Assessment of intestinal microbiota of full-term breast-fed infants from two different geographical locations

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The intestinal microbiota in the breast-fed infant is considered as ideally healthy. We assessed the microbiota of breast-fed full-term neonates from two different Spanish locations. Statistically significant geographical differences for different bacterial groups were found, underlining the need to consider and define geographical-related effects on microbiota.

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Microbial colonization of the gut provides an essential stimulus for normal intestinal development and maturation of the immune system, contributing to the establishment of a proper intestinal homeostasis and mucosal barrier function [1]. Thus, early establishment of a healthy microbiota provides the homeostasis and mucosal barrier function [1]. Thus, early establishment of a healthy microbiota provides the homeostasis and mucosal barrier function [1]. Thus, early establishment of a healthy microbiota provides the homeostasis and mucosal barrier function [1].

The intestinal microbiota in the breast-fed infant is considered as ideally healthy. We assessed the microbiota of breast-fed full-term neonates from two different Spanish locations. Statistically significant geographical differences for different bacterial groups were found, underlining the need to consider and define geographical-related effects on microbiota.

However, although the influence of feeding habits, i.e. breast vs. formula-fed, and mode of delivery have been extensively studied on the so defined “healthy infant microbiota”, the effect of other factors such as geographical origin have been addressed in a limited number of studies [6].

The aim of this study was to assess the intestinal microbiota of exclusively breast-fed neonates from two different geographical Spanish locations.

Forty healthy full-term exclusively breast-fed infants, born either at the Neonatology Unit of Cabueñes Hospital from Asturias (20 infants; 11 males/9 females) or at the Neonatology Unit of the University Hospital Virgen de la Arrixaca from Murcia (20 infants; 12 males/8 females), after an uncomplicated pregnancy were recruited. Infants were vaginally delivered, at a gestational age of 39.2 weeks (95% CI: 38.6–39.7) for Asturian infants and 39.1 (95% CI: 38.5–39.7) weeks for those from Murcia. Birth weights ranged between 3238 and 3586 g (95% CI) in Asturias and between 3090 and 3411 g (95% CI) in infants from Murcia. Microbiota of fecal samples collected at 8, 30 and 90 days of life were compared to ascertain the possible effect of geographical origin of samples. Fecal samples were immediately cooled to 4 °C after collection, delivered to the laboratory within 4 h, and frozen at −75 °C directly on receipt until analysis. None of the mothers or babies received antibiotic therapy during the sampling period. The study was approved by the Regional Committees on Clinical Research from Asturias and Murcia regions. All parents gave written informed consent to participate in the study.
Fecal DNA, as well as DNA from bacterial cultures used for calibration curves, was extracted as previously described [7] by using the QIAamp DNA stool mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Quantification of the different bacterial populations in feces was performed by quantitative PCR using primers shown in Table 1. All reactions were performed in a 7500 Fast Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) using the SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). 1 μL (−5 ng) of template fecal DNA and 0.2 μM of each primer were used in the 25 μL PCR reaction. Thermal cycling consisted of an initial cycle of 95 °C 10 min followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C 15 s and 1 min at the appropriate temperature (Table 1). In the negative samples the value of the detection limits obtained for the corresponding primer pair was assigned. Standard curves were made with pure cultures of appropriate strains (Table 1) which were grown overnight in GAM medium (Nissui Pharmaceutical Co, Tokio, Japan) under anaerobic conditions. Samples were analyzed by duplicate in at least two independent PCR runs.

No differences in background parameters (birth weight and gestational age) were observed between both study groups. A high inter-individual variability was observed on the levels of the different microbial groups. However, despite this variability our results showed statistically significant (U-test; p < 0.05) higher levels of Bacteroides (8.30 ± 1.90 vs. 6.90 ± 1.86 Log no. cells g−1) and Staphylococcus (6.64 ± 1.08 vs. 5.62 ± 1.01) at 8 days of age and lower of Enterobacteriaceae (9.17 ± 0.84 vs. 9.90 ± 0.65) at 90 days of life in infants from Murcia than in those from Asturias (Fig. 1). Similar levels of Enterococcaceae, Clostridia XIVa and IV groups, Atopobium, Bifidobacterium and Lactobacillus were found between both groups (Table 1). When all the sampling points were taken together, a trend (p = 0.08) to lower counts of lactobacilli and higher of Clostridium coccoides (Asturias 0.319; Murcia 0.409, p < 0.05) were observed in Asturian infants (64 vs. 25% of infants at 8 days, 77 vs. 55% at 30 days and 92 vs. 65% at 3 months of age; Fisher’s exact test, p < 0.05) while no statistically significant differences were obtained in the occurrences of the other microbial groups tested.

In both populations a significant negative correlation was observed between the levels of Bacteriodes and those of Enterococcaceae (Pearson’s correlation coefficients, −0.208 and −0.268 for Asturias and Murcia infants, respectively, p < 0.05 for both cases) while Bacteriodes levels correlate positively with those of *C. leptum* (Asturias 0.319; Murcia 0.409, p < 0.05 for both cases). Similarly significant positive correlations (p < 0.05) were observed in both groups of infants between levels of Enterococcaceae and Enterobacteriaceae (0.473 and 0.276 for Asturias and Murcia, respectively), between *C. leptum* and *C. coccoides* groups (Asturias 0.234; Murcia 0.360) and between bifidobacterial levels and those of lactobacilli (0.368 and 0.258) or *Atopobium* (0.412 and 0.213 for Asturias and Murcia, respectively). Interestingly, a very significant positive correlation between *Bacteroides* and *Atopobium* was observed in Asturian infants (0.662, p < 0.05) but not in those from Murcia, while the contrary happened between *Atopobium* and *C. coccoides* (0.467, p < 0.05 in infants from Murcia).

When analyzing samples from healthy children and adults, Lay and coworkers [8] did not find any geographical differences on microbiota composition. Contrary to this, when assessing the microbiota of adults and elderly from four European countries, quantitative country-specific differences were reported [9]. Moreover, a recent study [6] indicated differences on the gut microbiota composition of 6-weeks-old babies from five European countries. Interestingly, the study by Fallani and co-workers [6] observed, among others, higher levels of *Bacteroides* in 6-week-old infants from Granada (southern Spain) than in those from other more septentrional European locations. Similarly, in our study exclusively breast-fed, full-term, vaginally delivered infants from Murcia (southern Spain) presented higher levels of Bacteroides than those from Asturias (northern Spain), indicating that this characteristic may be specific from the south of Spain.

In spite of the high inter-individual variability our results evidenced some statistically significant differences between two cohorts of exclusively breast-fed full-term healthy Spanish neonates born in two different locations (~1000 km far from each other), one in the northern Atlantic coast and the other in the south-east Mediterranean coast. All the infants were born at two hospitals of the Public Health System, where facilities and procedures are expected to be similar and therefore the two groups under study are likely to be quite homogeneous. Therefore, it is not surprising that the observed differences were limited to certain microbial populations while most of them showed a high similarity between both infant groups. In agreement with this, the correlations among the levels of the different bacteria analyzed seem to be very consistent between both infant groups, although some specific correlations were observed to be different between them. This indicates that not only minor differences in composition are present between both infant groups, but also some interactions among the intestinal microorganisms present may differ depending on the geographical origin.

Despite the differences observed in their microbiota, our two individual cohorts represent healthy breast-fed infants. Our study does not allow establishing firm conclusions about the factors explaining these microbiota differences, both locations are similar in

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**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Microbial target</th>
<th>Strain used for standard curve</th>
<th>Primer sequence 5’-3’</th>
<th>Tm (°C)</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Atopobium group</strong></td>
<td>Collinella intestinalis DSM213280</td>
<td>F: GGGTCGAGACAGCCAGCA CCGTGCTCTCTGAACTGCA [15] 55</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atopobium-Collinsella</td>
<td>R: GTGACCTGCTTTAGTATGCTGCA [15] 60</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Bacteroides group</strong></td>
<td>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron DSM2079</td>
<td>F: AACAGACGAGTCCCGCACAC [16] 60 D. C.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bacteroides-Prevotella-Parvimonas</td>
<td>R: CAGGACTGCGCCTGTCGAC [17] 60</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bifidobacterium</strong></td>
<td>Bifidobacterium longum LCNMBB809</td>
<td>F: CATCTGCGTCGAGCTGATGACG [5] 60</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clostridia XIVa group</strong></td>
<td>Clostridium cocoides DSM2935</td>
<td>R: CGGTACCTAGTAAAGAACG [18] 55</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>C. coccoides-E. rectale group</strong></td>
<td>Clostridium leptum DSM2753</td>
<td>F: TTACACAACTTATGATTCCACTCGG [17] 60</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Enterobacteriaceae</td>
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<td><strong>Enterococcales</strong></td>
<td>Enterococcus faecalis IPLA1/F3</td>
<td>TCGACAATTCGTGTTTGCAG [19] 60</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Lactobacillus acidophilus</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Staphylococcus</strong></td>
<td>Staphylococcus epidermidis IPLA1/F1/6</td>
<td>CATGGAGTTCCACTGTCCTC This study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staphylococcus aureus</td>
<td>F: AAGCCTTGCATTGCTTATA [19] 60</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staphylococcus warneri</td>
<td>R: TACACATGTATGTGCTTAATA [19] 60</td>
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</table>
terms of number of inhabitants and per capita income, but dietary habits are known to differ between them which is likely to have an influence. Our findings underline the difficulty of defining the healthy intestinal microbiota and suggest that factors related to geographical origin or dietary background, likely through modulation of breast-milk composition [10], should be also taken into consideration. To this regard, a healthy intestinal microbiota could be defined as the intestinal microbial community that assist the host to maintain a healthy status under certain environmental conditions. This emphasizes that under specific environmental conditions the intestinal microbiota may contribute to health but the same composition under different conditions may lead to disease as suggested by the role that intestinal microbiota seems to play in obesity [11].

Although small, geographical or dietary differences in gut microbiota as those reported here may also have a deep impact on probiotics research. Interestingly, pioneer studies carried out in Finland demonstrated that atopic diseases can be prevented by administration of probiotics [12]. However, a study carried out in Germany following the same design and using the same probiotic strain found no effect [13]. Unfortunately background microbiotas were not compared. If, similarly to our infants, differences in background microbiota exist, they are likely to modify the effect of probiotics on microbiota composition, which may affect the clinical outcome of probiotic/prebiotic intervention studies.

It has been previously indicated that a careful characterization of the intestinal microbiota in the target population should constitute the basis for probiotic and prebiotic uses [14]. Our results stress this observation and underline the need to define the microbial core of the healthy infant microbiota taking into account the possible differences due to geographical origin.

Conflict of interest statement

All authors disclose any conflict of interest.

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References


Fig. 1. Bacterial levels, at the different sampling times, determined by qPCR in feces of breast-fed infants from two Spanish locations (about 1000 km apart from each other): Asturias (black diamonds) or Murcia (open squares). Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences between both groups at the corresponding sampling time (p<0.05).