

# Intestinal Rehabilitation Programs in the Management of Pediatric Intestinal Failure and Short Bowel Syndrome

<sup>\*</sup>Russell J. Merritt, <sup>†</sup>Valeria Cohran, <sup>‡</sup>Bram P. Raphael, <sup>§</sup>Timothy Sentongo, <sup>||</sup>Diana Volpert, <sup>¶</sup>Brad W. Warner, and <sup>\*\*</sup>Praveen S. Goday, on behalf of the Nutrition Committee of the North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition

## ABSTRACT

Intestinal failure is a rare, debilitating condition that presents both acute and chronic medical management challenges. The condition is incompatible with life in the absence of the safe application of specialized and individualized medical therapy that includes surgery, medical equipment, nutritional products, and standard nursing care. Intestinal rehabilitation programs are best suited to provide such complex care with the goal of achieving enteral autonomy and oral feeding with or without intestinal transplantation. These programs almost all include pediatric surgeons, pediatric gastroenterologists, specialized nurses, and dietitians; many also include a variety of other medical and allied medical specialists. Intestinal rehabilitation programs provide integrated interdisciplinary care, more discussion of patient management by involved specialists, continuity of care through various treatment interventions, close follow-up of outpatients, improved patient and family education, earlier treatment of complications, and learning from the accumulated patient databases. Quality assurance and research collaboration among centers are also goals of many of these programs. The combined and coordinated talents and skills of multiple types of health care practitioners have the potential to ameliorate the impact of intestinal failure and improve health outcomes and quality of life.

**Key Words:** adaptation, intestinal failure, intestinal rehabilitation team, intestinal rehabilitation, short bowel syndrome

(*JPGN* 2017;65: 588–596)

Received December 5, 2016; accepted August 14, 2017.

From the <sup>\*</sup>Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition, Children's Hospital Los Angeles, Keck School of Medicine, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, the <sup>†</sup>Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children's Hospital of Chicago, Chicago, IL, the <sup>‡</sup>Division of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition, Boston Children's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, the <sup>§</sup>Section of Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology & Nutrition, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, the <sup>||</sup>Icahn School of Medicine, Valley Health System, Ridgewood, NJ, the <sup>¶</sup>Washington University School of Medicine, the <sup>#</sup>St Louis Children's Hospital, One Children's Place, St Louis, MO, and the <sup>\*\*</sup>Medical College of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, WI.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Praveen S. Goday, MBBS, CNSC, Professor, Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition, Medical College of Wisconsin, 8701 Watertown Plank Road, Milwaukee, WI 53226 (e-mail: pgoday@mcw.edu).

R.J.M. holds stock in Abbott Labs, Abbvie, Johnson & Johnson, is a retiree from Abbott Labs and is a clinical site investigator for Shire Pharmaceuticals. B.W.W. serves on the Scientific Advisory Board for ProLacta Biosciences and is serving on a Data Safety and Monitoring Board for Shire Pharmaceuticals. P.S.G. has served as a consultant for Fresenius Kabi and Nutricia and is serving on a Data Safety and Monitoring Board for Shire Pharmaceuticals. V.C. has served on Speakers Bureaus for Abbott Nutrition and Nutricia. The remaining authors report no conflicts of interest.

Copyright © 2017 by European Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition and North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology, and Nutrition

DOI: 10.1097/MPG.0000000000001722

## What Is Known

- Intestinal failure is a debilitating condition that presents both acute and chronic medical management challenges.
- Intestinal Rehabilitation Programs exist in multiple sites across North America and Europe.

## What Is New

- Management of intestinal failure by Intestinal Rehabilitation Programs is the current state of the art, with limited but highly encouraging, supporting data on their medical efficacy.
- NASPGHAN endorses management of patients with intestinal failure by, or in consultation with, centers with intestinal rehabilitation programs and encourages further research on the medical efficacy, patient satisfaction and quality of life, and financial impact of intestinal rehabilitation programs.

## PEDIATRIC INTESTINAL FAILURE AND SHORT BOWEL SYNDROME

Intestinal failure (IF) is a rare, potentially life-threatening and debilitating condition that presents both acute and chronic medical management challenges. IF is a clinical disorder resulting from intestinal obstruction, dysmotility, surgical resection, congenital defect, or disease-associated loss of absorption and is characterized by the inability to maintain protein, energy, fluid, electrolyte or micronutrient balance. IF is an umbrella term for conditions requiring parenteral support either in the form of parenteral nutrition (PN) or intravenous hydration (1–3). Short bowel syndrome (SBS) is the most common cause of IF. The vast majority of pediatric patients experience onset of their condition at birth or during early infancy. Wessel and Kocoshis (4) made an important distinction between IF and SBS in that SBS is associated with significant loss of absorptive surface area, whereas IF is a lack of satisfactory absorption. Therefore, patients who have SBS may have IF, whereas patients who have IF may not have SBS. This article focuses on SBS with associated IF. Some SBS patients with global bowel dysfunction from massive intestinal loss are at risk for irreversible, chronic intestinal failure, a highly disabling condition.

Definitions of SBS-associated IF have included 2 important concepts: a shortened length of intestine and a need for prolonged PN. The Canadian Association of Pediatric Surgeons defined SBS

as the need for PN greater than 42 days after bowel resection or a residual small bowel length of <25% expected for gestational age (3). The Pediatric Intestinal Failure Consortium defined IF as the need for PN for >60 days due to intestinal disease or dysfunction (5,6). The use of percentage expected bowel length has been used by others to define SBS and for reporting clinical outcomes of SBS patients. The late Daniel Teitelbaum's group used the <25% expected bowel length definition (7); this group and others have reported outcomes based on the percentage of residual small bowel length (8,9).

Reference values based on multiple autopsy studies have been generated and published for intestinal length in children of all ages (10). More recently, measurements from living children up to 5 years were prospectively done and reference tables developed (11) (Table 1) (10). In general, the coefficient of variation for the 108 measurements standardized for post-conception age, length or weight was <10%. The curve fits for these determinants were non-linear. **Based on the need for standardization, the experience of Wales et al (3,11,12) and advocacy for this method by others (7,13), we recommend that reference values based on the child's height (preferably), weight or age be used as the standard for expressing the percentage of small bowel that remains.**

TABLE 1. Mean measured small bowel length in infants and young children

Postconception age	Mean, cm
24–26 wk	70.0
27–29 wk	100.0
30–32 wk	117.3
33–35 wk	120.8
36–38 wk	142.6
39–40 wk	157.4
0–6 mo	239.2
7–12 mo	283.9
13–18 mo	271.8
19–24 mo	345.5
25–36 mo	339.6
37–48 mo	366.7
49–60 mo	423.9
Weight at surgery, g	Mean, cm
500–999	83.1
1000–1499	109.9
1500–1999	120.1
2000–2999	143.6
3000–4999	236.5
5000–7999	260.3
8000–9999	300.1
10,000–12,999	319.6
13,000–15,999	355.0
16,000–19,999	407.0
Height at surgery, cm	Mean, cm
30–39	97.4
40–49	129.0
50–59	205.9
60–74	272.0
75–89	308.5
90–99	382.5
100–120	396.4

Data from (10).

Based on usage in recent clinical publications and the need for a commonly accepted definition of intestinal failure and SBS, **North American Society for Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Nutrition (NASPGHAN) recommends a definition of intestinal failure as the need for PN for >60 days due to intestinal disease, dysfunction, or resection. The recommended definition of SBS is the need for PN for >60 days after intestinal resection or a bowel length of <25% of expected. It is further recommended that patients who meet one or both of these criteria have access to an Intestinal Rehabilitation Program for consultation or clinical management.**

The incidence of SBS is approximately 24.5 per 100,000 live births per year (3). The prevalence has increased over the past several decades with improved survival of affected children due to advances in nutrition support (7,14) and neonatal intensive care, anesthesia, and surgical techniques. Among pediatric SBS patients, the most common etiologies are necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), gastroschisis, volvulus, intestinal atresia, complicated meconium ileus, and aganglionosis. In 1 study of infants, NEC was the etiology of SBS in 35% of the patients, and the next most common cause was gastroschisis (18%) (15). These percentages are similar at most centers, but can vary by geographic location (4,6,16).

Intestinal "adaptation" is the innate response of the small intestine that normally follows sudden loss of intestinal absorptive surface area, such as from surgical resection (17,18). It is characterized by progressive anatomic and physiologic changes that improve fluid, electrolyte, and nutrient absorption and allow progress toward normal growth, body composition, and enteral autonomy. Adaptation begins shortly after intestinal resection and is generally complete within 24 to 60 months (6,13,14,19–24). Intestinal rehabilitation (IR) seeks to maximize this response through medical and surgical interventions that lead to enteral autonomy.

Morbidity in patients with SBS and IF includes derangements in fluid and electrolytes, complications of central venous catheters, including central venous line-associated blood-stream infections (CLABSI), complications related to the underlying bowel disorder, liver failure, a lower quality of life (25), and high costs of care. Medical management to bring patients back, or closer, to enteral autonomy includes infusion of parenteral fluid, electrolytes, and nutrition while medications are employed to control symptoms and fluid balance, and enteral nutrition is advanced to promote bowel adaptation (4,26–28). Surgical interventions to help promote intestinal adaptation and enteral autonomy may include feeding enterostomies, ostomy closure following prior bowel resection, procedures to slow intestinal transit (29–31), and intestinal lengthening procedures such as serial tapering enteroplasty (STEP) or Bianchi procedures (32–37). Patients who fail medical and surgical therapy, those with little potential for IR, or those who develop intractable complications become potential candidates for intestinal transplantation. Because liver failure from intestinal failure-associated liver disease (IFALD) has been an important complication of pediatric SBS, historically more pediatric intestinal transplants included livers than adult patients undergoing intestinal transplantation. In recent years, the percentage of pediatric intestinal transplants both with and without liver transplantation has, however, decreased (22). Given evidence of more interventions and improved outcomes in patients managed by IR programs, even when patients are not clearly potential candidates for transplantation, non-transplant-related benefits are gained from referral, including interventions to reduce CLABSI, intravenous lipid modification, treatment of small intestinal bacterial overgrowth and surgical bowel lengthening, all of which may help improve outcomes. **NASPGHAN recommends that patients SBS patients not making progress towards enteral autonomy and continuing on PN >3 months, those with high clinical complexity or with**

**worsening or non-resolving IFALD, recurrent sepsis, deep vein thrombosis or loss of venous access be referred to an IR program for consultation or management** (38). Although non-SBS IF is beyond the focus of this review, similar recommendations appear appropriate for these patients as well.

Mortality and morbidity in SBS-related IF patients are often associated with residual small bowel length (negatively), absence of the ileocecal valve, recurrent episodes of sepsis, IFALD, and timing of ostomy closure (14,17,18,20,39–41). An intact colon has also been found to be protective (14). In a review by Pironi et al (21), risk factors for mortality in pediatric IF included age <1 year, lack of a nutrition care team, shorter small bowel remnant, ileostomy, and evidence of chronic liver disease. In a single-center report on pediatric outcomes, patients presenting with elevated bilirubin and bowel length <10% of predicted, however, still achieved good outcomes with aggressive medical and surgical therapy (9). In a 4-year period, this center's overall survival among 51 patients (almost all SBS patients) was 90%. A more recent report from this same group confirmed a high survival rate (96%) in patients with ultra-short bowel patients (defined by them as <20 cm of small intestine) (42). Among SBS patients, those with a diagnosis of NEC seem to fare better (8,42,43), although not universally (21). As reported in several large series of patients awaiting transplantation, death is most commonly associated with liver failure and/or sepsis (21,43–45). Late referral for IR and transplantation in the context of transplantation is thought to contribute to this finding (38,45–47). In general, patients in IR programs with diagnoses other than SBS (ie, motility disorders, congenital enteropathies, or immune deficiencies) tended to have worse outcomes (48,49).

Achieving enteral autonomy in IR programs has been related to longer relative or absolute bowel length (14,50), especially for gastroschisis and atresia (45), lower bilirubin at referral (45), and resolution of hyperbilirubinemia on medical and surgical therapy (51). Presence of the ileocecal valve in the native intestine was a predictor for enteral autonomy without transplantation (14,41), and colonic resection was a reported negative predictor in one of these studies (14). All care at a specific IR program center and surgical bowel lengthening were also predictive factors in 1 report (50). A consortium of 14 North American centers identified factors statistically associated with achieving enteral autonomy in IF in 172 children that included diagnosis of NEC, lower bilirubin, longer residual bowel length, preserved ileocecal valve, and care at a non-transplant center (52). Preserved ileocecal valve was not a significant factor in the subpopulation of 144 children with measured bowel length (52). Failure to achieve enteral autonomy is ultimately associated with risk for increased mortality.

In the recent novel-lipid and lipid-restriction era, the number of patients listed for intestinal transplant appeared to sharply decline (22), and NEC and congenital gastrointestinal tract anomaly-related SBS have decreased as a percentage of causative reasons among patients newly listed for transplant (53). The number of intestinal transplants peaked in 2007 at approximately 111. By 2013 the number had decreased to 36 and more recently has risen to 58 in 2015 (22). Interestingly, children referred for transplantation in the UK from centers with nutrition support programs had better short-term survival (54). United Network for Organ Sharing data from 2008 indicated that transplant centers with well-established IR programs had higher pediatric 1-year transplant graft survival (67%–79% vs 45%–60%) (55).

The economic cost of managing SBS-related IF is high and adds to the motivation to minimize patient morbidity and use medical and related resources effectively and efficiently. The mean annual cost of care for this population, when receiving PN, in 2005 dollars, was determined to be approximately \$500,000 in the first year and \$300,000 in the subsequent 4 years at a children's hospital

in Michigan (56). Costs appear to be somewhat less in Europe. In the Netherlands, initial hospitalization costs for neonates in 2009 were estimated at about \$219,000 and total 3 year costs at \$431,000 (25). In the UK, the cost of care for a stable home PN patient was estimated at roughly US\$285,000 in 2006 (57). Estimates and comparisons are fraught with issues regarding costs captured, billed versus paid costs, the population reported, the year of the study, and the currency conversion factor. There is also an additional heavy financial burden experienced by families associated with travel and lost productivity (57).

## INTESTINAL REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

Intestinal failure is analogous to other diseases with both emergent and chronic threats to health and well-being such as renal failure, heart disease, or diabetes. Like other severe, chronic medical conditions, it can be the dominating factor in an individual's life by restricting growth, development, productivity, and longevity. In fact, the condition is incompatible with life in the absence of the safe application of specialized and individualized medical therapy that includes surgery, medical equipment, nutritional products, and standard nursing care. The combined and coordinated talents and skills of multiple types of health care practitioners have the potential to ameliorate the impact of this condition and improve health outcomes and quality of life.

Intestinal Rehabilitation Programs for the care of patients with IF emerged from experience with multidisciplinary programs in other diseases such as renal failure, hospital units with expertise in complex surgical care, and nutritional support and solid organ transplantation programs (40,44,47,48). Institutional protocols for the various components of the care of these patients have enormous potential to identify and reduce complications for patients requiring nutritional support. Publications on the experience of IR programs began appearing in the mid 1980s and reports of single center experiences accelerated in the mid 2000s. IR Programs (or their equivalent) are now documented in the medical literature from multiple sites across North America and Europe.

The process for establishing a program has been described (58). The first step includes a needs analysis and identification of the services to be included. The second is establishing the specific components of interest related to diagnosis, nutrition, surgery, and transplantation followed by creation of a business plan and budget. These authors also stress the importance of objectively demonstrating the success of the program early in its development to assure its survival. Guidance has been published on computerized data forms for accumulating standardized details of the medical and surgical history, current anatomy of the patient, diagnostic tests and surgical procedures, nutritional assessment, and fluid, food, and nutrient intake and output (45,58). Many of these data can be incorporated into the electronic medical record.

The mission of IR programs is to be regional, national, and/or international referral centers that provide comprehensive, safe, state-of-the-art care to improve the survival and quality of life and minimize complications in patients with IF (15,38,44). The overarching goals of an IR program are to promote intestinal adaptation and enteral autonomy while decreasing the morbidity and mortality of IF. Various nutrition-related goals of an IR program include: provision of the most appropriate nutrition to support the growth and development of children with IF, best decision making for transition from parenteral to enteral nutrition, and prevention of macro and/or micronutrient deficiencies.

Promotion of enteral autonomy is achieved by enteral nutrition, maintaining somatic growth, and optimizing the bowel absorptive surface through non-transplant surgical techniques. Prevention and management of complications such as CLABSI, venous

thrombosis, catheter malfunction and repair, and IFALD are of paramount importance. In the absence of enteral autonomy, an IR program should be cognizant of emerging indications for transplantation in individual patients and of the benefit of early transplant evaluation in this population. Hence, collaboration with an intestinal transplant team is essential. An IR program should strive to support families of children with IF and improve their quality of life. Research should be an important goal of every IR program. Given the small numbers of patients at any given center, it is important to strive for consistency among centers via collaboration and education for development of evidence-based care pathways and biorepositories, as well as translation of basic science discoveries (5,59).

Indications for referral for consideration of intestinal transplantation are not well standardized and appear to be evolving with improved IR. Ultra-short bowel and poor intestinal function (e.g., congenital enteropathies) are less predictive today of clinical need for transplantation than in the past (46,60–62). Current criteria relate more to the severity of morbidities associated with providing PN, including refractory IFALD, depletion of central venous catheter access and repeated need for intensive care unit admission. In a single-center experience, the best predictors were  $\geq 2$  admissions to the intensive care unit, loss of  $\geq 3$  central vein sites and conjugated bilirubin  $> 75 \mu\text{mol/L}$  (4.4 mg/dL) despite 6 weeks of lipid-modification therapy (61).

Some IR programs are focused on adult patients, others on children, and many provide care to all age groups. Functions include assessment of the underlying condition and its prognosis, inpatient medical, nutritional and surgical maximization of intestinal function, support of normal growth, patient and caregiver education and, in most centers, careful selection of patients for, and performance of, intestinal transplantation and provision of post-transplant care. Another valuable role of these programs is to collect initial and subsequent data about patients with IF for tracking patient outcomes, improving quality of care, and supporting clinical research (45,63). Indeed, most of what we know about the outcomes of such patients in the current era comes from these programs. Such programs also provide an opportunity for educating health care personnel in the management of IF (64).

In reports describing the pediatric IR programs, almost all include pediatric surgeons (and transplant surgeons in transplant programs), pediatric gastroenterologists, specialized nurses (including advanced practice nurses), and dietitians (5,14,45) (Table 2). Many include social workers, pharmacists, and 1 or more have

included therapists (occupational/physical) and child life specialists, experts in palliative care or psychologists, interventional radiologists, and medical educators (6). **NASPGHAN recommends that at minimum staffing for an IR program includes a gastroenterologist, surgeon, dietitian (or registered dietitian-nutritionist), and a nurse. Close collaboration with neonatologists is strongly recommended. The presence of other specialists may be helpful: social workers, child psychologists, occupational therapists/physical therapists, speech/feeding therapists, interventional radiologists, and child-life specialists.** Claimed advantages of care provided by such programs include the integration of care by multiple specialists, more discussion of patient management by involved specialists, communication of the individualized plan by the entire team to the patient/family, continuity of care through the course of various treatments, close follow-up of outpatients, improved patient and family education, earlier treatment of complications and learning from the accumulated patient databases (9,13,15,38,43,49). The potential to ease the anxiety and uncertainty experienced by patients facing this diagnosis also exists (65). Quality assurance and research collaboration among centers is also a goal of many of these programs, with some published results.

## INTESTINAL REHABILITATION PROGRAM EXPERIENCE

Over a dozen descriptions of IR programs that provide care for pediatric patients with IF are published, including 19 to 389 cases in each (9,13,15,16,41,43,45,48,51,64,66–71). The time period covered by these reports ranges from 1974 to 2015. Additional publications have provided recommendations/guidance on the long-term care of such patients or details on establishing an IR Program. Multiple programs have provided details on their pediatric patient population and outcomes (7,9,15,16,43,45,48,49,51,60,66,68,72). Three networks or consortiums have contributed data on their experience (6,69,73), and another focused on risk factors for poor outcome (41). Most reports have not been limited to SBS, but include all pediatric patients with IF. In all but 1 report on a home PN population (48), the majority of patients reported, however, had SBS, and that was true in that center as well, after exclusion of patients with non-gastrointestinal illnesses.

Successful weaning from PN occurred in 12% to 83% of patients. Transplantation rates, where reported, ranged from 0 to 31% (not including the patients with non-gastrointestinal illness in a single report) (48). Mortality during the variable periods of

TABLE 2. Members of pediatric Intestinal Rehabilitation Programs

Professionals	Role and services
Pediatric surgeons	Gastrointestinal surgery, central venous catheter procedures. Inpatient and outpatient surgical management
Transplant surgeons	Assessment, surgery, immunosuppression
Pediatric gastroenterologists	Inpatient and outpatient medical management
Neonatologists	Initial inpatient management of premature and critically ill infants
Interventional radiologists	Central venous line management
Gastroenterology/parenteral nutrition nurses	Line and ostomy care, education
Pharmacists	Supervision, preparation of parenteral nutrition, drug-nutrient interactions
Registered dietitians	Nutritional monitoring and counseling, drug-nutrient interactions
Social workers	Access available resources; support
Physical/occupational/speech Therapists	Feeding, mobility and development
Child-life specialists	Child and family support, education
Psychologists	Individual treatment and family support
Medical educators	Instruction on self-care

follow-up ranged from 0 to 33%. In the consortium report, enteral autonomy was achieved by about half the patients. A quarter of them did not survive and a quarter came to intestinal transplantation. The reporting period for this study ended at the time when pediatric patients with IF coming to intestinal transplant peaked; the number of intestinal transplants has decreased subsequently, presumably reflecting improved outcomes. Avitzur et al (60) have documented dramatically improved mortality and decreased need for transplantation in patients with IF referred for transplantation from 1999 to 2009 with the implementation of formal IR and other care changes during this interval.

In a single-center study, 4 time cohorts were reported and the 3 most recent cohorts had notably improved survival (7). The only factor identified distinguishing the first and other periods was the implementation of an IR program after the first cohort. Five valuable studies (3 from 1 center) included a retrospective group of patients to compare outcomes on patients treated before and after establishing IR programs, or a more comprehensive program (7,15,43,60,68,71,74,75) (Table 3). In another study, 54 SBS patients seen after establishment of the IR program in 2002 were compared to 40 retrospective partially matched controls. In general, outcomes were not different between groups for most complications, including liver failure and mortality (15). Septic episodes per month were, however, reduced after establishment of the IR program (15). There were also far more STEP procedures performed and a higher percentage of listed patients were transplanted (15,60). Mortality in those with liver failure was significantly reduced. In a more recent analysis from that center, time-series analysis indicated key factors for reducing mortality were advent of the IR Program and introduction of omega-3 lipids (74). In a third study, 54 patients seen after establishment of the IR program in 1999 were compared to 30 patients seen in the 12 preceding years (43). The 2 study groups appeared reasonably well-matched. Survival in the post-IR era was significantly better (89% vs 70%) and significantly more patients who were not weaned from PN survived (67% vs 10%). In the post-IR cohort, all patients who were weaned from PN survived after a mean follow-up period of a little over a year. In a Canadian study, 33 patients managed before formation of the IR program were compared with 31 after its formation in 2006 (75). The 2 cohorts were reasonably well-matched. Mortality was significantly reduced (to zero). Differences in the management of the 2 cohorts after initiation of their IR program included more frequent treatment of bacterial overgrowth, implementation of lipid reduction/fish oil-based lipids and more STEP procedures. In a report from Finland, catheter care was improved and lipid therapy modulation standardized for the later cohort (71). Bacteremia rates and PN duration until enteral autonomy both decreased significantly. Although differences for multiple other outcomes were statistically non-significant, 95% of the later cohort (21/22) survived, none developed progressive IFALD and no patient was transplanted. A general weakness of these studies is that they generally encompassed a fairly broad time span where the overall care of these patients improved. While it could be argued that improvements in care would have improved survival regardless of the formation of IR programs, a counter argument is that the improvement in care was the result of the formation of IR programs, which focused on the care of these patients.

The studies that have reported outcomes of IR programs is shown in Table 3. Most of the studies used a pre-/post model to assess improvement in outcomes. Two studies used several cohorts spanning different periods to further delve into outcomes (7,60). These studies have reported on negative outcomes (death, sepsis, and liver failure), positive outcomes (removal from intestinal transplantation listing, enteral autonomy, and duration to enteral autonomy), as well as interventions to improve outcomes (lipid

modulation, bowel lengthening procedures, treatment for small bowel bacterial overgrowth, and ethanol lock therapy).

Stanger et al (76) recently performed a systematic review and meta-analysis of the efficacy of IR programs. They identified reports of IR programs from 13 centers, with the 3 reports containing retrospective comparison groups noted above. They concluded from their analysis of the studies with comparison groups that IR programs were associated with increased survival from IF and overall survival. Any impact on achieving enteral autonomy and reduction of liver failure did not reach significance in the pooled data, but the reduction in liver failure was significant in 2 of the studies. A recent clinical guideline from the American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition (ASPEN) on support of pediatric patients with intestinal failure at risk of IFALD relied heavily on the Stanger analysis in answering the clinical question as to whether liver disease outcomes are improved by referral to IR programs (77). They made a “weak” recommendation to refer patients to such programs and concluded that the evidence to support this recommendation is of “very low” quality. However they found “... the improvement in survival is compelling ...”

### IMPACT OF NOVEL LIPID THERAPY

IR centers have served to advance therapies that have become standard of care in the field. Innovations in the management of the intravenous (IV) lipid component of PN were largely conceptualized and practiced within IR programs and are now widely practiced by most practitioners who care for patients with IF. Novel approaches to prevent and treat IFALD have included IV lipid restriction, sole use of IV fish oil-based lipid emulsion, IV fish oil-based lipid emulsion in combination with IV soybean oil-based lipid emulsion, IV lipid emulsion blends containing fish oil, and enteral fish oil. For each of these approaches, case series suggest that cholestasis can be reversed and its progression halted and 2 meta-analyses suggesting fish oil-based lipid emulsion or lipid emulsion blends containing fish oil may reduce bilirubin levels (78,79). Lipid emulsion blends without fish oil have not been found to be effective in reducing cholestasis (75). Cober et al (80,81) demonstrated the potential role of lipid restriction and the associated risk of essential fatty acid deficiency and have noted the potential for poor growth. Most case series are regarding patients who have been treated with IV fish oil-based lipid emulsion. In their case series of patients treated with IV fish oil-based lipid emulsion, Diamond et al (82) discussed the impact of this innovation on the course of SBS complicated by cholestatic liver disease, “Parenteral omega-3 fatty acids have the potential to fundamentally alter the paradigm of neonatal SBS from one of early death or transplantation from liver failure to a more chronic disease.” Similar experience was reported in 1 other study (68). In the Boston experience, 86% of patients cleared their cholestasis. Those who did not respond were characterized by lower mean birth weight (1020 vs 1608 g), increased age at IV fish oil initiation (20.4 vs 11.7 weeks), and more advanced liver disease (83). Concerns remain that benefits of intravenous fish oil on liver histology may be far less than the improvement in liver biochemistries and the significance of this issue and its implication for appropriate lipid modification are not yet clear (62,84). Some survivors have evidence of persistent liver fibrosis. Nevertheless, 2014 United Network for Organ Sharing data showed that the overall number of transplants in this population dropped since 2007 (85). In the United States, fish-oil based lipid emulsion, however, remains unapproved by the US Food and Drug Administration and must be prescribed under investigational or compassionate use protocols, which limit its use. Use of an intravenous oil blend containing 15% fish oil has been reported in infants with early cholestasis with encouraging results (86). This lipid

TABLE 3. Outcome reports from intestinal rehabilitation programs with retrospective (pre-) control groups

Population	Outcome	P
	<b>Death</b>	
>50% resection or PN > 2 mo (7)	10/34 pre vs 4/40, 3/37, 4/60 <sup>*†</sup>	0.011
SBS; PN > 90 days (43)	9/30 pre vs 6/54	<0.05
Transplant referrals (60)	26/33 pre vs 12/18 (early IRP), 8/33 (late IRP) <sup>‡</sup>	<0.0005
Infants with IF (68)	9/33 pre vs 0/22	0.01
SBS < 25% predicted or PN > 3 mo (71)	3/26 pre vs 1/22	0.60
Neonates with SBS (15)	15/40 pre vs 18/54	0.84
	<b>Death if not weaned from PN</b>	
SBS; PN > 90 days (43)	9/10 pre vs 6/18	<0.01
	<b>Death in patients with liver failure</b>	
Neonates with SBS (15)	9/10 pre vs 6/13	0.03
	<b>Death on waiting list</b>	
Transplant referrals (60)	21/24 pre vs 8/13 (early IRP), 1/19 (late IRP) <sup>‡</sup>	<0.001 <sup>§</sup>
	<b>Progressive liver failure</b>	
Neonates with SBS (15)	10/40 pre vs 13/54	0.15
SBS < 25% predicted or PN > 3 mo (71)	2/26 pre vs 0/22	0.51
	<b>Sepsis per 1000 days PN</b>	
SBS < 25% predicted or PN > 3 mo (71)	1.7 pre vs 0.7	0.018
Neonates with SBS (15)	0.5 pre vs 0.3	0.01
	<b>Removed from list/improved</b>	
Transplant referrals (60)	1/24 pre vs 1/13 (early IRP), 12/19 (late IRP) <sup>‡</sup>	<0.0005 <sup>§</sup>
	<b>Enteral autonomy</b>	
SBS; PN > 90 days (43)	20/30 pre vs 36/54	NS
Neonates with SBS (15)	25/40 pre vs 35/54	0.82
	<b>PN duration to autonomy</b>	
SBS < 25% predicted or PN > 3 mo (71)	15 mos pre vs 6 mos	0.0015
Neonates with SBS (15)	71 days pre vs 76 days	0.80
	<b>Lipid modulation</b>	
Transplant referrals (60)	1/33 pre vs 1/18 (early IRP), 26/33 (late IRP) <sup>‡</sup>	<0.0005
Infants with IF (68)	2/33 pre vs 14/22	<0.001 <sup>  </sup>
>50% resection or PN > 2 mo (7)	0/34 pre vs 0/40, 0/37, 11/60 <sup>†</sup>	NR <sup>¶</sup>
SBS; PN > 90 days (43)	0/30 pre vs 14/54	NR
	<b>Bowel lengthening procedure</b>	
Neonates with SBS (15)	0/40 pre vs 14/54	<0.001
Infants with IF (68)	0/33 pre vs 4/22	0.03
SBS < 25% predicted or PN > 3 mo (71)	10/26 pre vs 5/22	0.233 <sup>#</sup>
SBS; PN > 90 days (43)	3/30 pre vs 6/50	NS
	<b>SBBO treatment</b>	
Infants with IF (68)	8/33 pre vs 20/22	0.01
	<b>Ethanol lock therapy</b>	
>50% resection or PN > 2 mo (7)	No difference in mortality <sup>†</sup>	NS

IF = intestinal failure; IRP = Intestinal Rehabilitation Program; NS = not significant; PN = parenteral nutrition; SBBO = small bowel bacterial overgrowth; SBS = short bowel syndrome.

\*Death within 2 years of diagnosis.

†The pre-cohort was from 1990 to 1994. The other 3 cohorts were from 1995 to 1999, 2000 to 2004, and 2005 to 2009.

‡The pre-IRP cohort was from 1999 to 2002. The early IRP cohort was from 2003 to 2005 and the late IRP cohort was from 2006 to 2009.

§Authors' statistical calculation appears to be based on total patients assessed.

||Lipid reduction and IV fish oil use analyzed separately by authors.

¶Not reported.

#Included tapering procedures.

product is approved for use in adults in North America. Another approach has been the use of enteral fish oil in those patients tolerant of some enteral feedings, but the supporting data are anecdotal at this stage (87,88).

## SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Management of patients with IF by IR programs is the current state of the art, with limited but highly encouraging, supporting data on their medical efficacy, especially since the introduction of the use of novel lipids. The concept is highly attractive and intuitive, given the complexity of these patients, the number of medical professionals involved in their care and the need to systematically track outcomes in patients who are high utilizers of health care. While outcomes are expected to improve implicitly from experienced IR programs, data are still lacking on whether IR programs reduce health care costs for patients, insurers, hospitals or health systems.

### NASPGHAN recommends the following:

- that reference values based on the child's height (preferably), weight or age be used as the standard for expressing the percentage of small bowel that remains.
- a definition of intestinal failure as the need for PN for >60 days due to intestinal disease, dysfunction or resection. The recommended definition of SBS is the need for PN for >60 days after intestinal resection or a bowel length of <25% of expected. It is further recommended that patients who meet 1 or both of these criteria have access to an Intestinal Rehabilitation Program for consultation or clinical management.
- patients with SBS not making progress toward enteral autonomy and continuing on PN >3 months, those with high clinical complexity or with worsening or non-resolving IFALD, recurrent sepsis, deep vein thrombosis or loss of venous access be referred to an IR program for consultation or management.
- at minimum staffing for an IR program include a gastroenterologist, surgeon, dietitian (or registered dietitian-nutritionist), and a nurse. Close collaboration with neonatologists is strongly recommended. The presence of other specialists may be helpful: social workers, child psychologists, occupational therapists/physical therapists, speech/feeding therapists, interventional radiologists, and child-life specialists.

Finally, NASPGHAN endorses management of patients with IF by, or in consultation with, centers with IR programs and encourages further research on the medical efficacy, patient satisfaction and quality of life, and financial impact of IR programs.

## REFERENCES

1. O'Keefe SJ, Buchman AL, Fishbein TM, et al. Short bowel syndrome and intestinal failure: consensus definitions and overview. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2006;4:6–10.
2. Goulet O, Sauvat F. Short bowel syndrome and intestinal transplantation in children. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 2006;9:304–13.
3. Wales PW, de Silva N, Kim J, et al. Neonatal short bowel syndrome: population-based estimates of incidence and mortality rates. *J Pediatr Surg* 2004;39:690–5.
4. Wessel JJ, Kocoshis SA. Nutritional management of infants with short bowel syndrome. *Semin Perinatol* 2007;31:104–11.
5. D'Antiga L, Goulet O. Intestinal failure in children: the European view. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2013;56:118–26.

6. Squires RH, Duggan C, Teitelbaum DH, et al. Natural history of pediatric intestinal failure: initial report from the Pediatric Intestinal Failure Consortium. *J Pediatr* 2012;161:723.e2–8.e2.
7. Hess RA, Welch KB, Brown PI, et al. Survival outcomes of pediatric intestinal failure patients: analysis of factors contributing to improved survival over the past two decades. *J Surg Res* 2011;170:27–31.
8. Demehri FR, Stephens L, Herrman E, et al. Enteral autonomy in pediatric short bowel syndrome: predictive factors one year after diagnosis. *J Pediatr Surg* 2015;50:131–5.
9. Torres C, Sudan D, Vanderhoof J, et al. Role of an intestinal rehabilitation program in the treatment of advanced intestinal failure. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2007;45:204–12.
10. Weaver LT, Austin S, Cole TJ. Small intestinal length: a factor essential for gut adaptation. *Gut* 1991;32:1321–3.
11. Struijs MC, Diamond IR, de Silva N, et al. Establishing norms for intestinal length in children. *J Pediatr Surg* 2009;44:933–8.
12. Christison-Lagay ER, Kelleher CM, Langer JC. Neonatal abdominal wall defects. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med* 2011;16:164–72.
13. Kocoshis SA. Medical management of pediatric intestinal failure. *Semin Pediatr Surg* 2010;19:20–6.
14. Quiros-Tejeira RE, Ament ME, Reyen L, et al. Long-term parenteral nutritional support and intestinal adaptation in children with short bowel syndrome: a 25-year experience. *J Pediatr* 2004;145:157–63.
15. Diamond IR, de Silva N, Pencharz PB, et al. Neonatal short bowel syndrome outcomes after the establishment of the first Canadian multidisciplinary intestinal rehabilitation program: preliminary experience. *J Pediatr Surg* 2007;42:806–11.
16. Javid PJ, Malone FR, Reyes J, et al. The experience of a regional pediatric intestinal failure program: successful outcomes from intestinal rehabilitation. *Am J Surg* 2010;199:676–9.
17. Warner BW. The pathogenesis of resection-associated intestinal adaptation. *Cell Mol Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2016;2:429–38.
18. Thiesen A, Drozdowski L, Iordache C, et al. Adaptation following intestinal resection: mechanisms and signals. *Best Pract Res Clin Gastroenterol* 2003;17:981–95.
19. Sondheimer JM, Cadnapaphornchai M, Sontag M, et al. Predicting the duration of dependence on parenteral nutrition after neonatal intestinal resection. *J Pediatr* 1998;132:80–4.
20. Goulet O, Baglin-Gobet S, Talbotec C, et al. Outcome and long-term growth after extensive small bowel resection in the neonatal period: a survey of 87 children. *Eur J Pediatr Surg* 2005;15:95–101.
21. Pironi L, Goulet O, Buchman A, et al. Outcome on home parenteral nutrition for benign intestinal failure: a review of the literature and benchmarking with the European prospective survey of ESPEN. *Clin Nutr* 2012;31:831–45.
22. Smith JM, Skeans MA, Horslen SP, et al. OPTN/SRTR 2015 annual data report: intestine. *Am J Transplant* 2017;17(suppl 1):252–85.
23. Williamson RC. Intestinal adaptation (first of two parts). Structural, functional and cytokinetic changes. *N Engl J Med* 1978;298:1393–402.
24. Williamson RC. Intestinal adaptation (second of two parts). Mechanisms of control. *N Engl J Med* 1978;298:1444–50.
25. Olieman JF, Poley MJ, Gischler SJ, et al. Interdisciplinary management of infantile short bowel syndrome: resource consumption, growth, and nutrition. *J Pediatr Surg* 2010;45:490–8.
26. Ching YA, Gura K, Modi B, et al. Pediatric intestinal failure: nutrition, pharmacologic, and surgical approaches. *Nutr Clin Pract* 2007;22:653–63.
27. Dowling RH. Compensatory changes in intestinal absorption. *Br Med Bull* 1967;23:275–8.
28. Feldman EJ, Dowling RH, McNaughton J, et al. Effects of oral versus intravenous nutrition on intestinal adaptation after small bowel resection in the dog. *Gastroenterology* 1976;70:712–9.
29. Georgeson K, Halpin D, Figueroa R, et al. Sequential intestinal lengthening procedures for refractory short bowel syndrome. *J Pediatr Surg* 1994;29:316–20.
30. Warden MJ, Wesley JR. Small bowel reversal procedure for treatment of the "short gut" baby. *J Pediatr Surg* 1978;13:321–3.
31. Glick PL, de Lorimier AA, Adzick NS, et al. Colon interposition: an adjuvant operation for short-gut syndrome. *J Pediatr Surg* 1984;19:719–25.
32. Waag KL, Hosie S, Wessel L. What do children look like after longitudinal intestinal lengthening. *Eur J Pediatr Surg* 1999;9:260–2.

33. Sudan D, Thompson J, Botha J, et al. Comparison of intestinal lengthening procedures for patients with short bowel syndrome. *Ann Surg* 2007;246:593–601.
34. Reinshagen K, Kabs C, Wirth H, et al. Long-term outcome in patients with short bowel syndrome after longitudinal intestinal lengthening and tailoring. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2008;47:573–8.
35. Jones BA, Hull MA, Potanos KM, et al. Report of 111 consecutive patients enrolled in the International Serial Transverse Enteroplasty (STEP) Data Registry: a retrospective observational study. *J Am Coll Surg* 2013;216:438–46.
36. Mercer DF, Hobson BD, Gerhardt BK, et al. Serial transverse enteroplasty allows children with short bowel to wean from parenteral nutrition. *J Pediatr* 2014;164:93–8.
37. King B, Carlson G, Khalil BA, et al. Intestinal bowel lengthening in children with short bowel syndrome: systematic review of the Bianchi and STEP procedures. *World J Surg* 2013;37:694–704.
38. Beath S, Pironi L, Gabe S, et al. Collaborative strategies to reduce mortality and morbidity in patients with chronic intestinal failure including those who are referred for small bowel transplantation. *Transplantation* 2008;85:1378–84.
39. Pharaon I, Despres C, Aigrain Y, et al. Long-term parenteral nutrition in children who are potentially candidates for small bowel transplantation. *Transplant Proc* 1994;26:1442.
40. Vargas JH, Ament ME, Berquist WE. Long-term home parenteral nutrition in pediatrics: ten years of experience in 102 patients. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 1987;6:24–32.
41. Spencer AU, Neaga A, West B, et al. Pediatric short bowel syndrome: redefining predictors of success. *Ann Surg* 2005;242:403–9.
42. Infantino BJ, Mercer DF, Hobson BD, et al. Successful rehabilitation in pediatric ultrashort small bowel syndrome. *J Pediatr* 2013;163:1361–6.
43. Modi BP, Langer M, Ching YA, et al. Improved survival in a multidisciplinary short bowel syndrome program. *J Pediatr Surg* 2008;43:20–4.
44. Fishbein TM, Matsumoto CS. Intestinal replacement therapy: timing and indications for referral of patients to an intestinal rehabilitation and transplant program. *Gastroenterology* 2006;130:S147–51.
45. Nucci A, Burns RC, Armah T, et al. Interdisciplinary management of pediatric intestinal failure: a 10-year review of rehabilitation and transplantation. *J Gastrointest Surg* 2008;12:429–35.
46. Lopushinsky SR, Fowler NA, Kulkarni GS, et al. The optimal timing of intestinal transplantation for children with intestinal failure: a Markov analysis. *Ann Surg* 2007;246:1092–9.
47. Gupte GL, Beath SV. Update on intestinal rehabilitation after intestinal transplantation. *Curr Opin Organ Transplant* 2009;14:267–73.
48. Colomb V, Dabbas-Tyan M, Taupin P, et al. Long-term outcome of children receiving home parenteral nutrition: a 20-year single-center experience in 302 patients. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2007;44:347–53.
49. Koehler AN, Yaworski JA, Gardner M, et al. Coordinated interdisciplinary management of pediatric intestinal failure: a 2-year review. *J Pediatr Surg* 2000;35:380–5.
50. Fallon EM, Mitchell PD, Nehra D, et al. Neonates with short bowel syndrome: an optimistic future for parenteral nutrition independence. *JAMA Surg* 2014;149:663–70.
51. Cowles RA, Ventura KA, Martinez M, et al. Reversal of intestinal failure-associated liver disease in infants and children on parenteral nutrition: experience with 93 patients at a referral center for intestinal rehabilitation. *J Pediatr Surg* 2010;45:84–7.
52. Khan FA, Squires RH, Litman HJ, et al. Predictors of enteral autonomy in children with intestinal failure: a multicenter cohort study. *J Pediatr* 2015;167:29.e1–34.e1.
53. Smith JM, Skeans MA, Thompson B, et al. OPTN/SRTR 2011 annual data report: intestine. *Am J Transplant* 2013;13(suppl 1):103–18.
54. Beath SV, Booth IW, Murphy MS, et al. Nutritional care and candidates for small bowel transplantation. *Arch Dis Child* 1995;73:348–50.
55. Magee JC, Krishnan SM, Benfield MR, et al. Pediatric Transplantation in the United States 1997–2006. *Am J Transplant* 2008;8:935–45.
56. Spencer AU, Kovacevich D, McKinney-Barnett M, et al. Pediatric short-bowel syndrome: the cost of comprehensive care. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2008;88:1552–9.
57. Kosar C, Steinberg K, de Silva N, et al. Cost of ambulatory care for the pediatric intestinal failure patient: one-year follow-up after primary discharge. *J Pediatr Surg* 2016;51:798–803.
58. Matarese LE, Steiger S. Establishment of an Intestinal Rehabilitation Team. In: Matarese LE, Seidner DL, eds. *Intestinal Failure and Rehabilitation*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 2005:367–84.
59. Gosselin KB, Duggan C. Enteral nutrition in the management of pediatric intestinal failure. *J Pediatr* 2014;165:1085–90.
60. Avitzur Y, Wang JY, de Silva NT, et al. The impact of Intestinal Rehabilitation Program and its innovative therapies on the outcome of intestine transplant candidates. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2015;61:18–23.
61. Burghardt KM, Wales PW, de Silva N, et al. Pediatric intestinal transplant listing criteria: a call for a change in the new era of intestinal failure outcomes. *Am J Transplant* 2015;15:1674–81.
62. Matsumoto CS, Kaufman SS, Island ER, et al. Hepatic explant pathology of pediatric intestinal transplant recipients previously treated with omega-3 fatty acid lipid emulsion. *J Pediatr* 2014;165:59–64.
63. Matarese LE. Establishment of an intestinal rehabilitation program in an international tertiary care center. *Nutrition* 2003;19:70–2.
64. Matarese LSE, Seidner DL (Eds): *Intestinal Failure and Rehabilitation: A Clinical Guide*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 2005:367–84.
65. Sudan D, DiBaise J, Torres C, et al. A multidisciplinary approach to the treatment of intestinal failure. *J Gastrointest Surg* 2005;9:165–76.
66. Dudrick SJ, O'Donnell JJ, Englert DM, et al. 100 patient-years of ambulatory home total parenteral nutrition. *Ann Surg* 1984;199:770–81.
67. Krawinkel MB, Scholz D, Busch A, et al. Chronic intestinal failure in children. *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 2012;109:409–15.
68. Sigalet D, Boctor D, Brindle M, et al. Elements of successful intestinal rehabilitation. *J Pediatr Surg* 2011;46:150–6.
69. Schurink M, Hulscher JB, Nieuwenhuijs VB, et al. A surgical perspective of the outcome of a multidisciplinary intestinal rehabilitation program for children with short bowel syndrome in the Netherlands. *Transplant Proc* 2014;46:2102–8.
70. Nusinovich Y, Revenis M, Torres C. Long-term outcomes for infants with intestinal atresia studied at Children's National Medical Center. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2013;57:324–9.
71. Merras-Salmio L, Pakarinen MP. Refined multidisciplinary protocol-based approach to short bowel syndrome improves outcomes. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2015;61:24–9.
72. Pakarinen MP, Pakkasjarvi N, Merras-Salmio L, et al. Intestinal rehabilitation of infantile onset very short bowel syndrome. *J Pediatr Surg* 2015;50:289–92.
73. Guarino A, De Marco G. Natural history of intestinal failure, investigated through a national network-based approach. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2003;37:136–41.
74. Oliveira C, de Silva NT, Stanojevic S, et al. Change of outcomes in pediatric intestinal failure: use of time-series analysis to assess the evolution of an intestinal rehabilitation program. *J Am Coll Surg* 2016;222:1180.e3–8e.
75. Sigalet D, Boctor D, Robertson M, et al. Improved outcomes in paediatric intestinal failure with aggressive prevention of liver disease. *Eur J Pediatr Surg* 2009;19:348–53.
76. Stanger JD, Oliveira C, Blackmore C, et al. The impact of multidisciplinary intestinal rehabilitation programs on the outcome of pediatric patients with intestinal failure: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Pediatr Surg* 2013;48:983–92.
77. Wales PW, Allen N, Worthington P, et al. A.S.P.E.N. clinical guidelines: support of pediatric patients with intestinal failure at risk of parenteral nutrition-associated liver disease. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2014;38:538–57.
78. Hojsak I, Colomb V, Braegger C, et al. ESPGHAN Committee on Nutrition Position Paper. Intravenous lipid emulsions and risk of hepatotoxicity in infants and children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2016;62:776–92.
79. Seida JC, Mager DR, Hartling L, et al. Parenteral omega-3 fatty acid lipid emulsions for children with intestinal failure and other conditions: a systematic review. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2013;37:44–55.
80. Cober MP, Teitelbaum DH. Prevention of parenteral nutrition-associated liver disease: lipid minimization. *Curr Opin in Organ Transplantation* 2010;15:330–3.



81. Cober MP, Killu G, Brattain A, et al. Intravenous fat emulsions reduction for patients with parenteral nutrition-associated liver disease. *J Pediatr* 2012;160:421–7.
82. Diamond IR, Sterescu A, Pencharz PB, et al. Changing the paradigm: omegaven for the treatment of liver failure in pediatric short bowel syndrome. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr* 2009;48:209–15.
83. Nandivada P, Baker MA, Mitchell PD, et al. Predictors of failure of fish-oil therapy for intestinal failure-associated liver disease in children. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2016;104:663–70.
84. Imseis E, Rhoads JM. Review on hepatic explant pathology of pediatric intestinal transplant recipients: is it time for an oil change? *World J Gastroenterol* 2015;21:5115–8.
85. Smith JM, Skeans MA, Horslen SP, et al. OPTN/SRTR 2013 annual data report: intestine. *Am J Transplant* 2016;15(suppl 2):1–16.
86. Diamond IR, Grant RC, Pencharz PB, et al. Preventing the progression of intestinal failure-associated liver disease in infants using a composite lipid emulsion: a pilot randomized controlled trial of SMOFlipid. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2017;41:866–77.
87. Tillman EM, Crill CM, Black DD, et al. Enteral fish oil for treatment of parenteral nutrition-associated liver disease in six infants with short-bowel syndrome. *Pharmacotherapy* 2011;31:503–9.
88. Rollins MD, Scaife ER, Jackson WD, et al. Elimination of soybean lipid emulsion in parenteral nutrition and supplementation with enteral fish oil improve cholestasis in infants with short bowel syndrome. *Nutr Clin Pract* 2010;25:199–204.