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Infant milk feeding and bone health in later life: findings from the Hertfordshire Cohort Study

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30 **Abstract**

31 Purpose

32 Using data from the Hertfordshire Cohort Study (HCS), this study aims to examine the effect of infant
33 milk feeding on bone health in later life by comparing the effect of breastfeeding and bottle feeding
34 on lumbar spine and femoral neck bone mineral content (BMC) and bone mineral density (BMD).

35 Methods

36 Information about infant milk feeding, birth weight (kg) and weight at 1 (kg) was collected by health
37 visitors between 1931 and 1939 in Hertfordshire. BMC and BMD measurements were taken by DXA
38 scan between 1998-2004. Linear regression models adjusted for conditional weight at 1, age at DXA
39 scan, sex, adult BMI, smoking behaviour, alcohol consumption, physical activity, dietary calcium, and
40 prudent diet score.

41 Results

42 Infant milk feeding was significantly associated with lumbar spine BMD ($b=-0.028$, 95% CI -0.055 , -
43 0.000 , p -value: 0.047) in males. On average, males who consumed breastmilk alternatives in infancy
44 had lower lumbar spine BMD measurements than those who were fed only breastmilk. These
45 associations remained significant in fully adjusted models. There were no significant associations
46 between infant milk feeding and bone health for females.

47 Conclusions

48 Significant associations between infant milk feeding and lumbar spine BMD in males indicate that
49 breastmilk may be protective for the bone health of male babies. The evidence presented here
50 underscores the potential lifelong benefits of breastfeeding and may highlight the differences
51 between osteoporotic risk factors for males and females.

52

53 **Keywords**

54 Breastfeeding; bottle feeding; osteoporosis; bone and bones

55

56 **Mini abstract**

57 Using data from the Hertfordshire Cohort Study, this study examined the effect of breastfeeding and
58 bottle feeding on adult lumbar spine and femoral neck bone mineral content (BMC) and bone
59 mineral density (BMD). Type of infant milk feeding was significantly associated with lumbar spine
60 BMD in males.

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64 **Introduction**

65 As evidence in support of the developmental origins hypothesis of health grows, particular attention
66 has been given to how adult bone health and its associated outcomes are related to childhood diet
67 and environment, as early childhood is a period during which bone growth patterns are established.
68 Infant nutrition is a potential mediator of adult bone health, because type of infant feeding has been
69 shown to influence early growth, and rate of early growth sets the stage for peak attainment of bone
70 mass[1]. Indeed, increased weight gain over the first year of life has been associated with better
71 bone health in adulthood[2-4]. In a study of the bone phenotypes of the 1946 British birth cohort,
72 faster growth (in both weight and height) in childhood was associated with greater bone strength in
73 the sixth decade of life[4], meaning that breast or bottle feeding practices may have implications for
74 bone health in childhood and beyond[20].

75 Research into the relationship between infant feeding and infant growth has linked cow's milk to
76 faster weight gain over the first year of life[5-8] and breastfeeding with longer leg length in
77 childhood[9, 10] and adulthood[9, 11]. While modern formula milk has also been associated with
78 faster weight gain over the first year[8], breastfeeding has been positively related to infant length[9,
79 10] and with potential changes to bone cell programming which could result in higher bone mass in
80 adulthood[12]. Infant feeding practices have been linked to height[11, 13], bone mineral density[14,
81 15], bone mass[16-18], and body composition[6, 8, 10, 19] in children and adolescents, with
82 associations between breastfeeding and bone health outcomes differing in direction depending on
83 the age and cohort membership of the children studied. Breastfeeding was found to be positively
84 associated with bone mass in children at both 8 years old and 16 years old in Tasmania[17, 18], and
85 negatively associated with lumbar spine bone area and bone mineral content (BMC) and total body
86 bone mineral density (BMD) in Finnish males at 32 years old[15]. In one study of adult bone health,
87 the influence of early life indicators, such as infant feeding and birth weight, was attenuated by adult
88 body size[14], further indicating the need to examine infant milk feeding and bone health in later
89 life, as this association could vary with body size throughout the lifecourse.

90 Despite the relationships between type of infant milk consumed, weight gain in infancy, adult BMI,
91 and bone health across the lifecourse, there has been little research utilizing these measures in later
92 life. Very few studies have examined the relationship between infant milk feeding and adult BMC
93 and BMD, and to our knowledge, none have investigated this link in the sixth and seventh decades of
94 life. This study aims to examine the effect of infant milk feeding on bone health in later life by
95 comparing the effects of breast milk feeding and bottle feeding on lumbar spine and femoral neck
96 BMC and BMD in an older age cohort.

97 **Methods**

98 The Hertfordshire Cohort Study (HCS) includes 2997 males and females who were born in
99 Hertfordshire County between 1931 and 1939. Cohort members were recruited if their births were
100 recorded in health visitor ledgers in the 1930s and if they were still resident in Hertfordshire from
101 1998-2004, when these ledgers were discovered and individuals were invited to participate in the
102 study. The construction of this cohort study has previously been described in greater detail[20, 21].

103 Data on feeding during the first year of life (breastmilk fed, breast and bottle fed, or bottle fed), in
104 addition to birth weights (kg) and weights at one year (kg), were collected contemporaneously by
105 health visitors between 1931 and 1939 in Hertfordshire. As the infant milk feeding information
106 included in these analyses was extracted from health visitor ledgers recorded in the 1930s, the
107 definition of breastmilk fed in this study does not align with the WHO definition of exclusive
108 breastfeeding, in which only breastmilk is consumed and cereals and other solids are avoided for the
109 first six months[22]. Historical records indicate that in Hertfordshire in the 1930s, babies were fed
110 either breastmilk or cow's milk preparations; there was little, if any, use of commercial infant
111 formula milk[23]. While infant milk information was recorded in the ledgers, specific infant weaning
112 data is unavailable in the HCS. Therefore, in the analyses presented here, the term breastmilk fed
113 refers to no other milk but breastmilk for the first twelve months and does not make inferences
114 about which early infant foods were consumed.

115 In addition to infant health and feeding variables drawn from the ledgers, demographic and health
116 variables collected from the HCS participants in adulthood via postal questionnaire are utilized.
117 These questionnaire variables include whether or not a participant had ever smoked regularly, levels
118 of alcohol consumption, prudent diet score, age at clinic visit, adult height, physical activity score,
119 dietary calcium, adult BMI, and the use of hormone replacement therapy in females. Alcohol
120 consumption was measured in sex-specific recommended units per week, as per recommendations
121 at the time of data collection, with the variable including three categories: Non-drinker;
122 \leq recommended units per week (21 for males and 14 for females); \geq recommended units per week
123 (21 for males and 14 for females). Prudent diet score is a marker of overall diet quality wherein a
124 high score denotes a diet rich in fruits, vegetables, fatty fish and whole cereals, and a low score
125 indicates a diet more defined by white carbohydrates, sugar, chips, and dairy. The calculation of this
126 score has been described previously[23]. Physical activity score, calculated using HCS activity
127 questionnaire data, is a continuous score from 0-100, in which a higher score indicates greater
128 physical activity. Amount of dietary calcium was estimated from weekly nutrient intakes obtained by
129 Food Frequency Questionnaires. Sex-specific adult BMI (Low: <25.2 for males, <24.9 for females;

130 Normal: 25.2-28 for males, 24.9-29 for females; and High: ≥ 28 for males, ≥ 29 for females) was
131 included in models as a body size adjustment. Lumbar spine and femoral neck BMC (g) and BMD
132 (g/cm^2) measurements for 996 participants (498 males and 498 females) were taken using dual-
133 energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) at clinic visits from 1998-2004 (Hologic QDR 4500). Each
134 participant attended one DXA clinic over the course of these years. Age at DXA scan, adult height,
135 and adult BMI were recorded at the participant's clinic visit.

136 **Statistical methods**

137 Using these data from the HCS, linear regression models were run to examine the relationship
138 between type of infant milk feeding and lumbar spine and femoral neck BMC and BMD. For the
139 purposes of this study, the three-category infant feeding variable (breastfed, breast and bottle fed,
140 or bottle fed) was collapsed into a two-category, binary variable: breastmilk fed or any other infant
141 milk feeding combination, including breast and bottle fed or exclusively bottle fed any amount of
142 breastmilk substitute. A sex-standardized z-score measure of conditional weight gain in infancy was
143 created using birth weight and weight at one year, and this weight gain measure was included in
144 models as a potential confounder.

145 Models adjusted for sex, age at DXA clinic visit, adult height, adult BMI, weight gain in infancy,
146 smoking behaviour, alcohol consumption (in sex-specific recommended units per week), prudent
147 diet score, physical activity score, and dietary calcium. Inclusion of these confounders was based on
148 a review of literature regarding the biological indicators of bone health. The sample was stratified by
149 sex after significant results of t-tests examining bone outcomes by sex and a large effect size of the
150 interactions by outcome indicated effect modification by sex. Once the sample was split by sex, the
151 association between bone health outcomes and infant feeding was examined in fully adjusted
152 models, with the use of hormone replacement therapy included for females. After stratification by
153 sex, there were 498 participants in the male sample and 498 participants in the female sample.
154 Descriptive statistics are presented as mean (standard deviation) or as number counts and
155 percentages. Significance levels were set to $p \leq 0.05$.

156 All analyses were performed using STATA 14 (College Station, TX).

157

158 **Results**

159 Descriptive statistics are detailed in Table 1 below. While the males and females in this sample had
160 similar mean ages (Male: 64.182 (2.518) years; Female: 65.624 (2.546) years), and did not differ

161 substantially in their infant feeding experience, males had higher weights at one year of age (Male:
 162 10.188 (1.108) kg; Female: 9.727 (1.038) kg) and poorer adult diets (Male: -0.370 (1.245); Female:
 163 0.402 (1.140)) than females. Additionally, more males reported smoking (Male: 66.47%; Female:
 164 37.95%) and consuming more than the recommended units of alcohol per week (Male: 24.70%;
 165 Female: 2.41%) than females in this sample at the time of DXA measurement.

166 **Table 1 Descriptive statistics for HCS participants with DXA measurements from 1998-2004**

	Total (max n=996)		Males (max n = 498)		Females (max n = 498)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age at clinic (years)	64.903	2.631	64.182	2.518	65.624	2.546
Birthweight (kg)	3.452	0.544	3.523	0.562	3.381	0.516
Weight at 1 year (kg)	9.957	1.100	10.188	1.108	9.727	1.038
Height at clinic (cm)	167.654	9.161	174.271	6.759	161.038	5.881
Prudent diet score	0.016	1.253	-0.370	1.245	0.402	1.140
Dietary calcium	8350.733	2335.654	8822.677	2330.301	7878.789	2246.079
Physical activity score	62.598	14.920	63.952	14.773	61.245	14.959
Lumbar spine BMC (g)	67.503	17.662	77.385	15.607	57.117	13.171
Lumbar spine BMD (g/cm²)	1.018	0.176	1.076	0.159	0.960	0.173
Femoral neck BMC (g)	4.442	0.925	5.004	0.796	3.882	0.669
Femoral neck BMD (g/cm²)	0.803	0.130	0.850	0.121	0.757	0.121
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Infant feeding						
Breastmilk fed	566	57.17	278	56.28	288	58.06
Bottle +/- breastfed	424	42.83	216	43.72	208	41.94
Ever smoked regularly						
No	476	47.79	167	33.53	309	62.05
Yes	520	52.21	331	66.47	189	37.95
BMI (kg/m²)¹						
Low	349	35.04	171	34.34	178	35.74
Normal	335	33.63	176	35.34	159	31.93
High	312	31.33	151	30.32	161	32.33
Alcohol use²						
Non-drinker	113	11.35	20	4.02	93	18.67
Less than or equal to recommended units per week	748	75.10	355	71.29	393	78.92
More than recommended units per week	135	13.55	123	24.70	12	2.41

¹Sex-specific BMI categories: Low (<25.2 in males, <24.9 in females); Normal (25.5-28 in males, 24.9-29 in females); and High (>=28 in males, >=29 in females)

²Sex-specific alcohol consumption categories: <=recommended units per week (21 units for males, 14 units for females); >recommended units per week (21 units for males, 14 units for females)

Table 2 below displays the results of models run to illuminate any differences in the relationship between infant milk feeding and bone health between males and females. Infant milk feeding was a significant predictor of bone health in later life for males: bottle feeding was negatively associated with lumbar spine BMD ($b=-0.028$, 95% CI $-0.055, -0.000$, p -value: 0.047). On average, males who were bottle fed in infancy had lower lumbar spine BMD measurements than those who were breastmilk fed. Type of infant milk feeding had no significant association with lumbar spine or femoral neck BMC and BMD for females in this sample.

Table 2 Adjusted models of relationship between infant feeding and lumbar spine and femoral neck BMC and BMD, by sex¹

		Lumbar spine BMC (g)	Lumbar spine BMD (g/cm ²)	Femoral neck BMC (g)	Femoral neck BMD (g/cm ²)
Males	β^2	-2.383	-0.028*	-0.088	-0.014
	CI (95%)	[-4.940, 0.175]	[-0.055, -0.000]	[-0.219, 0.042]	[-0.035, 0.006]
	p -value	0.068	0.047	0.183	0.171
Females	β^2	-0.565	-0.017	-0.059	-0.000
	CI (95%)	[-2.783, 1.654]	[-0.046, 0.012]	[-0.113, 0.101]	[-0.020, 0.020]
	p -value	0.617	0.259	0.914	0.981

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$

¹ Models control for age at baseline clinic visit, adult height, smoking behaviour, alcohol consumption, prudent diet score, physical activity score, dietary calcium, conditional weight gain over first year of life, adult BMI, and hormone replacement therapy in females.

² Reference category: breastmilk fed

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168 **Discussion**

169 The results of this study suggest that in the HCS, males who were bottle fed (predominantly cow's
170 milk preparations) in infancy had lower lumbar spine BMD measurements than those who were
171 breast milk fed, indicating that breastmilk is positively associated with lumbar spine BMD in males in
172 later life. This is a novel finding, as to our knowledge, this is the first paper to examine the
173 relationship between infant milk feeding and bone health outcomes in older age.

174 There is little previous literature examining infant milk feeding and bone health in adulthood and
175 later life, perhaps due to a lack of datasets in which prospective infant milk feeding data were
176 collected in infancy. One study of Finnish adults born in 1975 found that type of infant milk was
177 significantly associated with adult bone health in males aged 32 years, with shorter breastfeeding
178 duration (and therefore greater infant formula exposure) being associated with higher spinal BMC
179 and whole body BMD than prolonged breastfeeding[15]. It is difficult to compare the results of the

180 Finnish study to the results presented in this paper, as the two studies utilized different infant
181 feeding measures. The Finnish study examined the relationship between infant feeding and adult
182 bone health by investigating duration of breastfeeding and the use of commercial infant formula
183 milk, diluted cow's milk, and commercial cow's milk. The present study examines the differences
184 between those fed breast milk and those fed breast milk alternatives, a majority of which were
185 cow's milk preparations. A major difference between the Finnish study conducted in 1975 and the
186 present study utilizing data from the 1930s is the availability and use of commercial infant formula
187 milks.

188 However, while the results of the Finnish cohort study differ from those of the present study, it is
189 important to note that like the present study, it reported significant associations between infant milk
190 feeding and bone health outcomes in males, while finding no effect in females. These differences in
191 bone health outcomes between the sexes echo a report from the Newcastle Thousand Families
192 Cohort Study, which found that indicators of early life health (including birth weight, breastfeeding
193 duration, age at menarche, and childhood growth) explained more variation in adult BMD for males
194 than for females[14]. Bone health in females may be more influenced by hormonal and
195 postmenopausal lifestyle indicators such as diet[24] than by early life factors.

196 Other studies, exploring bone health in children and adolescents, have reported positive, negative,
197 and no relationship between breastfeeding and BMD. Breastfeeding was associated with higher
198 spinal, femoral, and total body BMD at both 8 years of age and 16 years of age in a Tasmanian birth
199 cohort[17, 18] and with higher total body BMD in children at 6 years old in the Generation R Study in
200 the Netherlands[16]. Research also indicates that there may be a positive relationship between
201 breastfeeding and fracture prevention in children[18]. Future studies are needed to determine
202 whether breastfeeding is associated with reductions in osteoporotic fractures in older age[18].

203 Conversely, infant milk feeding was not associated with bone health at 4 years of age for children
204 participating in the Southampton Women's Survey[25], and infants and children who were breastfed
205 had lower BMD z-scores than those who were not breastfed in a study conducted in Ohio, USA[26].
206 This lack of consensus in the literature is reflected in a systematic review conducted in 2014, which
207 determined that the direction of association between infant milk feeding and bone mass varies
208 according to the age of study participants and the cohort analysed[27].

209 Given the equivocal results of previous studies, further study of the association between breast milk
210 and infant formula milk and bone health across the lifecourse is an avenue for future research.
211 Specifically, analyses using data collected from older cohorts fed more modern formula milks during

212 infancy would help determine how contemporary infant milk feeding practice is associated with
213 bone health in later life.

214 The biggest limitation of this study in informing contemporary feeding practice is that the breast
215 milk substitutes utilized in the 1930s are not comparable to the formula milks used to feed infants
216 today, as the composition of infant formula has changed over time. According to a history of
217 parenting in Hertfordshire in the 1920s and 1930s, the majority of parents utilizing bottles at the
218 time used cow's milk or condensed or dried milk preparations, which would not be the case
219 today[23, 28] (although cow's milk preparations were still in use in Finland in 1975, as per the study
220 discussed above). However, the aim of this study was to compare the influence of breast milk
221 feeding to that of any cow's milk alternative to breastfeeding, and the information contained in the
222 HCS allowed this comparison. Further research into the influence of modern formula milks on bone
223 health in older age is needed.

224 The significant associations between infant milk feeding and lumbar spine BMD in males indicate
225 that breastmilk may be protective for the bone health of male babies as they age. The evidence
226 presented here underscores the potential lifelong benefits of breastfeeding and highlights the
227 differences between osteoporotic risk factors for males and females.

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