

## Low Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> Status Associated with Slow Growth in Healthy Breast-Fed Infants

KAARINA HEISKANEN, MARTTI A. SIIMES, LEENA SALMENPERÄ, AND  
JAAKKO PERHEENTUPA

*Children's Hospital, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland*

### ABSTRACT

To evaluate the effect of vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status on infant growth, we studied longitudinally anthropometry and the erythrocyte parameters that reflect long-term vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status [erythrocyte pyridoxal 5'-phosphate concentration (EPLP), erythrocyte aspartate transaminase basal activity (EAST<sub>o</sub>), and its activation coefficient ( $\alpha$ EAST)] in 44 infants. The infants were exclusively breast-fed for 6 mo, given additional solids according a uniform schedule from 6–9 mo, and formula after 9 mo, if needed. In seven of these infants, a low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (EPLP < 10th, and EAST<sub>o</sub> > 10th or  $\alpha$ EAST > 90th percentile for these values in reference infants) was observed between 4 and 6 mo of age. These seven infants showed slower length velocity ( $0.30 \pm 0.05$  versus  $0.40 \pm 0.02$  mm/d,  $p \leq 0.02$ ) and deeper fall in length-for-age ( $-0.69 \pm 0.20$  versus  $-0.25 \pm 0.07$  SD score,  $p \leq 0.03$ ) from 6 to 9 mo of age than the similarly fed infants with higher vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status. Preceding vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status remained a significant explanatory factor for length velocity and change in length-for-age in addition to preceding and concomitant weight velocity, when sex, birth size, preceding length gain, and mid-parent height were taken into account. Change in weight-for-age alone explained 16% and 18% and, together with vitamin B<sub>6</sub>

status, 23 and 27% of the variation in length velocity and in change in length-for-age, respectively. Thus, in healthy breast-fed infants, according to our results, low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status is associated with reversibly reduced gain in length. (*Pediatr Res* 38: 740–746, 1995)

### Abbreviations

**PPLP**, plasma pyridoxal 5'-phosphate concentration  
**EPLP**, erythrocyte pyridoxal 5'-phosphate concentration  
**EAST**, erythrocyte aspartate aminotransferase (EC 2.6.1.1)  
**EAST<sub>o</sub>**, EAST basal activity  
**EAST<sub>+</sub>**, EAST stimulated activity  
 **$\alpha$ EAST**, EAST activation coefficient = EAST<sub>+</sub>:EAST<sub>o</sub>  
**PN-HCl**, pyridoxine hydrochloride  
**adeB<sub>6</sub> infants**, infants with adequate vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status during breast feeding  
**lowB<sub>6</sub> infants**, infants with low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status during breast feeding  
**SDS**, SD score

Infant growth patterns are influenced by feeding practice (1–5) in addition to sex, birth size (6), and genetic background (7). After the first 2 mo, breast-fed infants grow slower than formula-fed infants even in well-nourished populations (1–5). It has been discussed whether this growth pattern is physiologic or reflects inadequacies of breast milk. Differences in milk volume (8), and intake of energy, protein (9, 10), and dietary nutrients like iron and zinc that covary with protein (11, 12), have been suggested to explain the difference in growth between breast- and formula-fed infants.

In animals, vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency leads to slowing of weight gain (13, 14), which can be restored by pyridoxine administration (14, 15). The higher the protein intake, the earlier and the greater the growth retardation (15, 16). In human infants,

some investigators have also found an association between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status and growth (17, 18). Snyderman et al observed failure to gain weight in infants on diet devoid of vitamin B<sub>6</sub> (17). In a study by Kang-Yoon et al the breast-fed infants with considerable maternal and/or infant vitamin B<sub>6</sub> supplementation showed greater increase in weight and length Z scores than the infants whose mothers were less supplemented (18). In addition, infant vitamin B<sub>6</sub> intake and plasma pyridoxal 5'-phosphate concentration predicted weight gain during the first month of life (18).

Erythrocyte vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters, including EPLP, EAST<sub>o</sub>, and its activation coefficient  $\alpha$ EAST, reflect long-term vitamin status. We have reported strikingly higher vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status in formula-fed than in exclusively breast-fed infants during the first 6 mo of life (19). Of formula-fed infants, 50–96% had values for the long-term vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters above the 95th percentile for these values in breast-fed infants (19). In addition, we have found that the infant's risk of low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status increases after 6 mo of exclusive breast

Received October 27, 1994; accepted May 11, 1995.

Correspondence: Kaarina Heiskanen, M.D., Children's Hospital, University of Helsinki, FIN-00290 Helsinki, Finland.

Supported by the Foundation for Pediatric Research, Helsinki.

feeding (Heiskanen K, Siimes MA, Perheentupa J, Salmenperä L, unpublished data).

To follow possible associations between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status and growth in breast-fed infants fed according to the current WHO feeding recommendations, we used anthropometry and erythrocyte parameters which reflect long-term vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status.

## METHODS

**Subjects.** We followed the growth and nutritional status of 198 infants from birth to 12 mo of age. They were healthy full-term (37–42 gestation wk) singletons with uncomplicated delivery after normal pregnancy, birth weights appropriate for gestational age, and Apgar scores  $\geq 8$  at 1 min. Of these infants, the 44 included in this study (20 boys and 24 girls) were exclusively breast-fed for 6 mo, given additional solids according a uniform schedule from 6–9 mo, and formula after 9 mo, if needed. At 12 mo, all the infants were still partly breast-fed; 20 of them were breast-fed and given additional solids, 24 of them were breast-fed and given additional formula and solids.

**Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> supplementation.** At delivery, 30 of the 44 mothers reported that they had taken vitamin B<sub>6</sub> supplementation during pregnancy. The median dose of pyridoxine hydrochloride (PN·HCl) supplement had been 2.5 mg/d (= PN 2.0 mg/d); one mother had taken 12.5 mg/d, one mother 4.0 mg/d, and the others 2.0–2.5 mg/d PN·HCl (= PN 10.0 mg, 3.2 mg, and 1.6–2.0 mg, respectively). Five days after delivery all the mothers started a daily PN·HCl supplement of 1.0 mg (= PN 0.8 mg/d). The infants received vitamin A and D supplementation, but no vitamin B<sub>6</sub> supplement.

**Measurements.** Birth length and weight were measured by the nurses of the maternity unit. All the infants were examined and measured at 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.5, 9, and 12 mo by one of the authors (L.S.). Naked weight was measured to the nearest 5 g on an infant scale. Length to the nearest millimeter with the child lying on a board with fixed headpiece and a movable footpiece.

The most recent Finnish standards were used for determining length-for-age in SDS and weight-for-age in percent of median weight for age and sex. The growth velocities for 2–3-mo age intervals were calculated by dividing the increments (mm or g) by the actual time interval (d). The midparent height (SDS) was calculated.

**Blood samples.** Venous blood samples were taken at 2, 4, 6, 9, and 12 mo of age. For the determinations of vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters, samples of 4 mL were collected into tubes lined with sodium heparin (Becton Dickinson Vacutainer, Plymouth, UK) and centrifuged immediately at  $770 \times g$  for 5 min at room temperature; the cells were transferred to a sterile brown glass septum ampule containing 0.75 mL of amino acid-citric acid-dextrose solution as stabilizer. The samples, kept at 4–6°C, were transported daily by air to the Department of Clinical Nutrition, Roche Holding Ltd., Basle, Switzerland, for determinations of EPLP and the EAST stimulation test.

**Protein status.** Total serum protein was determined by the biuret reaction, and prealbumin and transferrin by immunoturbidimetry.

**Assay of EPLP.** The EPLP assay was a modified version (20) of the method of Reinken (21), based on decarboxylation of <sup>14</sup>C-L-tyrosine by reconstituted tyrosine decarboxylase after trichloroacetic acid precipitation of protein from the erythrocyte suspension. The results are expressed as nmol/L of pure erythrocytes at a calculated hematocrit of 100%. In vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency EPLP, the active metabolite of vitamin B<sub>6</sub>, is decreased.

**EAST stimulation test.** Transamination of aspartic acid to 2-oxoglutarate was monitored with (EAST<sub>+</sub>) and without (EAST<sub>0</sub>) excess PLP, according to a modification (20) of the method of Stanulovic *et al.* (22). Results are given as  $\mu\text{kat/L}$  erythrocytes, where  $\mu\text{kat}$  represents the amount of substrate ( $\mu\text{mol}$ ) transformed per second. The activation coefficient  $\alpha\text{EAST}$  was calculated. In vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency, EAST<sub>0</sub>, in which PLP acts as a coenzyme, is decreased, and  $\alpha\text{EAST}$ , which reflects desaturation of EAST with its coenzyme, is increased.

**Reference values.** As reference population we used infants exclusively breast-fed up to 6 mo of age by mothers with an adequate vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status, given solids in addition from 6 mo of age, and weaned to cow milk via formula after 9 mo of age (23). We used the 10th percentile of the EPLP and EAST<sub>0</sub> values as cutoff points for low values, and the 90th percentile of the  $\alpha\text{EAST}$  values as cutoff point for high values (23). Coincidence of at least two values beyond the cutoffs (Table 1) of the three was taken to indicate low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (23). As a result, we detected of the reference infants those with their vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status in the lowest 5–9% at each age (2, 4, 6, 9, and 12 mo) (23).

**Infants with low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status in the present study.** A low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status was observed between 4 and 6 mo of age in seven (lowB<sub>6</sub>; in the lowest decile for vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status, determined with EPLP and EAST stimulation test, in breast-fed reference infants) of the 44 infants; in three of them (7%) at 4 mo and in four (9%) at 6 mo of exclusive breast feeding (Table 1). Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status of these infants was adequate at 9 and 12 mo. The group characteristics for the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants and for those who had adequate vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (adeB<sub>6</sub>; above the lowest decile for vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status, determined with EPLP and EAST stimulation test, in breast-fed reference infants) are given in Table 2. Mean length and mean length-for-age at each age were similar for the lowB<sub>6</sub> and adeB<sub>6</sub> infants.

**Statistical analysis.** The data were analyzed with Statview 512+ from MacIntosh (Brainpower, Calabasas, CA). We used analysis of variance for repeated measurements, the nonparametric Friedman two-way analysis of variance for repeated measurements for longitudinal evaluation of growth parameters, and *t* test and the Mann-Whitney *U* test to identify group differences in growth. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated from regression analyses of these growth and vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status parameters to analyze their relations. Multiple-linear-regression analyses were performed to examine relationship between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (included as a category factor = low or adequate during exclusive breast feeding) and sub-

**Table 1.** EPLP, EAST<sub>o</sub>, and αEAST and longitudinal growth in lowB<sub>6</sub> infants during exclusive breast feeding

LowB <sub>6</sub> infants	Sex		Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status					Length velocity (mm/d)					Length-for-age (SDS)							Midparent height (SDS)			
			2 mo	4 mo	6 mo	9 mo	12 mo	2–4 mo	4–6 mo	6–9 mo	9–12 mo	0 mo	1 mo	2 mo	3 mo	4 mo	5 mo	6 mo	7.5 mo		9 mo	12 mo	
1	M	EPLP (nmol/L)	40.5*	60.7	36.4*	62.7	65.8																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	10.2	17.1	9.6*	14.1	15.3	1.08	0.42	0.17	0.73	+0.2	+0.6	+1.0	+1.1	+1.2	+0.5	+0.2	-0.7	-1.0	+0.4	+0.5	
		αEAST	1.75	1.47	1.73*	1.56	1.57																
2	M	EPLP (nmol/L)	38.4*	64.8	41.5*		84.0																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	12.0	16.0	12.4*		16.4	0.81	0.63	0.52	0.43	+0.2	+0.1	+0.5	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4	-0.2	+0.2	
		αEAST	1.73	1.48	1.65		1.59																
3	F	EPLP (nmol/L)	95.1	78.9	42.5*	64.8	58.7																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	16.2	12.8*	12.9*	15.1	15.9	0.66	0.65	0.38	0.48	-0.9	-0.6	-0.5	-0.8	-1.6	-1.0	-1.5	-2.0	-2.0	-1.4	-0.2	
		αEAST	1.69	1.41	1.61	1.56	1.67																
4	M	EPLP (nmol/L)	52.6	72.8	43.5*	64.8	62.7																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	11.8	16.8	11.8*	16.2	16.0	0.78	0.57	0.28	0.39	-0.1	+0.1	+1.0	-0.1	0.0	-0.4	-0.5	-0.9	-1.3	-1.0	+1.1	
		αEAST	1.53	1.50	1.73*	1.55	1.52																
5	M	EPLP (nmol/L)	101.2	71.8	67.8	74.9	58.0																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	14.6	15.8*	15.0	14.7	12.1*	0.82	0.78	0.16	0.51	+1.2	+0.6	+0.5	+0.4	-0.2	-0.3	-0.3	-1.1	-1.5	-1.1	+0.3	
		αEAST	1.43	1.68*	1.63	1.47	1.72																
6	F	EPLP (nmol/L)		59.7*	55.6	62.7	39.5*																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)		13.8*	13.5	15.8	12.9	1.02	0.67	0.19	0.45	+0.4	+1.3	+1.6	+1.2	+1.4	+0.9	+1.1	+0.4	0.0	0.0	+0.2	
		αEAST		1.58*	1.66	1.60	1.63																
7	M	EPLP (nmol/L)		58.7*	54.6	57.7	40.5*																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)		15.8*	13.2	14.8	12.9	0.71	0.61	0.39	0.47	+0.2	+0.6	+0.8	-0.1	-0.5	-0.6	-0.9	-1.1	-1.0	-0.7	+0.2	
		αEAST		1.59	1.67	1.64	1.82																
Cutoffs used		EPLP (nmol/L)	41.5	59.7	51.6	47.8	51.6																
		EAST <sub>o</sub> (μkat/L)	10.1	16.0	13.0	14.1	12.7																
		αEAST	1.76	1.54	1.68	1.64	1.84																

\* EPLP or EAST<sub>o</sub> < the 10th percentile or αEAST > the 90th percentile of the values for respective parameters in the breast-fed reference infants at the same age. Coincidence of such values for at least two of the three parameters detected the reference infants with their vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status in the lowest 5–9%.

**Table 2.** Group characteristics of infants with adequate (adeB<sub>6</sub>) and low (lowB<sub>6</sub>) vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status during breast feeding

	AdeB <sub>6</sub> (n = 37)	LowB <sub>6</sub> (n = 7)
Maternal age (y)	30.1 ± 1.2	31.7 ± 1.8
Parity	1.3 ± 0.1 (1-3)	2.0 ± 0.3 (1-3)**
Sex (females:males)	22:15	2:5
Gestational vitamin B <sub>6</sub> supplement	24/37 (=65%)	6/7 (=85%)
Birth weight (g)	3438 ± 39	3741 ± 78*
Relative birth weight (% of median)	-1.5 ± 1.1	6.3 ± 2.3*
Birth length (cm)	50.1 ± 0.2	50.9 ± 0.5
Relative birth length (SD)	-0.14 ± 0.11	0.17 ± 0.24
Midparent height (SD)	0.14 ± 0.07	0.32 ± 0.16
Age at introduction of formula (d)	272 ± 5	282 ± 12
Age at completion of weaning (d)	353 ± 13	359 ± 21
Low vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 4 mo (n)	0	3
Low vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 6 mo (n)	0	4
Low vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 9-12 mo (n)	0	0

Difference between the groups statistically significant; *t* test, \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ .

sequent longitudinal growth. Potentially confounding factors (sex, size at birth, previous gain in weight and length, and midparent height) were included in the analyses. In the forward stepwise multiple-regression analyses, inclusion/exclusion criteria were partial  $F = 4$  and  $p \leq 0.05$ . The  $\chi^2$  test was used to evaluate the differences in gestational supplementation and sex distribution between the groups. The level of significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$  for all statistical analyses.

## RESULTS

**Growth patterns.** Male and female subjects differed only in mean birth length (50.8 versus 49.8 cm,  $p \leq 0.01$ ), in mean weight velocity from birth to 2 mo (33.0 g/d versus 27.7 g/d;  $p \leq 0.007$ ), and in mean length velocity from birth to 6 mo of age ( $p \leq 0.005$ ), but the difference was not significant when length velocity was compared at 2-3-mo age intervals. Thus, the data for boys and girls were generally combined for analyses. Mean weight- and length-for-age increased from birth to 2 mo, and then decreased gradually until 9 mo (Figs. 1

and 2). Absolute and relative birth weights correlated inversely with weight velocity and with change in weight-for-age, but this correlation weakened with age. Concomitant weight velocity and changes in weight-for-age correlated with length velocity and changes in length-for-age throughout infancy.

**Associations between single vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters and growth.** There was an inverse correlation between birth weight and vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status at 2 mo (EPLP  $r = -0.35$ ,  $p \leq 0.04$ ; EAST<sub>0</sub>  $r = -0.40$ ,  $p \leq 0.02$ ;  $\alpha$ EAST  $r = 0.46$ ,  $p \leq 0.01$ ). The higher the preceding weight velocity and the increase in weight-for-age, the higher the vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status at 2-6 mo ( $r = 0.30-0.52$ ,  $p \leq 0.001-0.05$ ).

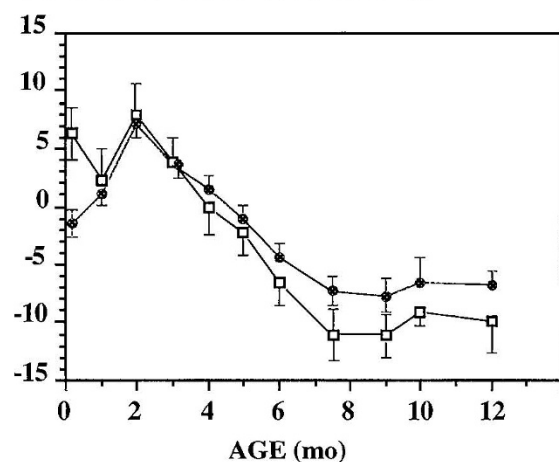
At 4 mo, EPLP correlated positively with length velocity from birth to 6 mo ( $r = 0.43$ ,  $p \leq 0.006$ ). At 6 mo, EPLP correlated positively with length velocity and with change in length-for-age from birth to 9 mo ( $r = 0.31$  to  $0.34$ ,  $p \leq 0.03-0.04$ ), and EAST<sub>0</sub> with length velocity and with change in length-for-age from 6 to 9 mo ( $r = 0.31-0.32$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ).

**Gain in weight and length in infants with adequate and low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status.** From 1 to 12 mo, mean weight and mean weight-for-age did not differ in the lowB<sub>6</sub> and the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants, even though the mean absolute and relative birth weights were higher in the lowB<sub>6</sub> than in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants (mean  $\pm$  SEM 3741  $\pm$  78 g versus 3438  $\pm$  39 g,  $p \leq 0.003$ , and 6.3  $\pm$  2.3% versus -1.5  $\pm$  1.1%,  $p \leq 0.008$ , respectively, Table 2). By 9 mo of age, mean weight-for-age had fallen more in the lowB<sub>6</sub> than in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants ( $p \leq 0.02$ ; Fig. 1). The difference between their weight velocities when determined for 2-3-mo age intervals were not statistically significant (Table 3).

From birth to 6 mo, mean length increments (mm), mean length velocity (Table 3), and changes in length-for-age in the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants did not differ from those in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants.

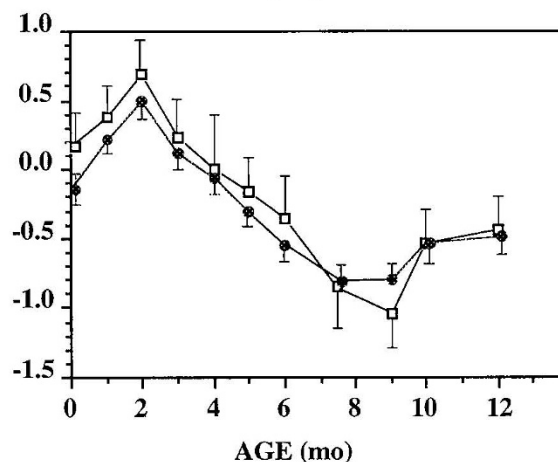
Between 6 and 9 mo the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants grew more slowly than the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants. Mean ( $\pm$ SEM) length increment was smaller (2.7  $\pm$  0.4 versus 3.7  $\pm$  0.2 mm,  $p \leq 0.02$ ), and length velocity was lower (0.30  $\pm$  0.05 versus 0.40  $\pm$  0.02 mm/d,  $p \leq 0.02$ ; Table 3) in the lowB<sub>6</sub> than in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants. Furthermore, mean ( $\pm$ SEM) length-for-age fell more sharply

**WEIGHT-FOR-AGE (% of median)**



**Figure 1.** Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) weight-for-age (% of median) during the first year of life in infants with adequate (●) and with low (□) vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status during breast feeding.

**LENGTH-FOR-AGE (SD)**



**Figure 2.** Mean ( $\pm$  SEM) length-for-age (SDS) during the first year of life in infants with adequate (●) and with low (□) vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status during breast feeding.



**Table 3.** Mean ( $\pm$ SEM) length and weight velocity determined for 2–3-mo age intervals in infants with adequate (adeB<sub>6</sub>) and with low (lowB<sub>6</sub>) vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status

Growth velocity/age interval	AdeB <sub>6</sub> infants	LowB <sub>6</sub> infants
Length velocity (mm/d)		
0–2 mo	1.32 $\pm$ 0.03	1.32 $\pm$ 0.07
2–4 mo	0.86 $\pm$ 0.02	0.84 $\pm$ 0.06
4–6 mo	0.59 $\pm$ 0.02	0.62 $\pm$ 0.04
6–9 mo	0.40 $\pm$ 0.02	0.30 $\pm$ 0.05*
9–12 mo	0.45 $\pm$ 0.02	0.49 $\pm$ 0.04
Weight velocity (g/d)		
0–2 mo	30.6 $\pm$ 1.1	27.8 $\pm$ 2.6
2–4 mo	22.3 $\pm$ 0.8	20.6 $\pm$ 1.9
4–6 mo	15.2 $\pm$ 0.8	14.0 $\pm$ 2.0
6–9 mo	10.1 $\pm$ 0.6	8.9 $\pm$ 0.5
9–12 mo	9.9 $\pm$ 0.4	9.4 $\pm$ 2.2

\* Difference between the groups statistically significant; *t* test,  $p \leq 0.05$ .

in the lowB<sub>6</sub> than in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants ( $-0.69 \pm 0.20$  versus  $-0.25 \pm 0.07$  SDS,  $p \leq 0.03$ ) between 6 and 9 mo (Fig. 2). A decrease in SDS of  $> 1.0$  SD from birth occurred by 6 mo in 30% and by 9 mo in 71% of the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants versus 13 and 30%, respectively, of the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants.

In the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants, mean length velocity was higher between 9 and 12 mo than between 6 and 9 mo ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), but in the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants it was stable between 6 and 12 mo. In all the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants length-for-age increased from 9 to 12 mo. In two of them, length velocity was 3–4-fold higher between 9 and 12 mo than between 6 and 9 mo, and length-for-age increased by 1.4 and 1.5 SD units between 9 and 12 mo of age. Individual data on longitudinal growth of the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants is shown in Table 1.

**Longitudinal growth in infants with low and adequate vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status.** Length velocity and change in length-for-age between 6 and 9 mo correlated positively with preceding and concomitant weight velocity (4–9 mo), change in weight-for-age (4–9 mo;  $r = 0.41$ – $0.45$ ,  $p \leq 0.003$ – $0.05$ ), and preceding vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (determined at each age concomitantly with EPLP and EAST stimulation test, and used as a category factor; adequate or low at 4–6 mo; Spearman  $r = 0.28$ – $0.31$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ – $0.07$ ). In addition, change in length-for-age (6–9 mo) correlated inversely with absolute and relative

birth weights ( $r = -0.31$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ) and with difference between length-for-age (6 mo) and midparent height ( $r = -0.33$ ,  $p \leq 0.03$ ).

Of the analyzed factors, length gain correlated best with weight gain, and better with change in weight-for-age than with weight velocity. Further, the change in weight-for-age during the age period 4–9 mo had a higher correlation with longitudinal growth between 6 and 9 mo than changes in weight-for-age during any other age periods. Therefore, change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo (partly reflecting total energy and protein intake) was included in the multiple regression analyses for length velocity (6–9 mo) and for change in length-for-age (6–9 mo), as well as preceding vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (adequate or low at 4–6 mo) as explanatory factors. As possible confounding factors, sex, relative birth weight (observed difference between the adeB<sub>6</sub> and the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants), and difference between length-for-age at 6 mo and midparent height (reflecting preceding longitudinal growth and possible tendency to grow toward midparent height) were also included in the analyses. The strongest explanatory factor for length velocity and for change in length-for-age between 6 and 9 mo was change in weight-for-age (4–9 mo). The association between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status (4–6 mo) and length velocity or length-for-age (6–9 mo) could not be explained by variation in the other variables included in the analyses. In the forward stepwise multiple regression analyses, change in weight-for-age explained 16 and 18%, and its combination with preceding vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status 23 and 27%, of the variation in length velocity and in change in length-for-age, respectively (Tables 4 and 5).

**Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status and longitudinal growth in pairs matched for birth weight.** To exclude the possibility that our results were affected by the difference in birth weight between the lowB<sub>6</sub> and the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants, we selected for each of the seven lowB<sub>6</sub> infants pairs matched for sex and birth weight from among the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants. The lowB<sub>6</sub> infants had a lower length velocity ( $0.30 \pm 0.05$  versus  $0.41 \pm 0.16$  mm/d; one-tailed *t* test,  $p \leq 0.06$ ) and a deeper fall in length-for-age from 6 to 9 mo of age ( $-0.69 \pm 0.20$  versus  $-0.25 \pm 0.16$  SDS; one-tailed *t* test,  $p \leq 0.06$ ) than their matched adeB<sub>6</sub> infant pairs.

**Table 4.** Multiple linear regression analysis for different variables explaining length velocity between 6 and 9 mo of age

Explanatory variable	Regression coefficient ( $\pm$ SEM)	Partial <i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Response variable: length velocity between 6 and 9 mo (mm/d)			
Multiple linear regression analysis: $R = 0.57$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.23$ , $p \leq 0.01$			
Sex	0.04 $\pm$ 0.03	1.92	0.18
Relative birth weight (% of median)	0.002 $\pm$ 0.002	0.47	0.50
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 4–6 mo (low/adequate)	0.11 $\pm$ 0.04	6.44	0.02*
Difference between midparental height and length-for-age at 6 mo	-0.02 $\pm$ 0.02	1.28	0.27
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.009 $\pm$ 0.003	6.46	0.02*
Forward stepwise multiple regression analysis (inclusion criteria: $F = 4.0$ , $p \leq 0.05$ )			
Step 1 ( $R = 0.42$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.16$ )			
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.010 $\pm$ 0.003	8.91	0.003*
Step 2 ( $R = 0.52$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.23$ , $p \leq 0.002$ )			
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.009 $\pm$ 0.003	7.62	0.01**
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 4–6 mo (low/adequate)	0.09 $\pm$ 0.04	4.84	0.03*

Significant explanatory factor; \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ .

**Table 5.** Multiple linear regression analysis of different variables explaining change in length-for-age between 6 and 9 mo of age

Explanatory variable	Regression coefficient (± SEM)	Partial F	p
Response variable: change in length-for-age between 6 and 9 mo (SD)			
Multiple linear regression analysis: $R = 0.59$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.27$ , $p \leq 0.005$			
Sex	0.16 ± 0.14	1.46	0.23
Relative birth weight (% of median)	-0.001 ± 0.01	0.02	0.89
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 4–6 mo (low/adequate)	0.41 ± 0.19	4.42	0.04*
Difference between midparental height and length-for-age at 6 mo (SD)	-0.15 ± 0.09	2.63	0.11
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.04 ± 0.02	5.86	0.02*
Forward stepwise multiple regression analysis (inclusion criteria: partial $F = 4.0$ , $p \leq 0.05$ )			
Step 1 ( $R = 0.45$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.18$ )			
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.047 ± 0.015	10.32	0.003**
Step 2 ( $R = 0.53$ , adjusted $R^2 = 0.24$ , $p \leq 0.002$ )			
Change in weight-for-age from 4 to 9 mo	0.043 ± 0.014	8.96	0.005**
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub> status at 4–6 mo (low/adequate)	0.36 ± 0.18	4.14	0.05*

Significant explanatory factor; \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ .

**Protein status in infants with low and adequate vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status.** The lowB<sub>6</sub> and the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants did not differ in plasma protein, prealbumin, or transferrin concentrations at 4 mo ( $60 \pm 2$  versus  $60 \pm 1$  g/L,  $182 \pm 19$  versus  $175 \pm 6$  mg/L, and  $2.5 \pm 0.2$  versus  $2.5 \pm 0.1$  mg/L, respectively), at 6 mo ( $63 \pm 1$  versus  $62 \pm 1$  g/L,  $173 \pm 20$  versus  $167 \pm 4$  mg/L, and  $2.6 \pm 0.2$  versus  $2.6 \pm 0.1$  mg/L, respectively), or at 9 mo ( $63 \pm 1$  versus  $62 \pm 1$  g/L,  $201 \pm 2$  versus  $197 \pm 10$  mg/L, and  $3.0 \pm 0.2$  versus  $2.8 \pm 0.1$  mg/L, respectively).

## DISCUSSION

**General growth pattern.** For this study, we selected a group of infants standardized for type of feed to minimize the intra-group variation in the intake of nutrients. Their feeding pattern was in accord with the current recommendations by WHO and, as a group, these infants grew as expected for breast-fed infants (3, 4). During exclusive breast feeding their weight-for-age percentiles fell, and the fall continued well after the introduction of solid foods. Maximal length-for-age was attained by 2 mo, as in the DARLING study infants, and the SDS then fell for longer and deeper, possibly because solid foods were introduced later than in the DARLING study. Weight velocity and length velocity calculated for 2–3-mo age intervals were similar to those observed in breast-fed infants (5, 9).

**Slower growth rate in infants with low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status.** A new observation is that, in breast-fed infants, a low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status is associated with subsequently slowed length velocity and a deeper fall in length-for-age. This is in accord with the earlier described correlation between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> intake and length gain in breast-fed neonates (18).

Weight gain has been observed to correlate with vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status both in animal experiments and in human neonates (14, 18). In our study, the breast-fed infants with a low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status had a poorer weight gain than those with an adequate status. This difference became evident even during the first 4 mo and in all probability was mostly due to the difference in mean birth weight between the groups. On the other hand, there was a constant positive correlation between parameters reflecting long-term vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status and preceding weight gain. The association reflects most probably the amount and quality of breast milk (24).

Because there are no studies about metabolic or hormonal effects of vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency in human infants, we can only speculate on the mechanisms underlying the association between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> and infant growth. Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> acts as a coenzyme in protein, carbohydrate, and fat metabolism. The higher the protein intake, the higher the requirement for vitamin B<sub>6</sub> or the earlier the signs of the vitamin deficiency. Thus, low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status could lead in ineffective utilization of dietary proteins for growth. In animal studies, vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency has also been shown to produce alterations in action of hormones, including insulin, and thyroid hormone (25).

The possible effects of low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status on utilization of dietary proteins and on the hormonal balance could partly explain poorer growth of our lowB<sub>6</sub> infants, and be involved in causing the difference in growth pattern between breast- and formula-fed infants and, especially, the growth faltering of some breast-fed infants (26).

**Reversible threshold phenomenon not resulting in stunting.** Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> does not seem to be a growth factor. The association between longitudinal growth and individual vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters appeared only during the period in which low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status was observed, and reduced length velocity was later observed in those infants in whom at least two of the three vitamin B<sub>6</sub> parameters were beyond the used cutoffs. This suggests that longitudinal growth is affected by vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status only beneath a certain threshold level and after a delay. In animal and human studies, vitamin B<sub>6</sub> deficiency has been shown to result in decreased weight gain only after a delay (14, 17) which is the shorter, the higher the dietary protein intake (14). Our infants with a low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status between 4 and 6 mo also had a low protein intake due to exclusive breast feeding. When additional solid foods were introduced and protein intake thus gradually increased, their longitudinal growth slowed down and length-for-age decreased further.

The slowing of growth was reversible and did not result in shorter stature at the end of the first year. After 6 mo of age, the infants received increasing amounts of solids and were weaned via formula to cow milk, presumably resulting in a gradually increasing intake of total energy, protein (8), and vitamin B<sub>6</sub>.

Vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status improved by 9 mo, and thereafter length velocity recovered and length-for-age returned to earlier levels.

**Confounding factors influencing growth.** A fact that complicates evaluation of our findings is the higher mean birth weight of the lowB<sub>6</sub> infants compared with the adeB<sub>6</sub> infants. Extenuating facts are that the negative correlation between birth weight and growth was evident only during the first 2 mo and that from 2 mo of age the groups did not differ in absolute or relative weight. Nor did birth weight correlate with length velocity at any age. Furthermore, in multiple regression analysis, the negative correlation between birth weight and changes in length-for-age between 6 and 9 mo was explained by variation in the other explanatory variables. As expected, the preceding and concomitant change in weight-for-age strongly explained both length velocity and change in length-for-age. In addition, preceding vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status remained a significant explanatory factor for longitudinal growth from 6 to 9 mo of age even though factors earlier reported to influence growth were taken into account, including sex, size at birth, preceding and concomitant weight gain (partly reflecting total energy and protein intake), and inherited growth pattern. Furthermore, similar plasma prealbumin and transferrin levels of the groups strengthen the view that the growth difference was not due to significantly different protein or energy intake.

To conclude: in healthy breast-fed infants, a low vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status seems to be associated with reversible reduction of length velocity accompanied by decrease in length-for-age. This association and the underlying mechanisms need further investigation.

**Acknowledgments.** The authors thank the Orion Co. Ltd., Remeda Pharmaceuticals, Kuopio, Finland, for the maternal vitamin supplements and Roche Holding Ltd., Basle, Switzerland, for performing the vitamin B<sub>6</sub> analyses.

## REFERENCES

1. Salmenperä L, Perheentupa J, Siimes MA 1985 Exclusively breast-fed infants grow slower than reference infants. *Pediatr Res* 19:307-312
2. Whitehead RG, Paul AA, Cole TJ 1989 Diet and the growth of healthy infants. *J Hum Nutr Diet* 2:73-84
3. Dewey KG, Heining MJ, Nommsen LA, Peerson JM, Lönnerdahl B 1992 Growth of breast-fed and formula-fed infants from 0 to 18 months: the DARLING study. *Pediatrics* 89:1035-1041
4. Dewey KG, Heining MJ, Nommsen LA, Peerson JM, Lönnerdahl B 1993 Breast-fed infants are leaner than formula-fed infants at 1 y of age: the DARLING study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 57:140-145
5. Hitchcock NE, Gracey M, Gilmour AI 1985 The growth of breast fed and artificially fed infants from birth to twelve months. *Acta Paediatr Scand* 74:240-245
6. Jung E, Czaika-Narins DM 1985 Birthweight doubling and tripling times: an update look at the effects of birthweight, sex, race and type of feeding. *Am J Clin Nutr* 42:182-189
7. Underwood BA, Hofvander U 1982 Appropriate timing for complementary feeding of the breast-fed infants. *Acta Paediatr Scand Suppl* 294:1-32
8. Stuff JE, Nichols BL 1989 Nutrient intake and growth performance of older infants fed human milk. *J Pediatr* 115:959-968
9. Heining MJ, Nommsen LA, Peerson JM, Lönnerdahl B, Dewey KG 1993 Energy and protein intakes of breast-fed and formula-fed infants during the first year of life and their association with growth velocity: the DARLING study. *Am J Clin Nutr* 58:152-161
10. Prentice AM, Lucas A, Vasquez-Velasques L, Davies PSW, Whitehead RG 1988 Are current dietary guidelines for young children a prescription for overfeeding? *Lancet* 2:1066-1069
11. Aukett MA, Parks YA, Scott PH, Wharton BA 1986 Treatment with iron increases weight gain and psychomotor development. *Arch Dis Child* 61:849-857
12. Walgravens PA, Chakar A, Mokni R, Denise J, Lemonnier D 1992 Zinc supplements in breast-fed infants. *Lancet* 340:683-685
13. Chang S-J, Kirksey A, Morré DM 1981 Effects of vitamin B-6 deficiency on morphological changes in dendritic trees of Purkinje cells in developing cerebellum of rats. *J Nutr* 111:848-857
14. Bai SC, Sampson DA, Morris JG, Rogers QR 1989 Vitamin B-6 requirement of growing kittens. *J Nutr* 119:1020-1027
15. Miller EC, Baumann CA 1945 Relative effects of casein and tryptophan on the health and xanthurenic acid excretion of pyridoxine-deficient rat. *J Biol Chem* 157:551-562
16. Okada M, Ochi A 1971 The effect of dietary protein level on transaminase activities and fat deposition in vitamin B<sub>6</sub>-depleted rat liver. *J Biochem* 70:581-585
17. Snyderman SE, Holt LE, Carretero R, Jacobs K 1953 Pyridoxine deficiency in the human infant. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1:200-207
18. Kang-Yoon SA, Kirksey A, Giacoia G, West K 1992 Vitamin B-6 status of breast-fed neonates: influence of pyridoxine supplementation on mothers and neonates. *Am J Clin Nutr* 56:548-558
19. Heiskanen K, Salmenperä L, Perheentupa J, Siimes MA 1994 Infant vitamin B<sub>6</sub> status changes with age and with formula feeding. *Am J Clin Nutr* 60:907-910
20. Vuilleumier JP, Keller HE, Rettenmaier R, Hunziker F 1983 Clinical chemical methods for the routine assessment of vitamin status in human populations. Part II: the water-soluble vitamins B<sub>1</sub>, B<sub>2</sub> and B<sub>6</sub>. *Int J Vitam Nutr Res* 53:359-370
21. Reinken L 1972 A microassay of pyridoxal phosphate in serum, based on decarboxylation of 2-tyrosine-1-14-C. *Int J Vitam Nutr Res* 42:476-481
22. Stanulovic M, Miletic D, Stock A 1967 The diagnosis of pyridoxine deficiency based on the estimation of the erythrocyte aspartate aminotransferase and its stimulation *in vitro* with pyridoxal-5-phosphate. *Clin Chim Acta* 17:353-362
23. Heiskanen K, Siimes Ma, Perhentupa J, Salmenperä L 1994 Reference ranges for erythrocyte pyridoxine 5'-phosphate concentration and the erythrocyte aspartate transaminase stimulation test in lactating mothers and their infants. *Am J Clin Nutr* 59:1297-1303
24. Butte NF, Garza C, O'Brian Smith E, Nichols BL 1984 Human milk intake and growth in exclusively breast-fed infants. *J Pediatr* 104:187-195
25. Hsu JM 1963 Interrelations between vitamin B<sub>6</sub> and hormones. *Vitam Horm* 21:113-134
26. Butte NF, Villalpardo S, Wong WW, Flores-Huerta S, Hernandez-Beltran M, O'Brian Smith E, Garza C 1992 Human milk intake and growth faltering of rural Mesoamerican infants. *Am J Clin Nutr* 55:1109-1116