

Structure and Functions of Lactoferrin as Ingredient in Infant Formulas

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Abstract

It has been widely accepted that breastfeeding is the best food for newborns. Mother's milk provides all the nutritive elements for normal growth and development of infants being considered the first functional food in life. Because it contains a variety of compounds playing a key role in the adequate feeding of newborns, such as oligosaccharides, probiotics, polyunsaturated fatty acids and lactoferrin. Lactoferrin from human milk has been demonstrated to be responsible for the resistance of newborns to infections and also has many biological activities that are essential for an adequate health of infants. Recently, there is also a growing interest in the potential use of lactoferrin for the improvement of bone health and cancer prevention. Milk substitutes and infant formulas play a vital role in infant nutrition when the breastfeeding is not available. The design of infant formula is modeled on the composition of human milk and the current trend in the infant formulas manufacturing is looking to provide not only nutritional compounds but also similar functional effects than human milk.

Keywords: lactoferrin, iron absorption, infant formula, antibacterial, immunomodulation

1. Introduction

It is considered according to the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP, 2012) that the breastfeeding is the preferred choice of feeding for all infants and recommended that the exclusive breastfeeding for about the first 6 months is very important, followed by continued breastfeeding with introducing of some of the complementary foods when breast milk alone is no longer sufficient to meet the nutritional requirements of infants. It is worthy to note that breastfeeding continue for 1 year or longer as desired by mother and infant. So breastfeeding is undoubtedly the best form of nutrition for newborns and young infants and its advantage go far beyond nutritional and anti-infective benefits (Mathew, 2004). The importance of breastfeeding is not only providing essential nutrients to infants, but it has many healthy benefits for both children and their mothers (Kramer & Kakuma, 2002). The benefits of breastfeeding have been well described in the medical literature and including providing optimal nutrition, preventing common childhood illnesses and improving child spacing (Abiona et al., 2006).

The breast feeding for at least 6 months can decrease worldwide mortality diarrhea, respiratory illness, and other infectious disease by up to 55% (Chantry, Howard, & Auinger, 2006), and this due to the components of breast milk that are considered major contributors to decrease morbidity rates in breastfed infants (Newburg, 2000). One of these major active components is lactoferrin which has many healthy effects on the newborns such as the antimicrobial effects which add to the protective factor of breast milk (Story & Parish, 2008).

Breast milk contains an important and multiple immunological and anti-infective factors (Chirico, Marzoll, Cortinovis, Fonte, & Gasparino, 2008). They include, among many others, proteins with antimicrobial properties such as secretory IgA, lysozyme, and lactoferrin; lactoferrin provides immune-modulating properties in addition to its better-known anti-infective properties. Oligosaccharides in breast milk inhibit bacterial adhesion, further protecting against pathogens, and white blood cells provide passive immune protection. Nucleotides and

cytokines also assist with T-cell maturation and immune system modulation, evidenced by, e.g., the more robust immune response that breast-fed infants exhibit after vaccination. Breast milk also promotes healthful gastrointestinal microbiota (Zivkovic, German, Lebrilla, & Mills, 2011), and can actively stimulate development of the newborn's host defenses to provide continued mucosal protection after breast feeding is terminated. Several components of breast milk such as growth factors, interleukin 10 and also lactoferrin can reduce the inflammatory response to stimuli in the newborn intestine (Petit, 2008; Walker, 2010). Human milk lactoferrin has been demonstrated to increase the resistance of newborns to infections and also has many biological activities that are essential for an adequate health of infants. Recently, lactoferrin has taken more attention in regarding with some healthy activities like its role in the improvement of bone health, cancer prevention and its role as transcription factor. It is able to enter a cell and to activate the transcription of specific DNA sequences and this lactoferrin-DNA interaction is reported to be responsible for antiviral role (Adlerova, Bartoskova, & Faldyna, 2008).

With this background, the aim of this review is to provide an overview of the state of the art in research regarding the functional role of lactoferrin added to infant formulas such as, in maintaining immune homeostasis, nutrient intestinal absorption, prebiotic effect, bone health improvement or chronic diseases prevention, providing better knowledge on the use of lactoferrin as ingredient in infant formulas.

2. Lactoferrin: Structure and Properties

Breast milk is rich in a lot of biologically active components that are beneficial for the health of newborns (Ella, Ahmed, Umoh, Ogala, & Balogun, 2009). Lactoferrin is one of these active components isolated firstly from cow's milk and after from human milk (Losnedahl, Wang, Aslam, Zou, & Hurley, 1998). It is the second most abundant protein in human milk and belongs to the transferrin family (Connely, 2001).

Lactoferrin is the major iron-binding protein in milk from several species, such as in human (10-15%) (Baró, Jiménez, Martínez-Férez, & Boza, 2001) acting as a first line defense agent against infections in the body (Coonely, 2001). It is found at the highest levels in human colostrum (7 g/L) and at a lower level (2-4 g/L) in mature human milk (Sacrina, 2007), meanwhile the amount of lactoferrin is lower in cow's milk (0.01 g/L) and generally its content varies depending on the species (Wakabayashi, Yamauchi, & Lonnerdal, 2006). Structurally, Bovine lactoferrin (bLF) is an iron-binding glycoprotein of approximately 77 kDa and consists of a single polypeptide chain of about 700 amino acids. Meanwhile, human lactoferrin is a glycoprotein with a molecular weight of about 80 kDa, which shows high affinity for iron. Lactoferrin is a polypeptide chain that contains of 703 amino acids distributed as follows: from amino acid 1 to 332 (lobe N) and from 344 to 703 (lobe C) with a three-turn connecting helix (residues 333-343) and that is sensitive to proteolytic attack. Each lobe contains an iron-binding site (Fe^{3+}) with a high affinity, and a glycan. N and C lobes have very similar conformations but show slight differences in their affinity for iron (Kaim & Schwederski, 1994).

The sequence homology between human and bLF is about 70% and the 3-D structure of human and bovine lactoferrin are very similar but not identical (Steijns & van Hooijdonk, 2000). It is well known that iron is the main cation bound by lactoferrin (Lonnerdal & Iyer, 1995) and there are three forms of lactoferrin according on its iron saturation: apolactoferrin (iron free), monoferric form (one ferric iron), and hololactoferrin (binds two Fe^{3+} ions) (Jameson, Anderson, Norriss, Thomas, & Baker, 1998). The three dimensional structure of diferric human lactoferrin is shown in Figure 1.

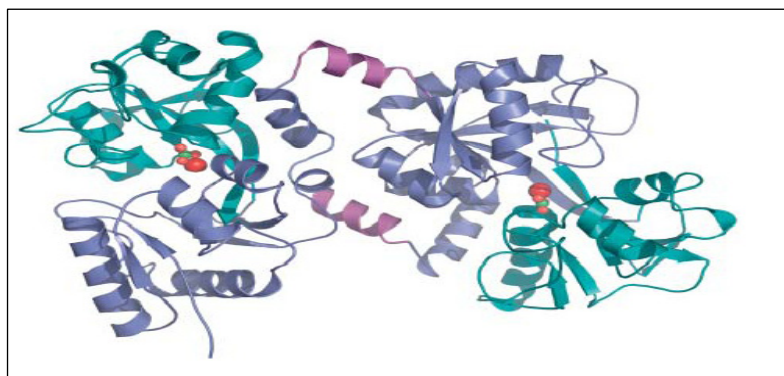


Figure1. The three dimensional structure of diferric human lactoferrin. The two ferric ions are in red (Baker, & Baker, 2005)

Lactoferrin has a greater affinity to bound iron and retains this metal over a wide pH range and it begins to release the metal at pH 4 being, at pH 2, the release complete, leading to formation the Apo-form (Stowell, Rado, Funk, & Tweedie, 1991). Also, it has a greater resistance to proteolysis (Gonzales-Chavez, Arevalo-Gallegos, & Rascon-Cruz, 2009), especially the Hololactoferrin form (Baró et al., 2001).

Lactoferrin was originally found to be a stable protein (Kuwata et al., 2001) and is only partly digested in newborn alimentary tract and may be absorbed as intact lactoferrin from the infant gut (Chatterton, Rasmussen, Heegaard, Sorensen, & Petersen, 2004; Artym, & Zimecki, 2005). The incomplete development of the digestive system of infants (Britton, & Koldovsky, 1987) who lesser than 6 months lead to its presence in infant feces where it exhibits as a small percentage (1-6%) of HoloLactoferrin. On the other hand, in the adults where the gastrointestinal tract reach to the maturity status, a decrease in the gastric pH values and an increase in enzymatic secretion are observed thereby enhancing proteolysis (Davidson & Lonnerdal, 1987).

Some of the functional roles exhibited by lactoferrin are iron-dependent, meanwhile there are others reported to be non-dependent of iron (Farnaud & Evans, 2003). The iron-related functions are caused by the competition for iron ions between the protein and receptors of bacterial membranes. Although the function roles of lactoferrin that are non-dependent with iron binding properties are known to depend mainly on the structural region of amino acid residues 20-37 of the protein, the specific mechanisms still remain unclear (Farnaud & Evans, 2003; Babina, Kanyshkova, Buneva & Nevinsky, 2004).

3. Functional Roles of Lactoferrin and Its Mode of Action

3.1 Lactoferrin as Iron-Binding Protein

Iron is a pivotal and essential trace element for the maintenance of the human health due to its obligate role in a number of the physiological processes (Sharp & Srai, 2007). Iron has to be absorbed from food and in the diet, is present in two forms which are non-heme iron (which found in cereals, vegetables, pulses, beans, fruits as simple iron oxides or complex iron chelates) and heme iron (which found in meat and meat products). Non-heme iron is predominant in all diets forming some 90-95% (Darshan & Anderson, 2007) while heme-iron forms 5-10% of total daily iron intake, respectively. However, the heme-iron is the most bioavailable source of iron (20-30%) while the non-heme iron is less bioavailable source of iron amounting of 1-10% of the dietary load (Hallberg, Brune, & Rossander, 1989).

In human milk, the iron content is low 0.2-0.4 mg/L (Domellof, Lonnerdal, Abrams, & Hernell, 2002) and is mainly bound to lactoferrin (20-45%; Chierici, & Vigi, 1994); while in cow milk it is mainly bound to casein (24 %) (Renner, Scchaafsma, & Scott, 1989), which correlates well with the finding of Makino and Nishimura (1992), indicating that 95% of the lactoferrin of milk is in the monoferric and/or apolactoferrin form. This difference in the distribution of iron in milk from human and cow is associated with the reported differences in iron bioavailability from milk of the different species (Lonnerdal, 1989). Also it might be explained by the high level of lactoferrin present in human milk. Another possible explanation may be found in the high content of lactose and ascorbate in human milk (Cashman, 2002).

Lactoferrin plays a key role in iron homeostasis in the newborn (Sacrino, 2007). Moreover, higher concentration of lactoferrin in human milk than bovine milk raised the hypothesis that it might promote iron absorption in breast-fed infants compared with formulas-fed infants (Vorland, 1999). Also, the discovery of lactoferrin receptors in the enterocytes of various species and its high affinity for lactoferrin support this hypothesis. These lactoferrin receptors show species and molecular specificities depending of the animal species and this would explain the high bioavailability of iron from human milk, as only human lactoferrin releases iron to the enterocyte by this mechanism (Gonzalez-Chavez et al., 2009). Subsequent studies have shown how these receptors mediate the uptake of lactoferrin-bound iron in intestinal Caco-2 cell culture. In this study it was used two types of specific lactoferrin receptor, one is the purified native lactoferrin (nlfR) and the other is the recombinant lactoferrin (rlfR), and both nlfR and rlfR have the same biochemical properties. Finally, it was reported that are a unique receptor-mediated mechanism for iron uptake by the newborn (Suzuki, Shin, & Lonnerdal, 2001).

Lactoferrin-iron complex is taken up by the enterocyte, probably by endocytosis, and then release its iron at intracellular level through lactoferrin degradation (Sanchez, Calvo, & Brock, 1996). Iron seems to be released within the cell where it is quickly complexed by another protein, probably ferritin, and then apolactoferrin form comes back again to mucosa surface to start a new transport process (Sigel & Sigel, 1998). In this process it was indicated that lactoferrin receptors which located at the plasma membrane of Caco-2 cell play a main role in lactoferrin uptake through clathrin-mediated endocytosis (Jiang, Lopez, Kelleher, & Lonnerdal, 2011).

However, it has been reported that the ingestion of lactoferrin from a non-human source involved different pathways of iron absorption with different efficiency compared with lactoferrin of human origin (Jovani et al., 2001). Although it is technically feasible to add bovine lactoferrin or transgenic human transferrin to infant formulas, bovine lactoferrin does not bind consistently to human lactoferrin receptors and has not been shown to increase iron absorption. Moreover, the efficacy and safety of adding human lactoferrin to infant formulas has not been adequately evaluated.

In this regard, it must be noted that different studies report that the supplementation with human or bovine lactoferrin in rat's trials did not affect on iron absorption (Fairweather-Tait, Wright, & Piper, 1986). Also infant formulas supplemented with bovine lactoferrin do not enhance iron absorption because that bovine lactoferrin is not recognized by human lactoferrin receptors (Jovani et al., 2001). Similar results obtained by Svoboda, Drábek and Ficek (2005), showed that iron from bovine lactoferrin could not be utilized by piglets because of the degree of species specificity and the replacement of part of iron dose by iron from iron-saturated lactoferrin had negative effect on piglets iron status. In this regards, it also must be noted that in another study operated by Ward, Mendoza-Meneses, Cunningham and Conneely (2003) by using a knockout mice model which has disrupted lactoferrin gene by gene targeting techniques, it was reported that lactoferrin is not required for intestinal iron uptake in the infant, indicating that the use of lactoferrin from different sources could not be the best foods-enrichment way for improving the iron absorption in humans.

3.2 Lactoferrin as Antibacterial Agent

Lactoferrin has strong antimicrobial activity against wide spectrum of microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, yeasts and viruses (Drago, 2006). The antibacterial activity of lactoferrin *in vitro* and *in vivo* has been documented in the past, for Gram-negative bacteria and Gram-positive bacteria and some acid-alcohol resistant bacteria (Garcia-Montoya, Cendon, Arevalo-Gallegos, & Rascon-Cruz, 2012). Initially it was considered that an iron-binding property is the major mechanism for its antibacterial action. Now it is well known that iron-independent mechanisms are also responsible for the antibacterial action of lactoferrin such as direct interaction with bacteria leading to membrane destabilization, modulation of bacteria motility, aggregation or endocytosis into host cells, inhibition of adherence and biofilm formation (Harvard & Hancock, 2009). In another words, the antibacterial activity of lactoferrin is mostly due to two mechanisms. The first is the iron chelation which makes the nutrient unavailable for using by the microorganism thereby creating a bacteriostatic effect. The other mechanism is the direct interaction between lactoferrin (the positive amino acids) and the bacterial surfaces (anionic molecules) causing cell breakdown (bactericidal effect) (Gonzalo-Chavez et al., 2009).

Although there are some bacteria in response to iron-limited media has the ability to produce and secrete low molecular weight high affinity chelators which named siderofores (Yu & Schryvers, 2002). These compounds have a higher affinity for iron chelation than lactoferrin, and then the iron-siderofores complex is taken up into bacteria by siderofores-specific receptors (Farnaud & Evans, 2003). Also other bacteria can produce specific lactoferrin receptors that can stimulate iron removal from the protein (Yu & Schryvers, 2002).

Lactoferrin also exerts its antimicrobial action not just in the form of the intact molecule but the monoferric lobes and active peptides of lactoferrin also have a role in the host defense against microbial disease (Lizzi, Carnicelli, Clarkson, Di Giulio, & Oratore, 2009). These functional peptides are produced from lactoferrin by the action of proteolytic enzymes which are present in the gastrointestinal tract (Sinha, Kaushik, Kaur, Sharma, & Singh, 2013).

Lactoferricin, multifunctional cationic peptides, is one of these peptides that are generated by the enzymatic treatment of lactoferrin and has a greater antibacterial activity than the native lactoferrin. There are two forms of lactoferricin: human and bovine lactoferricin. Lactoferricin B consists of 25 amino acids while lactoferricin H is a 47-amino acid peptide. Lactoferricin B is more effective as antibacterial agent than the other peptide (Bellamy, Takase, Wakabayashi, Kawase, & Tomita, 1992). The antibacterial activity of this peptide was attributed to its action of releasing lipopolysaccharide from bacterial strains and, hence, disruption of cytoplasmic membrane permeability after cell binding (Kang, Lee, Kim, & Hahm, 1996), and both lactoferricin (B and H) are derived from the N-terminal region of the N-lobe (Bellamy et al., 1992).

Although lactoferrin has antibacterial activity for a wide spectrum of microorganisms, it is considered a growth promoter for other organisms and acts as a bifidogenic factor for the growth of bifidobacteria (Kim, Rahman, Kumura, & Shimazaki, 2005). According to Coppa, Zampini, Galeazzi, and Gabrielli (2006) human lactoferrin supports the predominance of beneficial bacteria which require low concentrations of iron for growth, such as *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* of the infant intestinal microflora. Although this mechanism of action is not

fully understand, many studies suggest that the growth stimulatory activity of lactoferrin may be related to the presence of lactoferrin-binding proteins on the surface of the bacterial membrane (Kim et al., 2004).

3.3 Lactoferrin as Cancer Preventive Agent

The use of lactoferrin in clinical studies as a cancer preventing milk protein is a promising field of research (Tsuda, Sekine, Fujita, & Ligo, 2002). Many studies have described that lactoferrin has anti-carcinogenic properties in several *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies and has been reported to inhibit several types of cancer (Wang et al., 2000; Matsuda et al., 2006; Giuffrè, Barresi, Skliros, Barresi, & Tuccari, 2007; Pan, Rowney, Guo, & Hobman, 2007).

Different *in vivo* studies showed that oral administration of bovine lactoferrin to rodents significantly reduces chemically induced tumorigenesis in different organs (breast, esophagus, tongue, lung, liver, colon, and bladder) and inhibits angiogenesis (Tsuda et al., 2002; Iigo et al., 2009). This find could indicate that unlike to the other reported beneficial effects of lactoferrin on health, the anticarcinogenic effect seems not be highly dependent of the animal species.

There are many possible mechanisms that have been suggested by many researchers to explain the role of lactoferrin in cancer prevention. One possible mechanism is the inhibition of angiogenesis and in this regard, it was reported that bovine lactoferrin decreased vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-mediated angiogenesis in rats (Norrby, Mattsby-Baltzer, Innocenti, & Tuneberg, 2001; Tsuda et al., 2010). Another mechanism is the induction of apoptosis and the elimination of damaged cells from the body. Orally administration of lactoferrin leads to inhibition of tumorigenesis and enhances the expression of a member of tumor necrosis factor receptor family, Fas expression, which is suggested to stimulate the apoptosis and suppress the colon carcinogenesis (Fujita, Matsuda, Sekine, Ligo, & Tsuda, 2004).

3.4 Lactoferrin as Bone Health Enhancement Agent

Bone is a metabolically active organ that shows a growth controlled by many hormones and growth factors (Stransky & Rysava, 2009). Bone is continually remodelled by the complex coupling of the two actions of the bone forming cells, osteoblasts, and the bone resorbing cells, osteoclasts (Mundy, 1999). The imbalance between the activities of osteoblast and osteoclast cells lead to many bone diseases such as osteoporosis which is the most common bone disease and a major cause of the morbidity and health expenditure in aging populations (Cornish & Naot, 2010). However, the risk of osteoporosis can be reduced or prevented by adequate nutrition and lifestyle. The prevention should start in infancy and childhood, when bone formation is intensive and achievement of optimal peak bone mass is a necessary requirement for keeping optimal bone density in the older age (Stransky & Rysava, 2009). In this context, and adequate nutrition during infancy plays an essential role in the health bone being key nutrients for bone growth, proteins, vitamin D and C, minerals such as Ca, P and also Mg (Heaney et al., 2000; Whiting et al., 2004).

Nowadays, there is a growing attention in the potential use of lactoferrin for the improvement of bone health. In bone, lactoferrin functions as a growth factor, at physiological concentrations induces osteoblasts growth and activity, meanwhile inhibits osteoclast development and thus, promoting the bone growth (Cornish & Naot, 2010). Also Lorget et al. (2002) demonstrated that bovine lactoferrin is able to inhibit *in vitro* osteoclast-mediated bone resorption in a rabbit mixed bone cell culture. As well as Cornish (2004) reported that bovine or human lactoferrin at low physiological concentrations, exerted a dual effect characterized by an important inhibition of osteoclast differentiation with a stimulating effect on osteoblast proliferation. It is also possible that lactoferrin regulates bone homeostasis through the modulation of cytokine production. The ingestion of bovine lactoferrin can have an indirect effect on bone through its capacity to regulate the immune system by decreasing tumor necrosis factor (TNF) production (Blais, Malet, Mikogami, Martin-Rouas, & Tomé, 2009). Similar results reported that oral administration of bovine lactoferrin led to suppress TNF α production and increase interleukin-10 (IL-10) production in adjuvant-stimulated arthritic rats (Hayashida et al., 2004). Thus, dietary supplementation of bovine lactoferrin to ovariectomized mice would decrease TNF production, which subsequently normalized the elevated osteoclastogenesis observed in estrogen-deficient situations (Blais et al., 2009).

In another study, the positive effects of lactoferrin in bone have been demonstrated *in vitro*; where lactoferrin was found to induce osteoblast proliferation, survival and differentiation meanwhile inhibits osteoclast formation. *In vivo*, lactoferrin given as a dietary supplement to rat and mice, has been demonstrated to have a protective effect against bone loss associated with estrogen deficiency (Naot, Grey, Reid, & Cornish, 2005). In this context, lactoferrin could be considered a promising therapeutic tool in prevention of osteoporosis and repair the damage tissue in bones. Thus, lactoferrin not only inhibits bone resorption but also has the capacity to activate the bone

formation as contrary with the most of the currently used medications for osteoporosis prevention (Wang et al., 2013). Lactoferrin acts to increase the bone mass (Figure 2).

During inflammation, lactoferrin may play a role in counter-balancing the catabolic effects on the skeleton from some of the mediators of the inflammatory response. Also lactoferrin plays an important immunodulatory function (Baveye, Ellass, Mazurier, Spik, & Lergand, 1999) and this lead to decrease in the secretion of a number of osteolytic cytokines. Therefore, its direct effects on the activity and development of bone cells appear to be complemented by these cytokine-mediated effects (Naot et al., 2005)

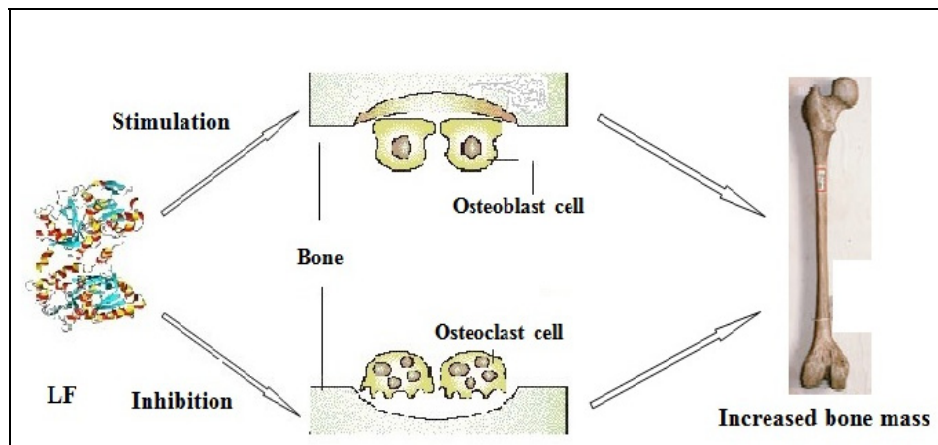


Figure 2. Lactoferrin has many mechanisms to build bone tissue.

3.5 Lactoferrin as Immunomodulatory Agent

The immunomodulatory activity is one of the very important activities of lactoferrin and this effect was reported on the immune system both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Brock, 2002). Besides its direct effects in host defense on bacteria, fungus and parasites, it were reported possible roles in the modulation of the immune response and it activates the innate and acquired immunities. Lactoferrin may support the proliferation, differentiation, and activation of immune system cells causing strength the immune response (Legrand, Ellass, Carpentier, & Mazurier, 2005), and these effects may resulted by the association between lactoferrin's positive charge and the negatively charged molecules on the surface of various cells of the immune system (Baker, & Baker, 2005). Also lactoferrin has the potency to enhance the expression of various types of cytokines in the intestinal mucosa such as IL-18, IFN- γ , IL-12, IFNs and IL-7 and these cytokines has a role in activation of immune cells (Yang, de la Rosa, Tewary, & Oppenheim, 2009). As well as bovine lactoferrin supplements have the ability to support the immune system and influence immune cell activity (Mulder et al., 2008). The exogenous lactoferrin has the ability to transport as intact form from the intestine to the blood circulation through the enterocytes by endocytosis and this it was reported *in vitro* (Fisher et al., 2007) and *in vivo* (Hutchens et al., 1991) studies. The intact lactoferrin form can stimulate intestine-associated immune functions and thereby enhance the immunocompetence during the postnatal period (Kuhara, Yamauchi, Tamura, & Okamura, 2006). Lactoferrin receptors play an important role in lactoferrin internalization but this mechanism still unclear (Jiang, Lopez, Kelleher, & Lönnnerdal, 2011).

Finally, it is known that using of naturally occurring ingredient and food bioactive components such as carotenoids, flavonoids, phenolic compounds, fiber and oligosaccharides have many therapeutic effects and recently lactoferrin is considered a prominent active protein.

Given the emerging knowledge of the biological importance of human lactoferrin in infant nutrition, the EFSA Journal (2012), regarded the notion of lactoferrin supplementation as worthy of consideration. However, clinical studies will be essential to demonstrate the efficacy and safety of such addition. With this background, it should be considered that lactoferrin has enough beneficial properties on human health to can be considered as a functional ingredient if it is added to some foods such as infant formulas.

4. Lactoferrin as Ingredient of Infant Formulas

Nutritional efficacy and safety are not the only challenge of the infant nutrition research and the infant formula development. When infants are bottle-fed should intake a food with similar properties to mother's milk for its optimal growth and development (Alles, Scholtens, & Bindles, 2004). This fact, far to be easy to achieve,

requires a deep knowledge of the human milk properties and to identify which are the responsible compounds of the beneficial effects on the health of infant's breastfed.

In general, infant formulas have been designed to provide infants with all the required nutrients, being an adequate nutritional formula. For that purpose, infants with an age of 0-6 months, it has estimated to be safe an intake of approximately 1.2 g bovine lactoferrin per day from infant formula containing 200 mg bovine lactoferrin /100 g (European Food Safety Authority, EFSA, 2012). However, research advances are focused on those substances in human milk, which serve other than traditional nutritional roles. Attempts are in progress to supplement infant formulas with protective and trophic factors so far unique only to human milk. The final aim is not necessarily to mimic the composition of human milk in every respect, but to achieve physiological effects as in breast fed infants (Gallego, Pérez-Conesa, Bernal Cava, Periago-Castón, & Ros, 2009). Since human milk contains a considerable amount of lactoferrin, special attention is paid to its functional role. Many of those functions are directly related to its ability to bind iron, that is, its effect on iron absorption and bacteriostatic and antioxidant activities. Based on this, the addition of lactoferrin to infant formulas seems to be reasonable; nevertheless, the supplementation of infant formulas should be discussed intensively because there has to be a scientifically proven advantage for the infant to get this protein by daily formula (Sawatzki, 1997). Recently, EFSA (2012) accepted and approved bovine lactoferrin as a new food ingredient. Nowadays, there are many infant formulas supplemented with lactoferrin available in the market (Mulder, Connellan, Oliver, Morris, & Stevenson, 2008). From results obtained by different authors, it can be concluded that the addition of lactoferrin, usually bovine, to infant formulas, does not affect iron absorption. However, given its ability to bind iron, its use in infant formulas could be useful for protecting the gut of infants against infections from microbial-requiring iron, its ability to reduce interelemental interactions and especially to protect infant formulas supplemented with iron and ascorbic acid against free radical formation.

In this context, Raiten, Talbot and Waters (1998) and Wakabayashi et al. (2006) reported that it is possible to enrich infant formulas with bovine or recombinant human lactoferrin, although the former does not seem to affect iron absorption, probably because of an incompatibility with the intestinal receptors, and in the latter, there is not enough available information to evaluate toxicity. In this regard, it must be taken into account that the enrichment of infant formulas with human lactoferrin would probably lead to an improvement in their amino acidic profile, making it more similar to that of human milk (Jovani, Barberá, & Farré, 2001).

The EFSA (2012) considered that the bovine lactoferrin, is essentially protein constituent of cow milk and is considered a novel food ingredient. Bovine lactoferrin is present in the novel food ingredient mostly as non-denatured lactoferrin. It must be noted that lactoferrin is a normal constituent of human milk, and that the intended consumption of the bovine lactoferrin is within the levels of human lactoferrin consumed in breast milk by infants; human lactoferrin is also non-denatured.

Currently, bovine lactoferrin is added as a supplement to several products in Japan, including infant formula, yoghurt (Wakabayashi et al., 2006). Similarly, infant formulas enriched with bovine lactoferrin are also available in other countries, including Indonesia, South Korea and Spain (Conesa, Calvo, & Sanchez, 2010).

5. Conclusion

The present review directs the attention towards some of the functional roles of lactoferrin and its roles in increasing the functional benefits of infant formulas. Lactoferrin is a new strategy for overcome some disease whether by orally administration or by food supplementation. Now is authorized and recommended using of lactoferrin as a new bioactive ingredient in the manufacturing of infant formulas to provide infants with nutritional and healthy effects especially for formula-fed infants and also after first 4-6 months. Many studies are required to study the effect of manufacturing and storage of infant formulas on lactoferrin. Also it is possible using lactoferrin-derived functionally peptides for enrichment the infant formulas and this may be one of the growing and promising field of research.

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