

Risk assessment of furan in commercially jarred baby foods and insights into furan occurrence and formation in freshly home-cooked foods for infants and young children

Dirk W Lachenmeier, Helmut Reusch, Thomas Kuballa

▶ To cite this version:

Dirk W Lachenmeier, Helmut Reusch, Thomas Kuballa. Risk assessment of furan in commercially jarred baby foods and insights into furan occurrence and formation in freshly home-cooked foods for infants and young children. Food Additives and Contaminants, 2009, 26 (06), pp.776-785. 10.1080/02652030802714018. hal-00577364

HAL Id: hal-00577364

https://hal.science/hal-00577364

Submitted on 17 Mar 2011

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Food Additives and Contaminants



Risk assessment of furan in commercially jarred baby foods and insights into furan occurrence and formation in freshly home-cooked foods for infants and young children

Journal:	Food Additives and Contaminants
Manuscript ID:	TFAC-2008-341.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	22-Dec-2008
Complete List of Authors:	Lachenmeier, Dirk; Chemisches und Veterinäruntersuchungsamt Karlsruhe Reusch, Helmut; Chemisches und Veterinäruntersuchungsamt Karlsruhe Kuballa, Thomas; Chemisches und Veterinäruntersuchungsamt Karlsruhe
Methods/Techniques:	Chromatography - GC/MS, Exposure assessment, GC/MS, Risk assessment
Additives/Contaminants:	Process contaminants, Volatiles
Food Types:	Baby food, Cereals, Potatoes, Vegetables

SCHOLARONE™ Manuscripts

- Risk assessment of furan in commercially jarred baby foods,
- insights into furan occurrence and formation in freshly home-

cooked foods for infants and young children

Abstract

Furan is a possible human carcinogen (IARC group 2B) with widespread occurrence in many types of foods. In this study, a survey of furan contamination in 230 commercially-jarred ready-to-eat infant food products was conducted using headspace sampling in combination with gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (HS-GC/MS) with a detection limit of 0.2 µg kg⁻¹. The incidence of furan contamination in jarred infant beverages, cereals and fruits was relatively low, with average concentrations below 10 μ g kg⁻¹. Significantly higher concentrations were found in pasta (34.8 \pm 14.5 $\mu g kg^{-1}$), meals containing meat (28.2 ± 15.0 $\mu g kg^{-1}$), and meals containing vegetables $(31.2 \pm 17.3 \, \mu g \, kg^{-1})$. The average exposure of 6-month old infants to furan was estimated to be 0.2 µg per kg bodyweight per day. The margin of exposure calculated using the T25 dose descriptor would be 2692, which points to a possible public health risk. In contrast to commercially jarred food products, none of 20 freshly home-prepared baby foods contained furan above the limit of detection. Only after re-heating in closed vessels was furan found to have formed. Furan was especially prevalent in reheated foods containing potatoes, with values ranging between 2.3 and 29.2 µg kg⁻¹. The formation of furan in potatocontaining baby foods was increased by addition of ascorbic acid, by longer heating times above 1 h and by temperatures above 50°C. Research regarding reduction of furan in commercial baby foods should be conducted, with a priority aimed at reducing

- this heat-induced contaminant without concomitantly increasing the microbiological
- risk.
- **Keywords:** Furan, carcinogens, gas chromatography, mass spectrometry, food
- contamination, food analysis, baby food, infant food, risk assessment

Introduction

Furan (C₄H₄O), a very volatile and colourless liquid, has been classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC 1995) as a possible human carcinogen (group 2B). However, it is still a matter of debate whether the carcinogenic effects are caused by a genotoxic mechanism (Durling et al. 2007). Other chronic effects in humans may include hepatotoxicity (Jun et al. 2008). Due to its widespread occurrence in many types of food products, concerns have been raised that furan might become a serious problem, similar to that seen for acrylamide (Yaylayan 2006).

Furan generation in food is multi-factorial (Yaylayan 2006). A number of model tests have shown that furan is produced through heating of reducing carbohydrates through the Maillard reaction (Maga 1979; Perez Locas and Yaylayan 2004). Furan generation has also been determined in the presence of ascorbic acid (Fan 2005; Becalski and Seaman 2005) or certain amino acids (Perez Locas and Yaylayan 2004; Märk et al. 2006; Limacher et al. 2008). The pathway from ascorbic acid is of special importance as many foods are fortified with vitamin C as part of processing. Possible intermediates in the formation from ascorbic acid are 2-deoxyaldotetroses, 2-furoic acid and 2furaldehyde (Limacher et al. 2007). The oxidation of poly-unsaturated fatty acids may also represent a means of furan generation (Becalski and Seaman 2005; Senyuva and Gökmen 2007).

There are currently a large number of analytical methods for the determination of furan in foods, developed over the past few years, and the analytical problems first reported

for furan appear to have been resolved (Senyuva and Gökmen 2005; Crews et al. 2007;

Wenzl et al. 2007; Crews and Castle 2007b).

In our current study, we have focused on furan in foods intended to be consumed by infants, because they are the most susceptible consumer group (Suk et al. 2003) and because relatively high amounts of furan were previously detected in commercial baby foods. Heppner and Schlatter (2007) summarized the data from a number of sources (including data from the US FDA) and found that the concentration of furan in baby foods ranged from non-detectable to as much as 112 µg kg⁻¹. Taking into consideration a consumption of 234 g per day of canned baby food (Kersting et al. 1998), Heppner and Schlatter (2007) assumed an exposure range of <0.03-3.5 µg per kg body weight (bw) per day, assuming a body weight of 7.5 kg for a 6-month-old baby. Yoshida et al. (2007) reported levels of furan in a similar range of 1.4 to 90 µg kg⁻¹ in 15 baby foods from the Japanese market. Most recently, the US FDA reported furan in ready-to-eat baby foods from the USA in ranges between 2.5 and 112 µg kg⁻¹ were found (Morehouse et al.

2008).

The European Food Safety Authority's (EFSA) Scientific Panel on Contaminants in the Food Chain noted an absence of information on freshly prepared foods in home cooking and catering in general (Heppner and Schlatter 2007). A first indication of the effect of consumer cooking on furan in convenience food showed that the levels decreased in most canned and jarred foods after heating due to simple evaporation (Roberts et al. 2008). In contrast, other researchers found furan to be relatively persistent in food (Crews and Castle 2007a) and that it is not lost to a very significant extent when the foods are simply warmed to be ready to eat (Hasnip et al. 2006). At this point in time,

only one study has researched furan in home-prepared baby foods and it showed that all seven preparations examined had significantly lower levels of furan in comparison with commercial baby foods (Bianchi et al. 2006). However, the results were described to be insufficient to make a definite conclusion regarding furan content and home cooking. In the context of EFSA's open call for scientific data on furan in food and beverages (EFSA 2006), we have analyzed a large collection of commercial jarred baby food products from the German market and have evaluated the influence of domestic heating procedures on the furan content of the jars. In addition, we have analyzed freshly prepared baby foods prepared according to typical baby food recipes using fresh fruits and vegetables. Finally, we provide some insight into the pathway of formation of furan in baby foods.

Materials and Methods

Samples

The survey of commercial ready-to-eat baby foods included 230 products sampled and analyzed between 2004 and 2007. As part of official food control in the German federal state of Baden-Württemberg, our institute covers the district of Karlsruhe in North Baden (Germany) with a population of approximately 2.7 million. The sampling was carried out by local authorities directly at the food producers or at retail trade establishments including pharmacies and organic food stores. The samples were randomly selected and collected by government food inspectors. Only products intended for use as foods specifically for infants and young children, in the sense of Commission Directive 2006/125/EC, were included in the survey (European Commission 2006).

The ingredients for home preparation of baby foods were purchased in May and June 2008 at local farmer's markets and organic food stores. In the initial experiment concerning different product groups, only ingredients classifiable as organic according to Council Regulation (EEC) No 2092/91 were chosen (European Council 2001). The second experiment, which focused on potato-based baby foods, was conducted with organic as well as conventionally produced ingredients.

Quantitative determination of furan

For the survey, a headspace-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (HS-GC/MS) method with deuterated furan as internal standard and standard addition for quantification was used, which was based on a FDA method (FDA, 2004). The HS-GC/MS method was previously described in detail (Kuballa et al. 2005; Kuballa 2007).

The HS-GC/MS method was validated for the determination of baby foods and accredited to ISO 17025. The precision of the method never exceeded 6.4% (relative standard deviation, n=5) and the average recovery was 105% (n=8). Determined according to DIN 32645, the limit of detection (LOD) was $0.20 \,\mu g \, kg^{-1}$ and the limit of quantification (LOQ) was $0.60 \,\mu g \, kg^{-1}$.

Because of the extremely high time effort of the HS-GC/MS method due to standard addition, the home preparation and formation experiments were evaluated using purge-and-trap-GC/MS procedure. Deuterated furan was used as internal standard, but the quantification was conducted using a more efficient external calibration.

The purge-and-trap system used for analysis was an Eclipse 4660 Purge-and-Trap Sample Concentrator in combination with a model 4552 water/soil autosampler (OI Analytical, College Station, TX, USA). The trap was #10 (8 cm, tenax, silica gel, carbon molecular sieve) provided by the manufacturer. The sample temperature was 40°C. The sample was purged for 5 min. The desorption was conducted for 4 min at 190°C, followed by a bake time of 20 min at 210°C to avoid carry over.

The purge-and-trap system was combined with an Agilent model 6890 Series Plus gas chromatograph and an Agilent 5973N mass selective detector (Agilent, Waldbronn, Germany). Data acquisition and analysis were performed using standard software supplied by the manufacturer. Substances were separated on a fused silica capillary column (HP Plot Q, 30 m x 0.32 mm I.D., film thickness 0.25 µm). Temperature program: 90°C hold for 1 min, 10°C min⁻¹ up to 225°C, hold for 15 min. The temperatures for the ion source, quadrupole and interface were set at 230°C, 150°C, and 225°C, respectively. Helium with a constant flow rate of 1.5 ml min⁻¹ as carrier gas was used. For quantification, the mass fragments m/z 68 and m/z 72 were used for furan and furan-d₄, respectively.

The purge-and-trap method was validated similar to the HS-GC/MS method. The precision of the purge-and-trap method never exceeded 3.7% (relative standard deviation, n=8) and the average recovery was 106 % (n=8). The LOD was 0.15 µg kg⁻¹ and the LOQ was 0.44 µg kg⁻¹. No artifactual furan formation was observed during the purge-and-trap step, as e.g. proven by results below LOD in unheated samples containing furan precursors.

Experiments for home preparation of baby foods

The home preparation experiments were aimed to simulate typical home cooking as closely as possible. We used only standard kitchen equipment, e.g. a kitchen stove and a household blender. The recipes were taken from a cookbook intended for parents preparing foods for babies between five and 10 months of age, i.e. the time period of adjustment from breast feeding to normal solid foods (von Mandelsloh 2007). These foods are generally prepared as a puree (so-called 'Babybrei' in German) using hand or table-top blenders to achieve a consistency that allows easy ingestion by the babies. In Germany, potatoes are typical ingredients, alone or in combination with carrots and other vegetables or meat. In general, we cooked the ingredients in boiling water until done, then the ingredients were blended, with addition of water to adjust the consistency to correspond with that of typical commercial baby foods. No other additives were used. The food groups under investigation are shown in Table 1. Besides the direct analysis of the freshly prepared food, we have stored the foods overnight at 8°C, followed by a reheating in closed vessels for 1 h in a water bath at 70°C. Finally, we have added 2-furan carboxylic acid (80 mg kg⁻¹, purity 98%) and re-heated similarly.

As it became evident in the first experiment that potatoes, in particular, appeared to have the capacity to form furan, we conducted a second experiment with potato purees specifically. Potatoes of different origins and agricultural production methods were used

(Table 2). In this experiment, we also performed additional tests involving the addition of ascorbic acid (500 mg kg⁻¹) to the ingredients.

Preparation experiments involving commercial baby foods

To assess possible changes in furan content during normal home preparation of commercial baby foods, we chose 10 products of which we had more than one jar of the same production lot, and analyzed them as opened, as well as following heating with a baby food warmer. The warmer was a PTC baby food warmer type 702 by Reer-Kindersicherheit, Leonberg, Germany. The baby food jar is placed into the device, which is then filled with water, so that the jar is indirectly heated by the water. To assess the maximal furan formation capacity, we have used extreme conditions for the heating, including a maximum temperature setting of the device (80°C water temperature, own measurement), a 1 h heating time, and closed jars. In two cases, we had three jars of one lot, so we were also able to assess the effect of heating in an open jar, with regular stirring during the heating process.

Experiment on influences on furan formation in potato puree baby foods

In order to evaluate possible furan formation mechanisms in potato puree baby foods, with a minimum number of experiments, the information gleaned from each experiment and the relationships between the experiments have to be fully exploited. This was done using a D-optimal design type (Box et al. 2005; Montgomery 2005). The D-optimal algorithm was used because it chooses an ideal subset of all possible combinations and significantly reduces the number of required experiments when compared to standard design types.

The potato puree used in this experiment was freshly prepared from organic potatoes (Nicola from Egypt) using the same methods described above for the home preparation of baby foods. The preparations were then re-heated using the following conditions. The heating temperature and heating time were studied at two levels (50°C, 100°C; 1 h, 2 h) whereas the ascorbic acid concentration was assessed as numeric factor between 0 and 1000 mg kg⁻¹.

Approach for risk assessment

Risk assessment was conducted according to the harmonised approach of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) for the risk assessment of substances which are genotoxic and carcinogenic (EFSA 2005). The EFSA has developed and recommends an approach known as the margin of exposure (MOE). This approach uses the value of doses of substances that have been observed to cause low but measurably harmful responses in animals as a reference point, which is then compared with relevant substance-specific dietary intake estimates in humans, taking into account differences in consumption patterns. For this case of commercial ready-to-eat baby foods, we used the consumption data provided by Kersting et al. (1998).

To obtain the MOE, the Benchmark Dose Lower Confidence Limit (BMDL) of 10% was suggested. In cases where the data are unsuitable for obtaining a BMDL, the EFSA recommends the use of the T25 calculation, wherein the dose corresponding to a 25% incidence of tumours, after correction for spontaneous incidence, is represented. Since the dose-response modelling of a BMDL would have gone beyond the scope of this

217 article, we therefore chose the T25 of 1.4 mg kg bw⁻¹ day⁻¹, as tabulated by Sanner et al.

218 (2001), to provide a preliminary risk assessment.

outliers).

Statistics

The experimental designs and calculations were done using the Software Package Design Expert v7 (Stat-Ease Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA). The experiments were evaluated using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to find the significance of variables and their interactions in the models. The models were checked for consistency by looking at the lack of fit and possible outliers.

The survey data were evaluated using Origin Pro v7.5 (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA). Statistical significance was assumed at below the 0.05 probability level. Groups of two cases were compared using t-tests. One-way ANOVA was used to test whether three or more cases had the same mean, including the Bonferroni post hoc means comparison. Pearson's test was used to evaluate the significance of linear relations. Box and whisker plots were used for visualization of data (box 25th - 75th percentile, line in the box: median, whiskers: minimum and maximum (max. 1.5 times the length of the inner quartiles), data points outside are

To assess the influence of ingredients in commercial jarred baby foods on furan content, the 230 products in the survey were categorized according to their ingredients lists as to whether they contained potatoes, carrots, other vegetables, meats, fruits or cereals. A data matrix was compiled containing the binary classification (0 if the ingredient was not contained, and 1 if it was contained) as well as the furan content of the product. A

partial least squares (PLS) analysis was conducted using the binary classifications as xvariables and the furan content as y-variable, with the aim of visualizing correlation between the variables. A multivariate PLS analysis was conducted using the software Unscrambler v9.7 (CAMO Process AS, Oslo, Norway).



Results and Discussion

Furan in freshly homeprepared baby foods

A major finding of our study is the fact that self-prepared baby food does not contain furan. Furan was below the limit of detection in all of the ten different foods prepared (Table 1). Our results are in agreement with those of Bianchi et al. (2006) who detected none or only very low concentrations in seven home-made baby foods. We think that the available literature now conclusively supports the assumption of a very low risk of furan in home prepared baby foods.

In our study, only after storage and re-heating was furan detectable, in three cases in concentrations between 4.5 and 10.0 µg kg⁻¹ (Table 1). However, it must be stressed that our re-heating conditions (70°C, 1 h, closed vessel) were extreme compared to normal household conditions. Furan was formed in five cases, at concentrations between 1.8 and 51.8 µg kg⁻¹, after the addition of 2-furan carboxylic acid, a possible precursor of furan (Yaylayan 2006; Limacher et al. 2007). As the formation capability appears to have been highest in samples containing potatoes, we have studied potato baby foods in more detail (Table 2). Again, furan was below the limit of detection in all freshly prepared samples. After re-heating, amounts between 2.3 and 29.2 µg kg⁻¹ were formed. No significant differences could be detected between organically and conventionally produced potatoes (p=0.1306) or between potatoes with origins in Germany and Egypt (p=0.8600). If ascorbic acid was added to the potato baby foods, the furan content increased in every case, ranging between 8.3 and 58.3 µg kg⁻¹. The furan contents of the re-heated samples before and after ascorbic acid addition show a significant linear

relation (y=5.7+1.8x; p=0.0001), which proves that other factors besides ascorbic acid are involved in the formation mechanism. Otherwise, the same amount should have been formed in every sample, had ascorbic acid been the only factor involved. This finding is in agreement with Limacher et al. (2007), who also suggested that other compounds must be functioning as precursors and who deduced that transformation of these into furan is being accelerated by the presence of ascorbic acid.

A more detailed insight into the furan formation in potato baby foods is provided by our formation experiment (Figure 1). The ANOVA for the response surface two factor interaction model implies that the model is highly significant (p<0.0001). Significant influences on furan formation were temperature (p<0.0001), ascorbic acid content (p<0.0001) and heating time (p=0.0093). Significant interactions occurred between ascorbic acid and temperature (p<0.0001) and between temperature and heating time (p=0.0212). Figure 1 shows that, at 50°C, the furan content stays almost constant and there are no differences between 1 and 2 h heating nor between the different ascorbic acid additions. The picture changes at 100°C, when furan shows a linear increase with rising ascorbic acid concentrations, and higher concentrations were found at 2 hours of heating than at 1 hour.

We conclude from our results that furan content in freshly home-cooked baby foods is not an issue. The problem may only arise if self-prepared foods are stored and then reheated. Especially when they contain potatoes, baby foods should only be mildly reheated to avoid furan formation. The experiments also show that ascorbic acid, a common ingredient and additive in foods, has the potential to increase furan formation

or act itself as a precursor. We can only stress the warning of Limacher et al. (2007) who concluded that it is not recommended to fortify canned and jarred food products with vitamin C before thermal treatment.

Behaviour of furan during heating of commercial baby food jars

The heating of commercial baby food jars in a typical baby food warmer showed no consistent trend (Table 3). Only two products containing potatoes (potato-carrot puree, cream potatoes) again showed increases in furan, at 7.4 and 6.1 µg kg⁻¹. The eight other products showed no significant increase or decrease due to heating, but results were identical within the method uncertainty. Heating of opened jars with stirring also showed no consistent trend. In the case of a potato-carrot-puree, a slight decrease of 4.9 µg kg⁻¹ was detectable, and in the case of a vegetable puree a slight, but not significant, increase of 0.7 µg kg⁻¹ was noted. Further research is required to evaluate the influence of stirring and other influences during heating, with the aim of determining the best methodology for reducing furan during household preparation of baby foods.

There is still an ongoing discussion concerning to what extent consumer cooking may influence the furan levels in foods. Some researchers have found that furan persists during the normal heating practices that precede consumption (Hasnip et al. 2006), whereas other studies reported losses of 29-55% in vegetable purees during different warming procedures in microwave ovens (Zoller et al. 2007). Losses of up to 85% were reported during heating of opened jars over a period of 5.5 h in boiling water, and a reduction of ca. 50% if the baby food jar was opened but not heated (Goldmann et al.

2005). However, such significant furan losses were not evident at more moderate heating or storage conditions.

Our results are in agreement with those of Crews et al. (2007a), which indicate that the removal of furan is not as easy as has been sometimes assumed on the basis of its volatility. Furan appears to be well dissolved within the matrix of the baby food and opening of the jars exposes only a relatively small surface area. Therefore, despite its volatility, the evaporation of furan appears to be hindered due to its apparently slow diffusion inside the food matrix. The same observations were made by Roberts et al. (2008), who demonstrated larger declines of furan in baby foods heated in a saucepan under stirring. A preliminary recommendation could therefore be to transfer the baby foods into a larger pan or bowl to increase the surface area for furan evaporation. However, due to the unknown conditions of household preparation, we currently cannot assume a significant reduction of risk due to evaporation. We agree with Crews et al. (2007a) that these initial thoughts proved to be naïve, and our results show, in accordance with Hasnip et al. (2006), that there is even the possibility of additional formation, which could balance the potential evaporative losses.

Survey of commercial ready-to-eat baby foods

Table 4 shows the results of our survey of 230 jarred baby foods, which is so far the largest overview of furan in this food group in Germany. We have classified the baby foods into five broad groups and ANOVA shows that the groups have highly significant differences in furan content (p<0.0001), as shown in the distribution patterns in Figure 2. The highest average content was found in pasta products (i.e. spaghetti or other pasta meals), followed by vegetable meals and meals with meat. Lower

concentrations were found in beverages and in meals that were comprised of cereals. Preparations containing only fruits had the lowest furan content and the majority of samples in this group were below the detection limit. Our results correspond well to the ranges reported in previous surveys in Europe (Heppner and Schlatter 2007), Japan (Yoshida et al. 2007), Switzerland (Zoller et al. 2007), and the USA (Morehouse et al.

344 2008).

As the classification of the foods into the five broad groups only allows limited conclusions regarding the ingredients attributable to furan formation (e.g. most meals with meat also contain vegetables and potatoes), we have also separately evaluated the ingredients lists of all products as to whether they contain fruits, cereals, carrots, potatoes, meat or other vegetables. The PLS correlation loadings plot in Figure 3 shows that furan is closely correlated with the presence of carrots, potatoes, meat and other vegetables, while cereals and fruits appear to have no such influence. As our PLS evaluation is based only on qualitative data (we had no information regarding the quantity of each ingredient in each jar), this result can only be interpreted as preliminary, but it does allow the setting of a research focus and of possible preventive measures on foods containing these suspect ingredients. Currently, we cannot point specifically to other vegetables besides potatoes and possibly carrots, because the sample size for each vegetable was too low to acquire statistically significant information. This type of analysis would also be confounded by the multi-component vegetable mixtures that occur in commercial baby foods. Further research, with the aim of studying each vegetable type separately, possibly in a realistic pilot plant setting, would be required to identify vegetable groups that may be especially prone to furan formation.

Preliminary risk assessment of furan in baby foods

The EFSA (2005) recommends that risk assessments provide different exposure scenarios (e.g. for entire, or specific groups of populations) along with their inherent uncertainties. Other than the mean and median, intakes from highly exposed individuals (due to high consumption or to average consumption of highly contaminated foods) should be considered as represented by the 90th, 95th, 97.5th and 99th percentiles. The intake of commercial food products intended for infants in Germany is available from the DONALD (Dortmund Nutritional and Anthropometrical Longitudinally Designed) study (Kersting et al. 1998). The DONALD study also provided separate data for ready-to-eat or -drink baby foods (without consideration of infant formulas, followon formulas and dry cereal-based foods), so we can directly take the DONALD intake data to evaluate our commercial ready-to-eat baby foods. We selected four different exposure scenarios (3 months, 6 months, 9 months and 12 months). Because of their lower body weights, we chose the data for girls from the DONALD study. The four scenarios, corresponding body weights, and intake of ready-to-eat baby foods are shown in Table 5. This table also shows the calculated exposures to furan for mean and median concentrations and the percentiles. The statistical data for this exposure evaluation were calculated from all 230 commercial baby foods investigated in our study.

The exposure data from Table 5 were then used to characterize risk using the margin of exposure (MOE) calculated from T25 (table 6). MOEs can be used by risk managers for setting priority, with a small MOE representing a higher risk than a larger one.

In our case of furan in baby foods, the MOEs were below 10,000 in all cases, a finding which signifies a potential public health concern for this contaminant (EFSA, 2005). These values would still be below this threshold even if we were to assume a 30% evaporation during food preparation. In addition, an additional safety factor of 10 for exposures to children between 0 and 2 years of age could be required (Barton et al. 2005) because the MOE threshold of 10,000 was deduced for adults.

Uncertainties in the evaluation include the T25 as reference point, as it is calculated from only one data point in an animal experiment, and there is no clear information of the raw data (i.e. study type, animal species, exposure route, endpoint) from which the T25 of furan was derived in the Sanner et al. (2001) study. Nonetheless, we believe that our preliminary MOEs more than justify priority research with the aim of finding measures to reduce furan in baby foods. This would be required anyway, according to the ALARA-principle ("As low as reasonably achievable"), introduced into the *Codex* Alimentarius standards for dealing with contaminants and toxins (Codex alimentarius 1997) and the corresponding EU legislation (Council of the European Communities 1993). The European baby food directive also demands that baby foods shall not contain any substance in such quantity as to endanger the health of infants and young children (European Commission 2006). As the EFSA is still in the process of toxicological evaluation of furan, we cannot finally decide at the present time if the levels detected in our baby foods endanger the health of the children. In our view, baby foods from other European countries should be included as priority food group in the data collection of EFSA mentioned in the introduction, in order to provide exposure data for a final risk assessment of foods available to this vulnerable consumer group.

Conclusion

The current recommendation for consumers can only be to include freshly cooked foods in the diet of their babies. As furan formation is a heat-induced process, we cannot give recommendations for the industry at this stage because a reduction in temperature would possibly increase the microbiological risk of the products, which might far outweigh the risk of furan toxicity. For the same reason, at this stage of data gathering, the governmental food control agencies currently can only inform the producers and give recommendations. In our view, any measures to reduce furan in baby food must include a weighing of the risks presented by the chemical versus the microbiological factors – and possibly also nutritional factors. The baby food industry should advance this type of research with priority. We hope that our paper will stimulate industry, other member states and other research groups to further the research into furan in baby foods.

Acknowledgments

H. Mann is thanked for excellent technical assistance.

References

- Barton AH, Cogliano VJ, Flowers L, Valcovic L, Setzer RW, Woodruff TJ. 2005.
- Assessing susceptibility from early-life exposures to carcinogens. Environmental
- Health Perspectives 113:1125-1133.
- Becalski A, Seaman S. 2005. Furan precursors in food: A model study and development
- of a simple headspace method for determination of furan. Journal of AOAC
- International 88:102-106.

- Bianchi F, Careri M, Mangia A, Musci M. 2006. Development and validation of a solid phase micro-extraction-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry method for the determination of furan in baby-food. Journal of Chromatography A 1102:268-272. Box GEP, Hunter JS, Hunter WG. 2005. Statistics for Experimenters. John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, New Jersey, USA Codex alimentarius. Codex general standard for contaminants and toxins in foods (CODEX STAN 193-1995, Rev.1-1997). www.codexalimentarius.net (accessed on: 2008/07/31). 1997. Council of the European Communities. 1993. Council Regulation (EEC) No 315/93 laying down Community procedures for contaminants in food. Official Journal of the European Communities L37:1-3. Crews C, Castle L. 2007b. The determination of furan in foods - Challenges and solutions. LC GC Europe 20:498-503. Crews C, Castle L. 2007a. A review of the occurrence, formation and analysis of furan in heat-processed foods. Trends in Food Science & Technology 18:365-372. Crews C, Hasnip S, Roberts DPT, Castle L. 2007. Factors affecting the analysis of furan in heated foods. Food Additives and Contaminants 24:108-113. Durling LJK, Svensson K, bramsson-Zetterberg L. 2007. Furan is not genotoxic in the micronucleus assay in vivo or in vitro. Toxicology Letters 169:43-50. EFSA. 2005. Opinion of the Scientific Committee on a request from EFSA related to a harmonised approach for risk assessment of substances which are both genotoxic and carcinogenic. EFSA Journal 282:1-31. EFSA. 2006. Call for scientific data on furan in food and beverages. European Food Safety Authority, Parma, Italy European Commission. 2006. Commission Directive 2006/125/EC of 5 December 2006 on processed cereal-based foods and baby foods for infants and young children. Official Journal L339:16-35. European Council. 2001. Council Regulation (EEC) No 2092/91 of 24 June 1991 on organic production of agricultural products and indications referring thereto on
- organic production of agricultural products and increasing the
- agricultural products and foodstuffs. Official Journal L198:1-15.
- 465 FDA. 2004. Determination of furan in foods. Available:
- http://www.cfsan.fda.gov/~dms/furan.html. Accessed 13 October 2008.
- 467 Fan XT. 2005. Formation of furan from carbohydrates and ascorbic acid following
- exposure to ionizing radiation and thermal processing. Journal of Agricultural and
- 469 Food Chemistry 53:7826-7831.

- 470 Goldmann T, Périsset A, Scanlan F, Stadler RH. 2005. Rapid determination of furan in
- heated foodstuffs by isotope dilution solid phase micro-extraction-gas chromatography
- mass spectrometry (SPME-GC-MS). Analyst 130:878-883.
- 473 Hasnip S, Crews C, Castle L. 2006. Some factors affecting the formation of furan in
- heated foods. Food Additives and Contaminants 23:219-227.
- Heppner CW, Schlatter JR. 2007. Data requirements for risk assessment of furan in
- food. Food Additives and Contaminants 24:114-121.
- 477 IARC. 1995. Furan. In: IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to
- Humans, Vol. 63, Dry Cleaning, Some Chlorinated Solvents and Other Industrial
- 479 Chemicals. International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon, France
- Jun HJ, Lee KG, Lee YK, Woo GJ, Park YS, Lee SJ. 2008. Correlation of urinary furan
- with plasma gamma-glutamyltranspeptidase levels in healthy men and women. Food
- and Chemical Toxicology 46:1753-1759.
- 483 Kersting M, Alexy U, Sichert-Hellert W, Manz F, Schoch G. 1998. Measured
- consumption of commercial infant food products in German infants: results from the
- 485 DONALD study. Journal of Pediatric Gastroenterology and Nutrition 27:547-552.
- 486 Kuballa T. 2007. Furan in coffee and other foods. Journal für Verbraucherschutz und
- 487 Lebensmittelsicherheit 2:429-433.
- 488 Kuballa T, Stier S, Strichow N. 2005. Furan concentrations in coffee and coffee
- beverages. Deutsche Lebensmittel-Rundschau 101:229-235.
- 490 Limacher A, Kerler J, Conde-Petit B, Blank I. 2007. Formation of furan and
- 491 methylfuran from ascorbic acid in model systems and food. Food Additives and
- 492 Contaminants 24:122-135.
- Limacher A, Kerler J, Davidek T, Schmalzried F, Blank I. 2008. Formation of furan and
- methylfuran by Maillard-type reactions in model systems and food. Journal of
- 495 Agricultural and Food Chemistry 56:3639-3647.
- 496 Maga JA. 1979. Furan in foods. CRC Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition
- 497 11:355-400.
- 498 Märk J, Pollien P, Lindinger C, Blank I, Märk T. 2006. Quantitation of furan and
- methylfuran formed in different precursor systems by proton transfer reaction mass
- spectrometry. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 54:2786-2793.
- Montgomery DC. 2005. Design and Analysis of Experiments. John Wiley & Sons,
- Hoboken, New Jersey, USA
- Morehouse KM, Nyman PJ, Mcneal TP, Dinovi MJ, Perfetti GA. 2008. Survey of furan
- in heat processed foods by headspace gas chromatography/mass spectrometry and
- estimated adult exposure. Food Additives and Contaminants 25:259-264.

506 507 508	Perez Locas C, Yaylayan VA. 2004. Origin and mechanistic pathways of formation of the parent furan - A food toxicant. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 52:6830-6836.
509 510	Roberts D, Crews C, Grundy H, Mills C, Matthews W. 2008. Effect of consumer cooking on furan in convenience foods. Food Additives and Contaminants 25:25-31.
511 512 513	Sanner T, Dybing E, Willems MI, Kroese ED. 2001. A simple method for quantitative risk assessment of non-threshold carcinogens based on the dose descriptor T25. Pharmacology & Toxicology 88:331-341.
514 515	Senyuva HZ, Gökmen V. 2007. Potential of furan formation in hazelnuts during heat treatment. Food Additives and Contaminants 24:136-142.
516 517	Senyuva HZ, Gökmen V. 2005. Analysis of furan in foods. Is headspace sampling a fit-for-purpose technique? Food Additives and Contaminants 22:1198-1202.
518 519	Suk WA, Murray K, Avakian MD. 2003. Environmental hazards to children's health in the modern world. Mutation Research 544:235-242.
520	von Mandelsloh N. 2007. Babybreie selbst gemacht. Area Verlag, Erftstadt, Germany
521 522 523	Wenzl T, Lachenmeier DW, Gökmen V. 2007. Analysis of heat-induced contaminants (acrylamide, chloropropanols and furan) in carbohydrate-rich food. Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry 389:119-137.
524 525	Yaylayan VA. 2006. Precursors, Formation and Determination of Furan in Food. Journal für Verbraucherschutz und Lebensmittelsicherheit 1:5-9.
526 527 528	Yoshida I, Isagawa S, Kibune N, Hamano-Nagaoka M, Maitani T. 2007. Rapid and improved determination of furan in baby foods and infant formulas by headspace GC/MS. Journal of the Food Hygienic Society of Japan 48:83-89.

Zoller O, Sager F, Reinhard H. 2007. Furan in food: Headspace method and product

survey. Food Additives and Contaminants 24:91-107.

532	Figure captions
533	Figure 1. Influence of ascorbic acid concentration, heating temperature and time on the
534	furan content in potato puree baby food.
535	
536	Figure 2. Box-plots for the furan concentrations in different types of commercial ready-
537	to-eat babyfoods (analyzed as bought without prior heating).
538	
539	Figure 3. PLS correlation loadings plot of a dataset of 230 commercial baby food
540	products analyzed for furan content. Furan is predominantly found in products
541	containing carrots, potatoes, other vegetables or meat.

- Table 1. Furan in freshly homeprepared vegetable, cereal, and fruit-based baby foods
- (all ingredients from organic production).

		r r 1 -12		
		Furan [µg kg ⁻¹]		
Product	Freshly prepared,	Re-heated (1 h,	Re-heated (1 h,	
	directly analysed	70°C) in closed jar	70°C) in closed jar	
		after storage over	after storage over	
		night at 8°C	night at 8°C and	
			addition of 2-furan	
			carboxylic acid (60	
			mg kg ⁻¹)	
Potato Puree	n.d.	10.0	51.8	
Carrot Puree	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	
Potato-Carrot Puree	n.d.	6.7	3.3	
Spinach Puree	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	
Broccoli Puree	n.d.	4.5	2.5	
Spaghetti, mashed	n.d.	n.d.	2.7	
Semolina-milk pudding	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	
Rice porridge	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	
Apple puree	n.d.	n.d.	1.8	
Chicken puree	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	

n.d. not detectable ($< 0.15 \,\mu g \,kg^{-1}$)

Table 2. Furan in freshly homeprepared potato puree baby foods.

			Furan [µg kg ⁻¹]				
Potato	Potato	Method of	Freshly	Re-heated (1	Re-heated (1		
variety	origin	agricultural	prepared,	h, 70°C) in	h, 70°C) in		
		production *	directly	closed jar	closed jar after		
			analysed	after storage	storage over		
				over night at	night at 8°C		
				8°C	and addition		
					of ascorbic		
					acid (500 mg		
					kg ⁻¹)		
Rosetta	Egypt	organic	n.d.	4.1	11.6		
Nicola	Italy	organic	n.d.	6.0	19.7		
Nicola	Egypt	organic	n.d.	6.2	32.1		
Astoria	Germany	organic	n.d.	8.6	15.8		
Nicola	Egypt	organic	n.d.	10.1	17.3		
Christa	Germany	organic	n.d.	11.9	21.7		
Gloria	Germany	organic	n.d.	16.1	40.0		
Nicola	Egypt	organic	n.d.	29.2	58.3		
Nicola	Egypt	conventional	n.d.	2.3	10.6		
Princess	Egypt	conventional	n.d.	2.8	8.3		
Princess	Germany	conventional	n.d.	4.6	14.2		
Berber	Germany	conventional	n.d.	6.2	19.3		
Marabel	Israel	conventional	n.d.	7.0	16.4		
Atlas	Egypt	conventional	n.d.	7.2	19.3		
Annabelle	Cyprus	conventional	n.d.	7.6	15.9		
Monalisa	Germany	conventional	n.d.	7.9	15.1		
Berber	Germany	conventional	n.d.	16.8	37.2		
Convenience	(unknown)	conventional	n.d.	6.5	18.4		
pre-boiled							
potatoes							

- * According to label. Organic production was assumed when labelling requirements
- were in accordance with Council Regulation (EEC) No 2092/91 (European Council
- 2001). Conventional production was assumed when no information on production
- method was provided on the label.

- Table 3. Furan in commercial baby food jars analyzed without preparation and heating
- in a typical baby food warmer.

	Furan [µg kg ⁻¹]					
Product	unprepared Heated with		Heated with			
		baby food	baby food			
		warmer,	warmer,			
		closed (1 h,	opened jar,			
		80°C)	periodical			
			stirring			
Potato-Carrot Puree	39.6	47.0	34.7			
Mixed Vegetable Puree	66.8	67.0	67.5			
Vegetables with	28.7	29.7	_*			
chicken and pasta						
Muesli	10.0	8.5	-			
Cream potatoes with	73.5	79.6	-			
cauliflower and veal						
Rigatoni Napoli	92.0	89.5	ı			
Vegetables with beef	25.4	27.6	ı			
Spaghetti Bolognese	44.0	45.9	ı			
Mixed vegetables with	27.5	28.5	-			
chicken						
Potato-vegetables with	47.5	48.0	-			
pork						

* experiment not conducted

- Table 4. Incidence of occurrence of furan in commercial ready-to-eat babyfoods
- (analyzed as bought without prior heating)

Sample matrix	Numbers of samples in the range [µg kg ⁻¹]						Furan concentrations [µg kg ⁻¹] ^a				
	< 2	2-5	5-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	>50	Mean ± SD	Median	95 th
											percentile
Baby	7	4	1	0	2	1	1	0	9.6 ± 14.8	2	45
beverages											
Fruit-only	30	3	15	1	0	0	0	1	3.5 ± 8.4	0.2	9
dishes											
Meals	5	9	5	4	1	1	0	0	6.6 ± 7.2	4	20
with											
cereals											
Pasta	0	0	0	1	3	4	1	2	34.8 ± 14.5	35	63
Meals	0	0	2	15	21	8	6	5	28.2 ± 15.0	26	59
with meat											
Vegetable	3	0	1	13	17	18	8	11	31.2 ± 17.3	30	63
meals					5						
(without											
meat)											

^a Samples below LOD were calculated as zero

- 16 Table 5. Exposure with furan from commercial ready-to-eat baby foods. The exposure
- scenarios were derived using the mean, median and percentiles of the furan
- concentrations in all ready-to-eat baby foods and beverages in our survey (n=230)

Intake scena	rios ^a		Exposure scenarios for different furan concentrations in the foods [µg kg bw ⁻¹ day ⁻¹]				
Age (months)	Body weight (kg)	Intake of baby foods (g day ⁻¹)	Mean (20 μg kg ⁻¹)	Median (18 µg kg ⁻¹)	90th percentile (44 µg kg ⁻¹)	95th percentile (54 µg kg ⁻¹)	99th percentile (68 µg kg ⁻¹)
3	5.8	67	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.8
6	7.5	195	0.5	0.5	1.1	1.4	1.8
9	8.6	234	0.5	0.5	1.2	1.5	1.9
12	9.4	208	0.4	0.4	1.0	1.2	1.5

- ^a Data from Kersting et al. (1998). Only ready-to-eat baby foods and beverages were
- 20 included in the consumption estimate (dry infant formulae and dry processed cereal-
- 21 based foods were not included in this evaluation)
- 23 Table 6. Margin of Exposure (MOE) for furan in the different exposure scenarios (MOE
- = T25 / Exposure). Calculated with T25 of 1.4 mg kg bw⁻¹ day⁻¹ from Sanner et al.
- 25 (2001).

	MOE for different exposure scenarios									
Age (months)	Mean (20 μg kg ⁻¹)	Median (18 µg kg ⁻¹)	90th percentile (44 µg kg ⁻¹)	95th percentile (54 µg kg ⁻¹)	99th percentile (68 µg kg ⁻¹)					
3	6060	6733	2754	2244	1782					
6	2692	2991	1224	997	792					
9	2573	2858	1169	953	757					
12	3163	3515	1438	1172	930					



