# Mechanisms for the serum lipid-lowering effect of n-3 fatty acids

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Hagve T-A, Christophersen BO. Mechanisms for the serum lipid-lowering effect of n-3 fatty acids. Scand J Clin Lab Invest 1988; 48: 813-816.

Both epidemiological and experimental studies have demonstrated that a high content of n-3 fatty acids in the diet lowers serum lipid concentration. However, the mechanism for this effect is unclear. In this present study it has been shown that labelled linolenic acid (18:3,n-3) is oxidized to a larger extent than linoleic acid (18:2,n-6) in isolated rat hepatocytes. Conversely, the incorporation of linolenic acid and the desaturated/chain-elongated products in VLDLtriacylglycerol is decreased compared with linoleic acid. Dietary n-3 fatty acids have probably a depressing effect on both hepatic triacylglycerol synthesis and on secretion of VLDL. The finding that n-3 fatty acids are transported from the liver as ketone bodies to a larger extent than n-6 fatty acids may thus explain that a high intake of n-3 fatty acids is not accompanied with hepatic steatosis.

Key words: FABP; hepatocytes; n-3 fatty acids; triacylglycerol; VLDL

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During the last 10-15 years it has been well established that dietary n-3 fatty acids have a preventive effect on the development of obstructive coronary heart disease [1-3]. This beneficial effect of n-3 fatty acids is probably due to both an effect on platelet aggregation and on the level of blood lipids. As for the inhibiting effect of n-3 fatty acids on platelet aggregation, it has been proposed that eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5,n-3) is a precursor for thromboxanes and prostacyclines of the 3-series which lower platelet aggregability [4-7]. Dietary n-3 fatty acids, especially eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5,n-3) may also be antithrombotic by competitively inhibiting the enzyme cyclooxogenase, thus depressing the production of thromboxane  $A_2$ , which stimulates platelet aggregation [5, 6].

The understanding of the blood-lipid lowering effect of n-3 fatty acids [8-10] is even more diffuse. The reduction in the concentration of plasma very low density lipoprotein (VLDL)triacylglycerol may either occur from lower rates of synthesis of the triacylglycerol or apo B moieties of VLDL, from lower secretion of VLDL-triacylglycerol, or may result from an increased rate of clearance from the plasma. In light of the first possibility it has been shown by tracer kinetic studies in man that dietary n-3 fatty acids inhibit the formation of VLDLtriacylglycerol [11], LDL [12] and VLDLapolipoproteins [10]. In studies with cultured rat hepatocytes, eicosapentaenoic acid reduced the secretion of VLDL by depressing the of triacylglycerol from labelled synthesis glycerol [13].

It has also been demonstrated in studies with rats that eicosapentaenoic acid, compared with linoleic acid, reduce the activity of the enzyme acetyl-CoA carboxylase, thus reducing the



supply of fatty acids for triacylglycerol synthesis [14].

In several works [15, 16] it has been proposed that n-3 fatty acids accelerate triacylglycerol clearance rates, possibly by increasing lipoprotein lipase activity.

In 1985 Beynen and Katan [17] suggested, as an hypothesis, that replacement of saturated by polyunsaturated fatty acids in the diet may lower VLDL concentration because the liver preferentially converts polyunsaturated fatty acids into ketone bodies instead of into lipoprotein-triacylglycerol.

The working hypothesis of the present work was that n-3 fatty acids are an even better substrate for ketogenesis than other polyunsaturated fatty acids.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

[1-14C]Linoleic acid was from The Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, UK and [1-<sup>14</sup>Cllinolenic acid was from New England Nuclear, Boston, Mass., USA. The specific activity of labelled fatty acid was 7 mCi/mmol. (+)Lactate, essential fatty-acid free bovine serum albumin, N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazin-N-2 ethanesulphonic acid (Hepes), collagenase type 1 and unlabelled fatty acids were from Sigma Chemicals (St. Louis, Mo., USA). Mature male rats of the Wistar strain were from Møllegaard Laboratory (Denmark). In order to increase fatty acid esterification, the animals were fed a semisynthetic diet deficient in essential fatty acids [18] with 15 wt.% hydrogenated coconut oil for at least 60 days.

Parenchymal liver cells were prepared and purified according to Seglen [19]. About 100- $300 \times 10^6$  cells were obtained from each liver, and 90-95% were viable, as measured by resistance to uptake of trypan blue.

Cells were incubated with 200 nmol of <sup>14</sup>C-labelled fatty acid at 37 °C for 120 min in an oxygenated suspension medium [20] with 1.5% (w/v) bovine serum albumine, 5 mmol/l glucose and 10 mmol/l (+) lactate. The concentration of cells in the preparation was approximately  $6 \times 10^6$  cells/ml, and 1 ml of this suspension (in a total volume of 2 ml) was used.

The extraction of lipids from the total incubation suspension and the measurement of radioactive acid soluble products (as a measure of the rate of β-oxidation) and of radioactive CO<sub>2</sub> were performed as described by Christiansen [21].

The lipids were separated on silicic acid thinlayer plates (Stahl H+) (hexane-diethyletherglacial acetic acid, 80:20:1,v/v/v).

Very low density lipoprotein fractions from the incubation medium were separated by centrifugation for 16 h at 4 °C using 115,000 g. The layer of VLDL (d=1.006) floated on top of a separation layer of saline (d=1.006).

The solutions used for lipid extraction and thin-layer chromatography contained 2,6-ditert-butyl-p-cresol (50 mg/l) as an antioxidant and the lipid extracts were stored under nitrogen gas in the dark at -20 °C to prevent peroxidation of unsaturated fatty acids. The cellular protein was determined according to the method of Lowry et al. [22].

#### RESULTS

Figure 1 shows that when [14C]linoleic acid (18:2,n-6) was added to the incubations, significantly more labelled fatty acids were recovered in the VLDL-fraction (20% of total labelled fatty acids) than with [14C]linolenic acid (18:3,n-3) as substrate (8%). Conversely, more linolenic acid was oxidized to acid-soluble products than was linoleic acid.

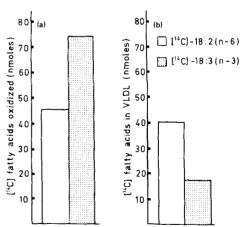


Fig. 1. Oxidation and incorporation into VLDL of labelled fatty acids in hepatocytes incubated with [14C]linoleic acid or [14C]linolenic acid. The incubation conditions were as described in the text. 0.1 mmol/l of labelled fatty acid was incubated with hepatocytes (25.3-27.8 mg protein) for 120 min. The results are expressed as nmol of labelled fatty acids recovered as acid soluble products or in VLDL. Mean of two parallel incubations from three different livers is given.



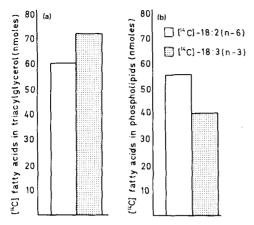


Fig. 2. Esterification of labelled fatty acids in hepatocytes incubated with [14C]linoleic acid or [14C]linolenic acid. The incubation conditions were as described in the text and in the legend to Fig. 1. The results are expressed as mul of labelled fatty acid incorporated in triacylglycerol or phospholipid fractions. Mean of two parallel incubations from three different livers is given.

Linoleic acid and the desaturated/chainelongated products were to a larger extent than linolenic acid incorporated in phospholipids (29% and 20%, respectively) (Fig. 2). In contrast, linolenic acid was under the present conditions a better substrate for triacylglycerol synthesis (Fig. 2).

## DISCUSSION

The present work indicates that n-3 fatty acids are more easily converted to ketone bodies than n-6 fatty acids, with a concomitant decrease in VLDL-triacylglycerol secretion. The finding that linolenic acid (18:3,n-3) is more easily incorporated in cellular triacylglycerol than linoleic acid (18:2,n-6) may suggest that the fatty acid specificity is in secretion of VLDL and not in triacylglycerol synthesis.

In accordance with these results, Bergseth et al. [23] have reported that dietary fish oil accelerates hepatic ketogenesis. Similar results were also found by Wong et al. [24] reporting diminished lipogenesis and increased fatty acid oxidation in perfused livers of fish oil fed rats compared with rats receiving safflower oil. It was suggested by the same authors that fish oil feeding induced the rate of peroxisomal β-oxidation. This is probably not correct since the hypothesis is partly based on earlier works [25,

26] with partially hydrogenated fish oil, which contains no n-3 fatty acids [27]. However, it is striking that peroxisomal proliferation is a characteristic finding in livers from rats fed clofibrate [28], a potent plasma triacylglycerol lowering agent. It is thus interesting that clofibrate, like fish oil, stimulates fatty acid oxidation and ketogenesis in rats [29], thereby decreasing the flux of fatty acids into VLDL-triacylglycerol secretion.

In a recent study Strum Odin et al. [30] have shown that n-3 fatty acids compared with n-6 fatty acids, added to the culture medium of rat hepatocytes, decrease the synthesis of triacylglycerol with a concomitant increase in diacylglycerol formation. This finding is strikingly similar to the previously demonstrated effect of α-bromopalmitate [31] on diacylglycerol/ triacylglycerol metabolism in a system with isolated hepatocytes. α-Bromopalmitate is an efficient inhibitor of the binding of fatty acids or acyl-CoA' to cytosolic fatty acid binding protein [32]. Cytosolic fatty acid binding proteins seem to be involved in the partitioning of fatty acids between the different intracellular metabolic pathways, favouring triacylglycerol synthesis. It is thus tempting to speculate that the serum lipid-lowering effect of n-3 fatty acids is mediated through a competitive inhibition of acyl-CoA binding to fatty acid binding protein, thus depressing triacylglycerol synthesis.

The lipid-lowering effect of n-3 fatty acids probably reflects a depression of hepatic triacylglycerol synthesis and of VLDL secretion, as well as long-term adapted increase in oxidation of long-chain fatty acids. The present study indicates that n-3 fatty acids are oxidized, and transported from the liver as ketone bodies, to a larger extent than n-6 fatty acids. The latter observation may explain that high intake of n-3 fatty acids is not accompanied with hepatic steatosis.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We thank Dr Magny S. Thomassen for valuable comments during the preparation of this manuscript.

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Received 11 November 1988 Accepted 16 June 1988

