

High hydrostatic pressure processing of human milk preserves milk oligosaccharides and avoids formation of Maillard reaction products

Lucie Marousez, Norbert Sprenger, Marie de Lamballerie, Sarahi Jaramillo-Ortiz, Léa Tran, Edwina Micours, Frédéric Gottrand, Michael Howsam, Frederic J Tessier, Delphine Ley, et al.

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1	High hydrostatic pressure processing of human milk preserves milk
2	oligosaccharides and avoids formation of Maillard reaction
3	products
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27 Abstract

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- Background & Aims: High hydrostatic pressure (HHP) processing is a non-thermal method proposed as an alternative to Holder pasteurization (HoP) for the treatment of human milk. HHP preserves numerous milk bioactive components that are degraded by HoP, but no data are available for milk oligosaccharides (HMOs) or the formation of Maillard reaction products, which may be deleterious for preterm newborns.
- Methods: We evaluated the impact of HHP processing of human milk on 22 HMOs measured by liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection and on furosine, lactuloselysine, carboxymethyllysine (CML) and carboxyethyllysine (CEL) measured by liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometric detection (LC-MS/MS), four established indicators of the Maillard reaction. Human raw milk was sterilized by HoP (62.5°C for 30 min) or processed by HHP (350 MPa at 38°C).
- 40 **Results:** Neither HHP nor HoP processing affected the concentration of HMOs, but
 41 HoP significantly increased furosine, lactuloselysine, CML and CEL levels in milk.
 - **Conclusions:** Our findings demonstrate that HPP treatment preserves HMOs and avoids formation of Maillard reaction products. Our study confirms and extends previous findings that HHP treatment of human milk provides safe milk, with fewer detrimental effects on the biochemically active milk components than HoP.
- 46 Keywords: human milk, high hydrostatic pressure, human milk oligosaccharides,
- 47 Maillard reaction products, holder pasteurization

1. Introduction

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The invention and refinement of high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) treatment was an important scientific innovation from the last century [1]. Because of its ability to inactivate many pathogens while leaving most organoleptic properties of foods unchanged, the use of HHP began to be adopted by the food industry at the end of the twentieth century for the sterilization and preservation of foodstuffs [1-3]. Several studies have demonstrated that HHP may be an innovative method to ensure the microbiological safety of breast milk donated to human milk banks (HMBs) [4-6]. Most HMBs currently sterilize human milk using the standard method of Holder pasteurization (HoP) performed by heating milk to 62.5°C for 30 minutes [7]. Owing to this heating. HoP partly degrades numerous heat-sensitive bioactive factors in milk such as immunoglobulins, lactoferrin, some vitamins, lysozyme, the bile saltdependent lipase (BSSL) and several hormones [7,8]. Interestingly, recent studies have shown that HHP processing, in addition to its bacteriolytic effect, maintains human milk's nutritional and immunological factors close to their levels in raw milk [4-6]. For instance, Demazeau et al. showed that HHP processing using four 5-minute cycles of a moderate pressure (350 MPa) at 38°C is effective in sterilizing human milk, but also maintains numerous bioactive factors such as lactoferrin, lysozyme and BSSL enzyme at levels close to raw milk [5]. To our knowledge, the effect of HHP on other important milk compounds such as human milk oligosaccharides (HMOs) so far remains unknown. HMOs are lactose-derived molecules constituting the third major group of soluble components in human milk [9,10]. A high abundance and diversity of over 160 different HMOs have been characterized in human milk, with the majority showing fucose and sialic acid moieties variously linked to different backbone structures composed of lactose and additional galactose and N-acetyl-glucosamine

moieties [11]. There is growing evidence that HMOs exert numerous beneficial effects on neonatal development, as well as the protection and promotion of health in infants [10,12]. For example studies have shown that HMOs are powerful prebiotics for several bacteria, primarily *Bifidobacterium* species, and that they also hinder the adhesion of pathogens to gut epithelial cells, directly affecting their maturation and development, as well as supporting immune functions [10,12]. Notably, HMOs are also thought to convey important benefits for preterm born infants [13]. The primary aim of this study was to investigate if HHP treatment of human milk left HMOs unaltered by measuring 22 major HMOs before and after HHP processing, while also comparing HHP to the standard HoP treatment in this regard.

Our second objective was to investigate if HHP processing of human milk leads to the formation of Maillard reaction products (MRPs, also called glycation products). MRPs are formed by a complex set of chemical reactions involving reducing sugars and the amino groups of proteins. During milk processing (notably in production of infant milk formulas) the most abundant MRP formed is the Amadori product, lactuloselysine, which is indirectly quantified by the measure of furosine after acid hydrolysis of milk [14–16]. Although relatively stable in milk, lactuloselysine can undergo chemical modifications and generate advanced glycation end products (AGEs) such as N-epsilon-carboxymethyllysine (CML), N-epsilon-carboxyethyllysine (CEL) [14–16].

The nutritional and biological consequences of dietary intake of AGEs and other MRPs have been debated for more than 2 decades [17]. When considering the nutritional value of proteins, many subscribe to the view that the glycation of lysine in milk reduces its bioavailability [18]. This has given rise to the term "blocked lysine" to describe a dietary amino acid which is unavailable for the anabolism of new proteins

in vivo [19]. Although a reduced digestibility of glycated proteins and a consequent reduction in the bioavailability of some amino acids are commonly described in in vitro digestive systems, these observations have never been confirmed in animal or human studies [20]. With regard to the potential health consequences of dietary exposure to AGEs and other MRPs, some clinical studies of healthy and pathological adults suggest that high exposure to MRPs could increase insulin resistance, oxidative stress and inflammation [21,22]. While the health consequences of dietary MRPs in early childhood are the subject of significant discussion, they remain incompletely understood and poorly studied. The effects of MRPs on perinatal metabolic programming remain at the hypothesis stage, despite them sometimes being called "glycotoxins" [23]. Nevertheless, the negative effect of dietary AGEs on kidney and pancreatic function during early life has been reported both by ourselves and others who have tested different forms of purposely high AGE-exposure diets in animals [24,25]. However, the few published studies on infants report no apparent effect of dietary MRPs on the kidney function of preterm infants [26], nor on the insulin resistance or oxidative stress of full-term term infants [27].

In the absence of conclusive scientific evidence on the toxicity or otherwise of dietary MRPs or AGEs, a precautionary approach dictates that infants should be fed with milk containing the lowest possible amount of chemically modified proteins. Thus, the second objective of this study was to investigate if HHP processing of human milk could minimize the glycation of proteins. We analyzed HHP-processed milk for furosine (a surrogate marker for lactuloselysine) and CML, two established indicators of the early- and advanced-stages of the Maillard reaction, respectively [14,16], and the less-frequently studied CEL in raw milk and milk samples treated by the standard HoP method were also analyzed for these compounds.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Milk collection and HoP and HHP processing

Frozen donor milk (DM) samples from 11 donors were provided by the regional HMB (Lactarium Régional de Lille, Jeanne de Flandre Children's Hospital, CHU Lille). Donors provided written informed consent for the use of their milk for this research purpose. After thawing of milk samples, 8 different batches of DM were created under sterile conditions by mixing various volumes (from 10 to 30 ml) of all BM samples to homogenize DM composition among batches. Three aliquots of milk samples were prepared from each batch: one fraction was stored at -80°C without any other treatment (raw milk sample); one fraction was subjected to HoP according to the standard pasteurization protocol in our regional HMB (62.5°C for 30 min); the last fraction was subjected to HHP processing as previously described [5]. Briefly, the HHP parameters were as follows: 350 MPa pressure, 38°C temperature, 1 MPa.s⁻¹ VA (application rate), 4 cycles of 5 min each, and a latency time with normal pressure between each cycle of 5 min. After HoP and HHP processing, samples were stored at -80°C until analysis.

2.2. Quantification of HMOs

We quantified the 22 major HMOs listed and illustrated in Table 1 and Figure 2 using a previously described and validated method [28]. All milk samples were shipped on dry ice to Neotron Spa. (Italy) for HMO quantification by liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection after labelling with 2-aminobenzamide (2AB) as described by Austin & Benet (2018) [28]. Ten HMOs were quantified using genuine HMO standards with known purity assessed using quantitative nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (Elicityl, France), namely 2'-fucosyllactose (2'FL), 3-fucosyllactose (3FL),

Lacto-N-tetraose (LNT), Lacto-N-neotetraose (LNnT), 3'-sialyllactose (3'SL), 6'-sialyllactose (6'SL), Lacto-N-fucopentaose-I (LNFP-I), LNFP-V and Lacto-N-neofucopentaose (LNnFP). The remaining HMOs were quantified against maltotriose of known purity (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), assuming equimolar response factors. The full names and abbreviations of all quantified HMOs are shown in the legend of Table 1.

2.3. Quantification of the three MRPs: furosine, CML and CEL

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Samples were analyzed in duplicate by liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometric detection (LC-MS/MS) using a method adapted from Niguet-Léridon & Tessier (2011) [29]. From each sample of milk, an aliquot of 200 and one of 400µL were lyophilized overnight. To the lyophilized 200µL aliquots, 1mL of 6M HCl was added, while the lyophilized 400µL aliquots were first subjected to a reduction step using 500µL 0.1M NaBH₄ in 200mM borate buffer (pH 9.5, 2.5h at 20°C) followed by the addition of 500µL 12M HCl. Thereafter, all samples were hydrolyzed for 21h at 110°C. The reduction step with sodium borohydrate (NaBH₄) is considered necessary to block the Amadori product and to avoid de novo formation of CML during acid hydrolysis. Two hundred microliters of the hydrolysates were then evaporated to dryness by Speed-Vac (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Les Ulis, France), re-solubilized in 200µL of 10mM nonafluoropentanoic acid (NFPA) and filtered (0.45µm). Three vials were prepared for subsequent analyses as follows: for the reduced filtered hydrolysates, 10x dilutions were prepared in 10mM NFPA containing (D2)-CML and (D₄)-CEL (each at 0.1µg/mL) and 100x dilutions in 10mM NFPA containing (¹⁵N₂)lysine (10µg/mL); for the non-reduced filtered hydrolysate, 10x dilutions in 10mM NFPA containing (D4)-furosine (1µg/mL). Samples were analyzed on a Waters Acquity ultraperformance liquid chromatograph (LC) coupled to a Quattro Premier tandem mass

spectrometer (MS/MS; Waters, Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, France). A 10μL injection was made using the Acquity autosampler and target analytes were separated on a Hypercarb column (100 x 2.1mm, 5μm particle size – Thermo Fisher Scientific, Les Ulis, France) maintained at 10°C. Compounds were eluted using a binary gradient of an aqueous, ion-pairing solution (A – 10mM NFPA) and acetonitrile (B). The LC flow was 0.2mL/min and the gradient was as follows: 0 min 100% A; 10 min 77.5% A, 22.5% B; 10.1 min 40% A, 60% B held for 5 min; 15 min 100% A, held for 6 min. Heated electrospray ionization was in positive mode (3.75kV), desolvation temperature was 400°C, source temperature 130°C, and desolvation and cone gas flow rates were 750 and 50 L/h, respectively. Quantification was performed by isotopic dilution using the response ratios of labelled internal standards: the respective target molecule using 9 concentration points to construct the calibration curves.

2.4. Statistics

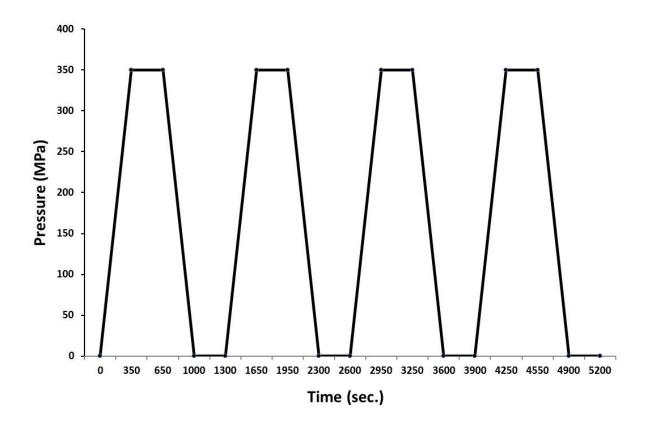
Data are presented as mean±SEM (standard error of the mean). Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism 7.0. software (San Diego, USA). Grubb's test was used to detect any outliers. Normality of variables was evaluated by a D'Agostino-Pearson test. If necessary, a log10 transformation was applied to reach normality. Statistical differences were then tested by paired *t*-test or Wilcoxon test according to sample normality assessment results. A *p* value <0.05 was considered significant.

3. Results

3.1. Quantification of 22 HMOs in raw and treated milk samples.

The kinetics of pressure application during the 90 minutes HHP processing are shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1.



Using an internal probe in the tank of the HP system, we were also able to measure the internal temperature during this process, which remained stable throughout, ranging from 34 to 39°C. The effects of HoP and HHP treatments on HMO concentrations are reported in Table1 and Figure 2.

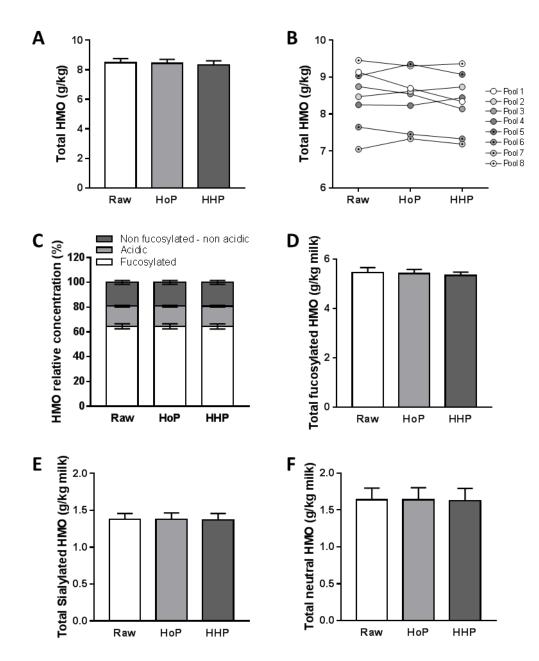
Table 1.

		F	Raw			H	НоР			H	НР	
HMOs (mg/kg milk)	Types	Mean	±	SEM	-	Mean	±	SEM	-	Mean	±	SEM
2'FL	NF	1641	±	156		1618	±	140		1572	±	130

A-TETRA	NF	24.34	±	5.89	24.12	±	5.86	23.55	±	5.5
3FL	NF	696.4	±	84.7	698.5	±	89.3	694.4	±	89.5
LDFT	NF	131.9	±	20.5	131.3	±	19.7	128.9	±	18.4
LNFP-I	NF	793.4	±	89	786.9	±	83.5	775.8	±	80.7
LNFP-II	NF	644.6	±	59	648.8	±	63.7	646.7	±	65.1
LNFP-III	NF	277.5	±	11.7	275.9	±	10.6	271.7	±	11
LNFP-V	NF	64.84	±	6.99	65.25	±	7.27	65.1	±	7.45
LNnFP-V	NF	16.99	±	3.43	17	±	3.38	17.31	±	3.52
MFLNH-III	NF	367.7	±	24.1	366.3	±	23.8	362.9	±	25.7
LNDFH	NF	671.1	±	73.7	667	±	70.2	656.1	±	63.3
DFLNHa	NF	131.6	±	19.3	131.6	±	20	127.8	±	17.9
6'GL	NnF	30.89	±	2.38	30.71	±	2.37	31.16	±	2.53
LNT	NnF	1239	±	115	1241	±	122	1230	±	124
LNnT	NnF	223.3	±	25.3	221.9	±	24.7	220.3	±	25.3
LNHa	NnF	102.9	±	13.2	102.7	±	12.9	101.7	±	13.3
LNHb	S	41.17	±	5.76	41.06	±	5.35	40.73	±	5.56
3'SL	S	185.6	±	3.7	185.5	±	5.2	182.7	±	5.6
6'SL	S	580.1	±	24.6	579.3	±	29.1	576.4	±	29.4
LST b	S	66.65	±	6.78	66.35	±	7.07	66.32	±	7.3
LST c	S	257.4	±	26.9	258	±	27	255.3	±	28
DSLNT	S	291.3	±	31.1	291	±	32.4	288.4	±	32.8

A-TETRA, A-tetrasaccharide; DFLNHa; difucosylated lacto-N-hexaose a; DSLNT, disialyllacto-N-tetraose; 2'/3FL, 2'/3-fucosyllactose; 6'GL, 6'-galactosyloligosaccharide; LDFT, Lactodifucotetraose (difucosyllactose); LNDFH, lacto-N-difucohexaose; LNFP-l/II/III/V, lacto-N-fucopentaose l/II/IIII/V; LNH a/b, lacto-N-hexaose a/b; LNnFP-V, Lacto-N-neofucopentaose-V; LNnT, lacto-N-neotetraose; LNT, lacto-N-tetraose; LST b/c, sialyl-lacto-N-tetraose b/c; MFLNH-III, Monofucosyllacto-N-hexose-III; 3'/6'SL, 3'/6'-sialyllactose; NF, neutral fucosylated; NnF, Neutral non-fucosylated; S, sialylated (acidic).

Figure 2.



Neither sterilization process affected the concentration of the 22 major HMOs that we measured in milk batches from pooled human milk samples, demonstrating that these oligosaccharides were unaffected by thermal sterilization (HoP) or high pressure processing (HPP).

3.2. Determination of 3 MRPs in raw milk and treated milk samples.

Among the literature focusing on furosine, CML, CEL and other MRP levels in milk, there is little consensus on the units of measurement. Hence, Table 2 presents the concentrations of MRPs in μ g/g protein, μ g or ng/mL of milk and μ mol/mol lysine to facilitate a comparison of our data with those from the literature.

Table 2.

		RAW	НоР	ННР
	Unit	Mean ± SEM	Mean ± SEM	Mean ± SEM
Furosine	μg/g protein	69,8 ± 2,75	115 ± 2,98 ***	69,8 ± 1,23
- rui osiile	μg/mL	1,52 ± 0,04	2,49 ± 0,10 ***	1,47 ± 0,05
	μg/g protein	258 ± 10,2	424 ± 11,0 ***	258 ± 4,57
Lactuloselysine	μg/mL	5,62 ± 0,16	9,20 ± 0,35 ***	5,44 ± 0,19
	μmol/mol lysine	1863 ± 88,4	2971 ± 200 ^{ns} #	1780 ± 35,0
	μg/g protein	3,95 ± 0,26	5,56 ± 0,36 *	3,92 ± 0,19
CML	ng/mL	86,3 ± 5,40	121 ± 10,2 ^{ns} ##	82,7 ± 5,20
	μmol/mol lysine	65,6 ± 4,51	94,5 ± 5,7 **	62,1 ± 2,58
	μg/g protein	1,57 ± 0,15	3,04 ± 0,24 ***	1,55 ± 0,16
CEL	ng/mL	34,8 ± 3,98	66,6 ± 6,51 ***	33,2 ± 4,05
	μmol/mol lysine	24,2 ± 2,21	48,6 ± 4,14 ***	22,9 ± 2,11

Lactuloselysine was estimated based on a 50% recovery of furosine from the lactuloselysine after acid hydrolysis [30].

Amadori products, including lactuloselysine, are the first stable compounds formed through the Maillard reaction upon the rearrangement of the Schiff base formed from the reaction between reducing carbonyls and an amino group. Lactuloselysine undergoes transformation to furosine during acid hydrolysis as performed here during

sample preparation. This allows us to indirectly measure the concentration of lactuloselysine in raw milk, and in corresponding milk samples after HoP and HHP treatments, through the quantification of furosine. The recovery of furosine from lactuloselysine after acid hydrolysis is well characterized, and was estimated to be 50% under the conditions used here and described by Krause et al. [30]. Using this conversion factor, we report in Table 2 both the concentrations of furosine as measured and also the calculated lactuloselysine concentrations assuming 1 mole of furosine equals to 2 moles of lactuloselysine. This estimation enables a comparison of the number of lysine modified to lactuloselysine with the number of lysine modified to CML or CEL (all expressed in µmol/mol lysine). For furosine, we observed that HoP treatment drastically increased furosine levels ((+64%; p<0.001) in Table 2). HHPprocessed milk fractions did not show any significant increase in furosine level compared with raw milk (Table 2). The concentration of lactuloselysine in raw and HHP-processed milks were estimated as 1.86+/-0.08 and 1.78+/-0.03 mmol/mol lysine (p>0.05), respectively. A significant increase was observed in the milk pasteurized by HoP (2.9+/-0.2 µmol/mol lysine, namely 59% more than observed in milk subjected to HHP treatment, *p*<0.05).

In the same milk samples, CML and CEL were also quantified. Compared with raw milk, HoP treatment significantly increased both CML and CEL levels: +41 to 44% for CML (p<0.05) and +94 to 101% for CEL (p<0.001), depending on the units compared (Table 2). HHP-processed milk fractions did not show any significant increase in CML and CEL concentrations compared with raw milk.

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4. Discussion

Breast feeding has numerous health advantages for preterm infants [31–33]. Mother's milk is rich in diverse bioactive components, among them HMOs, one of the major components of breast milk by mass. HMOs are non-nutritive, bioactive compounds that have multiple short- and long-term health effects in newborns, as recently reviewed [10,12,13,34]. Basic research and clinical observations indicate that HMOs help to protect from neonatal infections, reduce susceptibility to intestinal diseases such as necrotizing enterocolitis (NEC), and may exert long-term beneficial effects on others tissues and organs such as the heart, adipose tissue and brain [35–39]. In the present study, aiming to analyze the effect of two sterilization processes of human milk on HMOs, we decided to pool donor milk samples from 11 women to obtain milk batches with similar HMOs composition to reduce a putative bias from maternal characteristics that may affect HMO composition, like the secretory status and time post-partum when the milk was collected [40,41].

Donor milk samples are usually pooled in human milk banks (HMBs), though not always from different mothers, and then sterilized using the standard HoP protocol to ensure microbial safety as donor milk is destined mainly for preterm babies. In the present study, we observed that HoP maintained the 22 major HMOs at levels unchanged from their initial concentrations in raw milk. Since, the HMO quantification method employed a 2AB labeling step of the reducing ends, and does not work if terminal glucose is isomerized to fructose, we can also exclude the possibility that the HMOs changed their natural structure to any significant extent. To date, only three studies have investigated the effect of HoP on HMOs [42–44]. All these studies, in accordance with our observations here, found no effect of HoP on HMO levels demonstrating that these oligosaccharides are resistant to thermal degradation at 62.5°C during 30 minutes. For the first time here, we report that an alternative

sterilization technique, namely HHP processing at 350 MPa, similarly had no effect upon HMOs levels. Our results confirm the preservation of the biological value of human milk with respect to HMOs, after either pasteurization by HoP or sterilization using HHP, and constitutes an important finding for the nutritional management of preterm infants.

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One of the main biological effects of HMOs occurs in the colon where they are metabolized by gut microbiota [45]. Indeed, HMOs have been shown to stimulate growth of gut microbiota, specifically Bifidobacterium species, and increase their metabolic activity [46-49]. However, in addition to metabolizing HMOs, gut microbes are also able to use other milk components such as glycated proteins or peptides that have been incompletely enzymatically digested and absorbed in the upper and middle intestinal tract. This is the case for some MRPs, which are formed between reducing sugars and amino groups during heat treatment of milk [50]. The Maillard reaction on dietary proteins leads to the formation of an heterogenous group of early and advanced glycation products on lysine, arginine and some other amino acids. Each glycation product has a unique bioavailability [50]. For instance, the Amadori products (e.g. lactuloselysine in milk) seem to be poorly absorbed and mainly fermented by the gut microbiota [15,51,52]. On the other hand, dietary CML has a more complex biodistribution divided amongst microbiota digestion [53], intestinal absorption and transport into the circulation, accumulation by some organs and tissues [54], and partial elimination in the urine and feces [55]. A clear relationship has been found between dietary exposure to CML and its plasma concentration in babies fed infant formula or breast milk [27], while a weaker correlation was observed when CML was measured in babies' urine [48].

While the effects of the Maillard reaction on the overall digestibility of proteins is still debated, then, what is known for sure is that some AGEs and other MRPs reach the blood while others remain in the gut and are transferred to the colon where they are fermented. As a consequence, several studies suggest that the ingestion of MRPs influences the composition of the microbiota [41–45]. As described in the introduction, the deleterious effects (*e.g.* inflammation, insulin resistance, oxidative stress) of a chronic, deliberately very high exposure to AGEs and other MRPs in early life were observed only in animal models, and human studies remain too few to be conclusive. However, we believe that the precautionary principle obliges us to abide by the ALARA concept (as low as reasonably achievable).

Therefore, our second aim was to examine whether HoP and HHP processing of human milk differentially affected MRP formation. Data on MRPs in untreated human breast milk are scarce in the literature, which limits the comparison of our data with other studies. The mean level of furosine measured here in the 8 batches of raw DM was 69.8 +/-2.7 µg/g protein. This is in same order of magnitude as the levels found in human milk by Martysiak-Zurowska & Stolyhwo (2007) [56], while a concentration range of 35 – 55 µg/g protein was reported in untreated bovine milk by Henle et al. (1995) [57].

The mean concentration of CML in the 8 batches of untreated DM was 86.3 +/-5.4 ng/mL. Using an ELISA method, Dittrich et al. (2006) found a mean CML concentration of 137 +/-83 ng/mL of human breast milk, with concentrations ranging from 54 to 436 ng/mL [58]. Using a similar analytical method to our study, Delatour et al. (2009) reported a mean concentration of 84.1 +/-56.2 ng of CML/mL in human milk [59]. The data from our study and those mentioned above are thus consistent. The mean concentration of CEL found in the 8 batches of raw DM (34.8 +/-3.9 ng/mL) is

lower than for CML, but remains in the same order of magnitude. To our knowledge, no data for CEL in breast milk is available in the literature while a concentration of 144 +/-51 ng/mL has been reported in untreated bovine milk [60]. As expected, the estimated concentration of lactuloselysine in raw human milk was 28 times higher than the concentration of CML, and 77 times higher than that of CEL. These results also indicate that 186 from 100 000 lysine moieties were modified into lactuloselysine in raw milk compared with only 6 and 2 of 100 000 lysine residues for CML and CEL, respectively. Moreover, due to the high temperature at which HoP was conducted, increased levels of furosine (and lactuloselysine), CML and CEL were generated by HoP compared to HHP processing that was performed at a much lower temperature close to 38°C.

The only data from the literature that can be compared with our data stem from the pasteurization of bovine milk. For furosine, Henle et al. observed a 1.35 times increase in the median concentration when bovine milk was pasteurized [57]. The HoP treatment used on the 8 batches of DM here increased the concentration of furosine about 1.6 times. Considering primarily publications that used a similar LC-MS/MS method to ours, very few comparisons can be presented on the effect of pasteurization on the formation of CML and CEL in bovine milk. One of the first to study the topic were Ahmed at al. in 2005, and they observed an increase of formation of CML and CEL in bovine milk in proportion to the severity of the heat treatment [60]. Conversely, Delatour et al. (2009) observed no significant difference in the concentration of CML between raw and pasteurized bovine milk samples, but observed a slight increase in UHT milk samples [59]. Assar et al. (2009) observed the same lack of difference between raw and pasteurized skimmed milk, but a slight increase when raw whole milk was compared with pasteurized whole milk [61]. In our study, the pasteurization conditions

used (HoP) clearly induced a signification increased formation of CML and CEL in human breast milk whereas the HHP treatment had no impact on the levels of these MRPs.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that both HoP and HHP processing of human milk do not affect the amount or profile of HMOs present in raw human milk. However, our results showed that HoP increased the formation of three key MRPs in donor human milk, potentially affecting their nutritional quality by decreasing the proportion of milk proteins present in their native form. The increased concentration of MRPs in human milk treated by HoP raises concerns about the optimal nutritional environment and health of infants: this is important because human donor milk is mainly used for the feeding of vulnerable, preterm babies.

More broadly, the hypothesis that perinatal exposure to MRPs influences metabolic programming [23–25], the development of allergies, and susceptibility to other pathologies that affect health in adulthood, obliges us to strive for banked human milk with the lowest MRP content possible. However, our observation should be seen in perspective and it must be noted that the increase of MRPs in our HoP-treated human milks was nevertheless small when the mean concentration of CML is compared with that reported in some infant formulas (121 ng/mL compared with 200 – 13 000 ng/mL in Delatour et al. (2009) [59]).

Finally, our study confirms and extends previous findings that HHP treatment of human milk provides bacteriologically safe milk, with fewer detrimental effects on the biochemically active milk components than HoP.

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Figure and Table legends

Fig. 1. Descriptive diagram of the HHP methodology used in this study. Evolution of

the pressure in the tank of the HHP system used in the present study.

Fig. 2. An additional representation of HMO concentrations in pooled samples (n=8) of raw human milk (Raw) and after pasteurization (HoP) or high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) processing reported in Table 1. Data are expressed as Mean±SEM. (A) Mean concentration of the 22 HMOs measured (total) in this study. (B) Individual variations of total HMOs in each pool of milk. (C) Relative concentration of HMO types and total concentration of fucosylated (D), acidic (E) and neutral non-fucosylated (F) HMOs in raw, HoP and HHP samples. Total and relative concentration were defined by the sum of fucosylated, acidic sialylated or neutral non-fucosylated HMOs. Grouping by types of HMOs is detailed in Table 1. Data are expressed as Mean±SEM. Differences between groups were tested by repeated measures Anova and Tukey's post-test.

Table 1. HMO concentrations in pooled samples (n=8) of raw human milk (Raw) and after pasteurization (HoP) or high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) processing. Data are expressed as Mean±SEM. Differences between groups were tested by repeated measures Anova and Tukey's post-test. No significant differences between groups were found.

Table 2. Milk levels of furosine, lactuloselysine, carboxymethyllysine (CML) and N-epsilon-carboxyethyllysine (CEL) in pooled samples (n=8) of raw human milk (Raw) and after pasteurization (HoP) or high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) processing. Data are expressed as Mean±SEM. Differences between groups were analyzed by Tukey's post-test following repeated measures Anova or Dunn's post-test following Friedman test. ***: p<0.001 Raw vs HoP; ###: p<0.001 HHP vs HoP; **: p<0.01 Raw vs HoP; ###: p<0.05 HHP vs HoP.