

Glutamine as an Immunonutrient

Hyeyoung Kim^{1,2}

¹Department of Food and Nutrition, Brain Korea 21 Project, College of Human Ecology, Yonsei University, Seoul;

²Department of Pharmacology, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Korea.

Received: July 5, 2011

Corresponding author: Dr. Hyeyoung Kim,
Department of Food and Nutrition,
Brain Korea 21 Project,
College of Human Ecology, Yonsei University,
50 Yonsei-ro, Seodaemun-gu,
Seoul 120-749, Korea.
Tel: 82-2-2123-3125, Fax: 82-2-364-5781
E-mail: kim626@yonsei.ac.kr

The author has no financial conflicts of interest.

Dietary supplementation with nutrients enhancing immune function is beneficial in patients with surgical and critical illness. Malnutrition and immune dysfunction are common features in hospitalized patients. Specific nutrients with immunological and pharmacological effects, when consumed in amounts above the daily requirement, are referred to as immune-enhancing nutrients or immunonutrients. Supplementation of immunonutrients is important especially for patients with immunodeficiency, virus or overwhelming infections accompanied by a state of malnutrition. Representative immunonutrients are arginine, omega-3 fatty acids, glutamine, nucleotides, beta-carotene, and/or branched-chain amino acids. Glutamine is the most abundant amino acid and performs multiple roles in human body. However, glutamine is depleted from muscle stores during severe metabolic stress including sepsis and major surgery. Therefore it is considered conditionally essential under these conditions. This review discusses the physiological role of glutamine, mode and dose for glutamine administration, as well as improvement of certain disease state after glutamine supplementation. Even though immunonutrition has not been widely assimilated by clinicians other than nutritionists, immunonutrients including glutamine may exert beneficial influence on diverse patient populations.

Key Words: Glutamine, immune dysfunction, malnutrition, critical illness

INTRODUCTION

A number of clinical studies have investigated the beneficial effects of enteral^{1,2} or parenteral^{3,4} nutrition after surgery, trauma, infection, starvation, or injury. Even though the mechanisms by which nutrients improve certain disease states have not yet been clarified, reduction of morbidity and shorter length of stay in septic patients,⁵ as well as reduced wound infection in burn patients⁶ were demonstrated after enteral feeding of nutrients. Critically ill patients who received the immune formula had more rapid restoration of lymphocyte mitogenesis, reduction in infectious complications, and reduced mortality than those who did not.⁷ Therefore, clinicians and nutritionists have focused on the composition of the nutrient mix. Arginine and omega-3 fatty acids with or without glutamine, nucleotides, beta-carotene, and/or branched-chain amino acids are important nutrients in the formula.⁸ They are referred to as immune-enhancing nutrients. The term “immunonutrition” has been

© Copyright:

Yonsei University College of Medicine 2011

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0>) which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

based on the concept that malnutrition impairs immune function.⁹ In immunonutrition, supranormal quantities of nutrients are supplied to achieve pharmacological effects via the enteral or parenteral route.¹⁰

In this review, one single nutrient, glutamine, is to be discussed, as it was previously omitted from most enteral feeding and all parenteral infusions. This may have been due to the fact that glutamine is abundant in the body and is thus not an essential amino acid. In addition, the solubility of glutamine is low in an aqueous environment, which makes glutamine inappropriate for enteral and parenteral nutrition. During catabolic stress (trauma, sepsis, burn), glutamine is rapidly released from muscle stores and serum, and intracellular levels of glutamine decrease.¹¹⁻¹³ Therefore, glutamine becomes conditionally essential under these conditions.¹⁴ This review discusses whether the glutamine supplementing enhances the physiologic and immunologic functions of critically ill patients by summarizing the role of glutamine in the human body, types and doses of glutamine supplementation, and changes in disease states after glutamine administration.

PHYSIOLOGICAL ROLE

Glutamine provides fuel for rapidly dividing cells (particularly lymphocytes and enterocytes)¹¹ as well as the epithelial cells of the intestines.¹⁵ Glutamine maintains gut barrier function, and is a precursor for the endogenous antioxidant glutathione.¹⁰ It plays an important role in nitrogen transport within the body, and serves as a substrate for renal ammoniogenesis.¹⁶ Glutamine induces the expression of heat shock proteins and stimulates nucleotide synthesis.¹⁷ Signaling mediators such as extracellular signal-regulated protein kinases that regulate cell differentiation are activated by glutamine.¹⁸ Glutamine contributes to mucin formation and intestinal surface integrity by mediating the synthesis of N-acetylglucosamine and N-acetylgalactosamine.¹⁹

Precursor for glutathione

Concentrations of glutathione are suboptimal in clinical conditions including HIV infection, hepatitis C infection, cirrhosis, type II diabetes, ulcerative colitis, and myocardial infarction. Three amino acids are needed to synthesize glutathione: glycine, glutamic acid and cysteine. Glutamine is easily converted to glutamic acid and produces an antioxidant glutathione.²⁰ Therefore, supplementation of glutamine may have

beneficial effects for reducing symptoms of inflammatory disorders and may protect against the damaging effect of oxidative stress. Although glutamine is an important substrate for glutathione, its capacity to synthesize glutathione is influenced by the presence of cysteine and glycine. The supply of sulfur-containing amino acids that can be converted to cysteine is also important point to be considered for glutamine supplementation.

Intestinal mucosal integrity and immune function

Glutamine has an important role in cell-mediated immunity²¹ and the integrity of the intestinal mucosa.²² During severe metabolic stress (i.e., trauma, sepsis, major surgery, bone marrow transplant, chemotherapy and radiotherapy), glutamine stores are depleted.^{1-3,23-29} Glutamine supplementation during illness increases gut barrier and lymphocyte function and preserves lean body mass. Glutamine protects against septic shock by preventing the depletion of glutathione and thus reducing cell death, which occurs during shock.³⁰ In surgical or cancer patients, glutamine supplementation decreases the production of some pro-inflammatory cytokines^{31,32} which may be associated with inhibition of nuclear factor- κ B and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase in the intestinal mucosa by glutamine supplementation to Crohn's patients.³³

Expression of heat shock protein

Heat shock protein plays a role in tissue protection after stress or injury, as its absence leads to an increase in cellular apoptosis. Glutamine induces expression of heat shock protein and reduces expression of inflammatory cytokines.³⁴ The effect of glutamine on the induction of heat shock protein may be related to the beneficial effects of glutamine supplementation, such as a decrease in length of hospital stay and ventilator time in critically ill patients.³⁵

Conversion to arginine and reduction in insulin resistance

Glutamine is an important precursor for arginine through interorgan transport of citrulline.^{36,37} In addition, glutamine reduces insulin resistance.³⁸

Down-regulation of Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4)

When the cells are exposed to lipopolysaccharide, expression of TLR4 and signal adaptor protein MyD88 are up-regulated, which leads to the induction of inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 and IL-6 and intestinal mucosal

injury.³⁹ Enteral feeding of glutamine reduces the induction of TLR4, MyD88 and TRAF6 mRNA, and suppresses injury to the mucous membrane of the small intestines caused by LPS endotoxemia in rats.⁴⁰ Glutamine induced down-regulation of TLR4 expression in intestinal epithelial cells infected with gram-negative bacteria.⁴¹ TLR4-dependent immune response and anti-bacterial/anti-inflammatory response after glutamine supplementation were reported in septic patients.⁵

MODE AND DOSE OF SUPPLEMENTATION

Glutamine dipeptide as a supplement

To overcome the low stability of glutamine in an aqueous environment, glutamine coupled with other amino acid (glycine or alanine) has been developed as a component of nutrient mix. Glutamine couples with alanine or glycine to form a less degradable dipeptide.⁴² Both L-Glutamine and L-alanyl-L-glutamine prevented oxidant- or endotoxin-induced death of neonatal enterocytes *in vitro*.⁴³

In humans, arterial glutamine concentrations were better after parenteral administration of alanyl-glutamine than after administration of free glutamine.⁴⁴ Peritonitis patients who received a solution containing L-alanyl-L-glutamine had lower mortality rates than those who received nutrition that did not.⁴⁵

Dry-packing of glutamine and proteins rich in glutamine

Glutamine is easily degraded in a solution into a toxic product-pyroglutamate-particularly during heat sterilization. Therefore, formulas with free glutamine amino acids are packaged dry and reconstituted just prior to administration. Proteins rich in glutamine could be used as a glutamine supplement to avoid toxicity issues in prepared liquid formulas.⁸ A recent study showed that an arginine-supplemented immune enhancing diet increased plasma glutamine, possibly by enhancing de novo synthesis of glutamine from arginine in post-operative patients.⁴⁶ Interaction/inter-conversion of amino acids and nutrients is an important research field to be resolved in immunonutrition.

Doses of glutamine

Oral glutamine (0.3 g/kg body weight/day) administration showed beneficial effects on intestinal integrity and the

overall incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis/septicemia in preterm infants.⁴⁷ Administration of enteral nutrition with a glutamine enriched formula (30.5 g/100 g protein feeding) resulted in a significant decrease in the incidence of pneumonia, bacteremia, and sepsis of critically ill patients as compared to control feeding (3.5 g/100 g protein).⁴⁸ Intravenous infusion of glutamine dipeptide as L-alanyl-L-glutamine (0.285 g/kg body weight/day) reduced the rate of mortality in critically ill patients.⁴⁹ Glutamine (0.4 g/kg body weight/day)-supplemented total parenteral nutrition significantly decreases leukocyte and natural killer cell count and therefore suppresses inflammation in patients with systemic inflammatory response syndrome.⁵⁰

DISEASE STATE AFTER SUPPLEMENTATION

Severity of illness in patients in the intensive care unit (ICU) and septic patients

Patients in the ICU have low plasma glutamine concentrations (<0.42 mmol/L) at the time of admission, which may be related to the severity of their illness and high mortality rate.⁵¹ Glutamine supplementation reduced infection and inflammation in critically ill patients, but the length of stay was not changed by glutamine supplementation.¹⁰ In surgical or critically ill patients, the addition of glutamine reduced infection rates and shortened the length of hospital stay, but had no effect on mortality.⁵² Although it is controversial as to whether glutamine supplementation reduces mortality or length of hospitalization in patients in the ICU and critically ill patients, supplementation does decrease their rate of infection and inflammation.

Patients undergoing chemotherapy and patients following hematopoietic stem cell transplantation

Enteral feeding of glutamine reduced mucositis in chemotherapy patients²⁸ and in head and neck cancer patients with radiotherapy.²⁹ Total parenteral nutrition with glutamine reduced the severity and duration of mucositis, and the duration of hospitalization for bone marrow transplant patients.^{26,53} Glutamine dipeptide-supplemented total parenteral nutrition had no effect on neutropenic period, fever, extra antibiotics, or toxicity scores, but body weight gain per treatment cycle in catabolic hematologic patients with intensive chemotherapy.²⁷ Even though glutamine showed positive effects on mucositis of the gastrointestinal tract caused by

chemotherapy, radiotherapy and cancer cachexia with depletion of skeletal muscle glutamine,²⁸ the use of glutamine in this patient population is still up for debate. This is because glutamine can be an energy source for enterocytes and lymphocytes as well as malignant cells.

Short bowel syndrome and Crohn's disease

There was no evidence of beneficial effects of glutamine on gut function in short bowel syndrome patients.⁵⁴ Gut permeability was slightly improved by glutamine supplementation in patients with Crohn's disease.³³ In Crohn's disease patients, mucosal glutathione content is reduced as compared with controls. However, oral supplementation of glutamine had no effect on inflammation in humans.⁵⁵ A new formula has been suggested to increase glutamine efficacy at the site of mucosal lesions. Candidate amino acids such as arginine, glycine, and cysteine should be evaluated in the future.

Premature infants

Parenteral glutamine administration has dramatic results in premature infants. Glutamine-supplemented infants with a body weight lower than 800 g, required fewer days on total parenteral nutrition, had a shorter length of time to feed full, and needed less time on the ventilator.⁵⁶ Parenteral glutamine supplementation improved hepatic tolerance in infants with very low birth weights⁵⁷ and prevented sepsis.⁵⁸ Further large scale trials are needed to determine the efficacy of glutamine in these high-risk premature infants.

CONCLUSION

In general, glutamine supplementation reduces the rate of infection, inflammation, length of hospital stay, and mortality, and improves gut barrier function and immune function, especially cell-mediated immunity in critically ill patients. Future studies should focus on the type of formula, dose, delivery route, duration and timing of glutamine supplementation. Studies on disease-specific action mechanism of glutamine will be helpful for preventing secondary infection and disease progression. The combination of immunonutrients may have synergistic effects of the physiological and immunological function of individual nutrients. Inter-conversion and interaction of nutrients are the issues to be addressed. Inappropriate use of immunonutrients may be potentially harmful. Therefore, more detailed analysis of previous reports, including the pathogenesis of diseases, are required

prior to supplementation of immunonutrients including glutamine. Immunonutrition may be potentially useful as a therapeutic modality with close communication and information exchange between clinicians and nutrition specialists.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was supported by Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2011-0001177) and a grant (Joint Research Project under the Korea-Japan Basic Scientific Cooperation Program) from NRF (F01-2009-000-10101-0). Author is grateful to Dr. T. Morio in Tokyo Medical and Dental University for valuable comments in the aspect of a clinician's view.

REFERENCES

1. Kudsk KA, Minard G, Croce MA, Brown RO, Lowrey TS, Pritchard FE, et al. A randomized trial of isonitrogenous enteral diets after severe trauma. An immune-enhancing diet reduces septic complications. *Ann Surg* 1996;224:531-40.
2. Koletzko S. Progress of enteral feeding practice over time: moving from energy supply to patient- and disease-adapted formulations. *Nestle Nutr Workshop Ser Pediatr Program* 2010;66:41-54.
3. Kudsk KA, Croce MA, Fabian TC, Minard G, Tolley EA, Poret HA, et al. Enteral versus parenteral feeding. Effects on septic morbidity after blunt and penetrating abdominal trauma. *Ann Surg* 1992;215:503-11.
4. Alivizatos V, Athanasopoulos P, Makris N, Karageorgos N. Early postoperative glutamine-supplemented parenteral nutrition versus enteral immunonutrition in cancer patients undergoing major gastrointestinal surgery. *J BUON* 2005;10:119-22.
5. Słotwiński R, Słotwińska S, Kędziora S, Bała B. Innate immunity signaling pathways: links between immunonutrition and responses to sepsis. *Arch Immunol Ther Exp (Warsz)* 2011;59:139-50.
6. Kurmis R, Parker A, Greenwood J. The use of immunonutrition in burn injury care: where are we? *J Burn Care Res* 2010;31:677-91.
7. Mizock BA. Immunonutrition and critical illness: an update. *Nutrition* 2010;26:701-7.
8. Kudsk KA. Immunonutrition in surgery and critical care. *Annu Rev Nutr* 2006;26:463-79.
9. Beisel WR. History of nutritional immunology: introduction and overview. *J Nutr* 1992;122:591-6.
10. Grimble RF. Immunonutrition. *Curr Opin Gastroenterol* 2005; 21:216-22.
11. Souba WW. Glutamine: a key substrate for the splanchnic bed. *Annu Rev Nutr* 1991;11:285-308.
12. Wilmore DW, Smith RJ, O'Dwyer ST, Jacobs DO, Ziegler TR, Wang XD. The gut: a central organ after surgical stress. *Surgery* 1988;104:917-23.
13. Windmueller HG, Spaeth AE. Uptake and metabolism of plasma

- glutamine by the small intestine. *J Biol Chem* 1974;249:5070-9.
14. Lacey JM, Wilmore DW. Is glutamine a conditionally essential amino acid? *Nutr Rev* 1990;48:297-309.
 15. Brasse-Lagnel CG, Lavoigne AM, Husson AS. Amino acid regulation of mammalian gene expression in the intestine. *Biochimie* 2010;92:729-35.
 16. Gstraunthaler G, Landauer F, Pfaller W. Ammoniogenesis in LLC-PK1 cultures: role of transamination. *Am J Physiol* 1992;263:C47-54.
 17. Wischmeyer PE. Glutamine: mode of action in critical illness. *Crit Care Med* 2007;35:S541-4.
 18. Rhoads JM, Argenzio RA, Chen W, Rippe RA, Westwick JK, Cox AD, et al. L-glutamine stimulates intestinal cell proliferation and activates mitogen-activated protein kinases. *Am J Physiol* 1997;272:G943-53.
 19. Huang Y, Shao XM, Neu J. Immunonutrients and neonates. *Eur J Pediatr* 2003;162:122-8.
 20. Wessner B, Strasser EM, Spittler A, Roth E. Effect of single and combined supply of glutamine, glycine, N-acetylcysteine, and R,S-alpha-lipoic acid on glutathione content of myelomonocytic cells. *Clin Nutr* 2003;22:515-22.
 21. Cetinbas F, Yelken B, Gulbas Z. Role of glutamine administration on cellular immunity after total parenteral nutrition enriched with glutamine in patients with systemic inflammatory response syndrome. *J Crit Care* 2010;25:661.e1-6.
 22. dos Santos RG, Viana ML, Generoso SV, Arantes RE, Davisson Correia MI, Cardoso VN. Glutamine supplementation decreases intestinal permeability and preserves gut mucosa integrity in an experimental mouse model. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2010;34:408-13.
 23. Andrews FJ, Griffiths RD. Glutamine: essential for immune nutrition in the critically ill. *Br J Nutr* 2002;87 Suppl 1:S3-8.
 24. Xu J, Yunshi Z, Li R. Immunonutrition in surgical patients. *Curr Drug Targets* 2009;10:771-7.
 25. Klek S. Immunonutrition in cancer patients. *Nutrition* 2011;27:144-5.
 26. Ziegler TR, Young LS, Benfell K, Scheltinga M, Hortos K, Bye R, et al. Clinical and metabolic efficacy of glutamine-supplemented parenteral nutrition after bone marrow transplantation. A randomized, double-blind, controlled study. *Ann Intern Med* 1992;116:821-8.
 27. van Zaanen HC, van der Lelie H, Timmer JG, Fürst P, Sauerwein HP. Parenteral glutamine dipeptide supplementation does not ameliorate chemotherapy-induced toxicity. *Cancer* 1994;74:2879-84.
 28. Noé JE. L-glutamine use in the treatment and prevention of mucositis and cachexia: a naturopathic perspective. *Integr Cancer Ther* 2009;8:409-15.
 29. Izaola O, de Luis DA, Cuellar L, Terroba MC, Ventosa M, Martin T, et al. Influence of an immuno-enhanced formula in postsurgical ambulatory patients with head and neck cancer. *Nutr Hosp* 2010;25:793-6.
 30. Singleton KD, Serkova N, Beckey VE, Wischmeyer PE. Glutamine attenuates lung injury and improves survival after sepsis: role of enhanced heat shock protein expression. *Crit Care Med* 2005;33:1206-13.
 31. O'Riordain MG, De Beaux A, Fearon KC. Effect of glutamine on immune function in the surgical patient. *Nutrition* 1996;12:S82-4.
 32. Lu CY, Shih YL, Sun LC, Chuang JF, Ma CJ, Chen FM, et al. The inflammatory modulation effect of glutamine-enriched total parenteral nutrition in postoperative gastrointestinal cancer patients. *Am Surg* 2011;77:59-64.
 33. Leclaire S, Hassan A, Marion-Letellier R, Antonietti M, Savoye G, Bôle-Feysot C, et al. Combined glutamine and arginine decrease proinflammatory cytokine production by biopsies from Crohn's patients in association with changes in nuclear factor-kappaB and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways. *J Nutr* 2008;138:2481-6.
 34. Ziegler TR, Ogden LG, Singleton KD, Luo M, Fernandez-Estivariz C, Griffith DP, et al. Parenteral glutamine increases serum heat shock protein 70 in critically ill patients. *Intensive Care Med* 2005;31:1079-86.
 35. Singleton KD, Serkova N, Beckey VE, Wischmeyer PE. Glutamine attenuates lung injury and improves survival after sepsis: role of enhanced heat shock protein expression. *Crit Care Med* 2005;33:1206-13.
 36. van de Poll MC, Ligthart-Melis GC, Boelens PG, Deutz NE, van Leeuwen PA, Dejong CH. Intestinal and hepatic metabolism of glutamine and citrulline in humans. *J Physiol* 2007;581:819-27.
 37. van de Poll MC, Siroen MP, van Leeuwen PA, Soeters PB, Melis GC, Boelens PG, et al. Interorgan amino acid exchange in humans: consequences for arginine and citrulline metabolism. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2007;85:167-72.
 38. Déchelotte P, Hasselmann M, Cynober L, Allaouchiche B, Coëffier M, Hecketsweiler B, et al. L-alanyl-L-glutamine dipeptide-supplemented total parenteral nutrition reduces infectious complications and glucose intolerance in critically ill patients: the French controlled, randomized, double-blind, multicenter study. *Crit Care Med* 2006;34:598-604.
 39. Cario E, Rosenberg IM, Brandwein SL, Beck PL, Reinecker HC, Podolsky DK. Lipopolysaccharide activates distinct signaling pathways in intestinal epithelial cell lines expressing Toll-like receptors. *J Immunol* 2000;164:966-72.
 40. Kessel A, Toubi E, Pavlotzky E, Mogilner J, Coran AG, Lurie M, et al. Treatment with glutamine is associated with down-regulation of Toll-like receptor-4 and myeloid differentiation factor 88 expression and decrease in intestinal mucosal injury caused by lipopolysaccharide endotoxaemia in a rat. *Clin Exp Immunol* 2008;151:341-7.
 41. Abreu MT, Vora P, Faure E, Thomas LS, Arnold ET, Arditi M. Decreased expression of Toll-like receptor-4 and MD-2 correlates with intestinal epithelial cell protection against dysregulated pro-inflammatory gene expression in response to bacterial lipopolysaccharide. *J Immunol* 2001;167:1609-16.
 42. Boelens PG, Melis GC, van Leeuwen PA, ten Have GA, Deutz NE. Route of administration (enteral or parenteral) affects the contribution of L-glutamine to de novo L-arginine synthesis in mice: a stable-isotope study. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2006;291:E683-90.
 43. Haynes TE, Li P, Li X, Shimotori K, Sato H, Flynn NE, et al. L-Glutamine or L-alanyl-L-glutamine prevents oxidant- or endotoxin-induced death of neonatal enterocytes. *Amino Acids* 2009;37:131-42.
 44. Ligthart-Melis GC, van de Poll MC, Dejong CH, Boelens PG, Deutz NE, van Leeuwen PA. The route of administration (enteral or parenteral) affects the conversion of isotopically labeled L-[2-15N]glutamine into citrulline and arginine in humans. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 2007;31:343-48.
 45. Fuentes-Orozco C, Anaya-Prado R, González-Ojeda A, Arenas-Márquez H, Cabrera-Pivaral C, Cervantes-Guevara G, et al. L-alanyl-L-glutamine-supplemented parenteral nutrition improves infec-

- tious morbidity in secondary peritonitis. *Clin Nutr* 2004;23:13-21.
46. Loï C, Zazzo JF, Delpierre E, Niddam C, Neveux N, Curis E, et al. Increasing plasma glutamine in postoperative patients fed an arginine-rich immune-enhancing diet--a pharmacokinetic randomized controlled study. *Crit Care Med* 2009;37:501-9.
 47. Sevastiadou S, Malamitsi-Puchner A, Costalos C, Skouroliakou M, Briana DD, Antsaklis A, et al. The impact of oral glutamine supplementation on the intestinal permeability and incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis/septicemia in premature neonates. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* 2011. [Epub ahead of print]
 48. Houdijk AP, Rijnsburger ER, Jansen J, Wesdorp RI, Weiss JK, McCamish MA, et al. Randomised trial of glutamine-enriched enteral nutrition on infectious morbidity in patients with multiple trauma. *Lancet* 1998;352:772-6.
 49. Wernerman J, Kirketeig T, Andersson B, Berthelson H, Ersson A, Friberg H, et al. Scandinavian glutamine trial: a pragmatic multi-centre randomised clinical trial of intensive care unit patients. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2011;55:812-818.
 50. Cetinbas F, Yelken B, Gulbas Z. Role of glutamine administration on cellular immunity after total parenteral nutrition enriched with glutamine in patients with systemic inflammatory response syndrome. *J Crit Care* 2010;25:661.e1-6.
 51. Oudemans-van Straaten HM, Bosman RJ, Treskes M, van der Spoel HJ, Zandstra DF. Plasma glutamine depletion and patient outcome in acute ICU admissions. *Intensive Care Med* 2001; 27:84-90.
 52. Novak F, Heyland DK, Avenell A, Drover JW, Su X. Glutamine supplementation in serious illness: a systematic review of the evidence. *Crit Care Med* 2002;30:2022-9.
 53. Schloerb PR, Amare M. Total parenteral nutrition with glutamine in bone marrow transplantation and other clinical applications (a randomized, double-blind study). *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 1993;17:407-13.
 54. Scolapio JS. Treatment of short-bowel syndrome. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 2001;4:557-60.
 55. Coëffier M, Marion-Letellier R, Déchelotte P. Potential for amino acids supplementation during inflammatory bowel diseases. *Inflamm Bowel Dis* 2010;16:518-24.
 56. Lacey JM, Crouch JB, Benfell K, Ringer SA, Wilmore CK, Maguire D, et al. The effects of glutamine-supplemented parenteral nutrition in premature infants. *JPEN J Parenter Enteral Nutr* 1996; 20:74-80.
 57. Wang Y, Tao YX, Cai W, Tang QY, Feng Y, Wu J. Protective effect of parenteral glutamine supplementation on hepatic function in very low birth weight infants. *Clin Nutr* 2010;29:307-11.
 58. Cohen-Wolkowicz M, Benjamin DK Jr, Capparelli E. Immunotherapy in neonatal sepsis: advances in treatment and prophylaxis. *Curr Opin Pediatr* 2009;21:177-81.