Application of prebiotics in infant foods

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The rationale for supplementing an infant formula with prebiotics is to obtain a bifidogenic effect and the implied advantages of a ‘breast-fed-like’ flora. So far, the bifidogenic effect of oligofructose and inulin has been demonstrated in animals and in adults, oligofructose in infants and toddlers and of a long-chain inulin (10%) and galactooligosaccharide (90%) mixture in term and preterm infants. The addition of prebiotics to infant formula softens stools but other putative effects remain to be demonstrated. Studies published post marketing show that infants fed a long-chain inulin/galactooligosaccharide mixture (0.8 g/dl) in formula grow normally and have no side-effects. The addition of the same mixture at a concentration of 0.8 g/dl to infant formula was therefore recognized as safe by the European Commission in 2001 but follow-up studies were recommended. It is thought that a bifidogenic effect is beneficial for the infant host. The rising incidence in allergy during the first year of life may justify the attempts to modulate the infant’s flora.

Prebiotics: Infant food: Oligofructose: Galactooligosaccharides: Inulin: Bifidogenic

Why breast is best

Breast-feeding has been the ideal mode of feeding for the newborn infant. In addition to favouring an intimate bond between mother and child, breast-feeding protects against atopy (Gidalevich et al. 2001) and infections (Pettingrew et al. 2003). Human breast milk is a superior nutrient not only on philosophical grounds but also because its varying composition is particularly well adapted to the baby’s needs. Mother’s milk is a functional food “par excellence”: it contains semi-essential nutrients, free amino acids, enzymes, hormones, growth factors, polyamines, nucleotides and oligosaccharides. The later are present in concentrations of 10–12 g/l in human milk and are thought to favour the growth of bifidobacteria that characterize the breast-fed baby’s intestinal flora.

It is well known that the type of feeding influences the installation of the intestinal flora after birth. During birth, oral inoculation with maternal intestinal and vaginal flora first causes colonization of the neonate’s sterile gastrointestinal tract. Exclusively breast-fed infants harbor predominantly bifidobacteria, and low numbers of Escherichia coli and bacteroides. Formulated infants harbor equal number of these various commensal bacteria (Harmsen et al. 2000).

Bifidobacteria are fermentative and lower stool pH. A Bifidus-dominated flora is considered protective for the host as it may activate the immune system and inhibit invading pathogens (Gibson & Roberfroid, 1995). Some evidence suggests that atopic infants harbor less bifidobacteria (Bjorksten et al. 2001). The immature intestinal barrier facilitates antigen transfer causing some degree of mucosal inflammation. Inflammation leads to increased permeability and may impair the equilibrium of the intestinal flora. These factors could be important in the development of food allergy (Fig. 1). Thus, the current working hypothesis is that the intestinal microflora plays a role early on in the development of allergy and that a Bifidus-dominated flora may be protective.

Competing with the breast factor

Although the majority of mothers start to breast-feed the first day, the percentage of exclusively breast-fed babies at 4–6 months varies widely. Some numbers indicating the percentage of exclusive breast-feeding until weaning to solid foods are: 2–15% in African countries, 20–55% in Latin America, 55–61% in Sweden, 14–21% in Great Britain. In an attempt to maintain a Bifidus-dominated flora upon their introduction, formulas and toddlers’ food products have recently been enriched with prebiotics (Vandenplas, 2002). Beneficial commensal bacteria are called probiotics. Prebiotics are non-digestible substances that are substrates to and favour the growth of potentially health-promoting bacteria, in this case bifidobacteria (Roberfroid, 2001).

Breast milk oligosaccharides (present in 1–1.2%) show an impressive structural diversity. More than 130 different structures have been identified. Some of the most prominent are mono- and difucosyllactose, lacto-N-tetraose, mono- and difucosylated derivatives, fucosylated lacto-N-hexaoes and lacto-N-octaoes. Commercial prebiotics are galacto-oligosaccharides and inulin-type fructans.

Effects of prebiotics in infant food

Preterm infants

An infant food company has recently launched formulas for preterm and term infants containing a combination of long-chain inulin (10%) and galactooligosaccharides (90%). Terminology...
may be confusing; indeed, the long-chain inulin component was named fructooligosaccharide (FOS) to easily combine with the term galactooligosaccharide (GOS; for an extensive discussion on nomenclature of inulin-type fructans see the paper by Roberfroid in this supplement).

In preterm infants of about 31 weeks’ gestational age and about 1 week old, a double-blind, randomized controlled study was performed comparing standard formula with formula containing 1 g of the prebiotic mixture/dl. A group fed fortified human milk was studied in parallel. During the 28 d study period, the number of faecal bifidobacteria and lactobacilli increased in the prebiotic formula group to levels seen in the breast-fed group. The difference in composition of the faecal flora between the standard formula and the prebiotic formula group was highly significant. Moreover, stool consistency and stool frequency were similar in the breast-fed and the supplemented group (Boehm et al. 2002). The prebiotic mixture might also have improved Ca absorption as indicated by a similar urinary Ca/P ratio in prebiotic-fed and breast-fed babies (Marini et al. 2003).

**Term infants**

Several studies have been performed with the same prebiotic mixture in term infants.

In a double-blind, randomized study, ninety term infants were fed either a standard formula or a formula supplemented with 0.4 or 0.8 g/dl of a preparation containing high-molecular-weight inulin (10 %) and galactooligosaccharides (90 %). Data were compared with a parallel breast-fed group. At the end of the 28 d study period, the number of faecal bifidobacteria was significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner in the supplemented infants. Supplemented infants also significantly increased their number of faecal lactobacilli but this was not dose-dependent. Stool pH decreased, stool consistency and stool frequency increased in a dose-dependent manner. Growth, crying, regurgitation or vomiting was similar in all groups (Moro et al. 2002, 2003).

Introduction of the supplemented formula (0.8 g/dl) after 4 weeks of standard formula also induced the growth of bifidobacteria. Moreover, prebiotic-fed and breast-fed babies had the same subgroups of induced bifidobacteria (Knol et al. 2002).

The prebiotic mixture (0.8 g/dl) described earlier was incorporated in a commercial formula also containing a partially hydrolysed protein and a high β-palmitic acid level (Omneo®; Nutricia, Numico and Conformil®; Milupa, Numico). A preliminary study documented the bifidogenic effect of this formula (Knol et al. 2001). In a double-blind randomized study, 150 infants under 2 weeks of age received this novel or a standard formula until the age of 12 weeks. The infants were growing normally and tolerated both formulas well. Stools of infants receiving the new formula contained more faecal bifidobacteria and were softer. Serum biochemistry and amino acid profiles were similar after 6 weeks (Schmelzle et al. 2003). Comparative follow-up of infants fed the new commercial formula with a lower concentration of the prebiotic mixture (0.4 g/dl), standard formula or human milk showed that growth and body composition were comparable after 2 months of intervention, but the number of faecal bifidobacteria was higher in the test group than in the infants receiving standard formula (Rigo et al. 2001).

In contrast to the bifidogenic effect of the long-chain inulin (10 %) and galactooligosaccharide (90 %) mixture, short-chain oligofructose alone had no effect at doses of 200, 400 and 600 mg per bottle for 2 weeks (Guesry et al. 2000).

Thus, in preterm and term infants, a mixture of long-chain inulin (10%) and galactooligosaccharide (90%) mixture, short-chain oligofructose alone had no effect at doses of 200, 400 and 600 mg per bottle for 2 weeks (Guesry et al. 2000).

In summary, the currently published data is found in Fig. 2. Early evidence led to the publication of a Statement by the Scientific Committee on Food of the European Commission on 13 December 2001 in which addition of the prebiotic mixture at a concentration of 0.8 g/dl to infant formula is considered safe (http://ec.europa.eu/comm-food). It was recommended, however, that additional data on growth, body composition, nutrient availability and water balance be obtained.

**Fig. 1. Gastrointestinal barrier in early infancy.**
**Toddlers**

Prebiotics have been added to weaning foods in an attempt to conserve or restore a Bifidus-dominant flora in toddlers. Indeed, a higher count of bifidobacteria may prevent rotaviral enteritis (Saavedra et al. 1994) and protect against allergy (Bjorksten et al. 2001).

The addition of oligofructose to cereals, leading to an average daily consumption of 1·1 g in healthy children aged between 4 and 24 months, significantly decreased the number of infectious episodes as indicated by fever and medical visits. Control subjects had more sick days and a higher intake of antibiotics. Growth was similar in the supplemented and non-supplemented group. Episodes of emesis, regurgitation and perceived discomfort were lower in the supplemented children but there were no differences in flatulence or constipation (Saavedra et al. 1999; Tschernia et al. 1999; Saavedra & Tschernia, 2002).

The putative influence of prebiotics on the immune response was examined in a double-blind study in which fifty infants aged 7–9 months received a mixture of oligofructose (70 %) and inulin (30 %) at a concentration of 1 g per 25 g of dry weight cereal during 4 weeks prior to measles vaccination. This led to an average daily intake of 0·2 g prebiotic/kg body weight. The rise in post vaccination anti-measles IgG was significantly higher in the supplemented infants. No differences were noted in gastrointestinal tolerance (Firmansyah et al. 2001; Haschke et al. 2001).

Tolerance to oligofructose in cereals was assessed in healthy children aged 4–12 months in a double-blind randomized study. With a daily consumption of 0·74 g/d on average and 3 g/d maximum, tolerance to the prebiotic was excellent. Supplemented children had softer stools. There were no differences in episodes of crying, emesis or colic. Stool pH was similar in both groups (Moore et al. 2003).

In a similar double-blind randomized set-up as described for preterm and term infants, the long-chain inulin (10 %) and galactooligosaccharide (90 %) mixture was tested in fully bottle-fed infants who were weaned to solid food. The number of faecal bifidobacteria increased significantly in the supplemented infants receiving 4·5 g/d (Scholtens et al. 2003).

One study so far used prebiotics in diseased infants: breast-fed Peruvian infants with diarrhoea. The addition of oligofructose with or without Zn to cereals had no effect on the prevalence of diarrhoea (Duggan et al. 2003).

In summary, in healthy toddlers’ up to 3 g oligofructose/d is well tolerated and 4·5 g of a mixture of long-chain inulin (10 %) and galactooligosaccharides (90 %) is bifidogenic. Prebiotics may stimulate the immune response in healthy infants but their effect in disease remains to be demonstrated. Toddlers taking prebiotics have softer stools.

**In vitro data**

Artificial models that simulate gastrointestinal transit have been used to study nutrient availability. These models consist of successive incubation chambers containing a particular food mixed with digestive juices. The solubilization of nutrients and minerals is assessed and suggests their availability for absorption (Bosscher et al. 2003a). Using that incubation techniques, it was demonstrated that inulin supplementation at a concentration of 0·4 g/dl to standard infant formula improves Ca availability (Bosscher et al. 2003b).

**Future directions**

One of the most challenging current research areas is the potential beneficial effect of prebiotics on the immune system of young infants (Miniello et al. 2003). Prebiotics in early nutrition may have very profound effects on the intestinal barrier, internal milieu and defence mechanisms. If they do, is their effect long-lasting? The supposed early ‘window of opportunity’ has not been well defined yet. Are there long-term health benefits related to an early treatment window?

Many questions remain regarding the spontaneous evolution of the intestinal flora, the influence of dietary factors, the impact of modulation or manipulation of the flora. The optimal composition and dosage of prebiotics should also be studied. Prebiotics may reduce the risk of disease but should they be used in case of illness?

Caution in the care of newborns demands evidence and not the extrapolation of isolated facts. Clinical studies are difficult...
to perform in this age group but that does not imply that empirical actions are to be preferred. In vitro models may prove useful in selecting adequate and safe prebiotics. The functional effects of prebiotics on infant health also need to be further studied in vivo in controlled intervention trials.

References


