommended lower and upper limits of the  
782 range. For energy, the reference intake (estimated average energy requirement) of the group

783 based on sex, age, height, weight, and physical activity level of the group may be used as a  
784 planning goal.

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914

915 **GLOSSARY / ABBREVIATIONS**

916

ADI	Acceptable Daily Intake
AFSSA	Agence Française de Sécurité Sanitaire des Aliments
AMDR	Acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges
AI	Adequate Intake
AR	Average Requirement
D-A-CH	Nutrition Recommendations for Germany, Austria and Switzerland
DoH	Department of Health (United Kingdom)
EAR	Estimated Average Requirement
EC	European Commission
EFSA	European Food Safety Authority
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FNB	U.S. Food and Nutrition Board
GR	Gezondheidsraad (The Netherlands Health Council)
IoM	Institute of Medicine (United States)
LTI	Lower threshold intake
NNR	Nordic Nutrition Recommendations
PRI	Population Reference Intakes
RI	Recommended intake ranges for macronutrients
SCF	Scientific Committee for Food
SD	Standard Deviation
UL	Tolerable upper intake level
US	United States
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
WHO	World Health Organisation

917 **Appendix I -**

918 **Interpolation and Extrapolation**

919 Interpolation will be used in instances where no data are available for defined age and sex  
 920 groups which permit proceeding according to Sections 4.1 to 4.3. Interpolation between  
 921 different population groups is the least reliable method to determine the nutrient requirement.  
 922 Extrapolation from the known AR or AI of one population group to other groups for which no  
 923 specific data exist can be performed based on differences in typical body weights or on  
 924 differences in energy requirement. Extrapolation should be performed sex-specific if  
 925 differences in nutrient requirement according to sex are known. The typical body weights for  
 926 age groups are listed in table 1 of Section 4.6.

927 Depending on whether the requirement for the nutrient under consideration is associated with  
 928 the metabolic rate or is not associated with the metabolic rate allometric or isometric scaling is  
 929 performed.

930 In *isometric scaling* the AI or AR for the population group X under consideration is derived by  
 931 multiplication of the known and sex-specific AI or AR of group Y with the quotient between  
 932 the typical weight of group X and the weight of group Y:

933 [*Formula 1*]:  $AI \text{ (or AR)}_X = AI \text{ (or AR)}_Y \times (\text{body weight}_X / \text{body weight}_Y)$ .

934 An example for this type of isometric scaling is magnesium and fluoride.

935 *Allometric scaling* reflects that the metabolic rate of an organism is an exponential function of  
 936 body mass (weight). The original finding that the metabolic rate of humans and animals was  
 937 linearly related to body surface area (Rubner, 1883) and therefore, roughly to body weight <sup>2/3</sup>  
 938 was modified by Kleiber (1932 and 1947), who demonstrated that the logarithm of the basal  
 939 metabolic rate of ten different mammalian species was linearly related to the logarithm of the  
 940 body weight with a slope of 0.75. He coined the term *metabolic body size* for body weight <sup>0.75</sup>  
 941 and predicted that the requirement for nutrients should be proportional to the metabolic body  
 942 weight if their rate of “destruction” or excretion was found to be proportional to metabolic rate.  
 943 However, this rule only applied to mature organisms at indifferent environmental temperature  
 944 and at rest. Although this rule has never directly been proven to be correct with respect to  
 945 nutrient requirements and although the discussion whether the mass exponent between different  
 946 species is the same as within a species and whether it is nearer 0.67 or nearer 0.75 has not yet  
 947 been conclusively resolved (Feldman and McMahon, 1983; Agutter and Wheatley, 2004; White  
 948 and Seymour, 2003 and 2005; West and Brown, 2005), scaling as the 0.75 power of body mass  
 949 (weight) has been widely accepted in nutritional science. Compared to isometric scaling  
 950 allometric scaling from a higher to a lower body weight gives higher values, whereas  
 951 allometric scaling from a lower to a higher body weight results in lower values.

952 [*Formula 2*]:  $AI \text{ (or AR)}_X = AI \text{ (or AR)}_Y \times (\text{weight}_X / \text{weight}_Y)^{0.75}$

953 When scaling down from an adult AI or AR to children corrections for growth requirements  
 954 have to be made in order to account for the nutrient amount required to be incorporated into  
 955 newly formed tissue. One way to do this is to add an age specific growth factor based on the  
 956 proportional increase in protein requirements for growth (as calculated from Tables 33 and 34  
 957 in the FAO/WHO/UNU report, 1985) to both the formula 1 and 2:

958 [*Formula 3*]:  $AI \text{ (or AR)}_X = AI \text{ (or AR)}_Y \times (\text{weight}_X / \text{weight}_Y) \times (1 + \text{growth factor})$

959 [*Formual 4*]:  $AI \text{ (or AR)}_X = AI \text{ (or AR)}_Y \times (\text{weight}_X / \text{weight}_Y)^{0.75} \times (1 + \text{growth factor})$ .

960 The following growth factors have been applied (IoM, 1998; FAO/WHO, 2004):

Age	Growth factor
7 months – 3 years	0.30
4 – 8 years	0.15
9 – 13 years	0.15
14 – 18 years males	0.15
14 – 18 years females	0.00

Another method of interpolation has been proposed and assumes that the nutrient requirement after the age of 0-5 months until the age of 18 years increases linearly with age and that the requirement between the age of 14 and 18 years is the same as that of persons 19-50 years old. Additionally the following age correction factors (AF) are applied:

6-11 months	0.03
1- 3 years	0.14
4-8 years	0.38
9-13 years	0.69

Adequate intake or the population reference intake are then calculated as follows:

$$AI = AI_{[0-5\ months]} + [AF \times (AI_{[>14\ year]} - AI_{[0-5\ month]})]$$

or

$$PRI = PRI_{[0-5\ months]} + [AF \times (PRI_{[>14\ year]} - PRI_{[0-5\ month]})]$$

In this formula, ‘AI’ stands for adequate intake and ‘PRI’ for population reference intake (Gezondheidsraad NL, 2002).

Extrapolation was used by the French expert Committee (Martin, 2001) as an alternative approach to interpolation in order to calculate reference values of vitamins for children. This approach assumes that both nutritional reference values at the ends of the range are valid. Acceptable Intakes for newborns derived from the supply by maternal milk and Population Reference Intakes for adults. Various representative parameters for children aged 0-18 years, provided by the National Institute of statistics, were used for extrapolation: weight, height, body mass index, square height (representative of lean body mass) energy intake (as a marker of metabolic rates), and body surface area were tested. For each vitamin, only one parameter appeared to allow satisfactory extrapolation in both sexes, either starting from the adult values to reach newborn values and starting from newborn values to reach adult values: square height (for Vitamins, B6, B12, thiamine, biotin, folic acid) and energy intake (for vitamins C, A, E, riboflavin, pantothenic acid, niacin). This methodology does not require any a priori judgement on what could be the best equation for the derivation of values for children.