

Development and application of methods using oxylipins to examine dietary
omega-3 requirements and phospholipase A₂ activity

by

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Abstract

Oxylipins are bioactive lipid mediators formed from polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) that are released from membrane phospholipids by phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂). Since oxylipins mediate PUFA effects, methods using oxylipins were developed to answer key questions in lipid nutrition and metabolism. First, docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), arachidonic acid (ARA) and their derived oxylipins in serum, liver and kidney of male rats, and male and female mice that received graded doses of α -linolenic acid (ALA) were analyzed by mass spectrometry. DHA/ARA oxylipin and fatty acid ratios were then used to demonstrate that the dietary ALA requirement in growing rodents is 0.55g ALA/100g diet, which is higher than that provided by standard laboratory rodent diets. Second, this new method was applied to serum, liver, heart and brain of weanling male and female rats in response to graded doses of dietary ALA and DHA to elucidate that 0.12g DHA/100g diet is bioequivalent to the ALA requirement of 0.55g ALA/100g diet. Third, use of inhibitors to assess ex vivo PLA₂ activity towards PUFA and oxylipins in rat hearts revealed calcium-independent (i)PLA₂ had activity towards all PUFA and oxylipins analyzed, while secreted (s)PLA₂ had greater specificity towards DHA and its oxylipins. The oxylipin data generated may help explain the failure of sPLA₂ inhibitor drugs for cardiovascular disease. Fourth, application of this new method in weanling male and female rats showed that dietary DHA increased iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity towards DHA and its oxylipins, whereas dietary ALA increased activity towards ALA, ARA and their oxylipins. iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity towards PUFA was higher in females. In contrast, male hearts had higher cyclooxygenase-derived ARA oxylipin formation, which was attenuated by dietary DHA. In conclusion, the dietary ALA requirement in growing rodents was estimated to be 0.55g ALA/100g diet, and DHA was ~5-times more potent than ALA, with a bioequivalence of 0.12g DHA/100g diet.

Further, the findings herein advance the understanding of how different PLA₂ enzymes contribute to diet and sex effects on oxylipins. These findings have implications for potential reformulation of standard rodent diets, and for development of sex-specific dietary omega-3 PUFA guidelines and drugs for cardiovascular health.

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Dedication

To my grandpa Manuel Pedro Marques Neto,

This thesis is for you. You were the basis and the foundation of this work. Without you I would never be where I am today. Your deep love for philosophy lit the path that led me on this journey to becoming a Doctor of Philosophy.

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Contribution of Authors

Anne Manson was the primary author of this thesis. Since this thesis encompasses four multi-authored manuscripts published or submitted for publication, the contributions of the primary author along with each co-author are included below.

Chapter 2: A Method to Estimate the Dietary α -Linolenic Acid Requirement Using Non-esterified DHA and Arachidonic Acid Oxylipins and Fatty Acids

Authors: Anne Manson, Karanbir K. Sidhu, Oleksandra Fedorova, Huy Hoang Khai La, Elizabeth Magaji, Le Kim Long Nguyen, Tanja Winter, Harold M. Aukema

For this manuscript the animal studies were conducted primarily by Karanbir Sidhu and Tanja Winter, with additional help from Oleksandra Fedorova, Huy Hoang Khai La, Elizabeth Magaji and Le Kim Long Nguyen. For oxylipin analysis: Tanja Winter was primarily responsible for the HPLC-MS/MS methodology applied; Anne Manson conducted analysis of mouse serum; Karanbir K. Sidhu conducted analysis of rat liver and serum; Oleksandra Fedorova conducted analysis of rat kidney; Huy Hoang Khai La conducted analysis of mouse liver; Elizabeth Magaji conducted the analysis of mouse kidney; Le Kim Long Nguyen conducted analysis of mouse brain. Oleksandra Fedorova, Huy Hoang Khai La, Elizabeth Magaji, Le Kim Long Nguyen participated in data analysis for the tissues they analyzed. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for data analysis, including statistical coding, and final statistical analysis and interpretation of all data within the study. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for manuscript writing with guidance from Dr. Harold Aukema. Dr. Harold Aukema conceptualized, envisioned and designed the research being conducted.

Chapter 3: Bioequivalence of docosahexaenoic acid intake to the dietary requirement of alpha-linolenic acid in growing rats using non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids

Authors: Anne Manson, Sandrius Mirochnikov, Isabel Delgado Poveda, Hiu Yan Chan, Tanja Winter, Harold M. Aukema

Anne Manson and Dr. Harold Aukema were responsible for conceptualization, envisioning and designing the study. Anne Manson conducted animal studies, with help from Tanja Winter for animal termination. For oxylipin analysis: Tanja Winter was primarily responsible for the HPLC-MS/MS methodology applied; Anne Manson conducted analysis of rat serum and supervised the analysis of all other samples. Isabel Delgado Poveda conducted analysis of liver; Sandrius Mirochnikov conducted analysis of heart; Hiu Yan Chan conducted analysis of brain. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for all data analysis, including statistical coding, and interpretation of all data within the study. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for manuscript writing with guidance from Dr. Harold Aukema.

Chapter 4: Phospholipase A₂ enzymes differently impact PUFA release and oxylipin formation ex vivo in rat hearts

Authors: Anne Manson, Tanja Winter, Harold M. Aukema

Anne Manson and Dr. Harold Aukema were responsible for conceptualization, envisioning and designing the study. Anne Manson helped Tanja Winter during animal termination to collect tissues. For oxylipin analysis: Tanja Winter was primarily responsible for the HPLC-MS/MS methodology applied; Anne Manson conducted all PLA₂ activity analyses

and was primarily responsible for gathering data and decision making in the process of establishing the methodology for PLA₂ activity analysis in the study, with guidance from Dr. Harold Aukema. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for all data analysis, including statistical coding, and interpretation of all data within the study. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for manuscript writing with guidance from Dr. Harold Aukema.

Chapter 5: Sex and dietary ALA and DHA effects on rat heart phospholipase A₂ activity mediating fatty acid release and oxylipin formation have cardiovascular implications

Authors: Anne Manson, Tanja Winter, Harold M. Aukema

Anne Manson and Dr. Harold Aukema were responsible for conceptualization, envisioning and designing the study. Anne Manson conducted animal feeding and helped Tanja Winter during animal termination to collect tissues. For oxylipin analysis: Tanja Winter was primarily responsible for the HPLC-MS/MS methodology applied; Anne Manson conducted all PLA₂ activity analyses. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for all data analysis, including statistical coding, and interpretation of all data within the study. Anne Manson was primarily responsible for manuscript writing with guidance from Dr. Harold Aukema.

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Abbreviations

ADA, adrenic acid; ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α -linolenic acid; BEL, bromoenol lactone; BH, Benjamini-Hochberg; COX, cyclooxygenase; CT, cycle threshold; CYP, cytochrome P450; DGLA, dihomo- γ -linolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH}, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid/hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid oxylipins; DiHDoPE, dihydroxy-docosapentaenoic acid; DiHDoHE, dihydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; DiHETE, dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; DiHETrE, dihydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; DiHODE, dihydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; diHOME, dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; EpDoPE, epoxy-docosapentaenoic acid; EpETrE, epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid; EpODE, epoxy-octadecadienoic acid; EpOME, epoxy-octadecenoic acid; FA, fatty acid; GC-FID, gas chromatography with flame ionization detection; GLA, γ -linolenic acid; HDoHE, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; HETrE, hydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; HHTrE, hydroxy-heptadecatrienoic acid; HODE, hydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; HOTrE, hydroxy-octadecatrienoic acid; HPLC-MS/MS high performance liquid chromatography in tandem with mass spectrometry; HX, hepoxilin; k, keto; LA, linoleic acid; LOX, lipoxygenase; LT, leukotriene; LX, lipoxin; MAFP, methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate; NE, non-esterified; PAF-AH, platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase; PG, prostaglandin; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; PYR, pyrrophenone; triHOME, trihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; RDA, recommended dietary allowance; TX, thromboxane; VAR, varespladib.

Chapter 1: Thesis Introduction

1.1 Oxylipins

Oxylipins are bioactive lipids with important physiological functions in the regulation of body homeostasis, such as regulation of vascular tone, inflammatory processes, immune responses, cardiac function, blood coagulation, and adipogenesis, among others (Caligiuri et al., 2017; Gabbs et al., 2015). These bioactive lipids are oxygenated metabolites produced from polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA). PUFA present in cell membrane phospholipids are cleaved by phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) and released as non-esterified (NE) fatty acids (FA), which are then converted to oxylipins either enzymatically by cyclooxygenase (COX), lipoxygenase (LOX), and cytochrome P450 (CYP), or non-enzymatically (Gabbs et al., 2015).

The most studied oxylipins are the eicosanoids derived from arachidonic acid (ARA) (Dennis & Norris, 2015; Hurley et al., 2011; Leslie, 2004; Moon et al., 2018; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019); however, oxylipins are also produced from several other PUFAs, such as linoleic acid (LA), gamma-linolenic acid (GLA), dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid (DGLA), alpha-linolenic acid (ALA), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) (Gabbs et al., 2015). As some oxylipins have protective but others have detrimental roles, it is important to understand how the oxylipin profile can be modulated, as altered oxylipin production is involved in the pathophysiology of several diseases, including cardiovascular diseases (CVD) (Caligiuri et al., 2017; Devassy et al., 2016; Diab et al., 2019; Jenkins et al., 2009; Monirujjaman et al., 2017; Scholte et al., 2019; Solati & Ravandi, 2019). Importantly, several factors are shown to influence the oxylipin profile, including but not limited to diet, sex and pharmaceuticals (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023).

1.1.1 Diet effects on oxylipins

As membrane phospholipids reflect the dietary lipid composition, dietary PUFA are well known for their influence on oxylipin profiles. Consumption of omega-3 fatty acids such as ALA, EPA and DHA will each increase their own fatty acids and oxylipins the most. In addition, adding ALA to a diet high in LA can mitigate potential detrimental effects of a diet high in omega-6 fatty acids (Cayer et al., 2019; Devassy et al., 2017; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Gabbs et al., 2021; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; S. Li et al., 2023; Mendonça et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021). An interesting finding was that although DHA had the strongest effect, ALA and EPA also increased DHA oxylipins in some tissues, but not always DHA fatty acid (Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018). This provides evidence that dietary effects on oxylipins do not always reflect changes in fatty acids. Additionally, although DHA tended to have the strongest effect, EPA and ALA also often had an impact in reducing ARA and its oxylipins (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021).

The effects described above are thought to mediate the positive outcomes of omega-3 intake, as ALA, EPA, and DHA oxylipins tend to have anti-inflammatory and beneficial functions, whereas ARA oxylipins are generally pro-inflammatory with detrimental effects (Ağagündüz et al., 2024; Caligiuri et al., 2017; Gabbs et al., 2015).

1.1.2 ALA intake in the context of dietary requirements

When evaluating ALA intake, it is important to consider adequacy in relation to dietary requirements. ALA is an essential omega-3 fatty acid, meaning it must be consumed through dietary intake, as it cannot be synthesized *de novo* in mammals (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Neuringer et al., 1988). ALA deficiency is proven to negatively impact retina function and vision, behaviour, and mortality rates in animal models (Brenna, 2011; Neuringer et al., 1988).

Along with one reported case of human ALA deficiency related to total parental nutrition low in ALA, leading to neurological symptoms and vision blurring (Holman et al., 1982). Even though ALA is widely accepted as an essential fatty acid, there are no established dietary ALA requirements for rodents (Hamilton & Hogan, 1995). For humans, the Adequate Intake guidelines are based on median ALA intake by a healthy population (European Food Safety Authority, 2010; Institute of Medicine, 2005). Therefore, the amount of ALA needed for optimal health remains unknown.

ALA is elongated and desaturated to its long chain counterparts, EPA and DHA. This conversion occurs primarily in the liver and other tissues are supplied via bloodstream (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Rapoport et al., 2007). Although the conversion rate of ALA to DHA in serum seems to be less than 1% (Brenna et al., 2009; Calder, 2016), a recent study showed that these numbers largely underestimate the whole-body capacity of ALA to DHA conversion, which was 9.5% (Rotarescu et al., 2024). Since there is preferential retention of DHA in comparison with EPA, this suggests DHA's structural and functional roles to be more important than those of EPA (Calder, 2016). This leads to ALA requirement estimates based on the ALA intake at which tissue total or esterified DHA reaches a plateau in response to increasing dietary ALA. Similarly, other nutrient requirements have been established based on the amount of a nutrient intake that no longer increases a biochemical indicator of adequacy (Cashman & Flynn, 1999; Elango et al., 2008; Institute of Medicine, 2005; Willett, 1998).

Previous studies based primarily on esterified DHA suggest the ALA requirement ranges from 0.3 to 1.0% energy in growing rodents (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). Similarly, the human acceptable macronutrient distribution range (AMDR) is 0.6-1.2% energy from ALA

for both adults and children (Institute of Medicine, 2005). However, these previous studies estimating the dietary ALA requirement were conducted using primarily esterified DHA. Importantly, increasing ALA beyond a concentration considered adequate led to an increase in DHA oxylipins in some tissues, but not always in esterified DHA (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018). Additionally, differences on how esterified and non-esterified DHA respond to dietary ALA are reported (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2011). This suggests that investigation of the ALA requirement through analysis of oxylipins and possibly non-esterified fatty acids could lead to higher ALA adequacy estimates.

1.1.3 Important considerations for the ALA requirement

Using oxylipins to determine the ALA requirement may be important since oxylipins are hormone-like PUFA metabolites that mediate many of the PUFA effects in tissues. Non-esterified fatty acids and oxylipins can activate receptors and elicit physiologic and pathophysiologic responses (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; Calder, 2016; Duah et al., 2023; Gabbs et al., 2015). Therefore, non-esterified fatty acids and oxylipins may be more directly associated with their functions.

Despite controversies, omega-3 fatty acid intake and/or status are generally accepted as positive in relation to several health outcomes, in particular cardiovascular disease (Abdelhamid et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022; Shahidi & Ambigaipalan, 2018; Wang et al., 2006). In contrast, ARA, particularly its concentrations in adipose tissue, have been associated with risk of myocardial infarction and all cause mortality (Baylin & Campos, 2004; Bork et al., 2025; Nielsen et al., 2013). Notably, the ratio of omega-6 to omega-3 oxylipins has been recently suggested as potential markers of cardiometabolic risk in young and middle-aged adults (Jurado-Fasoli et al., 2022, 2023). This is consistent with the evidence on potential benefits of omega-3

derived oxylipins with a contrast to generally detrimental effects of ARA derived ones (Ağagündüz et al., 2024; Caligiuri et al., 2017; Gabbs et al., 2015). Considering that ALA affects both DHA (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991) and ARA (Morise et al., 2004; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991), in a way that both DHA and ARA appear to reach a plateau with increasing dietary ALA (Tu et al., 2010), both DHA and ARA and their oxylipins may be useful in determining an optimal ALA intake.

1.1.4 DHA in comparison with ALA

While increasing dietary ALA appears to either not have an effect or only a small one, consumption of EPA and DHA seem to be beneficial, particularly in the context of cardiovascular disease risk (Abdelhamid et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2006). Similar trends can be observed from other studies. ALA has a less pronounced effect in comparison to EPA and DHA on the omega-3 index (EPA+DHA concentration in erythrocytes), a risk factor for cardiovascular disease (Dempsey et al., 2023). In addition, human studies show a high ALA intake does not seem to increase DHA and its oxylipins, but DHA increases DHA and its oxylipins, and possibly decreases ARA oxylipins (Gabbs et al., 2021; Greupner et al., 2018; Schuchardt et al., 2017). Thus, the lack of effects of increasing dietary ALA may be partly explained by DHA reaching a plateau in response to increasing dietary ALA intake (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). In contrast, DHA and its oxylipins appear to continually increase with increasing dietary DHA intake (Guillot et al., 2009; S. Li et al., 2023; Lust et al., 2023; Saito et al., 1998).

Interestingly, when DHA and ARA are provided as the sole source of dietary PUFA they can reverse or prevent essential fatty acid deficiency in animals (Carlson et al., 2019; Le et al., 2009, 2013; Ling et al., 2012; Strijbosch et al., 2008) and humans under parenteral nutrition (De Meijer et al., 2010). To the best of my knowledge, one study compared the concentrations of ALA and DHA intake that would be required to achieve a similar biological effect. This study with baboons indicated that a maternal diet containing 0.45% energy from ALA was required to maximize fetal brain DHA accretion during pregnancy, while only 0.03% energy from DHA was needed to achieve a similar effect (Greiner et al., 1997). Therefore, the amount of DHA that is required to generate a similar biological effect in comparison with the dietary ALA requirement remains unknown.

1.2 Sex effects on oxylipins

Understanding sex differences is important as there are relevant physiological differences between males and females, which also extend to sex differences in the prevalence of diseases and their pathophysiology (Institute of Medicine., 2001). Sex differences in fatty acid metabolism have long been reported (Christiansen et al., 1969; Decsi & Kennedy, 2011), and also shown to be tissue specific (Kitson et al., 2012) and dependent on the diet (Ranković et al., 2017; Slater-Jefferies et al., 2010). Recent work from our laboratory has shown that not only does the diet influence oxylipin profile, but sex also does, with tissue specific differences in oxylipin profiles between male and female rats, healthy or diseased (Cayer et al., 2019; Devassy et al., 2017; Ferdouse et al., 2019a, 2019b; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018).

Importantly, the sex differences found were markedly influenced by diet, with extensive diet by sex interactions shown in muscle, heart, and gonadal, mesenteric and subcutaneous adipose depots (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Mendonça et al., 2018; Penner et al., 2021). For example,

in the heart, the ALA enriched diet resulted in the highest female/male oxylipin ratios, with females having two to three times more oxylipins than males, while the DHA diet resulted in the lowest ratio, with males and females having very similar concentrations of oxylipins (Ferdouse et al., 2019a).

Although the fatty acid composition influences oxylipin production to some extent, oxylipin profiles do not necessarily reflect the diet and sex changes observed in esterified fatty acids such as phospholipid or neutral lipid fatty acids (Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018). Therefore, more studies are necessary to further elucidate the mechanisms beyond phospholipid fatty acid composition that impacts oxylipin production. Taking a closer look at the previous diet by sex interaction findings, oxylipins derived from different downstream enzymatic pathways appeared to follow a similar pattern (Ferdouse et al., 2019a). Therefore, it seems unlikely that these diet by sex effects would be due to different activities of COX, LOX, and CYP. Thus, potential enzymes that could be influencing the amount of NE FA released are PLA₂, which are thought to be the rate limiting enzymes for the production of oxylipins (Dennis et al., 2011; Jenkins et al., 2009; Leslie, 2004).

1.2.1 Phospholipase A₂

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) is a superfamily of enzymes with six types of enzymes discovered up to date, which are further classified into 16 groups, and subgroups, described in Table 1. The six types of PLA₂ include: secreted (sPLA₂), cytosolic (cPLA₂), calcium-independent (iPLA₂), lipoprotein-associated (Lp-PLA₂) also known as platelet activating factor acetyl hydrolase (PAF-AH), lysosomal (LPLA₂), and adipose-specific (AdPLA₂) (Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019). Although the first PLA₂ was identified late in the 19th century from snake venom (Dennis et al., 2011), and the first iPLA₂ was identified from canine myocardium in 1985

Table 1-1. Phospholipase A₂ superfamily

Type	Group	Subgroup
sPLA ₂	I	A, B
	II	A, B, C, D, E, F
	III	
	V	
	IX	
	X	
	XI	A, B
	XII	A, B
	XIII	
	XIV	
cPLA ₂	IV	A(α), B(β), C(γ), D(δ), E(ϵ), F(ζ)
iPLA ₂	VI	A(β), B(γ), C(δ), D(ϵ), E(ζ), F(η)
PAF-AH	VII	A(LpPLA ₂), B(PAF-AH II)
	VIII	A(α_1), B(α_2), β
LPLA ₂	XV	
AdPLA	XVI	

Adapted from (Dennis et al., 2011).

(Wolf & Gross, 1985), some of these enzymes, such as AdPLA₂ and certain types of cPLA₂ and iPLA₂, have been only identified fairly recently (Dennis et al., 2011; Duncan et al., 2008; Ohto et al., 2005; Ramanadham et al., 2015).

Most of these PLA₂ enzymes have different structures and mechanisms regulating activity (Leslie, 2015; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019). While cPLA₂ acts intracellularly on perinuclear membranes, iPLA₂ acts in the mitochondria or other organelles, and sPLA₂ can act both intra or extracellularly on plasma membrane (Kinsey et al., 2005; Mancuso et al., 2004; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019). PLA₂s are present in several tissues and cell types (Moon et al., 2016; Ramanadham et al., 2015), but expression of the enzyme types and subtypes vary among different cells and tissues (Bonventre, 1999; Dennis, 2000; Hara et al., 2019; Kinsey et al., 2005; Leslie, 2015). In platelets, most of the PLA₂ activity comes from cPLA₂ (Duvernay et al., 2015), whereas in brain, heart, and skeletal muscle, most of the activity seems to be from iPLA₂ (Jenkins et al., 2002). Therefore, this could explain differences in diet by sex effects on oxylipins in different tissues, as distinct PLA₂ types may be differently affected by diet and sex, and their expression varies depending on the tissue being analyzed.

PLA₂ has an important function in lipid metabolism, particularly in the hydrolysis of membrane phospholipids, releasing a NE FA and a lysophospholipid (Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019). NE FA can be released from lysophospholipids by lysophospholipase activity, which is also a function of at least some PLA₂ enzymes (Leslie, 2015; Ramanadham et al., 2015; Wolf & Gross, 1996; Yan et al., 2005). The NE FA released are then available for COX, LOX, and CYP to be converted into oxylipins (Vasquez et al., 2018). In addition, there is recent suggestion that PLA₂ enzymes can release esterified oxylipins directly from phospholipids (Annevelink et al., 2022). The main PLA₂s thought to contribute to oxylipin production are the group IVA cPLA₂ α ,

group VIA iPLA₂β, group VIB iPLA₂γ, and groups IIA, V, and X of sPLA₂s (Dennis et al., 2011).

1.2.2 Heart and PLA₂

Heart tissue, also called myocardium, includes several cell types, including cardiac myocytes, smooth muscle cells, endothelial cells, macrophages and fibroblasts (Moon et al., 2016). The majority of iPLA₂γ activity in the heart comes from cardiomyocytes (Moon et al., 2016). Whereas, in endothelial cardiac cells most PLA₂ activity is owing to iPLA₂ enzymes, with more activity from iPLA₂β than from iPLA₂γ (Sharma et al., 2011). Although most PLA₂ activity in the heart has been reported as coming from iPLA₂, there could be some activity from cPLA₂α, and possibly from cPLA₂ζ in humans, which may be species specific (Haq et al., 2003; Jenkins et al., 2009; Moon et al., 2018). It is important to note that cPLA₂ activity in the heart is thought to be low (Cedars et al., 2009; Jenkins et al., 2009; S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998). Interestingly, the heart has been reported as a major source of sPLA₂ (Berry et al., 2015; Hernandez-Anzaldo et al., 2015). However, sPLA₂ activity could not be detected in a cardiomyocyte cell culture or in the media (van Dijk et al., 2009). Therefore, it is still unclear whether sPLA₂ activity towards fatty acid release and oxylipin formation is present in the whole heart or if sPLA₂ is mostly secreted by the heart, not acting locally.

1.2.3 PLA₂ activity towards fatty acid release and oxylipin formation

Although cPLA₂α is the only enzyme demonstrated to have specificity for the release of ARA, other isoforms also contribute to the release of ARA as NE FA (Leslie, 2015; Mouchlis et al., 2018). Recently, group IVF cPLA₂ζ was identified as the phospholipase in human myocardium mitochondria to account for most of the ARA release in non-failing hearts (Moon et al., 2018), which emphasise that there may be other types of PLA₂ displaying high activity

towards NE FA release that are still unknown or largely unstudied to date. *In vitro* studies with human recombinant enzymes indicate that iPLA₂β and sPLA₂V appear to prefer LA (Mouchlis et al., 2018). However, additional recent studies focused on omega-3 fatty acids showed sPLA₂V to release more DHA and iPLA₂β to release more EPA in comparison with both cPLA₂α and iPLA₂β or sPLA₂V (Hayashi et al., 2021). Therefore, research on PLA₂ preference for PUFA release is limited, particularly on the release of omega-3 fatty acids, and even less is known about how PLA₂ inhibition impacts oxylipin formation.

PLA₂ studies on oxylipin production also shows oxylipins to not always reflect PUFA release from PLA₂ (Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016), demonstrating the need to examine the effects of PLA₂ isoforms specifically on oxylipins. For example, most studies support a role of sPLA₂ in ARA release (Hayashi et al., 2021; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). However, ARA oxylipins are not always impacted (Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). Several studies consistently reported that sPLA₂ isoforms seem to have a preference for DHA release in human sPLA₂ V (in-vitro) (Hayashi et al., 2021), mouse lymphoid tissue sPLA₂ IID (Miki et al., 2013), mouse recombinant sPLA₂ IIF (Yamamoto et al., 2015), mouse colon and sperm sPLA₂ X (Murase et al., 2016) with an impact on DHA oxylipin formation (Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). And some studies support a role of sPLA₂ enzymes on EPA release and their oxylipin formation (Hayashi et al., 2021; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). However, none of these studies investigated sPLA₂ activity in the heart.

A cardiac myocyte specific iPLA₂γ knockout study recently showed that ARA, LA, and DHA oxylipins were impacted; however, other oxylipins were not analyzed (Moon et al., 2016). Additionally, this is the only study on PLA₂ specific fatty acid release and oxylipin formation in the heart. Human iPLA₂ has a preference for EPA release *in vitro* (Hayashi et al., 2021), while

others suggest that iPLA₂ is a major mediator of DHA release in rodent brain (Cheon et al., 2012; Strokin et al., 2007) and liver (Deng et al., 2016). iPLA₂ is the main PLA₂ type in the heart; however, there is very little information on the effects of iPLA₂ enzymes on PUFA release and oxylipin formation in the heart. This highlights the need for further studies to understand how fatty acid release and oxylipin formation are affected by PLA₂. For example, there are no studies on ALA release or oxylipin formation to date.

1.2.4 Diet and sex and PLA₂

Different dietary lipid composition seems to influence different PLA₂ enzymes (Z. Li et al., 2015; Y. Liu et al., 2014; Rao et al., 2007; Rudkowska et al., 2013; Smesny et al., 2014; K.-P. Su et al., 2018; Tyagi et al., 2014; Vincentini et al., 2011). EPA and DHA supplementation significantly changed gene expression of different PLA₂ in peripheral blood mononuclear cells, with an increase in cPLA₂ and in group IIF sPLA₂, and a decrease in group IIA sPLA₂ (Rudkowska et al., 2013). Similarly, EPA increased cPLA₂ α gene expression in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of both the control group and in patients with depression, but DHA had no effect (K.-P. Su et al., 2018). Another study evaluating fish oil supplementation and iPLA₂ activity in plasma found that there was a significant decrease in iPLA₂ activity with fish oil consumption (Smesny et al., 2014). Although the dietary effects on different PLA₂ seem to be consistent in different tissues, the overall effect of diet on different PLA₂ activity may result in tissue specific differences, as expression of different types of PLA₂ is tissue specific.

With respect to sex differences, several studies have shown sex differences in PLA₂ concentrations, activity, and gene expression (Boekholdt et al., 2005; Keeting et al., 1998; Mallat et al., 2007; Pop et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2019; Ward et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2017). While one study showed a sex difference in human serum for type II sPLA₂ (Boekholdt et al., 2005),

several reports did not find sex differences for sPLA₂ (Chalbot et al., 2009; Mallat et al., 2007; Pop et al., 2013; C. Zhang et al., 2015); however, all these studies have included mostly women at an older age. Moreover, sex differences in sPLA₂ group IIA levels were found in atherosclerotic carotid arteries (Ward et al., 2018), in left ventricles (Newman et al., 2017), and a study on ventricular myocardium showed that sPLA₂ group IIA gene expression changed with age, sex, and heart failure (Boheler et al., 2003). A study evaluating cPLA₂ α activity on human male and female osteoblast-like cells found that both PGE₂ and cPLA₂ α were higher in the male cells when compared to female (Keeting et al., 1998). This study is from over 25 years ago; however, no other reports on cPLA₂ and no studies on iPLA₂ sex differences were found. Although both diet and sex have been shown to influence PLA₂ activity and levels separately, the relationship between diet, sex, and PLA₂ remains largely unexplored. This is particularly true in regard to the effects of dietary lipid composition and sex on PLA₂ preference for fatty acid release and oxylipin formation.

1.2.5 PLA₂ activity considerations

Evaluating activity of different types of PLA₂ can provide insight into the mechanisms regulating the sex differences in oxylipin production. In addition, analyzing enzyme preference towards different phospholipid fatty acid compositions achieved through dietary interventions, may provide the opportunity to determine general PLA₂ selectivity towards PUFA release. For example, ALA containing phospholipids are greatly enhanced by the dietary consumption of ALA, and this is also true for other PUFA (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018). Thus, it is important to identify if there would be a change in activity of a particular PLA₂ isoform when the phospholipid membrane is enriched with a certain PUFA. It has been a challenge to study the preference of different types of PLA₂ enzymes, mainly because changes in

the substrate form can change the enzyme activity (Leslie & Gelb, 2004; Reynolds et al., 1991). This further demonstrates the importance of determining how enzyme activity changes according to different substrate composition to better understand *in vivo* activity of PLA₂ enzymes.

PLA₂ activity and isoform preference for PUFA are typically assessed using synthetic or labelled phospholipids and recombinant PLA₂ enzymes. Alternatively, phospholipids or PLA₂ are extracted from tissues and used for assessing PLA₂ isoform activity *in vitro* (Leslie & Gelb, 2004; Mouchlis et al., 2019; Reynolds et al., 1991). Although significant information has been obtained from these studies, these *in vitro* methods do not always completely reflect the situation *in vivo* (Astudillo et al., 2023). For example: single or synthetic phospholipids do not reflect the effects of the complex phospholipid compositions present in tissue on enzyme activity and single enzyme assay conditions do not account for the complex interactions between and for the relative amounts of multiple PLA₂ isoforms *in vivo*. These methods are also limited in their capability to account for diet and sex effects, requiring an alternative to explore this question.

Lipidomic analysis allow us to look at several lipid components and metabolites in a single run (Dumlao et al., 2011). Lipidomic based methodologies have been used, validated and shown to be effective to analyse PLA₂ activity (Mouchlis et al., 2018), which is commonly done by looking at either lysophospholipids or NE FA released over an incubation time (Mouchlis et al., 2019). Oxylin analysis by mass spectrometry have been recently utilized when considering PLA₂ activity using knockout mouse models (Moon et al., 2012, 2016, 2018). All further demonstrating the possibility for development of a method to evaluate *ex vivo* activity of PLA₂. This is also possible due to recent advances in oxylin analysis by mass spectrometry, allowing to scan for over 100 oxylin at once. Until recently, oxylin analysis was limited to a single molecule by use of enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (EIA) (Dumlao et al., 2011).

1.3 Hypotheses and Objectives

The overarching hypothesis of this thesis was that oxylipins can be used to provide novel information that will be crucial in the understanding of dietary omega-3 fatty acid requirements, and PLA₂ activity when considering diet and sex. The overarching objective of this thesis was to develop and apply two methods using oxylipin analysis to aid in the understanding of: omega-3 fatty acid requirements for optimal health; and PLA₂ activity in relation to diet and sex in rat hearts. In addition, each of the four studies encompassed in this thesis have their own specific hypotheses and objectives which are discussed below.

For the first study presented in chapter 2 on the dietary ALA requirement, the hypothesis was that oxylipins can be used as a biomarker of the dietary ALA requirement leading to higher dietary ALA requirement estimates than previously encountered by analysis of esterified DHA. The objective of this study was to 1) determine the dietary ALA requirement using oxylipins in serum, liver and kidney of male rats as a proof of concept; 2) determine the dietary ALA requirement using oxylipins in serum, liver, kidney and brain of male and female mice. This first study established a new method for assessment of the dietary ALA requirement using non-esterified DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins.

For the second study presented in chapter 3 on the DHA bioequivalence to the dietary ALA requirement, the hypothesis was that by using the method from chapter 2 to determine the ALA requirement, we could determine the dose of DHA that would lead to a similar biological effect to the dietary ALA requirement. The objectives of this study were to 1) determine the dietary ALA requirement using non-esterified DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins in serum, liver, heart, and brain of male and female rats; 2) determine the dose of DHA that would achieve the same biological effect on non-esterified DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins as the dietary

ALA requirement established in the first study objective. This second study demonstrates the applicability of the ALA requirement method established in the first study in chapter 2.

The third and fourth studies, presented in chapters 4 and 5, respectively, had a common overarching objective of determining diet and sex effects on PLA₂ activity. However, to achieve this objective, we first had to develop a method that would allow for assessment of diet and sex effects on PLA₂ activities *ex vivo* in rat hearts. Therefore, the hypothesis for the third study was that different PLA₂ types would have distinct activities towards PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts. The study objective was to develop a method to determine sPLA₂, iPLA₂ and cPLA₂ activities on PUFA release and oxylipin formation *ex vivo* in rat hearts. This was achieved by incubation of rat heart homogenates with and without PLA₂ inhibitors.

For the fourth study presented in chapter 5, the hypothesis was that differences in sex effects on oxylipins between dietary ALA and DHA in rat hearts could be explained by distinct effects of diet and sex on PLA₂ activities. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to 1) determine the effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activities towards PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts; and 2) determine if the patterns of diet and sex effects on PLA₂ activities could explain diet by sex interactions previously observed in oxylipin analysis. This study demonstrates the applicability of the method developed in the third study in chapter 4 to assess PLA₂ activities *ex vivo*.

Chapter 2: A Method to Estimate the Dietary α -Linolenic Acid Requirement Using Non-esterified DHA and Arachidonic Acid Oxylipins and Fatty Acids

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2.1 Abstract

Background: The dietary requirement for ALA remains unclear, as evidenced by the absence of an RDA for this essential fatty acid (FA). In previous studies we observed that the amount of dietary ALA required to maximize non-esterified (NE) DHA oxylipins appears to be higher than the amount required to maximize tissue esterified DHA concentrations, which have classically been used to estimate the ALA requirement. Further, we observed that dietary ALA reduces esterified arachidonic acid (ARA) and its NE oxylipins.

Objective: Since NE oxylipins and FA mediate biologic activities of FA, we examined whether these DHA and ARA pools could be used to determine the dietary ALA requirement.

Methods: Nine groups of 4-week-old male Sprague-Dawley rats (n=5) and 10 groups of male and female CD1 mice (n=6) were provided 0.1 to 2.5g ALA and 2g of linoleic acid per 100g of AIN93G-based diets. NE DHA and ARA and their oxylipins in serum, liver, kidney and brain homogenates underwent solid phase extraction and were quantified by HPLC-MS/MS.

Breakpoint analysis of transitions from increase to plateau were conducted using piecewise regression.

Results: In response to increasing dietary ALA, NE DHA oxylipins and DHA in serum, liver and kidney (but not brain) initially increased rapidly and then plateaued whereas ARA oxylipins and ARA tended to decrease and plateau. Thus, breakpoints were calculated for the ratios of DHA/ARA and hydroxy-DHA/hydroxy-ARA ($\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$), which consisted of oxylipins synthesized via pathways common to both FA. In serum, liver and kidney the highest estimated breakpoint indicated an ALA requirement of ~0.7g/100g diet (1.7%energy), approximately twice that of previous estimations.

Conclusion: This study supports the use of NE DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} or DHA/ARA as biochemical indicators of the ALA requirement. Applying this method in rats and mice indicates that the requirement is higher than previously estimated using esterified DHA alone.

Keywords: α -linolenic acid; dose response; dietary requirement; fatty acids; oxylipins; docosahexaenoic acid; arachidonic acid; mice; rats; sex.

2.2 Introduction

The omega-3 fatty acid α -linolenic acid (ALA) is an essential fatty acid (FA) for rodents and humans due to their inability to synthesize ALA *de novo*, thus requiring dietary consumption. The health benefits of ALA are believed to be due to its elongation and desaturation into longer chain PUFA, such as EPA and/or DHA. Absence or low concentrations of ALA have been shown to negatively impact retina function and vision, behaviour, and mortality rates in animal models [reviewed in (Brenna, 2011; Neuringer et al., 1988)]. The only reported case of ALA deficiency in humans was a case of total parental nutrition with very low ALA which resulted in neurological symptoms and vision blurring (Holman et al., 1982). Despite ALA being considered an essential FA, there is no official recommendation on dietary intake for rats and mice (Hamilton & Hogan, 1995). For humans there are only Adequate Intake reference values, which are based on the usual dietary intake of a population that is assumed to be maintaining an adequate ALA status (European Food Safety Authority, 2010; Institute of Medicine, 2005). Therefore, the minimum amount of dietary ALA required for optimal health remains unclear.

ALA requirements in rodents have classically been estimated by determining the point at which tissue total DHA reaches a plateau in response to increasing dietary ALA, an approach that is similar to how other nutrient requirements have been set (Willett, 1998). These studies have suggested that the ALA requirement ranges from 0.3 to 1.0% energy (~0.1 to 0.4g ALA/100g of diet in AIN-93G based diets) (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). On a % energy basis this is similar to humans, where the dietary recommendation is 0.4-0.5% energy from ALA for both adults and children (Institute of Medicine, 2005).

Oxylipins, bioactive metabolites formed via multiple enzymatic and non-enzymatic pathways from PUFA, activate receptors that mediate many of the PUFA effects in tissues (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; Gabbs et al., 2015). Compared to the use of maximal tissue or phospholipid DHA to estimate the ALA requirement, several of our prior studies on oxylipins suggested that tissue DHA oxylipins may reach a maximum concentration with higher dietary ALA intake, indicating a potentially higher requirement. In a rat study with high fat diet-induced obesity and varying amounts and ratios of dietary ALA and linoleic acid (LA), the concentration of ALA that resulted in the highest concentrations of renal DHA oxylipins was much higher than the amount required to maximize DHA (Caligiuri et al., 2013). In subsequent studies in healthy rats a similar pattern was observed (Leng et al., 2017, 2018). Since oxylipins mediate physiological effects of FAs and more directly reflect FA functions and their requirements (Gabbs et al., 2015), a potentially higher ALA requirement based on oxylipin data is of interest.

Also of potential relevance to the dietary ALA requirement is the fact that dietary ALA also affects other oxylipins (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018). The balance of omega-6/omega-3 oxylipins determines their physiological effects (Shearer & Walker, 2018), and inclusion of oxylipins derived from other FA affected by dietary ALA could be used to provide a more comprehensive assessment of the ALA requirement. Of particular interest are the arachidonic acid (ARA) oxylipins due to their predominantly opposing effects on physiology when compared to DHA oxylipins (Gabbs et al., 2015), as well as being the main omega-6 oxylipins altered by dietary ALA (Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Greupner et al., 2018; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018).

One of the reasons that dietary ALA effects on DHA compared to its oxylipins may differ is because oxylipins are primarily analyzed in their free, non-esterified (NE) form, while

previous studies that used DHA as the indicator of adequacy have analyzed esterified DHA. If it is the NE compared to esterified pool that is responsible for this difference, NE FA may respond similarly to NE oxylipins. This is plausible, as differences in the response to the concentration of dietary ALA on esterified and NE DHA have been reported in at least two studies (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2011). However, these studies were not examining the dietary ALA requirement, nor have there been any studies that have included ARA as an indicator of this requirement. Therefore, the objective of this work was to test whether the NE pools of both DHA and ARA oxylipins, or the NE pools of both DHA and ARA could be used to provide a more comprehensive and functionally relevant assessment of the dietary ALA requirement.

2.3 *Methods*

2.3.1 *Animal studies*

First, 4-week-old Sprague Dawley male rats were single caged and randomized into 9 diet groups (n=5, 45 rats total) and provided ad libitum access to diets ranging from 0.07 to 1.86g of ALA/100g diet for 5 weeks. The diets were the same as the AIN93G diet (Reeves et al., 1993) except that soybean oil was replaced by an equal total concentration (7g oil/100g of diet) of combinations of flaxseed, safflower, coconut, and olive oils to maintain LA and MUFA concentrations constant at ~2g and ~1g/100g diet, respectively, and to increase ALA at the expense of saturated FA. The concentration of LA at 2g/100g of diet meets the LA requirement of 1.2g/100g of diet in rodents (Bourre et al., 1989), and represents 4.8% of energy in these diets, which is similar to the ~5% energy reflected in the Adequate Intake recommendation for this FA in humans (Institute of Medicine, 2005). The formulated diet including the oils used and the analyzed FA compositions are shown in **Table 1**. All diet ingredients were purchased from Dyets (Bethlehem, PA).

Table 2-1. Oils used and analyzed fatty acid composition of diets provided to Sprague-Dawley rats

<i>Dietary oils used (g/100 g diet)</i>									
Flax oil	0.16	0.25	0.34	0.53	1.06	1.61	2.15	2.68	3.58
Coconut oil	3.46	3.41	3.34	3.21	2.86	2.49	2.12	1.78	1.17
Safflower oil	2.48	2.46	2.45	2.42	2.33	2.25	2.17	2.08	1.94
Olive oil	0.90	0.88	0.87	0.84	0.75	0.65	0.56	0.46	0.31
<i>Analyzed fatty acids (g/100 g diet)</i>									
ALA (g/100g diet)	0.09	0.11	0.14	0.48	0.54	0.75	1.10	1.30	1.86
ALA (energy %)	0.22	0.26	0.34	1.15	1.29	1.80	2.63	3.11	4.45
LA	2.23	1.86	1.64	2.38	2.00	1.88	1.90	1.80	1.95
SFA	2.34	2.32	2.06	3.78	1.82	1.80	1.17	0.90	1.23
MUFA	1.24	1.03	0.90	1.31	0.99	1.00	1.14	0.96	1.18

Total oil was 7g/100 g of diet. Other ingredients in the AIN93G-based diets were as follows: cornstarch (39.8 g/100 g), casein (20 g/100 g), dextrose (13.2 g/100 g), sucrose (10 g/100 g), fibre (5 g/100 g), AIN93G-MX (3.5 g/100 g), AIN93G-VX (1 g/100 g), L-cystine (0.3 g/100 g), choline bitartrate, 41.1% choline (0.25 g/100 g), TBHQ (0.0014 g/100 g). α -linolenic acid (ALA), linoleic acid (LA). Diet fatty acids were analyzed in duplicate.

Second, 4-week-old CD1 male and female mice, were double caged and randomized into 10 similar diet groups and provided diets ranging from 0.08 to 2.56g of ALA/100g diet (n=6, 120 mice total) for 6 weeks using similar diets (**Table 2**).

After the dietary intervention period, non-fasting animals were anesthetized with isoflurane and terminated by decapitation. Trunk blood was collected to obtain serum, which was stored at -80°C until analysis. After exsanguination, kidney and liver were harvested from rats, and brain, kidney and liver were harvested from mice. Tissues were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until analysis. One kidney sample for one male mouse in the 0.82 ALA diet, and one serum sample for one female mouse in the 0.56 ALA diet were lost during sample preparation for analyses. All procedures were done in accordance with the Canadian Council for Animal Care and ARRIVE guidelines (Percie du Sert et al., 2020) and approved by the University of Manitoba Animal Care Committee.

2.3.2 Fatty acid analysis of oils and diets

Total FA composition of all the oils and the final diets were confirmed by analyzing diet samples in duplicate using gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID), as previously described (Gabbs et al., 2021). Briefly, 25mg of diet sample was analyzed following a liquid-liquid extraction based on the Folch method (Folch et al., 1957) for total lipids using chloroform/methanol (2:1/vol:vol) with 0.01% BHT, and 0.73% sodium chloride. Phosphatidylcholine C15:0 (Avanti Polar Lipids, AL, USA) and triacylglycerol C17:0 (NuCheck, MN, USA) were added as internal standards. Lipid extracts were dried down and FA were transmethyalted using methanolic H₂SO₄ (Aukema & Holub, 1989). The resulting methylated FAs were extracted using hexane and ultrapure water, dried down and re-suspended in hexane.

Table 2-2. Oils used and analyzed fatty acid composition of diets provided to CD1 mice

	<i>Dietary oils (g/100 g diet)</i>									
Flax oil	0.16	0.27	0.36	0.56	1.15	1.73	2.32	2.91	3.69	4.87
Coconut oil	3.15	3.08	3.05	2.91	2.54	2.17	1.80	1.43	0.94	0.20
Safflower oil	2.89	2.87	2.84	2.81	2.68	2.57	2.45	2.33	2.18	1.93
Olive oil	0.80	0.78	0.76	0.72	0.63	0.53	0.43	0.33	0.19	0.00
	<i>Analyzed Fatty acids (g/100 g diet)</i>									
ALA (g/100g diet)	0.08	0.13	0.14	0.27	0.56	0.82	1.20	1.52	1.88	2.56
ALA (energy %)	0.19	0.31	0.34	0.65	1.34	1.96	2.87	3.64	4.50	6.13
LA	2.01	1.98	2.01	1.83	1.94	2.10	2.10	2.01	2.05	2.04
SFA	2.51	2.51	2.49	2.63	2.31	1.93	1.62	1.53	1.25	0.77
MUFA	1.03	1.02	1.03	0.96	0.99	1.04	1.08	1.05	1.07	1.09

Total oil was 7 g/100 g of diet. Other ingredients in the AIN93G-based diets were as follows: cornstarch (39.8 g/100 g), casein (20 g/100 g), dextrose (13.2 g/100 g), sucrose (10 g/100 g), fibre (5 g/100 g), AIN93G-MX (3.5 g/100 g), AIN93G-VX (1 g/100 g), L-cystine (0.3 g/100 g), choline bitartrate, 41.1% choline (0.25 g/100 g), TBHQ (0.0014 g/100 g). α -linolenic acid (ALA), linoleic acid (LA). Diet fatty acids were analyzed in duplicate.

Samples were separated on a 30m DB-225MS column (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) using a Bruker 450 GC-FID (Gabbs et al., 2021).

2.3.3 NE oxylipin and FA analysis of tissues and serum

Analyses of NE oxylipins and FAs were performed as described (Aukema et al., 2016; Leng et al., 2017; Monirujjaman et al., 2017) based on the method from (Dumlao et al., 2011a). Prior to homogenization whole frozen kidneys were lyophilized, and representative portions of whole lyophilized kidney and of frozen livers, and whole frozen brains were homogenized in Tyrode's buffer (pH 7.6) (Sigma-Aldrich, MA, USA) (dry tissue: 1/28, wet tissue: 1/5.7, wt/vol). Triton X-100 to achieve a final concentration of 0.01% and an antioxidant cocktail containing 0.2mg/ml BHT, 0.2mg/ml EDTA, 100µM indomethacin, 100µM trans-AUCB in methanol/water (50/50, vol/vol) (Rund et al., 2018) were added to the homogenates and serum samples. Lipids in these samples were then solubilized by adding methanol and HCl to achieve a 20% methanol in pH3 water solution. Deuterated internal standards were added to each sample (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA) [a full list of standards can be found in (Manson et al., 2023)]. Solid phase extraction was performed using 33 µm polymeric reverse-phase Strata-X solid phase extraction columns (Phenomenex, CA, USA) (28). NE oxylipins and FAs were eluted from these columns with methanol, dried down under a nitrogen stream, resuspended in the mobile phase (water/acetonitrile/acetic acid, 70/30/0.02, vol/vol/vol), and analyzed using HPLC-MS/MS (QTRAP 6500; Sciex, ON) with a reverse phase C18 column. Quantitation was based on the stable isotope dilution method (Hall & Murphy, 1998). The limit of quantification (LOQ) was set at peak heights of 5 times baseline and an oxylipin was considered quantifiable if this criterion was met for at least 4 animals in a diet group. **Supplemental Table 1** shows the oxylipins

quantified in each tissue. Samples were prepared in random order, and both sample preparation and peak selection were blinded.

2.3.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis to determine diet and sex effects were conducted by one-way (diet) or two-way (diet, sex) ANOVA as appropriate. Normality was tested prior to ANOVA using a Shapiro-Wilk test. If data was not normal, log-transformation was applied, and if data contained zeros, (data + 1) was log transformed. Interactions were evaluated using a type 3 ANOVA; if the interaction was not significant, a type 2 ANOVA was conducted using diet and sex. Protected Fisher's LSD test was used as post hoc test to determine diet and sex differences when diet or diet*sex interactions were present. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SE. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Ratios were expressed as the $\log_2$ of the ratio (or fold-change) so that the reciprocals of the ratio are symmetric and have equal weighting. Ratio data were analyzed using piecewise regression (also known as segmented regression) to first determine whether two linear regressions fit the data better than one linear regression (Muggeo, 2008; Ryan & Porth, 2007). If two linear regressions were a better fit using hypothesis testing (Muggeo, 2016), determination of the breakpoint where there is a change in slope within the dataset was conducted. Piecewise regression with breakpoint estimates incorporating bootstrap was conducted using RStudio (2023.06.0+421, 2023 Posit Software, PBC) using the package segmented by Vito M. R. Muggeo version 1.6-4 from April 13, 2023 (Muggeo, 2023). Breakpoints were considered different if their 95% CIs did not overlap.

2.4 Results

2.4.1 *Animal and tissue weights*

Male mice had higher body, kidney, and liver weights than female mice, but diet had no effect on any of these parameters in rats or mice (**Supplemental Tables 2-3**).

2.4.2 *Dietary ALA effects on NE oxylipins and FAs*

Dietary ALA consistently altered the concentrations of NE oxylipins derived from ALA (**Supplemental Fig 1A**), EPA (**Supplemental Fig 2A**), DHA (**Figure 1A**) and ARA (**Figure 2A**), but not LA oxylipins (**Supplemental Fig 3A**) in kidneys, livers and serum of both rats and mice; the only exception to this was rat liver DHA, which was not significantly altered by diet (ANOVA P value and complete statistic results shown in **Supplemental Tables 4-5**). Both ALA and EPA oxylipins progressively increased in response to increasing dietary ALA. This pattern was distinct from DHA oxylipins, which initially increased and then leveled off as dietary ALA content increased. ARA oxylipin effects were opposite to that for DHA oxylipins, as ARA oxylipins initially decreased and then leveled off as dietary ALA content increased. In the brain, by contrast, increasing dietary ALA only increased EPA oxylipins (**Figure 3**).

Diet effects on the NE FA pools were similar to effects on oxylipins. In kidney, liver and serum, diet had effects on ALA (**Supplemental Fig 1B**), EPA (**Supplemental Fig 2B**), DHA (**Fig 1B**) and ARA (**Fig 2B**), although the effects were less consistent than for the oxylipins as no diet effects were observed for DHA and ARA in rat kidneys and for ARA in mouse kidneys. However, the patterns of FA concentrations in response to dietary ALA were similar to the oxylipin patterns, including the brain where only EPA increased with increasing dietary ALA.

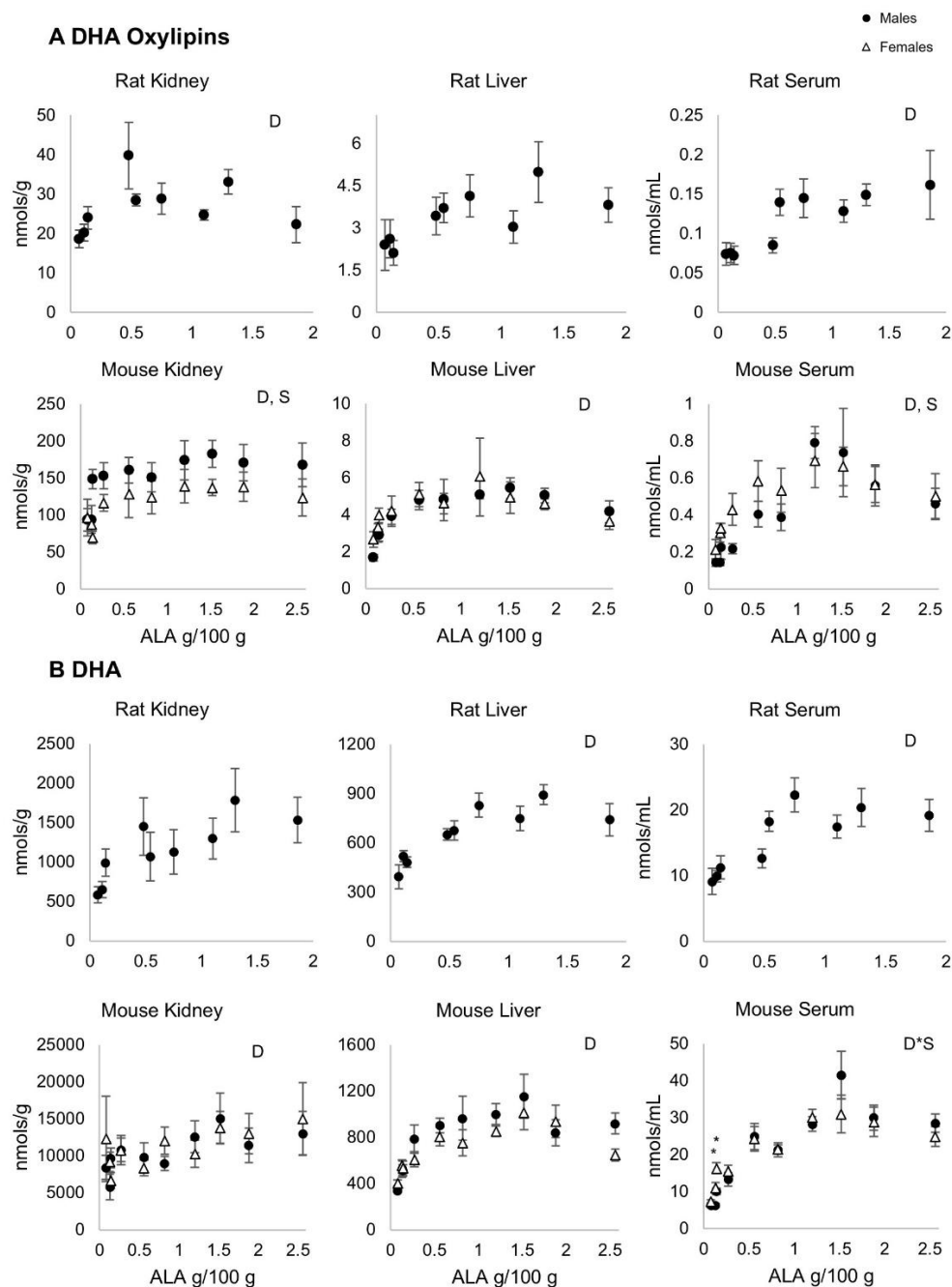


Figure 2-1. Total NE DHA oxylipins (A) and NE DHA (B) in response to dietary α -linolenic acid (ALA) in kidney, liver and serum.

Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats). ANOVA was conducted to evaluate diet, sex and diet*sex effects. D, S and D*S denote diet and sex main effects and their interactions, respectively. Where interactions are present, sex differences are indicated by an * above each diet group on the graph, and diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5.

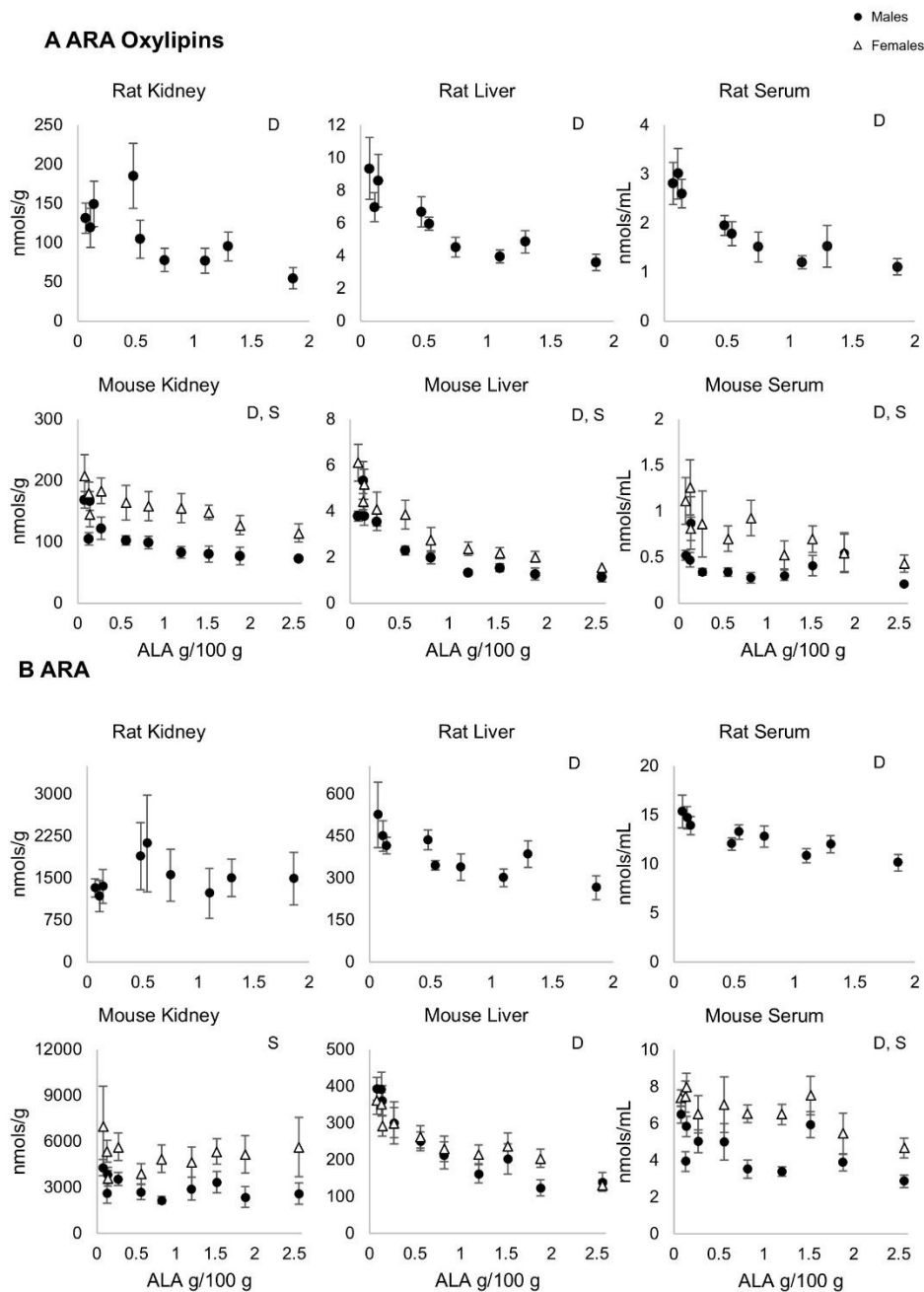


Figure 2-2.Total NE arachidonic acid (ARA) oxylipins (A) and NE ARA (B) in response to dietary α -linolenic acid (ALA) in kidney, liver and serum.

Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats). ANOVA was conducted to evaluate diet, sex and diet*sex effects. D, S and D*S denote diet and sex main effects and their interactions, respectively. Where interactions are present, sex differences are indicated by an * above each diet group on the graph, and diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5.

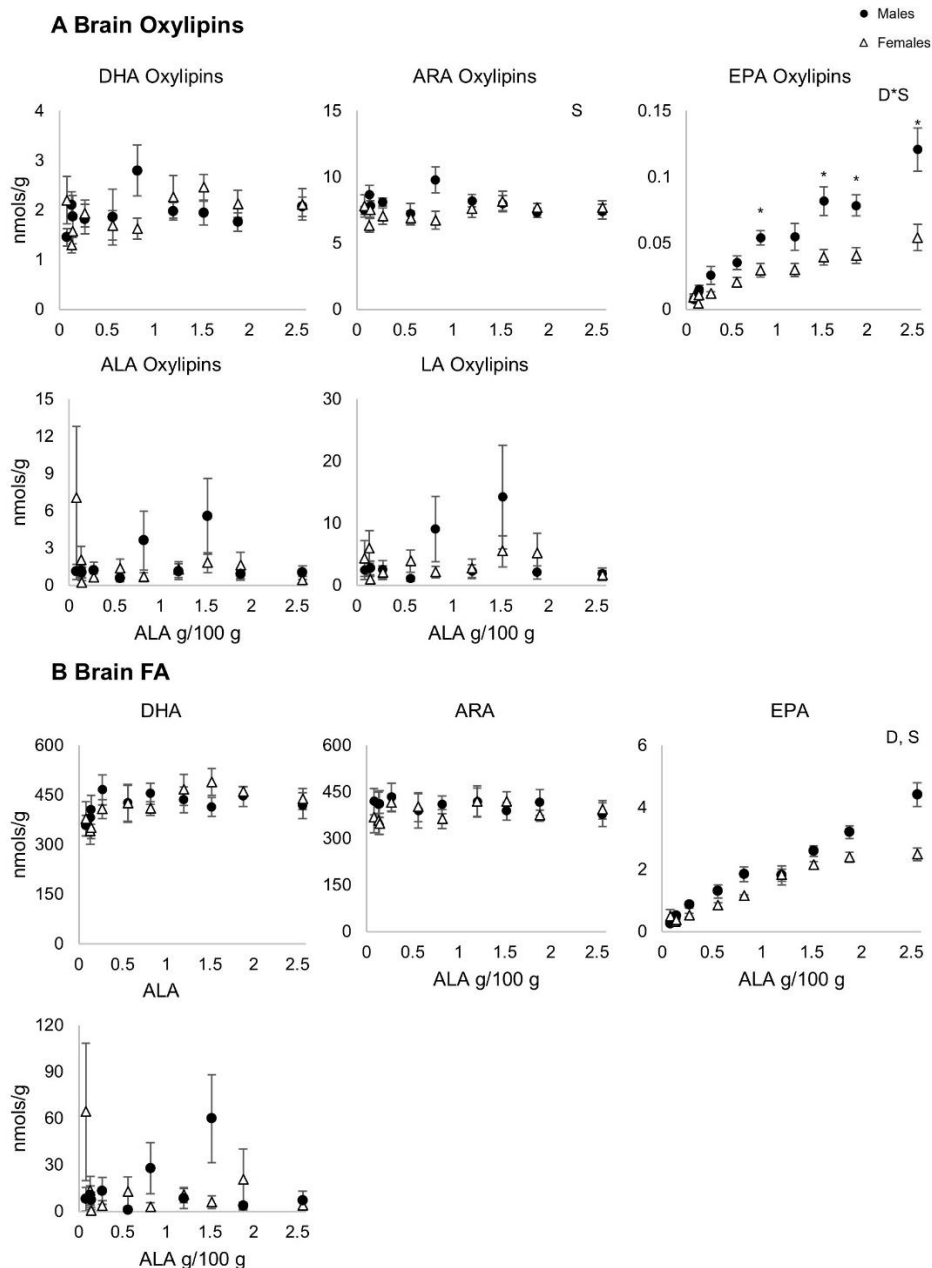


Figure 2-3. NE oxylin and FA concentrations in response to dietary α -linolenic acid (ALA) in the brain.

Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=120, n=6 mice). ANOVA was conducted to evaluate diet, sex and diet*sex effects. D, S and D*S denote diet and sex main effects and their interactions, respectively. Where interactions are present, sex differences are indicated by an * above each diet group on the graph, and diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5. Arachidonic acid (ARA); α -linolenic acid (ALA); linoleic acid (LA).

2.4.3 Ratios of NE pools of DHA and ARA and their oxylipins as biomarkers of adequacy

In all three tissues and serum, the concentration of ALA and EPA and their oxylipins (except brain ALA oxylipins were not affected by dietary ALA) progressively continue to increase in response to dietary ALA, so these cannot be used to establish a dietary requirement for ALA. Similarly, LA oxylipins are not useful in this regard since they are not altered by dietary ALA. On the other hand, in the kidney, liver and serum (but not brain) the concentration of DHA and ARA and their oxylipins reach a point where they approach a maximum and minimum, respectively, with increasing concentrations of dietary ALA, potentially allowing them to be used as indicators of the ALA requirement.

Since a balance of DHA and ARA and their oxylipins both contribute to physiologic function and health, both should be used to assess the dietary ALA requirement. Therefore, the requirement would be the minimum dietary ALA needed to achieve a plateau in the ratio of DHA to ARA and/or their oxylipins. For DHA and ARA, this is simply DHA/ARA. For DHA and ARA oxylipins, multiple pathways produce oxylipins, including some that are exclusive to one FA (e.g. ARA is converted by cyclooxygenase to prostanoid type oxylipins, but not DHA), or are found in different numbers between tissues (i.e. cytochrome P450 epoxygenase oxylipins). Therefore, an unbiased ratio should be comprised of oxylipins that are formed by pathways shared by both FA and are commonly present across multiple tissues. The major pathways that meet this criterion include the lipoxygenase and cytochrome P450 ω -hydroxylase pathways that produce hydroxy-FA (Supplemental Table 1). These are the hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acids (HDoHEs) from DHA and hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acids (HETEes) from ARA. Hence, the hydroxy-DHA/hydroxy-ARA (DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH}) ratio was used for the ratio of DHA to ARA oxylipins.

As seen in **Figure 4A**, $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ in both rat and mouse kidney, liver and serum increased rapidly in response to lower dietary ALA concentrations and then reached a breakpoint after which little or no further increase occurred with further increases in dietary ALA. The tissue that has the highest breakpoint determines the overall dietary requirement, since intake below the value would be insufficient for that tissue. In rats the highest $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ breakpoint was at 0.75g ALA/100g diet in both the kidney and serum, but this did not differ from liver as all three of the 95% CIs overlapped with each other (**Table 3**). In female mice the $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ breakpoint in the liver (0.68g) was higher than in serum, with the kidney breakpoint being in between. In male mice, the oxylipin ratio in the liver (0.63g) and serum (0.66g) yielded similar estimates, with the kidney breakpoint being significantly lower (**Table 4**).

Using the DHA/ARA ratios, in rats the highest breakpoints were in the liver (0.75g ALA/100g diet) and serum (0.70g), with no breakpoint estimable in the kidney (Table 3). In female mice the 95% CI overlapped for all tissues, but the highest breakpoint was in the kidney (0.68g). In male mice, the breakpoint in serum (0.60g) was higher than in either liver or kidney (Table 4).

When comparing $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ and DHA/ARA, the only significantly different breakpoints were in rat kidney (no breakpoint estimable) and mouse liver (where the $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ breakpoint was higher). When comparing male rats and mice, $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ breakpoints were not different between species, and when comparing DHA/ARA ratios the breakpoint was lower only in mouse liver. Hence overall, whether using the $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ or DHA/ARA ratios in kidney, liver or serum, the highest breakpoint estimates were consistently ~0.7g/100g diet in both rats and mice.

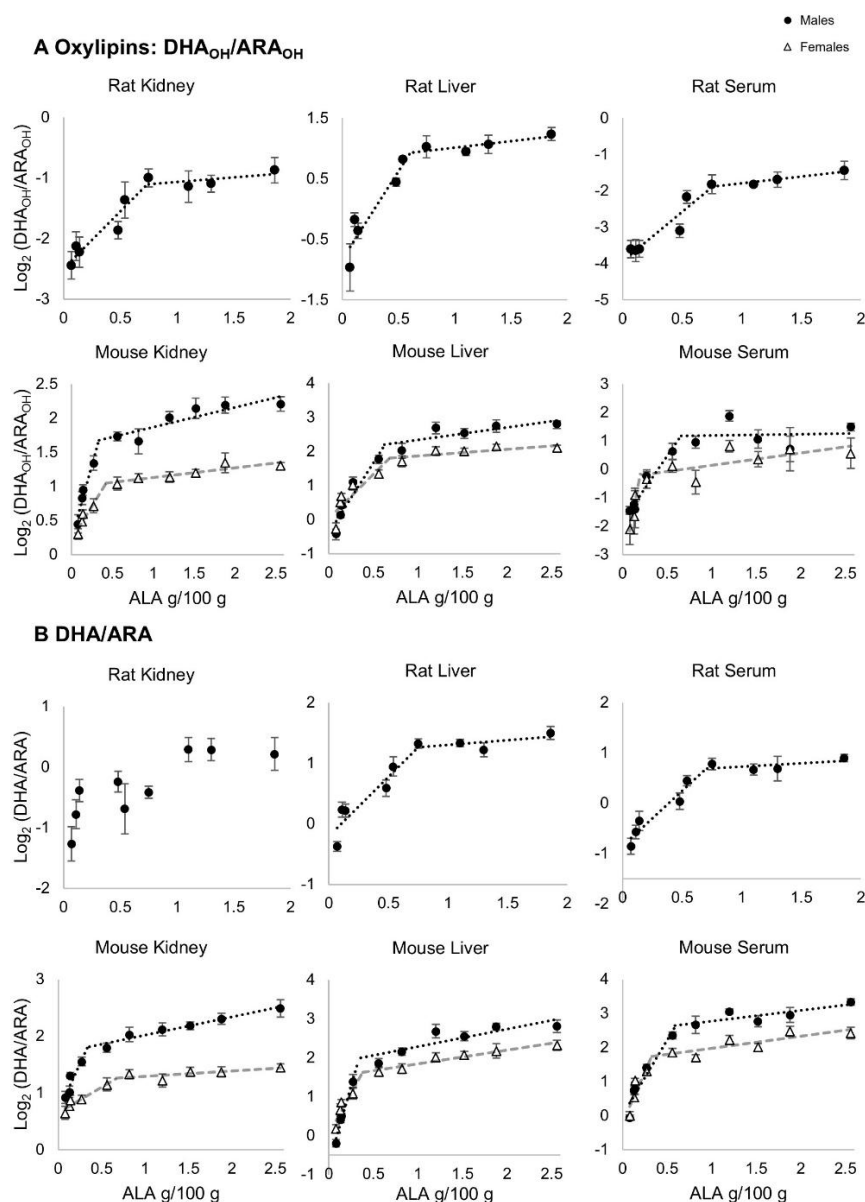


Figure 2-4. DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} (A) and DHA/ARA (B) in response to dietary α -linolenic acid (ALA) in kidney, liver and serum.

Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Log₂ (fold change) data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats). Two lines indicate that two different linear regressions fit the dataset better than one, with the common point between the lines being the breakpoint. Data was analyzed by piecewise regression to determine a breakpoint. Full description of breakpoints and confidence intervals are found in Tables 3-4. DHA/ARA represents the ratio of NE DHA/ARA and DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} represents the ratio of hydroxy DHA/hydroxy ARA oxylipins. Oxylipins in the DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} ratio are: 4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, and 17-hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid (HDoHE) and 5, 8, 9, 11, 12, and 15-hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid (HETE), where present.

Table 2-3. Tissue breakpoints for DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} and DHA/AA from rats provided increasing concentrations of dietary ALA.

	BP (g ALA/100g diet)	95% CI	P value
<i>Kidney</i>			
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.75 ± 0.20	0.34, 1.16	0.0482
DHA/ARA	No breakpoint		0.1762
<i>Liver</i>			
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.60 ± 0.09	0.43, 0.78	0.0004
DHA/ARA	0.75 ± 0.10	0.55, 0.95	0.0002
<i>Serum</i>			
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.75 ± 0.16	0.44, 1.06	0.0133
DHA/ARA	0.70 ± 0.10	0.50, 0.91	0.0005

Data are reported as breakpoint (BP) ± SE, 95% confidence interval (CI) and P value derived from piecewise regression analysis to generate a BP. DHA/ARA represents the ratio of NE DHA/ARA and DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} represents the ratio of hydroxy DHA/hydroxy ARA oxylipins. α-linolenic acid (ALA), arachidonic acid (ARA).

Table 2-4. Tissue breakpoints for DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} and DHA/AA from mice provided increasing concentrations of dietary ALA.

	Female			Male		
	BP (g ALA/100g diet)	95% CI	P value	BP (g ALA/100g diet)	95% CI	P value
<i>Kidney</i>						
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.42 ± 0.10	0.23, 0.61	<0.0001	0.34 ± 0.05	0.25, 0.42	<0.0001
DHA/ARA	0.68 ± 0.16	0.36, 0.99	0.0059	0.36 ± 0.06	0.24, 0.47	<0.0001
<i>Liver</i>						
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.68 ± 0.09	0.50, 0.87	<0.0001	0.63 ± 0.06	0.50, 0.75	<0.0001
DHA/ARA	0.38 ± 0.06	0.26, 0.50	<0.0001	0.34 ± 0.03	0.28, 0.39	<0.0001
<i>Serum</i>						
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.20 ± 0.05	0.09, 0.30	0.0269	0.66 ± 0.12	0.42, 0.90	<0.0001
DHA/ARA	0.32 ± 0.04	0.25, 0.39	<0.0001	0.60 ± 0.05	0.49, 0.70	<0.0001

Data are reported as breakpoint (BP) ± SE, 95% confidence interval (CI) and P value derived from piecewise regression analysis to generate a BP. DHA/ARA represents the ratio of NE DHA/ARA and DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} represents the ratio of hydroxy DHA/hydroxy ARA oxylipins. α-linolenic acid (ALA), arachidonic acid (ARA).

2.4.4 *Sex differences in mouse tissues*

For mouse oxylipins, sex differences in response to dietary ALA were observed at least once for all tissues for oxylipins derived from DHA, ARA and EPA, but not for ALA and LA. There were main effects of sex for DHA (Figure 1) oxylipins in kidney and serum, with higher concentrations of these oxylipins in male kidney and female serum, and on ARA oxylipins in all tissues, with these oxylipins being higher in females in kidney, liver and serum (Figure 2A), and lower in females in brain (Figure 3). There was a diet by sex interaction in EPA oxylipins in mouse kidney, with higher oxylipins in males at lower concentrations of dietary ALA.

For FA, sex differences were observed in all tissues at least once for ALA, EPA and ARA, but for DHA there was only a sex difference in two diet groups in mouse serum. Kidney and serum ARA was higher in females (Figure 2B), while liver, serum and brain EPA was lower in females, and kidney EPA was higher in males (Figure 3, Supplementary Fig 2). LA cannot be quantified with the HPLC/MS-MS method used, so is not reported herein.

The only breakpoints which displayed a sex effect were in serum. For both $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ and DHA/ARA , the breakpoints were lower in females (Table 4).

2.5 *Discussion*

This study demonstrates that NE $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ or DHA/ARA can be used to estimate the dietary ALA requirement in rats and mice. In contrast to prior methods based on the concentration of esterified DHA, this approach uses the NE pools of oxylipins or FA. These free forms of oxylipins and FA are the biologically active forms that bind to their cognate receptors and elicit physiologic and pathophysiologic responses, so are more directly associated with function. In addition, these ratios also incorporate the effects on ARA or its oxylipins, neither of which have previously been used in the assessment of the dietary ALA requirement. ARA and its

oxylipins generally have opposing effects to DHA or its oxylipins, and therefore incorporating both in this assessment is more encompassing of the physiologic and health effects elicited by dietary ALA.

The estimated requirement for dietary ALA in rats and mice when using this approach was found herein to be ~0.7g ALA/100g of diet (~1.7% energy). This estimate is approximately twice as high as previous estimates that were determined by examining the point at which esterified DHA plateau in response to increasing dietary ALA in several tissues. An early study of various tissues and brain cells resulted in an estimate of ~0.2g ALA/100g of diet (~0.4% energy) regardless of which tissue was examined (Bourre et al., 1989), and the 0.5g ALA/100g diet provided by soybean oil in the AIN93G diet is based on these findings (Reeves et al., 1993). Likewise, another early study measuring DHA in mouse liver and peritoneal macrophages suggested a plateau at or below the lowest dietary ALA provided (0.29g ALA/100g of diet) (Whelan et al., 1991). More recent reports examining the concentration at which esterified (phospholipid) DHA reaches a plateau in plasma or erythrocytes reveal that this occurs between 0.3-1% energy ALA (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010). Similarly, estimates of the esterified DHA and DHA synthesis rates were found to plateau at or below 0.3g ALA/100g diet in serum (Domenichiello et al., 2017). Together, these studies supported an ALA requirement between 0.3-1% energy ALA, which is equivalent to 0.1-0.4g ALA/100g in AIN-93G based diets. It should be noted that the estimated dietary ALA requirement herein was set in the context of the AIN93G diet with a fixed concentration of dietary LA and MUFA, and that different concentrations of LA and MUFA may lead to different results.

The method herein to determine the ALA requirement uses the point where an indicator reaches an optimal value or plateau beyond which it is no longer affected by an increase in ALA.

This point indicates additional benefits are unlikely or limited with further increase in nutrient intake. This is a common approach for determining nutrient requirements (Cashman & Flynn, 1999; Willett, 1998) that has been applied to several nutrients, including amino acid requirements (Elango et al., 2008; Institute of Medicine, 2005). ALA and EPA and their oxylipins continue to increase in response to increasing dietary ALA, consistent with previous studies reporting on the esterified concentrations of these FA in response to dietary ALA (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Morise et al., 2004; Portolesi et al., 2007; Tu et al., 2010). Since a plateau in these fatty acids or their oxylipins did not occur within the dietary ALA concentrations tested, there is no point which could be used to indicate an adequate concentration. Even if their concentrations did eventually start to level off with >2g ALA/100g diet, these amounts would clearly be in excess of the dietary requirement (14). Similarly, in a 12-week human study in which 14g of dietary ALA was consumed daily, plasma concentrations of ALA and EPA and their oxylipins continued to increase during the entire 12-week period, while DHA and ARA oxylipins were unaffected since the baseline amounts of ALA were already adequate (Greupner et al., 2018). Thus, until an objective indicator of health linked to a specific concentration of ALA or EPA or their oxylipins is identified, they cannot be used to set the requirement.

In contrast to ALA and EPA and their oxylipins, DHA and its oxylipins appear to reach a plateau in response to increasing ALA, likely because of competition for the conversion to DHA at two Δ^6 desaturase steps, namely the conversion of ALA to stearidonic acid (18:4n3) and the conversion of 24:5n3 to 24:6n3 (D'andrea et al., 2002; Gibson et al., 2013; Portolesi et al., 2007; Voss et al., 1991). The second step appears to be rate limiting (Portolesi et al., 2007), with the resulting plateau in DHA being attributed to a higher enzymatic affinity for 18-carbon FA, when compared to 24-carbon FA (Geiger et al., 1993). ARA and its oxylipins also are used in our

method because although ARA is not in the same part of the PUFA metabolic pathway, it is the major metabolite of the omega-6 pathway, like DHA is for the omega-3 pathway. Further, ARA and its oxylipins decrease with increasing dietary ALA, reflecting their generally opposing effects to those of DHA. Thus, this method incorporates the effects of ALA on the major metabolites of both the omega-3 and omega-6 pathways. The opposite trends are likely due to substrate competition for the pathways that metabolize ALA and LA to longer-chain PUFA (Brenner & Peluffo, 1966; Geiger et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 2013). The decrease of NE ARA in response to ALA in serum and tissues, but not in brain herein, is consistent with its effect on esterified ARA in some (Greupner et al., 2018; Morise et al., 2004; Tu et al., 2010), but not other studies (Domenichiello et al., 2014; Portolesi et al., 2007), while for NE ARA oxylipins we have found that they decrease in response to dietary ALA in rat kidney, liver and serum, as well as other tissues such as the heart, spleen and muscle (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021), but not in the brain (Ferdouse et al., 2019b). Such changes in ARA oxylipins in response to dietary ALA have not been observed in human studies (Gabbs et al., 2021; Greupner et al., 2018).

It is unclear from the current findings whether the oxylipin ratio is a more sensitive indicator than the FA ratio or if they are equivalent. The breakpoint when using the oxylipin compared to the FA ratio was similar in most cases, except in rat kidney and mouse liver. In these exceptions, the oxylipin ratio provided the only or the highest breakpoint, but that alone does not demonstrate that it is superior. Nevertheless, the breakpoint determined by either NE pool provides a higher breakpoint than when using the esterified FA pool that has been historically used (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010). The higher breakpoint found when using the NE pools is consistent with

previous studies in which we observed that the amount of dietary ALA needed to maximize DHA oxylipins was greater than the amount needed to maximize esterified DHA in kidneys of rats with and without obesity (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Leng et al., 2017, 2018). More dietary ALA also has been shown to be required to maximize NE DHA compared to phospholipid DHA in rat plasma in two other studies (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2011). However, comparison of NE to esterified pools of DHA and ARA and their oxylipins in response to dietary ALA remains to be examined in studies designed specifically for this purpose.

The tissue that has the highest ALA requirement determines the overall dietary requirement, since intake below the value would be insufficient for that tissue. Overall, the highest breakpoints derived in kidney, liver and serum were similar in both rats and mice. On the other hand, the brain was not a good indicator of the requirement, as there was no effect of dietary ALA on the concentration of DHA or ARA or their oxylipins. This is consistent with several reports that show that esterified and NE DHA concentrations in the adult rat brain are maintained unless dietary ALA is reduced to at least less than 0.03 g ALA/100g diet (~0.07 %en ALA), whereas the amount of ALA that is needed to maintain DHA concentration is much higher in other tissues such as liver, heart and testes (Bourre et al., 1992; Igarashi et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2011; A. Kulkarni et al., 2022; Taha et al., 2016). This is also consistent with our oxylipin studies that showed that brain oxylipins were resistant to change in response to dietary PUFA, with DHA oxylipin concentration being no different whether the diet contained either 0.3 or 3.4g ALA/100g diet (Ferdouse et al., 2019b). The brain, therefore, appears to have priority for DHA over other tissues. Whether there are differences in the ALA requirement in kidney, liver, serum or other yet to be studied tissues remains to be elucidated.

Whether serum could be a proxy for the body ALA requirement also remains to be determined, as the breakpoints in serum were different than in kidney or liver in a few instances. This is important because serum is much more accessible and could be more readily employed in large human studies. This is also important because the estimated dietary ALA requirement in the mouse study displayed a sex effect when serum was used, but not when liver or kidney were used. Sex differences in breakpoints are plausible, as there were sex differences in the concentrations of FA and oxylipins in the current mouse study. Interestingly, sex differences in the concentrations of oxylipins in these same tissues in rats have been previously observed (Leng et al., 2017, 2018), but the effects were not always consistent with the findings in mice herein. For example, previous study on rats showed that ARA oxylipin concentration in serum, kidney and liver were higher in males, whereas in the current study on mice, they were higher in females. Hence, further studies are needed to elucidate species differences and whether the estimated dietary ALA requirement does differ by sex. Determining whether serum can be used as a proxy for tissues is important, as it has recently been shown that the estimated conversion of ALA to DHA in serum is markedly lower than in liver or whole body (Rotarescu et al., 2024).

In conclusion, this study supports the use of NE oxylipins or FA as biomarkers of ALA intake, specifically the use of NE DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} or DHA/ARA as biochemical indicators of the ALA requirement. Further studies examining whether the DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} or the DHA/ARA ratio is more useful, which tissue has the highest requirement, or whether serum can be used as a proxy for tissues, remain to be explored further. Regardless, our results suggest that the ALA requirement may be higher than previously found by analysis based on esterified DHA alone. This has implications for whether the AIN93-G diet should be reformulated from its current 0.5g ALA/100g of diet. Further, in addition to determining the ALA requirement, we posit that this is

a method that also could be used to address several other key questions in lipid metabolism, such as estimating the ALA equivalency to DHA, the effect of LA concentrations on the ALA requirement, determining the optimal dietary omega-3 to omega-6 FA ratio in the absence of EPA or DHA intake, or determining the potentially altered ALA requirement in specific life stages or disease states.

2.6 Chapter transition

Following the future directions from this study, in the next chapter, the method developed using NE DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins to determine the dietary ALA requirement was applied to determine the bioequivalence between dietary DHA to the dietary ALA requirement.

There were some considerations taken from the findings in chapter 2. In the following study re-assessment of the dietary ALA requirement was conducted with rats to address the gap of female rats not being evaluated in this study. In addition, brain was evaluated, since rat brain was not included herein. The ALA diets were formulated to have more concentrations around the expected breakpoint of 0.7g ALA/100g diet, as this could improve piecewise regression breakpoint estimates. Lastly, the concentrations of dietary DHA were based on previous studies including graded concentrations of DHA (Le et al., 2013; S. Li et al., 2023; Ostermann et al., 2019; Schuchardt et al., 2017), particularly when they had a comparison group that only included dietary ALA. However, none of these previous studies were focused on determining the bioequivalence of dietary DHA to dietary ALA.

Chapter 3: Bioequivalence of docosahexaenoic acid intake to the dietary requirement of alpha-linolenic acid in growing rats using non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids

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3.1 Abstract

Alpha-linolenic acid (ALA) is an essential omega-3 fatty acid that can be converted to docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), which by itself can also meet the dietary omega-3 fatty acid requirement. However, the amount of dietary DHA that is bioequivalent to ALA remains unknown. The study objective was to estimate the DHA dose that is equivalent to the ALA requirement, using non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids. 168 male and female Sprague-Dawley rats received graded doses of dietary ALA (0.10 to 2.0g/100g diet) or DHA (0.07 to 1.3g/100g diet). All diets contained 2g of linoleic acid/100g diet and were based on the AIN93G. Non-esterified fatty acids and oxylipins were analyzed in serum, liver, heart, and brain by HPLC-MS/MS. Using piecewise regression, breakpoints were calculated for ALA diets using DHA/arachidonic acid (ARA) and hydroxy-DHA/hydroxy-ARA oxylipins (DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH}). Breakpoints in serum and liver were highest and most suitable to determine the dietary ALA requirement, with no differences between sexes or whether the DHA/ARA or DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} ratio was used. These breakpoints indicated an estimated average dietary ALA requirement of 0.55g ALA/100g diet (1.32% energy) 95% CI [0.42, 0.69], which is higher than what is provided by the AIN93G diet. DHA was ~4-6 (mean $\pm$ SE: 4.74 ± 0.22) times more potent than ALA, with 0.12g DHA/100g diet (0.3% energy) being equivalent to the 0.55g ALA/100g diet that meets the ALA requirement. Hence, dietary DHA is ~5 times more potent than ALA in meeting the dietary ALA requirement in the growing rat.

Keywords: alpha-linolenic acid, docosahexaenoic acid, oxylipins, fatty acids, dose response, dietary requirement.

3.2 Introduction

Alpha-linolenic acid (ALA, 18:3n3) is an essential omega-3 fatty acid that must be consumed through dietary intake, since it cannot be synthesized *de novo* in mammals (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Neuringer et al., 1988). In the body, ALA is elongated and desaturated to eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5n3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6n3). Incorporation and loss of EPA appears to be faster than of DHA, which suggests a preferential retention of DHA due to its structure and function (Calder, 2016). Some tissues such as the brain have limited capability of conversion, and the heart is unable to convert ALA to DHA due to a lack of elongase-2 (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Demar et al., 2005; Igarashi et al., 2008; Rapoport et al., 2007). Most of the ALA to DHA conversion occurs in the liver, supplying other tissues via blood (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Rapoport et al., 2007). Conversion of dietary ALA to DHA based on serum and plasma studies have long been believed to be low (<1%), which along with a stronger effect of DHA in comparison to ALA on DHA concentration, leads to recommendations for consumption of pre-formed DHA (Brenna et al., 2009; Calder, 2016). However, a recent study has shown that whole-body ALA to DHA conversion was much higher than expected at 9.5% (Rotarescu et al., 2024). This adds to the rationale to support consumption of ALA alone as sufficient to supply DHA to the brain and maintain adequate nutritional status for most people (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Burdge, 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2015).

Currently there is no set dietary requirement of ALA for rodents (Hamilton & Hogan, 1995) or humans, although Adequate Intake recommendations exist for humans based on median amounts of ALA consumption by a healthy population (European Food Safety Authority, 2010; Institute of Medicine, 2005). Recently, we proposed the use of non-esterified DHA/arachidonic acid (ARA, 20:4n6) and their hydroxy oxylipins as biomarkers of the ALA requirement (Manson

et al., 2024). Oxylipins are hormone-like polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) metabolites, and along with non-esterified fatty acids, activate receptors and mediate many of the PUFA effects in tissues (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; Gabbs et al., 2015). In response to dietary ALA, DHA and its oxylipins increase and reach a plateau, whereas the opposite effect is often seen with ARA and its oxylipins (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Manson et al., 2024; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). Since DHA and ARA and their oxylipins reflect a balance of omega-6 to omega-3 fatty acids (Shearer & Walker, 2018) and metabolites with opposing effects (Gabbs et al., 2015), both were included in determining the ALA requirement. In this previous analysis using male and female mice and male rats, and examining liver, kidney and serum, we estimated the ALA requirement to be higher than previous estimates (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991), which were based on esterified DHA concentrations and did not include ARA in the calculation. We therefore revisited this estimate in the current study, expanding our analysis to also include heart and brain tissues in male and female rats.

In contrast with the initial increase followed by a plateau in DHA and its oxylipins in response to increasing dietary ALA, when dietary DHA is increased, its oxylipins continue to increase (Guillot et al., 2009; S. Li et al., 2023; Lust et al., 2023; Saito et al., 1998). To the best of our knowledge, only one study has directly compared the bioequivalence of ALA to DHA in terms of the amount of dietary intake needed to achieve a biological effect. This study in fetal baboons indicated that a maternal diet containing 0.45% energy from ALA was required, whereas 0.03% energy from DHA was sufficient to meet the requirements for fetal brain DHA accretion (Greiner et al., 1997). Additionally, DHA and ARA as the sole PUFA source are sufficient to

reverse or prevent essential fatty acid deficiency in animals (Carlson et al., 2019; Le et al., 2009, 2013; Ling et al., 2012; Strijbosch et al., 2008) and humans under parenteral nutrition (De Meijer et al., 2010). However, the concentration of DHA to achieve a similar biological effect as the ALA requirement is unknown.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to use non-esterified DHA/ARA and their oxylipins, as in our published method (Manson et al., 2024), to estimate the ALA requirement in growing male and female rats. This was then directly compared to increasing doses of DHA to determine the dose of DHA that meets the dietary ALA requirement.

3.3 *Methods*

3.3.1 *Animal study*

After 1 week of acclimation, 84 male and 84 female (total 168) 4-week-old Sprague-Dawley double-caged rats were randomized into 14 diet groups (n=6). Cage position was randomly assigned, and all cages received standard bedding, a tunnel and paper towel as enrichment. Animals received water and diet *ad libitum*. The 14 diets followed the AIN93G guidelines (Reeves et al., 1993) except that soybean oil was replaced by an equal total concentration (7g oil/100g of diet) of combinations of flaxseed, safflower, coconut, and olive oils (**Tables 1-2**).

Out of the 14 diets, 9 diet groups contained graded concentrations of ALA ranging from 0.10 to 1.98 g/100g diet but contained no DHA or EPA. The remaining 5 diets had graded concentrations of DHA ranging from 0.07 to 1.35g/100g of diet. These 5 diet groups had concentrations of ALA as low as possible (~0.005g/100g of diet or 0.01%energy) and the source of omega-3 fatty acids was primarily DHA, which was provided in purified form containing 98% DHA in ethyl ester form (Maxomega DHA 95 EE, BASF, Germany). The DHA oil composition

Table 3-1. Oil amounts and fatty acid composition of diets used for DHA diets

Formulated DHA level	0.050	0.125	0.250	0.500	1.00
<i>Dietary oils (g/100g diet)</i>					
DHA oil	0.058	0.144	0.290	0.580	1.15
Coconut oil	3.38	3.29	3.1	2.81	2.19
Safflower oil	2.80	2.80	2.8	2.81	2.82
Olive oil	0.762	0.770	0.78	0.800	0.840
<i>Analyzed Fatty acids (g/100g diet)</i>					
SFA	3.14	3.38	2.85	2.52	2.16
MUFA	1.01	1.04	1.16	1.04	1.08
PUFA	2.03	2.19	2.58	2.71	3.54
LA	1.94	2.01	2.18	2.05	2.18
ALA	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.009
EPA	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.003	0.005
DHA (g/100g diet)	0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35
DHA (energy %)	0.177	0.395	0.938	1.55	3.22

AIN93G-based diets were formulated as follows: cornstarch (39.8g/100g), casein (20g/100g), dextrose (13.2g/100g), sucrose (10g/100g), fibre (5g/100g), AIN93G-MX (3.5g/100g), AIN93G-VX (1g/100g), L-cystine (0.3g/100g), choline bitartrate, 41.1% choline (0.25g/100g), TBHQ (0.0014g/100g), oil (7g/100g). Diet fatty acids were analyzed in duplicate.

Table 3-2. Oil amounts and fatty acid composition of diets used for ALA diets

Formulated ALA level	0.100	0.200	0.300	0.500	0.700	0.900	1.20	1.50	1.90
<i>Dietary oils (g/100g diet)</i>									
Flax oil	0.180	0.370	0.560	0.950	1.33	1.71	2.29	2.86	3.43
Coconut oil	3.33	3.20	3.08	2.84	2.59	2.35	1.98	1.62	1.26
Safflower oil	2.77	2.75	2.71	2.64	2.58	2.52	2.42	2.32	2.23
Olive oil	0.720	0.680	0.650	0.570	0.500	0.420	0.310	0.200	0.080
<i>Analyzed Fatty acids (g/100g diet)</i>									
SFA	2.96	2.94	2.75	2.64	2.63	2.48	2.35	2.1	1.69
MUFA	1.06	1.06	1.06	1.10	1.12	1.08	1.15	1.25	1.12
PUFA	2.19	2.28	2.37	2.67	2.94	3.07	3.56	4.17	4.19
LA	2.09	2.06	2.06	2.13	2.17	2.12	2.24	2.39	2.21
EPA	0.0003	0.0004	0.0003	0.0003	0.0004	0.0004	0.0003	0.0003	0.0005
ALA (g/100g diet)	0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98
ALA (energy %)	0.239	0.503	0.742	1.29	1.82	2.27	3.16	4.26	4.74

AIN93G-based diets were formulated as follows: cornstarch (39.8g/100g), casein (20g/100g), dextrose (13.2g/100g), sucrose (10g/100g), fibre (5g/100g), AIN93G-MX (3.5g/100g), AIN93G-VX (1g/100g), L-cystine (0.3g/100g), choline bitartrate, 41.1% choline (0.25g/100g), TBHQ (0.0014g/100g), oil (7g/100g). Diet fatty acids were analyzed in duplicate.

was analyzed as described below and is shown in **Supplemental Table 1**. ALA or DHA were increased at the expense of saturated fatty acids. All diets contained constant amounts of linoleic acid (LA) and monounsaturated fatty acids at ~2g and ~1g/100g diet, respectively. The concentration of LA meets the LA requirement of 1.2 g/100 g of diet (Bourre et al., 1989), and represents 4.8% of energy. This is similar to the ~5% energy reflected in the Adequate Intake recommendation for humans (Institute of Medicine, 2005). All diets were in pelleted form and were purchased from Dyets (Bethlehem, PA). Results of fatty acid compositions (as described below) are shown in Tables 1-2.

After the 6-week dietary intervention period, non-fasting animals were anesthetized with isoflurane and terminated by decapitation. Trunk blood was collected to obtain serum. After exsanguination, liver, heart and brain were harvested and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Serum and tissues were stored at -80°C until analysis. All samples were analyzed except two serum samples for male rats in the 0.165 DHA diet group and one brain sample of a female rat in the 0.305 ALA diet group were lost during analyses. All procedures were approved by the University of Manitoba Animal Care Committee and conducted in accordance with the Canadian Council for Animal Care and ARRIVE guidelines (Percie du Sert et al., 2020).

3.3.2 *Diet fatty acid analysis*

Fatty acid compositions of the DHA oil and of the final diets were analyzed by gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID), as described (Gabbs et al., 2021). Briefly, 5mg of oil or 25mg of diet was extracted via liquid-liquid extraction based on the Folch method (Folch et al., 1957) for total lipids with chloroform/methanol (2:1/vol:vol), 0.01% BHT, and 0.73% sodium chloride. Phosphatidylcholine C15:0 (Avanti Polar Lipids, AL, USA) was used as an internal standard and pipetted and weighed for confirmation in each sample using an

analytical scale. Lipid extracts were dried down and fatty acids were transmethyalted using methanolic H₂SO₄ (Aukema & Holub, 1989). The resulting methylated fatty acids were extracted using hexane and ultrapure water, dried down and re-suspended in hexane. Samples were separated on a 30m DB-225MS column (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) using a Bruker 450 GC-FID.

3.3.3 *Non-esterified oxylipin and fatty acids analysis*

Analyses of non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids were based on the method from (Dumlao et al., 2011a) and conducted as previously described (Aukema et al., 2016; Leng et al., 2017; Monirujjaman et al., 2017). Representative portions of frozen livers, whole frozen hearts, and whole frozen brains were homogenized in Tyrode's buffer (pH 7.6) (Sigma-Aldrich, MA, USA) (1/5.7, wt/vol). Lipids in these samples were solubilized by adding methanol formic acid to liver, heart and brain, or methanol only to serum, followed by pH3 water (adjusted with HCl) to achieve a 20% methanol in pH3 water solution. Antioxidant cocktail [0.2mg/ml BHT, 0.2mg/ml EDTA, 100µM indomethacin, 100µM trans-4-[4-(3-adamantan-1-yl-ureido)-cyclohexyloxy]-benzoic acid (t-AUCB) in methanol/water (50/50, vol/vol) (Rund et al., 2018)] and deuterated internal standards (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA) were added to each sample. A complete list of standards and their concentrations was described in (Manson et al., 2023).

All samples were adjusted to pH3 using 1N HCl or NaOH prior to solid phase extraction with 33 µm polymeric reverse-phase Strata-X solid phase extraction columns (Phenomenex, CA, USA). Non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids were eluted with methanol, dried down under a nitrogen stream, and resuspended in the mobile phase (water/acetonitrile/acetic acid, 70/30/0.02, vol/vol/vol). Analysis was conducted using HPLC-MS/MS (HPLC: Nexera-XR LC-20AD XR, Shimadzu, Japan; mass spectrometer: QTRAP 6500; AB Sciex, ON) with a reverse phase

column: Luna 5u C18(2) 100A; 250 x 2.00 mm (Phenomenex, CA, USA). The software used for the instrument was Analyst 1.6.2 (AB Sciex, ON) and for data analysis MultiQuant 3.0.5373.0 (AB Sciex, ON). Quantitation was based on the stable isotope dilution method (Hall & Murphy, 1998). Peak heights of 5 times baseline were set as the lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) and an oxylipin was considered quantifiable if at least 5 samples in any diet group met this criterion. Sample preparation and peak selection were blinded and conducted in random order.

Supplemental Table 2 shows all quantifiable oxylipins in each tissue.

3.3.4 *Statistical analysis*

First, all zeroes were replaced by half of the lowest limit of detection (LLOD) for each component. Piecewise regression analysis was then conducted to determine a breakpoint in rats that received ALA diets. This analysis was conducted on $\log_2$ of the ratio of non-esterified DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} oxylipins (representing the ratio of total hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid/total hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid oxylipins) or non-esterified DHA/ARA fatty acids, generating a fold-difference value, so that the reciprocals of the ratio are symmetric and have equal weighting, as previously described (Manson et al., 2024). Piecewise regression with breakpoint estimates incorporating bootstrap was conducted using RStudio (2023.06.0+421, 2023 Posit Software, PBC) using the package segmented by Vito M. R. Muggeo version 1.6-4 from April 13, 2023 (Muggeo, 2023). Breakpoints were considered different if their 95% confidence intervals (CI) did not overlap. This analysis was conducted in segregated male and female data.

Once a breakpoint was determined, the equation values were extracted from the regression analysis, which were for the linear increase in the component of interest in response to dietary ALA (i.e. the first part of the graph), and the value of “y” for x equal to the breakpoint of ALA was calculated. The DHA data was plotted, and a trendline curve and equation was

generated using all data (i.e. not just the means). The same “y” value found for the breakpoint of ALA was inputted into the DHA equation to determine the amount of DHA that would be equivalent to the breakpoint of ALA (i.e. the ALA requirement). The upper and lower confidence interval values for ALA breakpoint were used to generate a confidence interval for the DHA bioequivalent dose.

Statistical analysis to determine dose and sex effects were conducted using multiple linear regression, followed by Fisher's Protected LSD tests. Data were separated into ALA and DHA diets for analysis. Normality was tested a priori using the Shapiro-Wilk test. If data were not normal, log-transformation was applied. Interaction of fatty acid dose and sex were evaluated and if the interaction was not significant it was removed from the model and a regression was conducted using the main effects of fatty acid dose and sex only. Fatty acid dose was included in the model as a continuous variable. To test for differences in effect of ALA vs DHA diet, multiple linear regression was applied with all ALA and DHA diets. In this model the main effects of diet (ALA vs. DHA) were analyzed when controlling for both dose and sex effects. Brain samples were run in three separate batches; thus, the effect of run was included in the model for these analyses when significant. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SE. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Animal body and tissue weight

Rat body weight, growth and tissue weight (liver, heart, brain) were not different according to ALA or DHA dose. Male rats had higher body and tissue weights than female rats (Supplemental Tables 3-4).

3.4.2 Determination of the ALA requirement

The ALA requirement was determined using DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} oxylipins and DHA/ARA to generate breakpoints in separate analysis for each ratio, for males and females, and for each tissue (serum, liver, heart) (**Figure 1, Table 3**). Although breakpoints generated using oxylipin ratios were numerically higher than the ones generated using fatty acid ratios in 5 out of 6 analyses, there were no differences between the use of DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} or DHA/ARA when determining breakpoints (Figure 1, Table 3, **Supplemental Table 5**). Similarly, females had generally higher breakpoints than males in serum and liver; however, a marginally significant sex difference was only identified in liver and only when using the DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} but not the DHA/ARA ratio. The heart generally had lower breakpoints (0.33-0.42g of ALA/100g of diet) in comparison with serum and liver (0.38-0.95g of ALA/100g of diet); this was significant compared to both serum and liver in females when using DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH}, and when compared to serum in females when using DHA/ARA. Brain was clearly different than all other tissues, due to a lack of a breakpoint at the dietary ALA concentrations provided, indicating that its breakpoint was much lower than for serum, liver and heart, and even at very low dietary ALA concentrations it has sufficient ALA to maximize DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} and DHA/ARA ratios.

When determining the requirement for dietary ALA, it is ideal to use the breakpoint in the tissue with the highest breakpoints since this determines the concentration that is sufficient for the tissue(s) with the highest requirements. The breakpoints for liver and serum were therefore used to determine the requirement, since they were not different from each other, but were higher than in the heart and brain; hence the requirement was estimated from the 8 breakpoints for liver and serum in males and females and for both ratios. The lowest breakpoint indicated a minimum requirement of 0.38 ALA/100g of diet (0.91% energy), while the highest breakpoint was at 0.95g

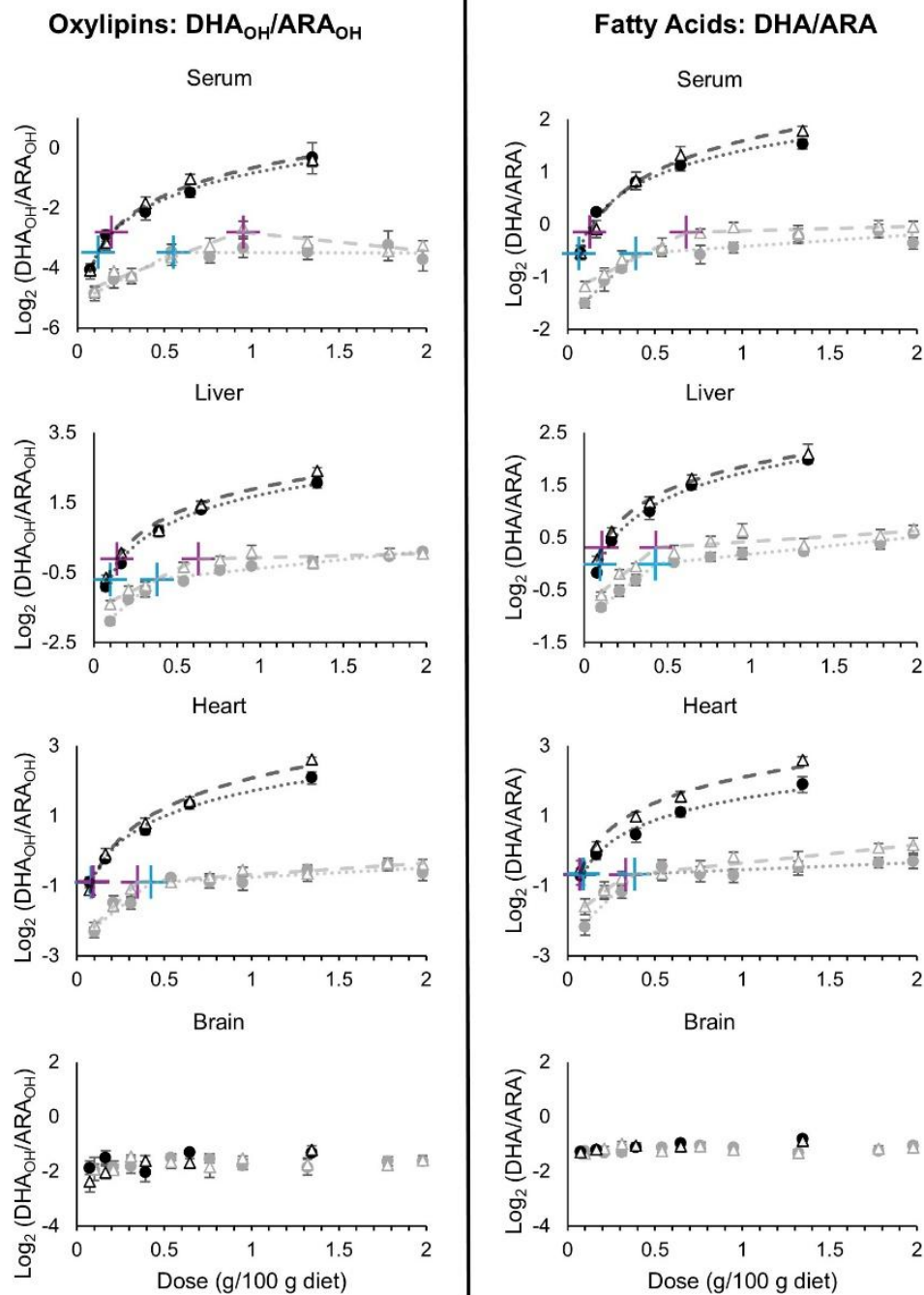


Figure 3-1. Non-esterified DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} (left) and DHA/ARA (right) in response to dietary ALA and DHA in serum, liver, heart, and brain (mean±SE; n=6). The breakpoint of ALA was analyzed by piecewise regression, and the breakpoint was applied to the DHA equation to determine the DHA bioequivalence to the ALA requirement. Bioequivalence between ALA and DHA is shown with blue crosses for males and pink crosses for females. ALA: grey; DHA: black; Males: filled circles; Females: outlined triangles.

Table 3-3. ALA Breakpoints (BP) with 95% confidence intervals (CI) and DHA equivalency.

	Female						Male					
	BP (ALA g/100g)	95% CI	P value	DHA Eq. (DHA g/100g)	95% CI	Equipotency (fold difference)	BP (ALA g/100g)	95% CI	P value	DHA Eq. (DHA g/100g)	95% CI	Equipotency (fold difference)
<i>Serum</i>												
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.95 ± 0.11	0.72, 1.17	0.0002	0.197	0.14, 0.28	4.82	0.55 ± 0.12	0.31, 0.80	0.0211	0.121	0.07, 0.22	4.57
DHA/ARA	0.67 ± 0.11	0.45, 0.91	0.0006	0.128	0.08, 0.20	5.32	0.39 ± 0.07	0.25, 0.52	0.0014	0.064	0.04, 0.12	6.09
<i>Liver</i>												
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.63 ± 0.08	0.46, 0.80	0.0001	0.139	0.10, 0.20	4.54	0.38 ± 0.04	0.30, 0.46	<0.0001	0.099	0.07, 0.14	3.87
DHA/ARA	0.43 ± 0.08	0.27, 0.59	<0.0001	0.105	0.06, 0.19	4.09	0.43 ± 0.07	0.29, 0.56	<0.0001	0.093	0.06, 0.15	4.57
<i>Heart</i>												
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	0.35 ± 0.04	0.26, 0.43	0.0003	0.091	0.07, 0.13	3.8	0.42 ± 0.12	0.26, 0.59	0.004	0.081	0.04, 0.15	6.11
DHA/ARA	0.33 ± 0.08	0.18, 0.49	0.0241	0.07	0.04, 0.12	4.76	0.38 ± 0.06	0.26, 0.51	0.0021	0.089	0.05, 0.18	4.31

Data is reported as breakpoint±SE followed by the confidence interval and the p value. P values represent statistical analysis from R package segmented (function selgmented). Following determination of a breakpoint, and respective response variable at an ALA concentration equal to the breakpoint, the equivalent DHA concentration was calculated by inputting the "y" value for the ALA breakpoint into the DHA equation. Equations used can be found in Supplemental Table 5.

ALA/100g diet (2.27%energy). The average of for all 8 breakpoints indicated a requirement of 0.55 ± 0.07 g of ALA/100g of diet (1.32% energy) 95% CI [0.42, 0.69].

3.4.3 *Equivalence of DHA to the requirement of ALA*

Based on the dietary ALA requirement, the DHA equivalence was determined in serum, liver, and heart for each ratio and sex. The DHA equivalence was the concentration of dietary DHA that results in the $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ or DHA/ARA value that is equivalent to the corresponding value for the ALA breakpoint. Regardless of which breakpoint was used ($\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ or DHA/ARA, in serum, liver, or heart, in males or females), the dose of DHA that was bioequivalent to the ALA requirement was consistently 4 to 6-fold (mean $\pm$ SE: 4.74 ± 0.22) lower than the ALA requirement dosage (Figure 1, Table 3, Supplemental Table 5). Even when the heart was not included in this calculation the mean difference was 4.74 ± 0.25 , since both the ALA breakpoint and the equivalent DHA dose were correspondingly lower. The DHA bioequivalence in the brain cannot be determined as ALA breakpoints could not be generated for this tissue. The dosages of DHA to achieve the same effect as the ALA requirement in serum and liver of females were higher than in males but were not significantly different [0.11 – 0.20g DHA/100g of diet (0.25 – 0.47% energy) vs. 0.06 – 0.12g of DHA/100g of diet (0.15 – 0.29% energy), respectively (Figure 1, Table 3)]. The average of the 8 DHA bioequivalence dosage estimates among liver and serum, for males and females, using both $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ and DHA/ARA is 0.12 ± 0.04 g of DHA/100g of diet (0.28% energy) 95% CI [0.09, 0.15], which is 4.7-fold less than the average amount of ALA (0.55g/100g diet) that meets the dietary requirement for ALA.

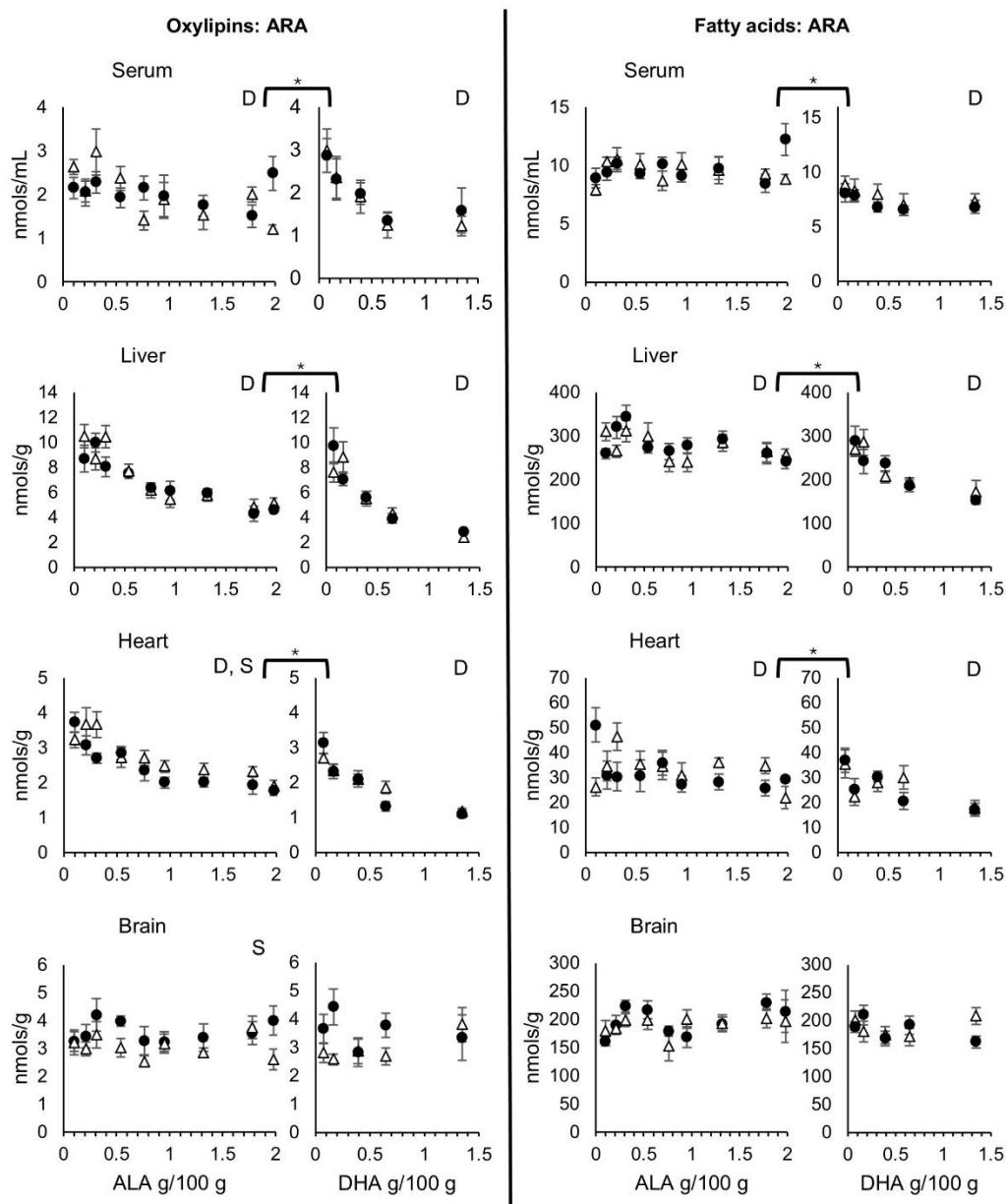


Figure 3-3. Non-esterified total ARA oxylipins (left) and ARA (right) in response to dietary ALA and DHA in serum, liver, heart, and brain (mean $\pm$ SE; n=6). Multiple linear regression was applied separately to dietary ALA and DHA groups to determine dose and sex effects. Results are shown on the upper right corner (D: Dose; S:Sex). A separate multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine difference in effect between dietary ALA and DHA while controlling for dose and sex, with significance indicated by * above brackets between the dietary ALA and DHA graphs. ALA: grey; DHA: black; Males: filled circles; Females: outlined triangles. Complete statistical results are reported in Supplemental Tables 6-7.

3.4.4 Overall effects of ALA and DHA on fatty acids and oxylipins

In serum, liver, and heart, but not in the brain, dietary ALA and DHA increased DHA and its oxylipins (**Figure 2**), and decreased ARA and its oxylipins (except ARA in serum with dietary ALA) (**Figure 3**), with a stronger effect of DHA in comparison with ALA. With respect to other PUFA and oxylipins, dietary ALA and DHA linearly increased EPA and its oxylipins in all tissues (**Supplemental Fig 1**), with a stronger effect of ALA in comparison with DHA on EPA in the heart, but a stronger effect of DHA on EPA oxylipins in the liver, and on EPA in the brain. In serum, liver, and heart, but not in the brain, ALA and its oxylipins increased linearly in response to dietary ALA, but did not change in response to dietary DHA (**Supplemental Fig 2**). Dietary ALA compared to DHA had a much stronger effect on ALA oxylipins.

LA oxylipins were decreased with increasing dietary ALA in serum, and by both ALA and DHA diets in liver, with no difference in the effects of ALA vs. DHA on these oxylipins (**Supplemental Fig 3**). Adrenic acid (ADA) and gamma-linolenic acid (GLA) were detected in serum and liver, and ADA decreased in response to both dietary ALA and DHA, with a stronger effect of DHA on reducing ADA concentrations in serum. GLA concentrations were decreased with increasing doses of ALA or DHA in female livers only (**Supplemental Fig 3**), with GLA concentrations being lower for dietary DHA groups in both liver and serum.

3.4.5 Sex effects on fatty acids and oxylipins

Considering all analysis, including total oxylipins (DHA, EPA, ALA, ARA, LA) as well as fatty acids (DHA, EPA, ALA, ADA), for all four tissues, which constituted 40 analyses, 18 (45%) of them had a sex difference for at least one of the ALA and/or DHA diets. When considering each ALA and DHA diet separately for all tissues (80 sex comparisons), 28 (35%) of the comparisons displayed a sex difference (**Figures 2-3**; **Supplemental Figures 1-3**;

Supplemental Tables 6-7). Of these, 24/28 (86%) sex differences were higher in females and 20/28 (72%) were noted in oxylipins. Sex differences varied by tissue: heart had the most sex differences (13/28 – 46%), followed by liver (10/28 – 35%), while serum (3/28 – 11%) and brain (2/28 – 7%) had the least. All of the sex differences in the heart and serum were higher in females, 80% were higher in females in liver, and both differences in the brain were higher in males. In the heart, sex effects were dose dependent (dose*sex interaction) in three instances (DHA oxylipins with the DHA diet, EPA oxylipins with both diets), in which females had higher concentrations of these oxylipins only at higher concentrations of ALA or DHA, and our data suggest these differences increase with dosage (Figure 2; Supplemental fig 1).

3.5 Discussion

This study reveals that 0.12g DHA/100g diet is bioequivalent to the 0.55g ALA/100 g diet that meets the estimated average dietary ALA requirement in the growing rat, resulting in a ~5-fold higher potency of DHA compared to ALA. Dietary DHA also generates higher DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} and DHA/ARA ratios than the plateaus achieved with ALA alone, so any DHA above the dietary requirement generates an additional increase in these ratios. These conclusions are based on our method which utilizes DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} or DHA/ARA ratios to determine the ALA requirement, which was herein further validated and expanded from prior estimates in serum, liver and kidneys of male and female mice and male rats (Manson et al., 2024) to estimates from male and female rat serum, liver, heart and brain herein. Together these findings indicate that serum and liver provide the best estimate of the dietary ALA requirement, which was found to be 0.55g ALA/100g diet in the growing rat.

Several previous studies have shown that DHA compared to ALA increases DHA and its oxylipins to a greater extent (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Gabbs et al., 2021; Greiner et al., 1997;

Leng et al., 2018; S. Li et al., 2023; Mendonça et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021; H. -M. Su et al., 1999), and although not as clearly, reduces ARA and its oxylipins more strongly (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Gabbs et al., 2021; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021). In addition, the more potent effect of DHA (or fish) relative to a diet with only ALA is suggested by research with a single DHA dose (Schuchardt et al., 2017), graded doses of DHA (Le et al., 2013; S. Li et al., 2023) and graded portions of fish (Ostermann et al., 2019). However, only Grenier et al (1997) (Greiner et al., 1997) directly compared ALA and DHA with the goal of estimating bioequivalence. In this study, a maternal diet with 0.45% energy from ALA was sufficient to support normal fetal brain DHA accretion in baboons whereas only 0.03% energy from DHA was needed (Greiner et al., 1997). This higher DHA potency estimate may be due to the higher ALA requirement for the fetal baboon brain compared to the current findings in the growing rat brain, in which the brain breakpoint was likely less than the lowest dose of ALA (0.10g/100g diet, 0.24% energy). It also may be due to species differences, or a greater dependency of the brain on pre-formed DHA at an earlier stage of development that displays a higher DHA accretion rate during this period of peak brain growth (Clandinin et al., 1980; Greiner et al., 1997; Lapillonne et al., 2013; S. L. Smith & Rouse, 2017).

The amount of dietary DHA that meets the requirement for ALA is low, close to the lowest DHA dose provided of 0.07g DHA/100g diet. Hence, in the context of adequate or marginal ALA intake, most DHA intake will lead to additional effects on DHA and ARA and their oxylipin ratios. This is similar to the lower effect of ALA compared to EPA and DHA on the omega-3 index (EPA+DHA concentration in erythrocytes), a risk factor for cardiovascular disease (Dempsey et al., 2023). While intake of EPA and DHA is sometimes associated with a

reduction in cardiovascular disease and mortality, ALA intake is not or has a smaller effect (Abdelhamid et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2006). Since ALA deficiency is uncommon, the already maximal DHA/ARA oxylipin and fatty acid ratios may explain the lack of effect of ALA on cardiovascular outcomes. On the other hand, the ability of DHA to increase these ratios beyond the maximum achieved with dietary ALA may explain how dietary DHA (and possibly EPA) could improve cardiovascular disease. In this regard, suboptimal ALA intake in some individuals or studies may help explain the variability in EPA/DHA study outcomes, since supplementation with EPA/DHA in ALA deficiency would increase low DHA/ARA oxylipin and fatty acid ratios to a concentration associated with adequacy. This is similar to the suggestion that differences in baseline EPA/DHA concentrations may help explain the variability in the cardiovascular benefits of EPA/DHA (Bae et al., 2023).

The dietary ALA requirement estimate in the current study was 0.55 ± 0.07 g of ALA/100g of diet (1.32% energy) 95% CI [0.42, 0.69]. When combining our results of serum and liver herein, with our previous estimates (Manson et al., 2024) in serum, liver, and kidney in male and female mice and male rats, the average of the 25 breakpoint estimates generated is 0.54 ± 0.04 g of ALA/100g of diet [0.47, 0.62], demonstrating consistency among studies, species, sexes and ratios used. The liver and serum were used in the current study to estimate the requirement because their breakpoints were higher than the heart in several cases, indicating that the heart may have priority for DHA uptake and therefore not reflect overall body requirement. Similarly, the brain appears to have even greater priority for DHA, as the breakpoint appears to be lower than the ALA provided in the lowest ALA diet. This is consistent with studies showing that brain DHA concentrations are maintained unless dietary ALA is reduced to at least less than 0.03 g ALA/100g diet (~ 0.07 % energy ALA), in contrast with other tissues (Bourre et al., 1992;

Igarashi et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2011; A. Kulkarni et al., 2022; Taha et al., 2016). The brain is similarly resistant to change in oxylipins with up to 3g DHA/100g of diet (Ferdouse et al., 2019b). The fact that serum has similar breakpoints to liver in the current rat study and to liver and kidney in mice and male rats previously (Manson et al., 2024), suggests that blood could be used to estimate ALA status when using this method. This remains to be confirmed, as there may be other yet unexplored tissues that may exhibit a higher requirement.

Higher conversion of ALA into DHA in females has been observed in liver (Rezaei et al., 2024), even when liver synthesis rates of ALA to DHA in ALA fed mice were not shown to be different between sexes (Rotarescu et al., 2024). However, although the liver $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ breakpoint was marginally higher in females, and the dose of DHA that met the ALA requirement was numerically higher in females, a sex difference in the ALA requirement or DHA bioequivalence was not shown herein. Further, in contrast to the numerically higher breakpoints in serum $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ and DHA/ARA in the current rat study, these breakpoints were significantly lower in female serum in our previous mouse study (Manson et al., 2024). This may reflect a species difference, as DHA concentrations have been reported to be higher (Cohen & Ward, 2005; Rezaei et al., 2024), or not different (ALA diet) (Rotarescu et al., 2024) in male mouse serum, compared to no sex differences in rat serum herein and previously (Leng et al., 2018), or higher DHA in female rat serum (Kitson et al., 2012; Leng et al., 2017). Nevertheless, potential sex differences in the ALA requirement or DHA bioequivalence remain to be investigated further.

Overall, the estimated ALA requirement herein and previously using the same method (Manson et al., 2024), suggest a higher ALA requirement than previous studies using esterified DHA only. These estimates ranged between 0.3 to 1.0% energy (~0.1 to 0.4g ALA/100g of diet

in AIN-93G based diets) (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991), which is similar to the human acceptable macronutrient distribution range (AMDR) of 0.6-1.2% energy from ALA for both adults and children (Institute of Medicine, 2005). Non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids may be better biomarkers because they are the biologically active forms that bind to their cognate receptors and elicit physiologic and pathophysiologic responses. Previous data suggests that esterified DHA reaches a plateau at lower concentrations than non-esterified DHA (Couëdelo et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2011) or its oxylipins (Caligiuri et al., 2013; Leng et al., 2017, 2018), but this remains to be investigated. Including ARA also adds strength to the assessment of the ALA requirement, since ARA oxylipins decrease and plateau in response to ALA intake (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Manson et al., 2024; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). ARA oxylipins often have opposing effects to DHA oxylipins (Gabbs et al., 2015) and influence health, as recently emphasized by ARA adipose tissue content being associated with higher all-cause mortality in a large prospective cohort study (Bork et al., 2025). Therefore, incorporating ARA and its oxylipins is more encompassing of the health effects elicited by ALA and may contribute to the higher requirement estimates herein.

Collectively, the current study suggests a potential need for reformulation of dietary omega-3 guidelines. This includes the AIN93G diet for the growing laboratory rodent (Reeves et al., 1993), as it contains ~0.50g ALA/100g diet. An estimated average requirement of 0.55g of ALA/100g of diet would be expected to meet the needs of approximately half of the rodent population (Institute of Medicine, 2005), potentially leading to variability in research results, particularly between strains of animals. In addition, an estimate of 1.3% of calories would reflect a mean dietary intake of 2.3-2.9g of ALA/day in a child or teenage human diet of 1600-2000kcal.

This is slightly higher than the recommended intake of 0.6-1.2% energy and the median ALA intake in US and Canada for children (0.9g/day) and adolescents (1.0-1.6g/day) (Institute of Medicine, 2005). Notably, pediatric populations are expected to have higher dietary ALA requirements (Barceló-Coblijn & Murphy, 2009; Bourre et al., 1989, 1993; Sinclair et al., 2022). Since recent studies have reported potentially inadequate omega-3 status in teenagers (Almasri et al., 2023; Vyncke et al., 2012) and even essential fatty acid deficiency in subset populations of children and teenagers (Cardino et al., 2024), further research may be warranted in pediatric populations at risk of dietary ALA deficiency, such as those with malabsorption and/or risk of malnutrition.

Retroconversion of DHA to EPA is reportedly very low (Metherel et al., 2017), so the similar and sometimes greater effect of DHA in comparison to ALA on EPA (except heart) and its oxylipins was unexpected. This may be explained by the concentrations of EPA present in the DHA oil, which contributed to the higher EPA content (0.0006 to 0.005g vs. 0.0003g of EPA/100g diet in DHA vs ALA diets, respectively) in the DHA diet. The low concentrations of ALA oxylipins when dietary ALA is low and DHA is the primary source of omega-3 fatty acids is consistent with a previous study in laying hens (S. Li et al., 2023), and should also be noted. Since ALA oxylipins may have beneficial effects on their own (Cambiaggi et al., 2023; Eccles & Baldwin, 2022; Gabbs et al., 2015), this could be a potential detrimental effect of a diet containing primarily DHA, although this is rather uncommon.

In conclusion, dietary DHA is ~5-fold more potent than ALA in meeting the dietary ALA requirement as assessed by DHA/ARA oxylipin and fatty acid ratios. When the dietary ALA requirement is met, the effect of any further DHA induced increase in the DHA/ARA oxylipin and fatty acid ratios on health remains to be elucidated. The higher dietary ALA requirement of

0.55g ALA/100 g diet that is estimated from using the ratios of both DHA and ARA and their oxylipins suggests the AIN93G diet may need to include moderately higher ALA concentrations. These studies also illustrate how $\text{DHA}_{\text{OH}}/\text{ARA}_{\text{OH}}$ or DHA/ARA as biochemical indicators of dietary ALA adequacy can be applied to answer other key questions in lipid metabolism, such as comparing the bioequivalence of EPA to ALA and DHA, determining how LA influences the ALA requirement, DHA bioequivalence and the optimal dietary omega-3 to omega-6 ratio, and determining the ALA requirement and DHA equivalence in other life stages and disease states.

3.6 Chapter transition

In the study presented in chapter 3 we show that in rat hearts increasing doses of dietary DHA have a more pronounced effect on DHA oxylipins in females than males. Similarly, in previous studies the sex differences found were dependent on the diet (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Mendonça et al., 2018). Since these sex differences observed in oxylipins did not reflect fatty acid data, and the effects observed were consistent among oxylipins from COX, LOX, and CYP pathways, this suggests these sex differences could be mediated by changes in PLA₂ activity according to diet.

However, there was a lack of studies on PLA₂ activity towards fatty acid release and even less was known about how this further impacts oxylipin formation. In addition, using traditional PLA₂ activity methods we would be limited in how we could explore this hypothesis. This is since these studies use synthetic phospholipids and recombinant enzymes, making it difficult to reflect diet and sex differences observed in vivo. Furthermore, PLA₂ activity assays in which we would be able to use our samples to reflect diet and sex effects conditions as in vivo would be limited in how PLA₂ activity is assessed, as this is typically done by analysis of a single product. This would limit our ability to evaluate and gain insights into enzyme activity towards PUFA

release and oxylipin formation, which would be important in the context of the hypothesis to be investigated. Therefore, we developed a method presented in chapter 4 to be able to evaluate PLA₂ activity towards PUFA release and oxylipin formation ex vivo in rat hearts using inhibitors.

Chapter 4: Phospholipase A₂ enzymes differently impact PUFA release and oxylipin formation ex vivo in rat hearts

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4.1 Abstract

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) enzymes cleave cell membrane phospholipids and release polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), which can be converted into oxylipins. However, little is known about PLA₂ preference for PUFA, and even less is known about how this further impacts oxylipin formation. Therefore, we investigated the role of different PLA₂ groups in PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts. Sprague-Dawley rat heart homogenates were incubated without or with varespladib (VAR), methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate (MAFP) or EDTA. Non-esterified PUFA and oxylipins were determined by HPLC-MS/MS, and isoform expressions by RT-qPCR. Inhibition of sPLA₂ IIA and/or V by VAR reduced the release of ARA and DHA, but only DHA oxylipins were inhibited. MAFP reduced the release of ARA, DHA, ALA, and EPA, and the formation of ARA, LA, DGLA, DHA, ALA, and EPA oxylipins. Interestingly, cyclooxygenase and 12-lipoxygenase oxylipins were not inhibited. mRNA expression levels of sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ isoforms were highest whereas levels of cPLA₂ were low, consistent with activity. In conclusion, sPLA₂ enzymes lead to the formation of DHA oxylipins, while iPLA₂ is likely responsible for the formation of most other oxylipins in healthy rat hearts. Oxylipin formation cannot be implied from PUFA release, thus, both should be evaluated in PLA₂ activity studies.

Keywords: phospholipase A₂; polyunsaturated fatty acids; oxylipins; omega-3 fatty acids; fatty acid metabolism; eicosanoids.

4.2 Introduction

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) is a superfamily of enzymes involved in the hydrolysis of membrane phospholipids (Dennis et al., 2011; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019). The polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) released by PLA₂ can then be converted by cyclooxygenase (COX), lipoxygenase (LOX), and cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes into oxylipins. These bioactive lipid mediators are involved in important physiological and pathophysiological cardiovascular functions, such as regulation of vascular tone, inflammation, cardiac function, and blood coagulation (Caligiuri et al., 2017; Dennis & Norris, 2015; Dietrich et al., 2010; Fujioka et al., 2008; Gabbs et al., 2015; Kerkelä et al., 2011; Micova et al., 2016; Moon et al., 2018; Yano et al., 2011). Notably, oxylipins derived from different fatty acid precursors and/or pathways have distinct functions that can be protective or detrimental (Astudillo et al., 2019; Dennis & Norris, 2015; Gabbs et al., 2015). For example, oxylipins derived from arachidonic acid (ARA) via COX can stimulate or inhibit platelet aggregation, mediate tachycardia, and increase vascular resistance, while LOX and CYP oxylipins derived from docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) generally have anti-inflammatory effects and can inhibit COX activity and platelet aggregation (Gabbs et al., 2015). Thus, specific PLA₂ isoform inhibitors that target oxylipin formation are being widely explored as potential drugs to target diseases such as cardiovascular disease (Jantan et al., 2014; Shukla et al., 2015).

Importantly, research on PLA₂ preference for PUFA release is limited, particularly on the release of omega-3 fatty acids, and even less is known about how PLA₂ inhibition impacts oxylipin formation. Three main PLA₂ families are primarily involved in PUFA metabolism and oxylipin synthesis: secreted (s)PLA₂, cytosolic (c)PLA₂, and calcium-independent (i)PLA₂ [also known as patatin-like phospholipases (PNPLA)] (Dennis & Norris, 2015; Mouchlis & Dennis,

2019; Ramanadham et al., 2015). *In vitro* studies to date indicate that cPLA₂ α preferentially mediates release of ARA, while iPLA₂ β and sPLA₂V appear to prefer LA. In addition, sPLA₂V has been shown to release more DHA and iPLA₂ β to release more EPA in comparison with both cPLA₂ α and iPLA₂ β or sPLA₂V (Hayashi et al., 2021; Mouchlis et al., 2018). Although most PLA₂ activity in mouse heart has been reported as coming from iPLA₂ β and iPLA₂ γ (Jenkins et al., 2009; Moon et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2011), some activity has been reported from cPLA₂ α in mouse myocardium, and possibly from cPLA₂ ζ in human heart (Cedars et al., 2009; Jenkins et al., 2009; Moon et al., 2018). The heart also is a major source of sPLA₂ (Berry et al., 2015; Hernandez-Anzaldo et al., 2015). With respect to PUFA metabolism and oxylipin formation, the role of iPLA₂ γ in the mouse heart has been explored (Moon et al., 2016), but the roles of other PLA₂s, including sPLA₂, in the heart remain to be elucidated. Tissue compositions of oxylipins do not always reflect phospholipid or neutral lipid fatty acid content (Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018), and in PLA₂ studies oxylipin production does not always reflect PUFA release from PLA₂ (Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016), so it is necessary to examine the effects of PLA₂ isoforms specifically on oxylipins.

The current methods available to assess PLA₂ activity and isoform preference for PUFA commonly use synthetic or labelled phospholipids and recombinant PLA₂ enzymes.

Alternatively, phospholipids or PLA₂ are extracted from tissues and used for assessing PLA₂ isoform activity *in vitro* (Leslie & Gelb, 2004; Mouchlis et al., 2019; Reynolds et al., 1991).

Much information has been obtained from these studies, but these *in vitro* methods do not always completely reflect the situation *in vivo*. For example: single or synthetic phospholipids do not reflect the effects of the complex phospholipid compositions present in tissue on enzyme activity

and single enzyme assay conditions do not account for the complex interactions between and for the relative amounts of multiple PLA₂ isoforms in vivo. Further, assessing only PUFA release does not necessarily predict oxylipin production, and limited analyses of PUFA provides an incomplete picture of overall activity (Astudillo et al., 2019; Hayashi et al., 2021; Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Mouchlis et al., 2019; Murase et al., 2016; Offer et al., 2005). In vivo effects of PLA₂ isoforms on oxylipin production have been evaluated in a limited number of knockout models (Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016), but these also are limited in their ability to account for interactions between PLA₂ isoforms.

In the current study we utilized an ex vivo approach used previously in COX isoform studies (C. J. Smith et al., 1998; Warford-Woolgar et al., 2006), which assesses PLA₂ isoform activities in heart tissue homogenates containing all phospholipid substrates and intrinsic PLA₂ isoforms present in the tissue. To determine how different PLA₂ isoforms impact PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts, we quantified the release of non-esterified PUFA and production of non-esterified oxylipins simultaneously in the presence and absence of selective PLA₂ inhibitors. We found that sPLA₂ IIA and/or V released ARA and DHA, but only DHA oxylipins were affected, and that iPLA₂ enzymes are likely primarily involved in the release of ARA, ALA, EPA and the formation of ARA, LA, DGLA, ALA, and EPA oxylipins.

4.3 Materials and Methods

4.3.1 Tissue procurement

Rat hearts were obtained from 8-week-old male Sprague-Dawley that were the healthy untreated control rats provided a nutritionally adequate diet in a separate experiment. Rats were anesthetized with isoflurane and terminated by decapitation. After exsanguination, hearts were

removed, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. All procedures were done in accordance with the Canadian Council for Animal Care and ARRIVE guidelines (Percie du Sert et al., 2020) and approved by the University of Manitoba Animal Care Committee.

4.3.2 *Phospholipase A₂ activity*

Frozen hearts were thawed on ice, weighed, rinsed in ice-cold Tyrode's buffer (pH 7.6) and homogenized in 7.4 volumes of Tyrode's (1.8mM CaCl₂, 1.05mM MgCl₂, 2.68mM KCl, 137mM NaCl, 0.417mM NaH₂PO₄, 11.9mM NaHCO₃, and 5.55mM D-Glucose; Sigma-Aldrich, MA, USA). The homogenate was then stored at -80°C until analyses. On the day of assay, heart homogenates were thawed on ice and 200 μ L aliquots were pre-incubated with inhibitor or vehicle [dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)] on ice for 15 min prior to incubation at 37°C. For each heart homogenate, aliquots were taken at time 0 (baseline) and after 20 min of incubation, with and without inhibitors. All incubations were done in a shaking water bath at 37°C. The incubation time was based on a time course incubation that showed that the curve for PUFA release and oxylipin formation was linear at 20 min (**Supplemental Figure 1**). Reactions were stopped by the addition of 500 μ L of methanol formic acid (100:1/v:v), followed by addition of 800 μ L pH 3 water, 90 μ L ethanol, 10 μ L antioxidant cocktail [0.2 g/L butylated hydroxytoluene, 0.2 g/L EDTA, 2 g/L triphenylphosphine, and 2 g/L indomethacin in methanol:ethanol:water (2:1:1, v:v:v)], and 100 μ L of deuterated internal standards diluted in 50% ethanol (**Supplemental Table 1**) (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA). Samples were adjusted to pH 3, centrifuged at 14000 g, and the supernatant was loaded onto 33 μ m polymeric reverse-phase Strata-X solid phase extraction columns (Phenomenex, CA, USA) that were pre-conditioned with 3.5 mL of methanol, followed by 3.5 mL of pH 3 water. Sample tubes were rinsed with 1

mL of 10% methanol in pH 3 water, centrifuged again and this supernatant was also loaded onto the column. The column was then rinsed with 2 mL pH 3 water, followed by 1 mL hexane. Non-esterified oxylipins and PUFA were eluted with 1 mL methanol, filtered through a Pasteur glass pipette with glass wool and sodium sulfate, and rinsed with 300 μ L of methanol. Samples were then dried down under a nitrogen stream and re-suspended in the mobile phase (water/acetonitrile/acetic acid, 70/30/0.02, v/v/v) for analysis. Analysis of non-esterified oxylipins and PUFA was performed by HPLC-MS/MS (QTRAP 6500; Sciex, ON), using a reverse phase C18 column, as described (Aukema et al., 2016; Dumlao et al., 2011a; Leng et al., 2017; Monirujjaman et al., 2017). Activity was calculated as the result of the incubated sample (with or without inhibitor) minus the sample at baseline (not-incubated – time 0min), divided by the incubation time (20min). This was to account for non-esterified PUFA and oxylipin amounts already present in the homogenate as well as those released during the processes of homogenizing, freezing and thawing.

4.3.3 *Inhibitors*

The inhibitors used in this study were R-bromoenol lactone (R-BEL) for iPLA₂ γ , S-bromoenol lactone (S-BEL) for iPLA₂ β , varespladib (LY315920) for sPLA₂ IIA, V and X, LY311727 for sPLA₂ IIA, V and X, methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate (MAFP) for cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ (all purchased from Cayman Chemical, MI, USA), and pyrrophenone (PYR) (Calbiochem, MA, USA) for cPLA₂ α . EDTA (Promega Corporation, WI, USA) was used to chelate calcium and inhibit activity of Ca-dependent PLA₂ isoforms (cPLA₂ and sPLA₂). All inhibitors were diluted in DMSO. Before addition to the sample, the inhibitor in DMSO was diluted in Tyrode's to achieve a final concentration of 0.1% DMSO. DMSO alone at a concentration of 0.1% was added to the control samples without inhibitor.

4.3.4 *PLA₂ isoform expression*

Primers for 25 PLA₂ isoforms were designed based on NCBI primer-blast tool (Ye et al., 2012). A primer was only selected if the position strand matched the rat genome database (J. R. Smith et al., 2019), and if there was no predicted formation of self-dimers, primer-dimers, hairpins, or self-annealing of 3' and 5' ends (Breslauer et al., 1986; Kibbe, 2007). GAPDH was used as housekeeping gene and its sequence was obtained from a previous paper (Vesentini et al., 2012). A detailed list of PLA₂ primers is provided in **Supplemental Table 2**. For RNA extraction, a Monarch Total RNA miniprep kit (New England Biolabs, ON, Canada) was used. RNA quality and concentration were determined by NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, ON, Canada). RNA was reverse transcribed using iScript Advanced cDNA Synthesis Kit and iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad Laboratories, ON, Canada) was used for reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) using 25 ng of cDNA and the cycling protocol for Applied Biosystems StepOne. Melt curves were analyzed to assess primer suitability, and amplicon length confirmed by 2.5% agarose gel electrophoresis of the PCR product. PLA₂ mRNA that were not at detectable levels in the heart were tested with rat brain and testis as positive controls to confirm that the primers were functional. The relative expression of mRNA was calculated based on the cycle threshold (CT) using the formula $2^{-\Delta CT}$, where $\Delta CT = CT \text{ of gene of interest} - CT \text{ reference gene}$. CT values that were equal to or higher than 35 were considered non-quantifiable/not detectable.

4.3.5 *Statistical analysis*

The results were analyzed by one-way ANOVA for repeated measures followed by the protected least-squares means adjusted for multiple comparisons by Tukey (SAS OnDemand for Academics, SAS Institute Inc., NC, USA). Normality was assessed by the Shapiro Wilk test.

When data were not normal, they were log transformed to reach normality where possible. Data that was not normal even when log transformed were analyzed by the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test. Outliers were removed when they were above the mean $\pm$ 3 SD. Data is reported as mean $\pm$ SE (or mean $\pm$ SD in **Supplemental Figures 1-5**) and statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Phospholipase A₂ inhibition in the rat heart

First, specific inhibitors of PLA₂ isoforms cPLA₂ α (PYR), iPLA₂ β (S-BEL), iPLA₂ γ (R-BEL), and sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X (VAR, LY311727) were tested on hearts of rats of differing ages and sexes. Using doses reported to be effective for each inhibitor (Dietrich et al., 2010; Flamand et al., 2006; Moon et al., 2018; Quach et al., 2014; Yun et al., 2016), PYR, S-BEL, R-BEL did not inhibit PUFA release and oxylipin formation (Supplemental Figure 2), but VAR and LY311727 exhibited dose dependent inhibition towards the release and formation of some PUFA and oxylipins (Supplemental Figures 3 and 4). Since we did not detect activity of cPLA₂ α , iPLA₂ β , and iPLA₂ γ by the inhibitors PYR, S-BEL, and R-BEL, no other specific iPLA₂ γ inhibitors were commercially available, and iPLA₂ β is thought to have low activity in healthy hearts (Jenkins et al., 2009), a non-specific inhibitor for cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ (MAFP) was tested, in an approach similar to Moon *et al* (Moon et al., 2018). Chelation of Ca by EDTA was used to distinguish between cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activities, so along with MAFP and VAR, this covered the activities of all relevant PLA₂ isoforms. EDTA was used at a concentration of 5mM, in excess of CaCl₂ concentration in Tyrode's, and also based on literature values (Lucas & Dennis, 2005; Moon et al., 2012). As shown in Supplemental Figure 5, dose-dependent effects on PUFA release and oxylipin formation were observed for MAFP. Confirmation of the dose dependent effects of

MAFP and VAR are presented in Supplemental Tables 3 and 4. Based on the dose studies, 0.1 μ M VAR and 10 μ M MAFP were used in the studies reported herein.

4.4.2 *Non-esterified polyunsaturated fatty acids*

The most abundant PUFA detected in rat heart homogenates was ARA, followed by DHA, and then much lower levels of α -linolenic acid (ALA) and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA). After 20 min of incubation at 37°C, ARA and DHA levels increased similarly and to a greater extent than ALA and EPA, resulting in much higher (~50–200 times) PLA₂ activity towards ARA and DHA compared to ALA and EPA release (**Figure 1**). LA, GLA, and DGLA are not included since these PUFA are not quantified in our system.

When heart homogenates were incubated for 20 min without and with VAR, MAFP or EDTA, ARA release was inhibited ~50-60% by each of VAR, MAFP and EDTA (**Figure 2**). EDTA inhibits Ca-dependent PUFA release; thus, the similar extent of inhibition of ARA by EDTA and VAR indicates that the Ca-dependent ARA release was primarily due to the sPLA₂ IIA, V, and/or X, and not the remaining Ca-dependent isoforms, which includes cPLA₂ and other sPLA₂ isoforms. Therefore, this also indicates that iPLA₂ isoforms, and not cPLA₂ isoforms, were mostly responsible for the ARA released that is inhibited by MAFP.

DHA release was inhibited ~80% by each of VAR and EDTA, and ~40% by MAFP (**Figure 2**). Following the rationale above, this indicates that a greater proportion of DHA release was via sPLA₂ IIA, V, and/or X rather than iPLA₂, with minimal cPLA₂ activity. The fact that these numbers sum to greater than 100% also suggests that there is redundancy in PLA₂ activity towards DHA.

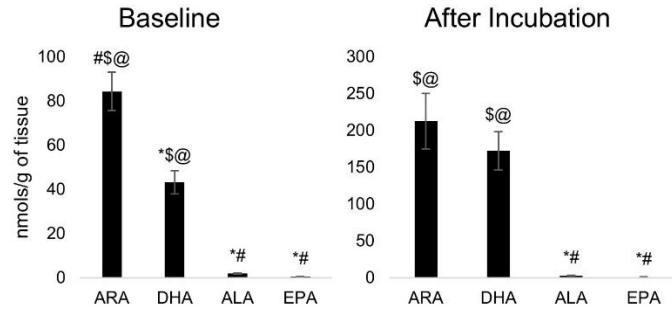


Figure 4-1. PUFA levels in rat heart homogenates at baseline and after 20 min incubation (n=6; mean±SE).

Statistical difference is shown when $p < 0.05$. Difference from ARA is indicated by *; difference from DHA is indicated by #; difference from ALA is indicated by \$; difference from EPA is indicated by @.

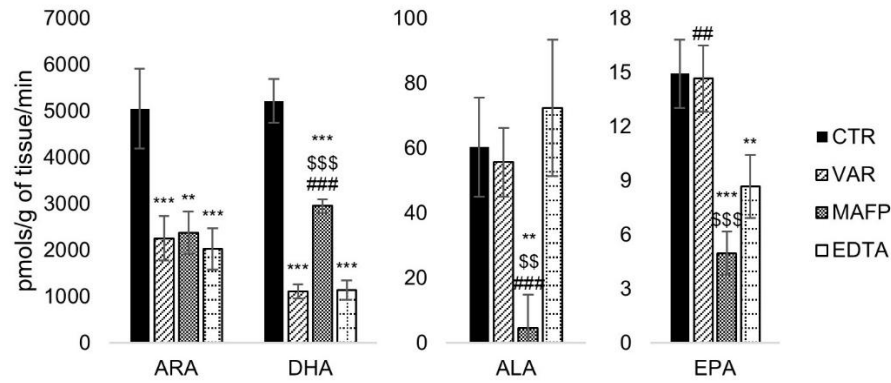


Figure 4-2. Effects of MAFP, VAR and EDTA on PUFA release (n=6; mean±SE). CTR – control samples without inhibitor, VAR - 0.1μM of VAR (sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X inhibitor), MAFP – 10μM of MAFP (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ inhibitor), EDTA – 5mM (Ca-dependent PLA₂ inhibitor). Difference from CTR is indicated by *; difference between inhibitors VAR and MAFP is indicated by \$; difference from EDTA is indicated by #. One symbol p<0.05; two symbols p<0.01; three symbols p<0.001.

With respect to other omega-3 PUFA, ALA release was inhibited >90% by MAFP, with no effect of VAR or EDTA (Figure 2). The lack of inhibition by VAR and EDTA excludes roles for Ca-dependent PLA₂ isoforms, indicating that the ALA release is due primarily to iPLA₂ activity. EPA release was inhibited ~40% by EDTA and ~70% by MAFP, but not by VAR (Figure 2). This indicates that ~40% of EPA is formed via Ca-dependent isoforms and ~60% of EPA release is due to iPLA₂ isoform activities. Since VAR has no effect on EPA release, and there was still about 40% of Ca-dependent EPA release that was not inhibited with MAFP, it is likely that this remaining activity is due to other sPLA₂ isoforms not inhibited by VAR.

4.4.3 *Non-esterified oxylipins*

ARA and linoleic acid (LA) oxylipins were the most abundant oxylipins in rat heart homogenates (**Figure 3**), followed by DHA, ALA, and EPA oxylipins. The relative amounts of ARA, ALA and EPA oxylipins generally reflected the relative abundance of their precursor PUFA, while DHA oxylipins were underrepresented relative to the proportion of PUFA (Figures 1 and 3). LA oxylipins could not be compared to LA since our method does not quantify LA. The relative amounts of the increased oxylipins were similar after incubation (Figure 3), except that now the difference between DHA oxylipins and ALA and EPA oxylipins was significant. We then examined the effect of VAR and MAFP inhibitors on oxylipin formation in order to determine the PLA₂ isoforms associated with the formation of oxylipins. EDTA was not tested since cPLA₂ activity was minimal, as determined from PUFA analysis (Figure 2). Further, interpretation of results with EDTA treatment on oxylipins would be limited because in addition to inhibiting Ca-dependent PLA₂ isoforms, it also inhibits oxylipin synthesizing enzymes that are Ca-dependent, such as 5- and 15-LOX (Brinckmann et al., 1998; S. Kulkarni et al., 2002; Rouzer & Samuelsson, 1987). More than half of individual ARA oxylipins derived via the LOX and

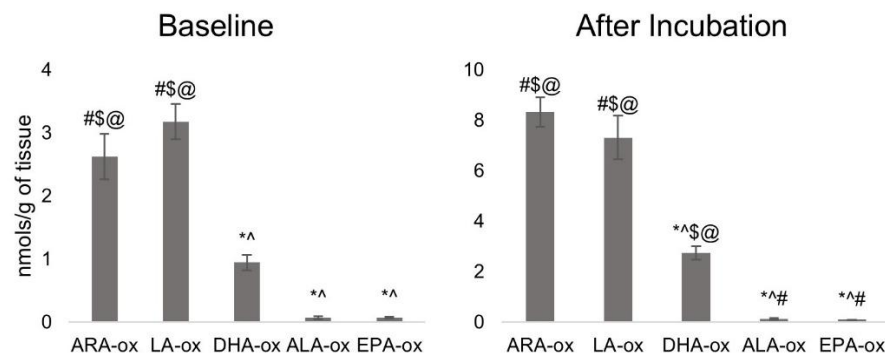


Figure 4-3. Total oxylipin levels by PUFA precursor in rat heart homogenates at baseline and after incubation for 20 min (n=6; mean±SE).

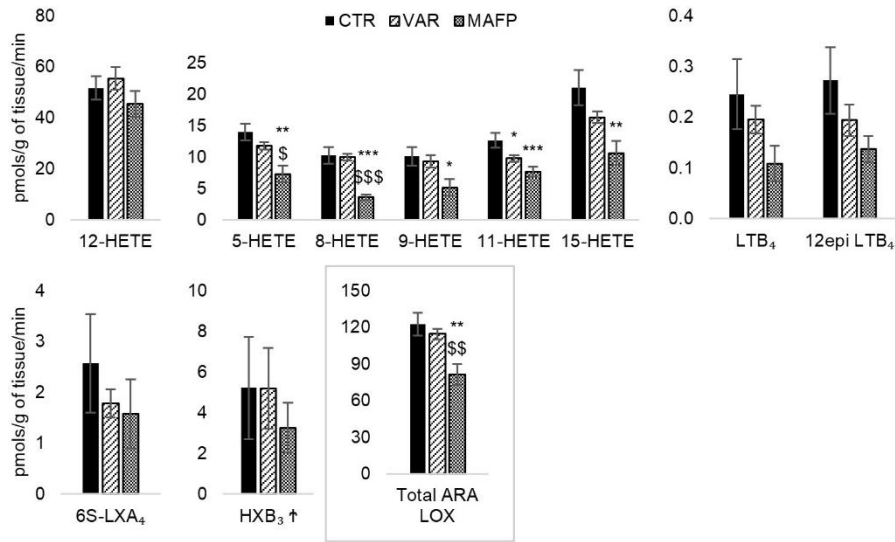
‘Ox’ is used to indicate oxylipin after the abbreviation for each PUFA precursor. Statistical difference is shown when $p < 0.05$. Difference from ARA is indicated by *; difference from LA is indicated by ^; difference from DHA is indicated by #; difference from ALA is indicated by \$; difference from EPA is indicated by @.

CYP pathways were inhibited by MAFP, which is similar to its inhibitory effect on ARA. In contrast, very few ARA oxylipins were inhibited by VAR, despite it inhibiting ARA release by >50% (Figures 2, **4A-B**). Since VAR had minimal effect on ARA oxylipins and cPLA₂ did not contribute to ARA release, this indicates that ARA oxylipins derived via the LOX and CYP pathways are associated primarily with iPLA₂ activity. When the oxylipins for the LOX and CYP pathway were summed, the totals reflected most individual oxylipins, except for the 12-LOX product 12-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (12-HETE) (Figure 4A-B).

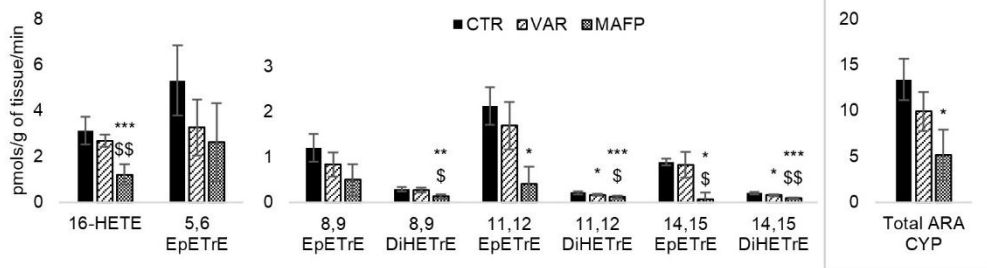
Similar to ARA, most LOX and CYP oxylipins derived from other omega-6 PUFA, namely LA and dihomo- γ -linoleic acid (DGLA), were also inhibited by MAFP, but not VAR, indicating that their formation is associated with iPLA₂ and/or cPLA₂ activity (**Figure 5**). Activity of cPLA₂ cannot be ruled out for these omega-6 PUFA derived oxylipins, since their precursor PUFA were not quantified and the PLA₂ isoforms associated with their release were not identified. Further, like ARA COX oxylipins, total DGLA COX oxylipins also were not affected either by VAR or MAFP, and effects on individual oxylipins were minor (less than 15% different than control) and did not follow a discernable pattern (Figures 4C and 5D).

With respect to DHA oxylipins, total and several individual DHA oxylipins derived via the LOX pathway were inhibited more by VAR than MAFP (**Figure 6A**). This pattern was like that of DHA release and indicated that DHA oxylipin formation also was associated more with sPLA₂ IIA, V and/or X activity than iPLA₂ activity. Notably, the only DHA LOX oxylipin that was not significantly inhibited by either VAR or MAFP was the 12-LOX metabolite, 14-hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid (14-HDoHE). With respect to DHA CYP oxylipins, 3 out of 4 were inhibited by VAR, and only 1 out of 4 was inhibited by MAFP. Total DHA CYP oxylipins

A) ARA LOX Oxylipins



B) ARA CYP Oxylipins



C) ARA COX Oxylipins

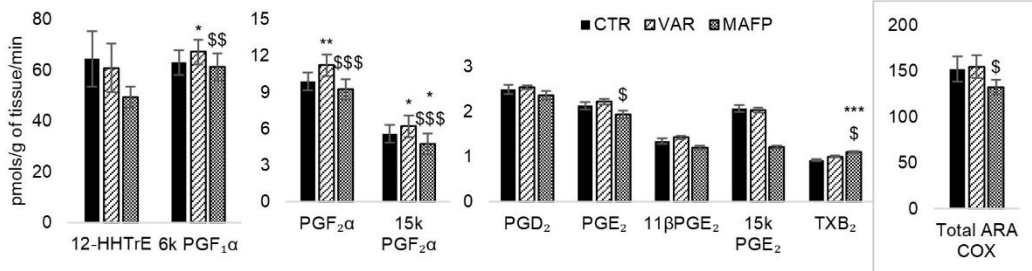
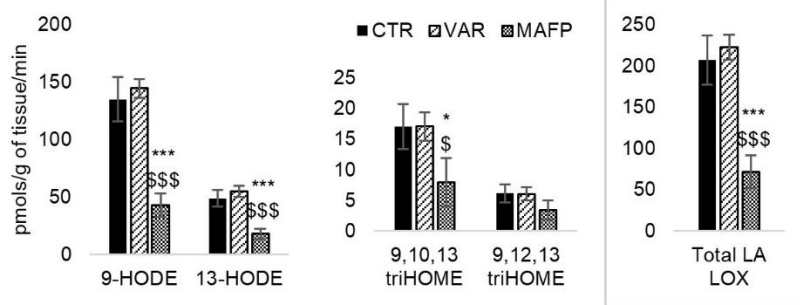
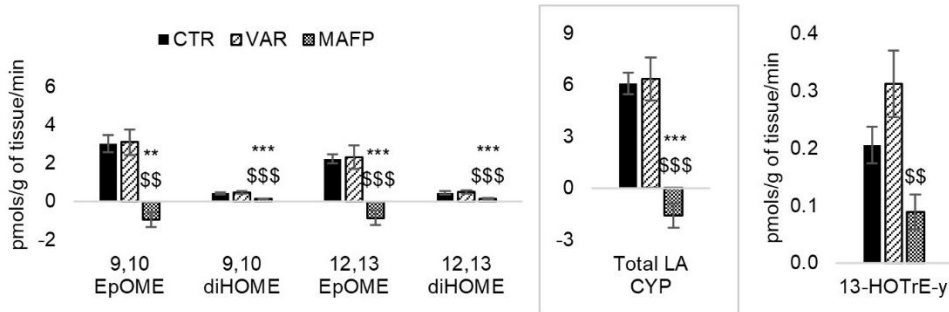


Figure 4-4. Effects of VAR and MAFP on ARA oxylin formation (n=6; mean±SE). A) LOX oxylin, B) CYP oxylin, C) COX oxylin. CTR – control samples without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 μM of VAR (sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X inhibitor), MAFP – 10 μM of MAFP (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ inhibitor). Difference from CTR is indicated by *; difference between inhibitors VAR and MAFP is indicated by \$. One symbol p<0.05; two symbols p<0.01; three symbols p<0.001. The symbol † indicates a non-quantifiable oxylin (so units are arbitrary and not included in corresponding total).

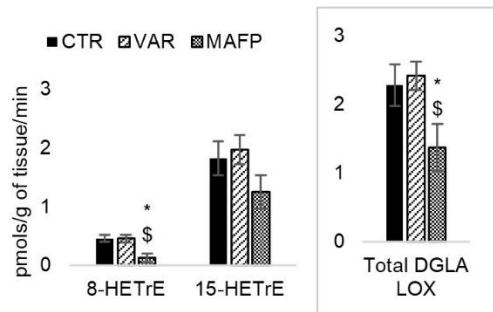
A) LA LOX Oxylipins



B) LA CYP Oxylipins & GLA Oxylin



C) DGLA LOX Oxylipins



D) DGLA COX Oxylipins

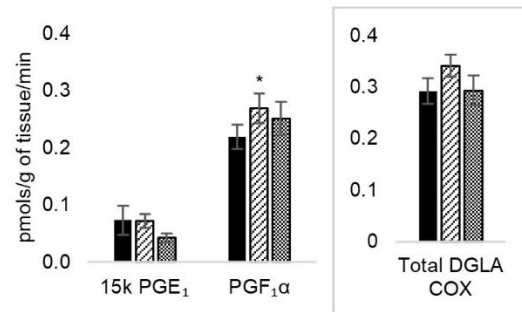


Figure 4-5. Effects of VAR and MAFP on LA, GLA, and DGLA oxylin formation (n=6; mean±SE).

A) LA LOX oxylipins, B) LA CYP oxylipins & GLA oxylin (13-HOTrE-γ), C) DGLA LOX oxylipins, D) DGLA COX oxylipins. CTR – control samples without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1μM of VAR (sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X inhibitor), MAFP – 10μM of MAFP (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ inhibitor). Difference from CTR is indicated by *; difference between inhibitors VAR and MAFP is indicated by \$. One symbol p<0.05; two symbols p<0.01; three symbols p<0.001.

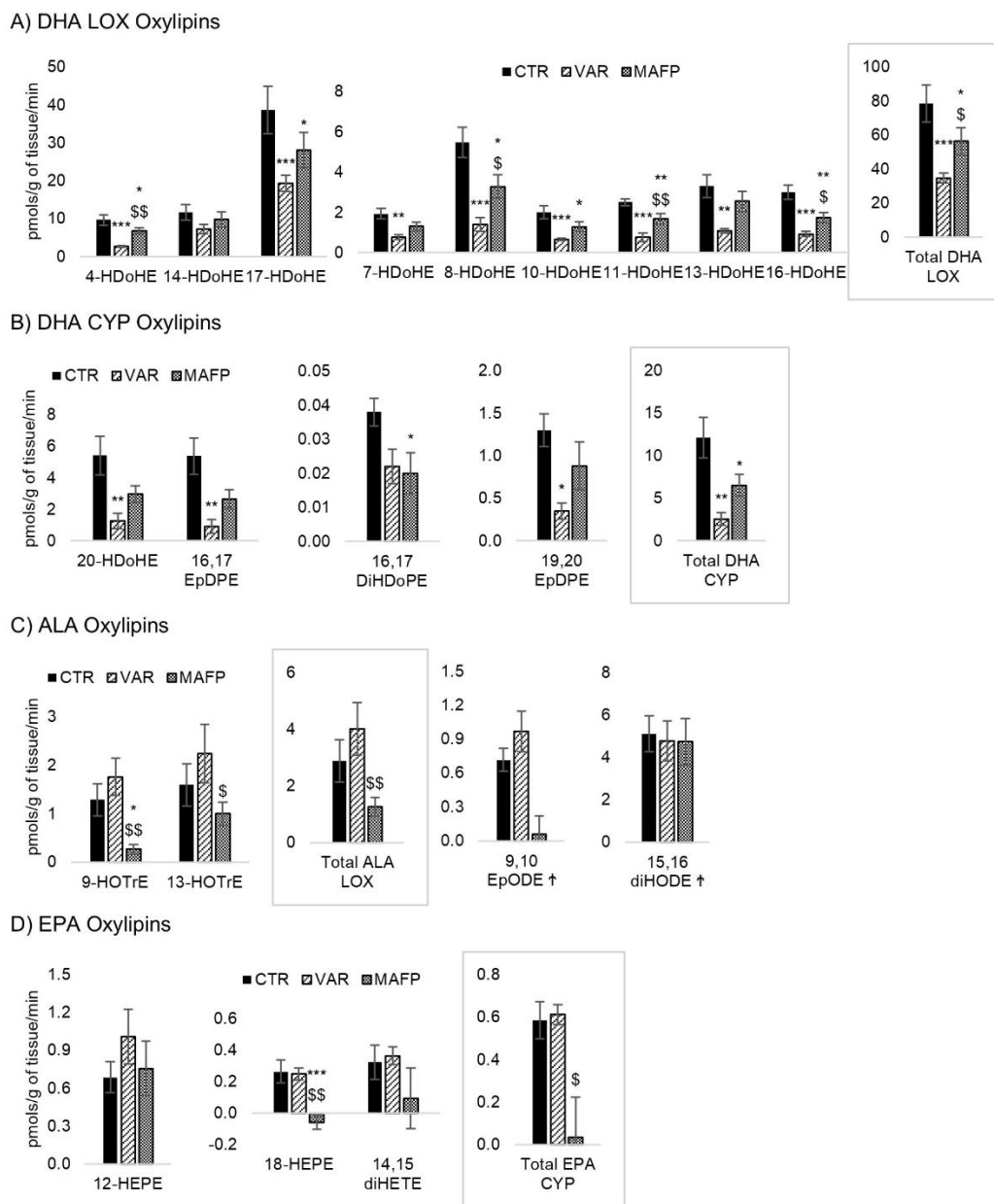


Figure 4-6. Effects of VAR and MAFP on DHA, EPA, and ALA oxylipin formation (n=6; mean±SE).

A) DHA LOX metabolites, B) DHA CYP metabolites, C) ALA LOX and CYP metabolites, D) EPA LOX and CYP metabolites. CTR – control samples without inhibitor, VAR - 0.1 μ M of VAR (sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X inhibitor), MAFP – 10 μ M of MAFP (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ inhibitor). Difference from CTR is indicated by *; difference between inhibitors VAR and MAFP is indicated by \$. One symbol p<0.05; two symbols p<0.01; three symbols p<0.001. The symbol † indicates a non-quantifiable oxylipin (so units are arbitrary and not included in corresponding total).

were inhibited more by VAR than MAFP, although there was no significant difference between the two inhibitors (Figure 6B).

Individual ALA oxylipins were generally lower only with MAFP incubation, although most did not reach statistical significance (Figure 6C). This effect by MAFP on ALA oxylipins is similar to its effect on ALA release (Figure 2), indicating that ALA oxylipin formation also is primarily associated with iPLA₂ activity. Consistent with the small amount of EPA released, less than 1.5 pmol/g tissue/min of EPA oxylipins were formed in CTR conditions (Figure 6D). Formation of 18-hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid (18-HEPE) was significantly reduced by MAFP, and 14,15-dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid (14,15-diHETE) followed a similar, but non-significant, pattern. This suggests that iPLA₂ activity is associated with both EPA release and oxylipin formation for CYP derived EPA oxylipins.

A distinct pattern was noted for 12-LOX oxylipins, as the formation of the direct products, 12-HETE, 12-HEPE and 14-HDoHE, were inhibited neither by MAFP nor VAR (Figures 4A, 6A and 6D). The combined sum of these 12-LOX products also was not significantly inhibited by either VAR or MAFP. In comparison, formation of total 5-LOX (5-HETE, 4-HDoHE, 7-HDoHE) and 15-LOX (15-HETE, 17-HDoHE, 15-hydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid (15-HETrE)) oxylipins were inhibited by both inhibitors (**Figure 7**), indicating that priority of synthesis goes via the 12-LOX pathway when substrate levels are limited.

4.4.4 *PLA₂ isoform expression*

To determine the expression of PLA₂ isoforms in the rat, primers were designed for all possible and relevant isoforms, totalling 25 PLA₂ isoforms (Supplemental Table 2). We detected mRNA for sPLA₂ IB, IIA, IID, V, and XIIA, cPLA₂ α , β , and ζ , all iPLA₂ isoforms (β - η), lipoprotein-associated Lp-PLA₂, platelet activating factor acetyl hydrolase-2 (PAF-AH2), and

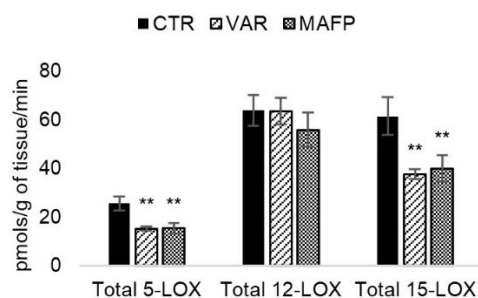


Figure 4-7. Effects of VAR and MAFP on 5-LOX, 12-LOX, and 15-LOX oxylipin formation (n=6; mean±SE).

CTR – control samples without inhibitor, VAR - 0.1μM of VAR (sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X inhibitor), MAFP – 10μM of MAFP (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂ inhibitor). Difference from CTR is indicated by *; difference between inhibitors VAR and MAFP is indicated by \$. One symbol p<0.05; two symbols p<0.01; three symbols p<0.001. Sums for each enzyme pathway consisted of the following oxylipins: 5-LOX: 5-HETE, 4-HDoHE, 7-HDoHE; 12-LOX: 12-HETE, 12-HEPE and 14-HDoHE; and 15-LOX: 15-HETE, 17-HDoHE, 15-HETrE.

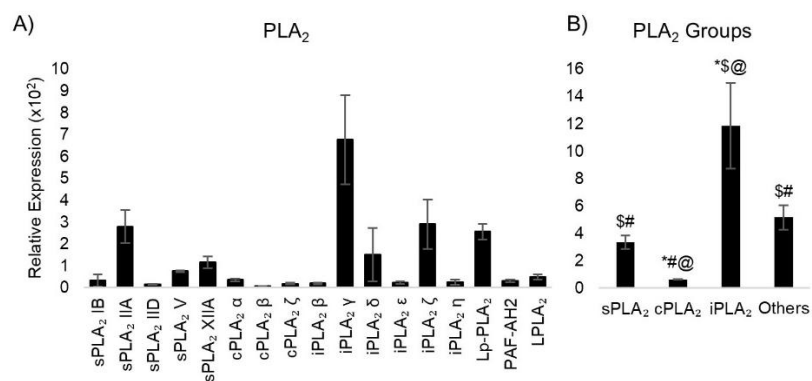


Figure 4-8. Relative expression of PLA₂ isoforms to GAPDH in the A) heart and B) sum of PLA₂ expression by PLA₂ group (n=4; mean±SE). Group “other” includes Lp-PLA₂, PAF-AH2, and LPLA₂. Different when compared to sPLA₂ indicated by *, cPLA₂ indicated by \$, iPLA₂ indicated by #, Other indicated by @ (p<0.05).

lysosomal LPLA₂ (**Figure 8A**). Primers for PLA₂ isoforms that were undetectable in the heart (sPLA₂ IIC, IIE, IIF, X, and XIIB, cPLA₂ δ , and ϵ) were verified in tissues known to have these isoforms (**Supplemental Figure 6**). Among the PLA₂ isoforms that VAR inhibits, only sPLA₂ IIA, and V were detected, and among the PLA₂ isoforms that MAFP inhibits, cPLA₂ α , β , and ζ and all iPLA₂ isoforms (β - η) were detected. In agreement with activity results, expression of iPLA₂ isoforms were highest, followed by sPLA₂ and other isoforms (Lp-PLA₂, PAF-AH2, and LPLA₂), and lowest expression was detected for cPLA₂ isoforms (Figure 8B).

4.5 Discussion

Using a whole heart homogenate approach to examine PLA₂ activity with the complete array of intrinsic PLA₂ isoforms and substrate lipids present in rat hearts, the current findings indicate that sPLA₂ IIA and/or V release both ARA and DHA but only DHA oxylipins are formed because of this sPLA₂ activity. sPLA₂ X expression was not detected in the rat hearts, indicating that the sPLA₂ activity herein is due to the sPLA₂ IIA and V isoforms. These sPLA₂ isoforms are associated with the majority of DHA release and formation of DHA oxylipins. The current results also indicate that iPLA₂ also mediates ARA and DHA release, is primarily responsible for ALA and EPA release and for the formation oxylipins derived from ARA, LA, DGLA, ALA and EPA, as well as for the formation of some DHA oxylipins. Interestingly, although ARA release and ARA oxylipin formation are both inhibited similarly by MAFP, the effect on oxylipin formation is due to lower LOX and CYP oxylipins, while COX and 12-LOX oxylipins are not inhibited. The discrepancy between non-esterified PUFA and oxylipins may be possible because of the much lower levels of oxylipins compared to fatty acids or could be due to the incomplete inhibition of non-esterified PUFA release, thus allowing for preferential oxylipin synthesis.

These findings reinforce the importance of determining the actual oxylipins formed, as they do not always follow the pattern of PUFA release.

The presence of sPLA₂ activity that was inhibited by VAR and the high expression levels of sPLA₂ isoforms in rat hearts is consistent with previous findings in mice that suggested the heart to be a major source of sPLA₂ (Berry et al., 2015; Hernandez-Anzaldo et al., 2015). VAR inhibited more DHA than ARA release but did not affect release of EPA and ALA or formation of their oxylipins. By comparison, it only inhibited the formation of DHA oxylipins, and did not block ARA oxylipin formation. This is consistent with previous studies showing that sPLA₂V, when compared to iPLA₂β and cPLA₂α, released more DHA (Hayashi et al., 2021; Mouchlis et al., 2018). sPLA₂V also was shown to have a preference for LA, but little activity towards ARA (Mouchlis et al., 2018). Although we could not evaluate the effects on LA release, the differences in ARA release could be because VAR also inhibits sPLA₂ IIA. Our results are also similar to studies using an sPLA₂ IID lymph node knockout and a transgenic model of spleen sPLA₂ X that showed that these sPLA₂ isoforms release ARA, DHA, and EPA, but are associated with the formation of oxylipins derived only from DHA and EPA, and not from ARA (including prostaglandins, thromboxane B₂, and 5-HETE) (Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). Although these studies involved different tissues and sPLA₂ isoforms, together these findings indicate that the ARA released by sPLA₂ is not available for ARA oxylipin formation. This could be due to sPLA₂ being the only group of PLA₂ that can act on extracellular membranes (Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019; Murakami et al., 2011). With respect to the EPA release and oxylipin formation observed in the sPLA₂ knockout model (Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016), it is possible that sPLA₂ IID plays a role in EPA release in the rat heart, as this PLA₂ was expressed at low levels

in the rat heart, but is not inhibited by VAR. Although EPA levels herein were low, this isoform could be important in rats provided high levels of dietary omega-3 PUFA.

These results may help elucidate why VAR has failed phase III clinical trials, which have shown an increased risk of myocardial infarction, stroke and cardiovascular mortality (Nicholls et al., 2014). Collectively with previous findings (Kuksis & Pruzanski, 2022; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016) our results suggest that sPLA₂ would more likely have anti-inflammatory activity, as DHA oxylipins have been shown to have anti-inflammatory and protective functions (Capó et al., 2018; Gabbs et al., 2015; Motta et al., 2019). In addition, VAR inhibited very few ARA oxylipins, which tend to be the oxylipins with more pro-inflammatory effects (Caligiuri et al., 2017). The association of higher serum sPLA₂ levels that have been observed with cardiovascular disease and mortality have been interpreted as a causal link, but our results provide further evidence that it may be an adaptive response to the increased inflammation (Akinkuolie et al., 2019; Boekholdt et al., 2005; Lind et al., 2012; Mallat et al., 2005, 2007). In this regard, higher levels of sPLA₂ IIA in severe and deceased COVID-19 patients (Snider et al., 2021) may also be adaptive, so higher sPLA₂ levels should be interpreted with caution.

While sPLA₂ is responsible for the majority of DHA release and DHA oxylipin formation in rat hearts, the remaining DHA released and DHA oxylipins in the rat heart are formed via iPLA₂. Further, the current findings indicate that the ARA released by iPLA₂ is primarily responsible for the formation of ARA oxylipins, as shown by treatment with MAFP. MAFP also blocks cPLA₂ activity, but the similar effects of EDTA and VAR on PUFA release, and the low expression of cPLA₂ isoforms, indicates that there is minimal cPLA₂ activity in the rat heart, consistent with other reports (Cedars et al., 2009; Jenkins et al., 2009; S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998). In addition to LA oxylipin formation, we also could examine the effect of MAFP on ALA

release and ALA, EPA, γ -linoleic acid (GLA) and DGLA oxylipin formation, which have not previously been reported. These were similarly inhibited by MAFP, implicating iPLA₂ as the major PLA₂ group also responsible for the formation of these oxylipins. These results suggest that inhibiting iPLA₂ may not be as anti-inflammatory as might be suggested solely by its effects on reducing ARA, since iPLA₂ also mediates the formation of omega-3 PUFA derived oxylipins, which tend to be more anti-inflammatory (Gabbs et al., 2015; Hecker et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2018). In addition, while those derived from omega-6 PUFA are generally, but not always (e.g. epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid (EpETrE)) more pro-inflammatory, many of the pro-inflammatory oxylipins derived from ARA (e.g. COX and 12-LOX products) (Caligiuri et al., 2017; Gross et al., 2005) were not affected by MAFP.

The findings herein on rat heart homogenates are similar to many studies that have employed diverse methods. The greater release of DHA by sPLA₂ isoforms and of ARA and EPA by iPLA₂ is consistent with studies using human enzymes and phospholipid mixtures *in vitro* (Hayashi et al., 2021; Mouchlis et al., 2018). Further, our findings *ex vivo* that DHA oxylipins appear to be formed predominantly by sPLA₂ isoforms was also reported in a mouse lymph node sPLA₂ IID knockout (Miki et al., 2013) and in mice overexpressing sPLA₂ X (Murase et al., 2016). Similarly, the formation of ARA and LA oxylipins by iPLA₂ indicated herein is consistent with findings in mouse iPLA₂ γ cardiac knockouts (Moon et al., 2016), although that study did not observe the resistance to COX and 12-HETE inhibition that was observed in our analysis. This *ex vivo* assay therefore can add to the knowledge gained from other methods such as those that use single enzyme knockouts, assays using recombinant enzymes, and methods designed with specific assay solutions and phospholipid substrates to optimize their activity. This *ex vivo*

assay will be useful to investigate the effects of interventions that alter in vivo isoforms and lipid compositions (e.g. dietary treatments).

There were also differences between our findings and of those utilizing other methods and species. The main difference was the apparent lack of cPLA₂ activity in the healthy rat heart ex vivo compared to studies with recombinant human enzymes (Hayashi et al., 2021; Mouchlis et al., 2018) and human heart mitochondria (Moon et al., 2018). This may reflect species differences in enzyme isoforms, which have been well-documented between human and mouse (Astudillo et al., 2019; Dennis et al., 2011; Mancuso et al., 2003; Murakami et al., 2011), and even differences between strains of mice (Kennedy et al., 1995). There is little information on PLA₂ isoforms in the rat heart, but one study in rat ventricular myocytes indicated the presence of iPLA₂, but little cPLA₂ activity (S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998), consistent with our findings. Another difference in the literature from our studies is the finding of significant levels of iPLA₂ γ and β isoform activity in other studies, which in addition to possibly being due to species differences (Moon et al., 2016), could also be due to differences in disease state (Bonetti et al., 2020; Mancuso et al., 2003; Moon et al., 2018). On the other hand, despite differences in assay parameters, species and disease state, Moon et al (2018) also reported that inhibitors of these iPLA₂ isoforms (S-BEL and R-BEL) did not inhibit ARA release in healthy human heart mitochondria, while MAFP did (Moon et al., 2018). Similarly, Liu & McHowat (1998) found that MAFP but not BEL inhibited PLA₂ activity in rat ventricular myocytes (S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998).

The results from the rat heart ex vivo assay herein therefore provides important information that adds to previous literature reports in other species and assay conditions. However, all studies still have limitations, such as when one isoform is inhibited or knocked out,

other isoforms can increase in activity to compensate, making it appear that the inhibited isoform is less important (Murakami et al., 2011; Offer et al., 2005). The current ex vivo assay, however, may better reflect the in vivo compensation or redundancy that would occur with the other isoforms present in whole tissue. In addition, the specificity or off-target effects of inhibitors is not always clear. For example, VAR has been reported to be inactive against COX (Snyder et al., 1999), but other oxylipin synthesizing enzymes have not been tested. Also, MAFP inhibits PAF-AH (Kell et al., 2003), a PLA₂ enzyme that cleaves short chain or oxidized fatty acids (Kono & Arai, 2019), and is involved in the production of omega-3 epoxides in mast cells (Shimanaka et al., 2017). However, its effects on the oxylipin profile are not entirely understood and we are unaware of studies that indicate a major role of this enzyme on the oxylipin profile. Further, another limitation is that the original compartmental separation of organelles and membranes is not represented in homogenized tissues from ex vivo or knockout studies or in *in vitro* studies that use detergents to mimic membrane conditions (Murakami et al., 2011; Offer et al., 2005). It also is important to note that these findings in the heart may not translate to other tissues, since they have differing fatty acid and PLA₂ isoform compositions.

In conclusion, the results of this ex vivo analysis indicate that inhibition of activity of sPLA₂ IIA and/or V by VAR led to a reduction in ARA and DHA release, but only DHA oxylipin formation was inhibited. Inhibition by MAFP led to a reduction in the release of ARA, DHA, EPA and ALA, and an inhibition of ARA, DGLA, LA, DHA, ALA and EPA oxylipin formation. PLA₂ inhibition by EDTA indicated that there was little cPLA₂ activity, which was consistent with low expression of cPLA₂ in the rat heart. Therefore, these data indicate that there is a preference of sPLA₂ IIA and/or V for DHA release and oxylipin formation, while iPLA₂ is likely the major isoform responsible for the release of ARA, ALA, EPA, and the formation of ARA,

LA, DGLA, ALA, and EPA oxylipins in healthy rat hearts. Some oxylipins such as those produced via the COX and 12-LOX pathways were not inhibited herein, indicating that these oxylipins may be preferentially synthesized when substrate availability is limited. These findings reinforce the importance of analyzing the oxylipin profile to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of PLA₂ activities.

4.6 *Chapter transition*

After the method was developed for assessment of PLA₂ activity towards PUFA and oxylipins in rat hearts, as presented in this chapter, this allowed us to pursue our ultimate objective to determine if sex differences in oxylipins that are dependent on diet fatty acid composition would be driven by PLA₂ activity. This was achieved using samples from the study presented in chapter 3.

In chapter 3, the bioequivalence between dietary DHA and the ALA requirement was determined. In this study the data indicated differences in sex effects according to diet. Further analysis indicated the highest DHA dose of 1.3g DHA/100g of diet to be the DHA group that had the greatest sex difference in DHA oxylipins, whereas the group with an equivalent dose of ALA of 1.3g of ALA/100g of diet showed no sex differences in DHA oxylipins. These groups reflected the general trend observed with the data, as dietary ALA did not show a dose by sex response (difference in regression slope according to sex), whereas the DHA groups did. Thus, we decided to proceed with PLA₂ activity analysis using male and female samples from the groups containing 1.3g of ALA and DHA/100g of diet. This also allowed comparison between groups that had an equivalent concentration of ALA and DHA. Thus, in the next chapter we aimed to determine how sex and dietary ALA and DHA impacted PLA₂ activity towards fatty

acid release and oxylin formation in rat hearts, and whether PLA₂ mediates the different sex effects according to diet, as previously observed in chapter 3.

Chapter 5: Sex and dietary ALA and DHA effects on rat heart phospholipase

A₂ activity mediating fatty acid release and oxylipin formation have cardiovascular implications

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5.1 Abstract

The ways in which diet and sex influence heart phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) activities are underexplored, particularly with respect to effects on oxylipin formation. Therefore, male and female Sprague-Dawley rats were provided diets with 1.3% α -linolenic acid (ALA) or docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) for 6 weeks, and heart homogenates were incubated with inhibitors for secreted (s)PLA₂ (Varespladib) or calcium-independent (i)PLA₂ (methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate). Non-esterified polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) and oxylipins were determined by HPLC-MS/MS and data were analyzed using 3-way repeated measures ANOVA. sPLA₂ activity was selective for DHA release and DHA oxylipin formation, contributing to ~50% of arachidonic acid (ARA) release, but only ~30% of ARA oxylipin formation. Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) release and oxylipin formation was minor but primarily mediated by iPLA₂. iPLA₂ activity was less selective, with activity towards all measured PUFA and oxylipins, with the primary PUFA released depending on diet. For both sPLA₂ and iPLA₂, there was more activity towards DHA and its oxylipins with the DHA diet, and towards ALA and ARA and their oxylipins with the ALA diet. Sex effects on fatty acids and oxylipins differed, as DHA, EPA and ALA release were higher in females, while DGLA and cyclooxygenase-derived ARA oxylipin formation were higher in males. Interestingly, the sex effect on cyclooxygenase ARA oxylipins was attenuated with dietary DHA. These findings provide further rationale for the simultaneous measurement of PUFA and oxylipins since they are not always congruent, and shed new light on diet and sex effects on PLA₂ types in cardiovascular oxylipin biology.

Keywords: phospholipase A₂; oxylipins; polyunsaturated fatty acids; α -linolenic acid; docosahexaenoic acid.

5.2 Introduction

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) is a superfamily of enzymes that hydrolyse fatty acids from membrane phospholipids, typically at the *sn*-2 position, which preferentially contains a polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA). The released PUFA are then converted by cyclooxygenase (COX), lipoxygenase (LOX) and cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes into a variety of bioactive lipid mediators, also known as oxylipins (Astudillo et al., 2023; Dennis et al., 2011; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019; Murakami, 2023). There is also a recent suggestion that PLA₂ can release esterified oxylipins directly from cell membrane phospholipids (Annevelink et al., 2022). Oxylipins are hormone-like molecules that mediate the functions of fatty acids and are influenced by diet and sex, as well as many other factors such as disease, exposure to air pollution, household chemicals, food contaminants and pharmaceuticals (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; L. G. J. Cayer et al., 2024; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Gabbs et al., 2015). They are implicated in the physiological roles and pathophysiological functions of several diseases associated with PLA₂ activity, including cardiovascular disease (Benjamin et al., 2019; Caligiuri et al., 2017; Murakami, 2023).

Much of the focus from PLA₂ research has been on release of arachidonic acid (ARA), which leads to production of generally pro-inflammatory oxylipins (Gabbs et al., 2015; Khan & Ilies, 2023; Y. Zhang et al., 2023). Based on their effects on ARA, PLA₂ inhibitors are widely explored as potential drug targets in several diseases, including cardiovascular diseases (Hidalgo et al., 2024; Jantan et al., 2014; Shukla et al., 2015; Y. Zhang et al., 2023). Although some PLA₂ inhibitors have reached clinical trials, including for treating cardiovascular disease, none have succeeded (Batsika et al., 2021; Kokotou et al., 2017). The gaps in PLA₂ research regarding oxylipins, particularly with respect to inhibitor use, is partly due to making assumptions

concerning oxylipins impacted by PLA₂ inhibition solely by analysis of fatty acids, even though oxylipins do not entirely reflect fatty acid findings in PLA₂ research (Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016). In addition, PUFA other than ARA are underexplored, even though certain PLA₂ enzymes have important roles in the release of other fatty acids, including omega-3 fatty acids that are converted to oxylipins that have generally anti-inflammatory and protective functions (Hayashi et al., 2021; Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016).

There is also a lack of knowledge on how diet and sex influence PLA₂ activity. This is important since diet and sex influence phospholipid composition, which is expected to influence PLA₂ activity (Rao et al., 2007; Smesny et al., 2014). Several studies support diet (Y. Liu et al., 2014; Rao et al., 2007; Rudkowska et al., 2013; Smesny et al., 2014; K.-P. Su et al., 2018; Vincentini et al., 2011) and sex (Boekholdt et al., 2005; Keeting et al., 1998; Mallat et al., 2007; Pop et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2019; Ward et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2017) effects on PLA₂ expression, protein levels, and overall activity (based on a single product), and we recently showed that there are differences in sex effects between dietary omega-3 α -linolenic acid (ALA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) on oxylipins in rat hearts (Ferdouse et al., 2019a). Such diet and sex effects are not entirely explained by their effects on phospholipid fatty acid composition (Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018), which suggests more regulation in the conversion of phospholipid fatty acid to oxylipins. Oxylipins produced by different downstream enzymatic pathways (COX, LOX, and CYP) were affected similarly in our study (Ferdouse et al., 2019a), leading to the hypothesis that PLA₂ activity could be the key regulatory step mediating these effects.

We previously developed a method (Manson et al., 2023) to measure rat heart PLA₂ activity *ex vivo* from the three main PLA₂ types believed to be involved in PUFA release and oxylipin synthesis: secreted (s)PLA₂, cytosolic (c)PLA₂, and calcium-independent (i)PLA₂ (Dennis & Norris, 2015; Mouchlis & Dennis, 2019; Ramanadham et al., 2015). This method allows us to examine diet and sex effects using the endogenous phospholipid composition, which is a strong advantage of this method (Mouchlis et al., 2019), since traditional *in vitro* studies may not reflect the situation *in vivo* (Astudillo et al., 2023) and assessment of substrate specificity is difficult using traditional radioactive assays (Mouchlis et al., 2019). Among the main PLA₂ types, sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ have been shown to have primary activity in rat hearts, with very limited cPLA₂ activity (Cedars et al., 2009; Jenkins et al., 2009; S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998; Manson et al., 2023). Therefore, the objective of this study was to assess the contributions of sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activities in rat hearts on the sex and dietary ALA and DHA effects on oxylipins in rat hearts.

5.3 Methods

5.3.1 Animal study

Rat hearts were obtained from 12 male and 12 female 10-week-old Sprague Dawley rats that were randomized to receive either 1.32g ALA/100g of diet or 1.35g DHA/100g of diet for 6 weeks starting at 4 weeks of age, as part of a separate experiment (Manson et al. unpublished). The diets followed the AIN93G guidelines (Reeves et al., 1993) except that soybean oil was replaced by a mix of oils (flaxseed, safflower, coconut, and olive oils) with an equal total oil level (7g/100g of diet) to achieve 1.3g ALA/100g of diet in the ALA diet, and 0.005g of ALA, and 1.3g of DHA/100g of diet in the DHA diet. DHA was provided in purified form containing 98% DHA in ethyl ester form (Maxomega DHA 95 EE, BASF, Germany). Both diets contained

similar concentrations of linoleic acid (LA), monounsaturated fatty acids and saturated fatty acids (**Supplemental Table 1**).

After the intervention period animals were anesthetized with isoflurane and terminated by decapitation. After exsanguination, hearts were removed, rinsed in PBS, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until analyses. All procedures were approved by the University of Manitoba Animal Care Committee and conducted in accordance with the Canadian Council for Animal Care and ARRIVE guidelines (Percie du Sert et al., 2020).

5.3.2 Diet fatty acid analysis

Fatty acid compositions of the diets were analyzed by gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (GC-FID), as described (Gabbs et al., 2021). Briefly, 25mg of diet was extracted via liquid-liquid extraction based on the Folch method (Folch et al., 1957) for total lipids with chloroform/methanol (2:1/vol:vol), 0.01% BHT, and 0.73% sodium chloride. Phosphatidylcholine C15:0 (Avanti Polar Lipids, AL, USA) was used as an internal standard. Lipid extracts were dried down and fatty acids were transmethyated using methanolic H₂SO₄ (Aukema & Holub, 1989). The resulting methylated fatty acids were extracted using hexane and ultrapure water, dried down and re-suspended in hexane. Samples were separated on a 30m DB-225MS column (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) using a Bruker 450 GC-FID.

5.3.3 PLA₂ activity

PLA₂ activity was assessed as previously described (Manson et al., 2023). Briefly, frozen hearts were thawed on ice, weighed, and homogenized in 5.7x vol of Tyrode's buffer (pH7.6, 1.8mM CaCl₂, 1.05 mM MgCl₂, 2.68 mM KCl, 137 mM NaCl, 0.417 mM NaH₂PO₄, 11.9 mM NaHCO₃, and 5.55 mM D-Glucose; Sigma-Aldrich, MA, USA) and frozen at -80°C until analysis. For the assay, heart homogenates were thawed on ice and 200μL aliquots were

incubated for 20min in a shaking water bath at 37°C without or with inhibitor [methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate (MAFP) for cPLA₂ and iPLA₂, or Varespladib - LY315920 (VAR) for sPLA₂ (non-specific pan-sPLA₂ (Batsika et al., 2021; Nicholls et al., 2014)) (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA)]. For each heart an aliquot was taken immediately without incubation to serve as baseline. All inhibitors were diluted in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and subsequently in Tyrodes, with all sample containing a final concentration of 0.1% DMSO, including control and baseline. Reactions were stopped by the addition of 500 µL of methanol formic acid (100:1/v:v).

5.3.4 *Non-esterified fatty acid and oxylipin analysis*

As previously described (Manson et al., 2023), the following were then added to each sample: 800 µL pH3 water, 90 µL ethanol, 10 µL antioxidant cocktail [0.2mg/ml BHT, 0.2mg/ml EDTA, 100µM indomethacin, 100µM trans-4-[4-(3-adamantan-1-yl-ureido)-cyclohexyloxy]-benzoic acid (t-AUCB) in methanol/water (50/50, vol/vol) (Rund et al., 2018)] and deuterated internal standards (Cayman Chemical, MI, USA). A complete list of standards and their concentrations was previously described (Manson et al., 2023). All samples were adjusted to pH3 prior to solid phase extraction with 33 µm polymeric reverse-phase Strata-X solid phase extraction columns (Phenomenex, CA, USA). Non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids were eluted with methanol, filtered through a Pasteur glass pipette with glass wool and sodium sulfate, and rinsed with methanol. Samples were dried down under a nitrogen stream and resuspended in the mobile phase (water/acetonitrile/acetic acid, 70/30/0.02, vol/vol/vol). Analysis was conducted using HPLC-MS/MS (HPLC: Nexera-XR LC-20AD XR, Shimadzu, Japan; mass spectrometer: QTRAP 6500; AB Sciex, ON) with a reverse phase column: Luna 5u C18(2) 100A; 250 x 2.00 mm (Phenomenex, CA, USA). The software used for the instrument was Analyst 1.6.2 (AB Sciex, ON) and for data analysis MultiQuant 3.0.5373.0 (AB Sciex, ON).

Quantitation was based on the stable isotope dilution method (Hall & Murphy, 1998). The lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) was set at peak heights of 5 times baseline and an oxylipin was considered quantifiable if this criterion was met for at least 5 samples in any group. A list of all oxylipins scanned for, detector response factors, and the lowest limit of quantitation (LLOQ) and detection (LLOD) can be found in (Ferdouse et al., 2019b; Monirujjaman et al., 2017). Sample preparation was conducted in random order and analyses were blinded during sample preparation and peak selection.

5.3.5 *Statistical analysis*

The amount of each fatty acid released or oxylipin formed during the incubation time was calculated as follows: sample incubated (with or without inhibitor) minus the sample at baseline [i.e. incubated sample with (MAFP or VAR) or without inhibitor (Control) minus baseline (BL)]. Oxylipin data were analyzed by using the sum of all oxylipins from each fatty acid precursor. Data were inspected for the presence of influential oxylipins that changed the pattern of the total oxylipin results, and to ensure the total reflected the individual oxylipin pattern. Full statistical analysis results for individual PUFA and oxylipins are reported in **Supplemental Tables 2-3**.

All statistical analysis were conducted using R Studio (2024.12.1+563, 2009-2025 Posit Software, PBC). Normality was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test at $\alpha > 0.01$ combined with a QQ-plot analysis. Non-normal data were log-transformed and if data contained zeroes or negative numbers $\log(\text{variable}+1)$ was used for data transformation. Data analyses were conducted using a 3-way repeated measures ANOVA (diet, sex, and treatment), followed by post-hoc testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) test. If 2 or more 2-way interactions were significant, the post-hoc analysis consisted of all relevant pairwise comparisons at 3-levels (as would be conducted for a 3-way interaction) to eliminate overlap in results from two or more 2-

way interaction analyses. Relevant comparisons when interactions were present were those with the same diet and sex at different treatment categories, same diet and treatment at different sex categories, and same sex and treatment at different diet categories. Ratios of male/female were calculated for the mean of each ARA COX oxylipin (n=8), which were then log transformed on base 2 to generate fold differences, and analyzed by two-way (diet, treatment) ANOVA for repeated measures, followed by BH post hoc tests for treatments. Significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Inhibitor effects on PLA_2

The inhibitors used in this study are MAFP which inhibits both $cPLA_2$ and $iPLA_2$ isoforms and VAR which inhibits $sPLA_2$ isoforms. While specific inhibitors would have been ideal, this was proven not to be possible in previous analysis (Manson et al., 2023). When MAFP is used, the remaining activity is expected to be solely of $sPLA_2$ isoforms (Lucas & Dennis, 2005). When VAR is used, the remaining activity is expected to be that of $cPLA_2$ and $iPLA_2$. This aligns with our findings since the MAFP and VAR inhibition are complementary, resulting in nearly 100% inhibition when considering both separate inhibition results. In combination with our previous findings, using an identical study design without diet and sex (Manson et al., 2023), and those of others that $cPLA_2$ activity is minimal in the heart (Cedars et al., 2009; Jenkins et al., 2009; S. J. Liu & McHowat, 1998), we can say with fair confidence that the activity remaining with VAR inhibition, or the inhibition achieved with MAFP, is primarily of $iPLA_2$ activity. However, it should be noted that we cannot rule out the contribution of $cPLA_2$ activity with absolute certainty as it was not directly tested in this study and may have been influenced by diet and/or sex. For simplicity, we will refer to remaining activity after inhibition by VAR as $iPLA_2$ activity and to the remaining activity after inhibition by MAFP as $sPLA_2$ activity.

5.4.1.1 PUFA

DHA release was mostly inhibited by VAR (58-76%) but also by MAFP (33-36%) (**Figure 1A**). This selectivity of sPLA₂ resulted in DHA being 73-93% of the total fatty acid mass quantified [DHA, eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), ALA, and ARA] that was released by sPLA₂ activity (**Figure 2A**). The mass of EPA release was minor (~1% as much as DHA or ALA) and was inhibited more by MAFP (59-64%) than VAR (**Figure 1B**), indicating that the primary activity towards EPA is mediated via iPLA₂. The mass of ALA release was similar to that of DHA in the hearts of rats provided the ALA diet, but much lower in those provided the DHA diet. ALA release was only inhibited by MAFP (73-77%) (**Figure 1C**), indicating ALA release is primarily due to iPLA₂ activity. The mass of ARA release was ~half that of DHA or ALA and was inhibited similarly by MAFP (39-53%) and VAR (22-49%) (**Figure 1D**), indicating that ARA release is similarly mediated by iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity in rat hearts. Both iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ mediated PUFA release resulted in patterns that were similar to the baseline patterns (Supplemental Figure 1).

5.4.1.2 Oxylipins

PLA₂ inhibition of oxylipin formation generally reflected what was observed with their precursor PUFA, with several exceptions. DHA oxylipins were mostly inhibited by VAR (74-88%), but there was some inhibition by MAFP (36-44%) (**Figure 3A**), indicating higher sPLA₂ than iPLA₂ activity towards DHA oxylipin formation, similar to the effect observed for DHA. Like EPA, the mass of oxylipins derived from EPA was minor (only ~3% as much as DHA or ALA) and was only inhibited by MAFP (47-101%), (**Figure 3B**). Unlike EPA, inhibition of EPA oxylipin formation with VAR was not observed, indicating that EPA oxylipin formation is primarily mediated via iPLA₂ activity. Both the mass and the number of oxylipins formed from

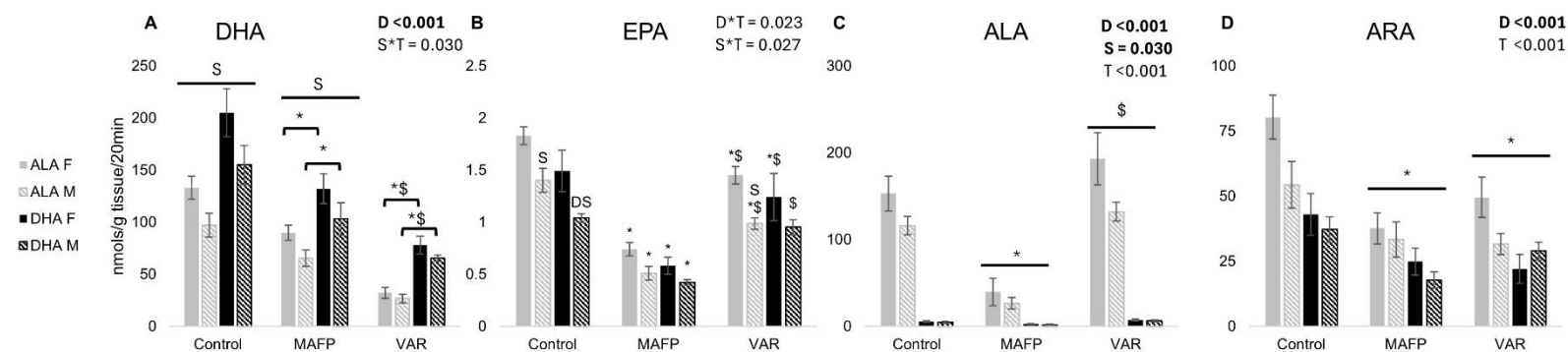


Figure 5-1. Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified A) DHA; B) EPA; C) ALA and D) ARA release in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

F, females; M, males. Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 μM of VAR (sPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily iPLA₂ derived), MAFP – 10 μM of MAFP (iPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is sPLA₂ derived). Significant results of 3-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner, with main effects in bold. D, S, and T indicate diet, sex and treatment effects, respectively. For interaction effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control and a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors. When differences are shown above a straight line, the effect was applicable for that treatment group; when above a bracket, the effect was applicable to the groups directly below the ends of the bracket; when above an individual bar the difference was from the same sex or diet group within that treatment.

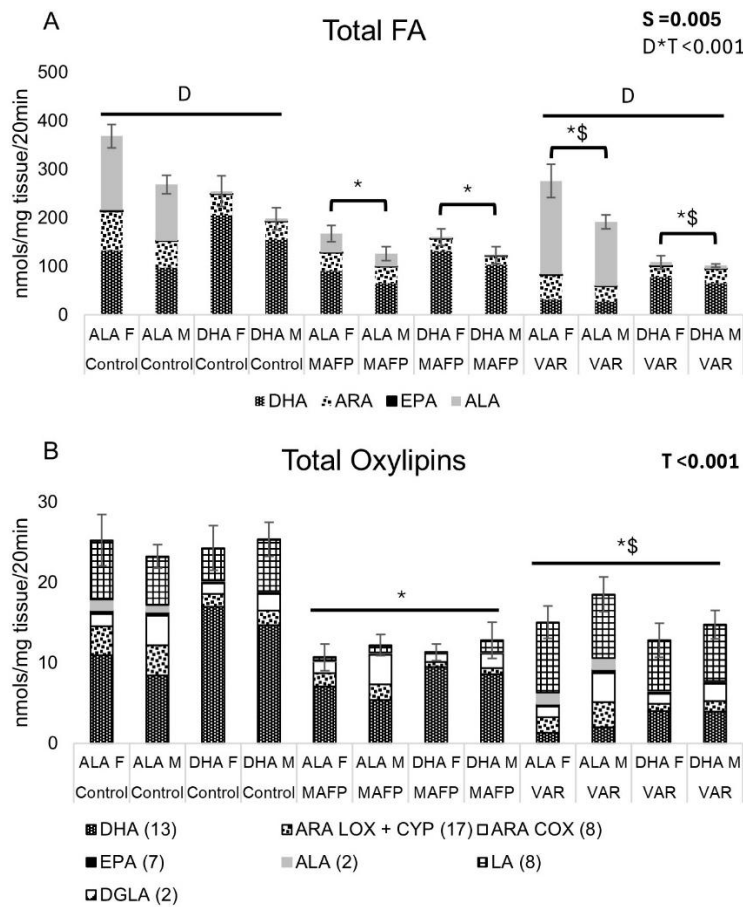


Figure 5-2. Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified A) total measured PUFA (DHA, EPA, ALA, ARA) and B) total oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean $\pm$ SE).

F, females; M, males. Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 μ M of VAR (sPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily iPLA₂ derived), MAFP – 10 μ M of MAFP (iPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is sPLA₂ derived). Significant results of 3-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner, with main effects in bold. D, S, and T indicate diet, sex and treatment effects, respectively. For interaction effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control and a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors. When differences are shown above a straight line, the effect was applicable for that treatment group; when above a bracket, the effect was applicable to the groups directly below the ends of the bracket. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of oxylipins included in the total.

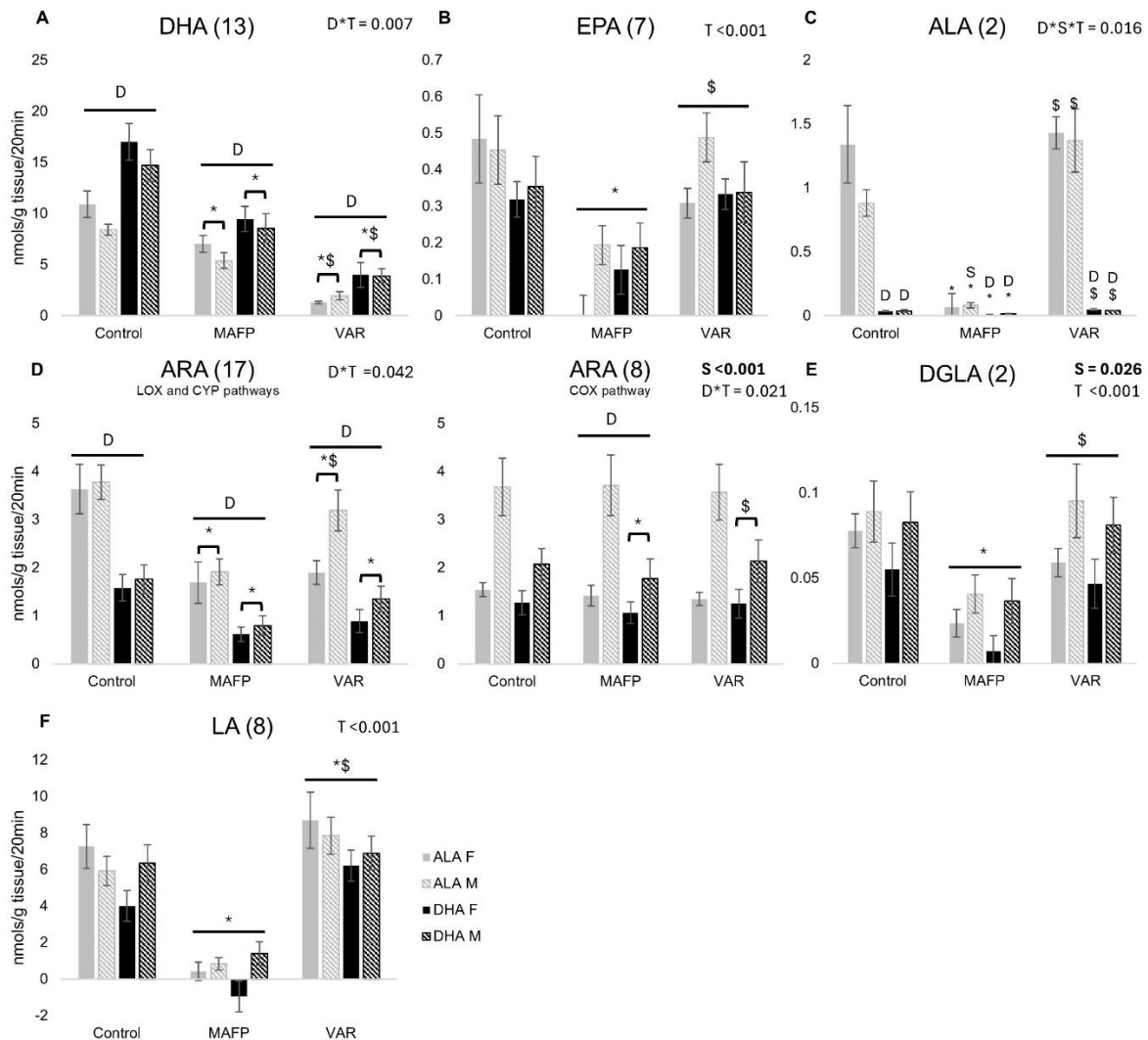


Figure 5-3. Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA_2 activity towards non-esterified total A) DHA oxylipins; B) EPA oxylipins; C) ALA oxylipins; D) ARA oxylipins; E) DGLA oxylipins; and F) LA oxylipins in rat hearts ($n=6$; mean $\pm$ SE). F, females; M, males. Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – $0.1 \mu M$ of VAR ($sPLA_2$ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily $iPLA_2$ derived), MAFP – $10 \mu M$ of MAFP ($iPLA_2$ inhibitor – remaining activity is $sPLA_2$ derived). Significant results of 3-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner, with main effects in bold. D, S, and T indicate diet, sex and treatment effects, respectively. For interaction effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control and a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors. When differences are shown above a straight line, the effect was applicable for that treatment group; when above a bracket, the effect was applicable to the groups directly below the ends of the bracket; when above an individual bar the difference was from the same sex or diet group within that treatment. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of oxylipins included in the total.

ALA were much lower than from DHA, even in the hearts of rats provided the ALA diet that had similar amounts of ALA and DHA released (Figure 2). ALA oxylipin formation was only inhibited by MAFP (60-95%), similarly to the effect observed with ALA (**Figure 3C**), indicating that iPLA₂ is primarily involved in ALA oxylipin formation.

Like ARA compared to DHA, the oxylipin mass formed from ARA was ~half that of DHA but was contributed by ~2 times the number of ARA oxylipins detected, which was mostly because DHA mediates oxylipin formation only via LOX and CYP but not COX. While ARA was similarly inhibited by MAFP and VAR, inhibition of ARA LOX and CYP oxylipins by MAFP (49-61%) was more effective than by VAR (17-48%) (**Figure 3D**), indicating that iPLA₂ compared to sPLA₂ contributes to more ARA LOX and CYP oxylipin formation. ARA COX oxylipins were analyzed separately as they followed a different pattern and were only significantly inhibited by MAFP (15-16%) and only in the DHA groups (Figure 3D). Dihomo- γ -linolenic acid (DGLA) and LA are not quantifiable using our HPLC-MS/MS method, so no comparisons to their oxylipins are possible. While DGLA oxylipin mass is low, LA oxylipin mass is similar to ARA oxylipins. DGLA (56-87%) (**Figure 3E**) and LA (78-124%) (**Figure 3F**) oxylipins were only inhibited by MAFP, indicating that iPLA₂ activity is primarily responsible for these oxylipins being formed.

In our previous investigation we noted that 12-LOX oxylipins were more resistant to inhibition by both MAFP and VAR, so we examined this in the current study. Herein we found that of the 12-LOX products, 12-hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid (12-HETE), 12-hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid (12-HEPE) and 14-hydroxy-docosaheptaenoic acid (14-HDoHE), only the formation of 14-HDoHE was blocked by either inhibitor to some extent (Supplemental Table 2). As these oxylipins did not alter total oxylipin results, they were included in our analysis

described above. Both iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ mediated oxylipin formation resulted in patterns that were similar to those observed at baseline (Supplemental Figure 2).

5.4.2 Diet effects on PLA₂

5.4.2.1 PUFA

There were main effects of diet on the release of all PUFA except EPA, but the effect differed for each fatty acid. DHA release was higher in DHA groups regardless of treatment or sex (Figure 1A), indicating higher activity of both iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ towards DHA release with dietary DHA. Interestingly, while DHA release accounted for 73-78% in ALA groups and 87-93% in DHA groups of the total sPLA₂ activity (Figure 2A), for iPLA₂ activity it made up 21-22% in ALA groups and 67-76% in DHA groups (Figure 2A). For EPA, the only diet effect was in the Control condition, where less EPA was released in male rats provided the DHA diet (Figure 1B). Like for DHA release in the DHA diets, ALA release was higher in ALA groups (Figure 1C), indicating higher activity of iPLA₂ towards ALA with dietary ALA (as sPLA₂ did not have significant activity towards ALA). ALA release comprised 57-65% of total iPLA₂ activity in ALA groups, while it only accounted for 3-6% activity in DHA groups (Figure 2A). The release of ARA also was greater in ALA groups (Figure 1D), indicating both sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activities towards ARA are higher in ALA compared to DHA groups. These dietary effects on PLA₂ activities for individual PUFA are reflected in the higher total iPLA₂ activity in hearts from rats provided ALA diets, which was primarily driven by the much higher ALA released by iPLA₂ for rats on the ALA diet, while no overall dietary effects on sPLA₂ activity were observed (Figure 2A). These diet effects on PUFA release due to PLA₂ activity were similar to the baseline effects (Supplemental Figure 1).

5.4.2.2 *Oxylipins*

Although diet effects for oxylipins interacted with sex and/or treatment, the diet effects on oxylipins were similar to the effects on their precursor PUFA. For DHA, there was a diet by treatment interaction, but DHA oxylipin formation was higher with DHA diets in each treatment, in both males and females, indicating that sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activity towards DHA oxylipin formation are higher in DHA groups (Figure 3A). As with their PUFA precursors, EPA oxylipin formation was not affected by diet (Figure 3B), and ALA oxylipin formation was higher in ALA groups for all treatments and sex, indicating higher iPLA₂ activity towards ALA oxylipin formation in ALA fed rats (as sPLA₂ did not have a significant effect on ALA oxylipin formation) (Figure 3C). Dietary effects on LOX and CYP mediated ARA oxylipin formation also reflected ARA release, as ARA oxylipin formation was higher in ALA groups for both treatment groups, regardless of sex (Figure 3D), indicating higher sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activity towards LOX and CYP ARA oxylipin formation in ALA fed rats. On the other hand, dietary ALA resulted in higher formation of ARA COX oxylipins only for the MAFP treatment group (Figure 3D). There were no diet effects on PLA₂ for DGLA or LA oxylipin formation (Figure 3E-F). In contrast with total PUFA, no PLA₂ activities towards total oxylipins were influenced by diet (Figure 2B), reflecting the smaller proportion of ALA oxylipins formed compared to the greater amount of ALA released by iPLA₂. As with the PUFA, these diet effects on oxylipin formation due to PLA₂ activity were similar to the baseline effects (Supplemental Figure 2).

5.4.3 *Sex effects on PLA₂*

5.4.3.1 *PUFA*

sPLA₂ but not iPLA₂ activity towards DHA release was higher in females than males, indicating that sPLA₂ activity is more responsible for the sex difference in total (Control) DHA

release (Figure 1A). EPA release was higher in females than males for the Control group, as well as for iPLA₂ activity in ALA groups (Figure 1B). ALA release was higher in females regardless of treatment or diet (Figure 1C). No sex differences were observed for ARA release (Figure 1D). Overall PLA₂ activity from all PUFA analyzed (DHA, EPA, ALA and ARA) reflects the individual PUFA, showing that PLA₂ activity is higher in females than males (Figure 2A). These sex effects on oxylipin formation due to PLA₂ activity were similar to the baseline effects, except for DHA. For baseline DHA, the levels of DHA were only lower in hearts from males provided the DHA diet, while the DHA release by PLA₂ activity was significantly lower in males provided both diets but only for sPLA₂ activity, further demonstrating the preference for DHA release by sPLA₂ in females (Supplemental Figure 1).

5.4.3.2 *Oxylipins*

In contrast to PUFA, there were fewer effects of sex on PLA₂ activity towards oxylipin formation, and when they were present, oxylipin formation was higher in males. Notably, ARA COX oxylipins in males were higher than in females (Figure 3D) and when further examining individual ARA COX oxylipins, it was noted that prostaglandin D₂ (PGD₂) and 15-keto-PGE₂ were higher in males only when consuming the ALA, but not the DHA diet (Supplemental Table 2). For 3 other ARA COX oxylipins, 6-keto-PGF_{1α}, PGE₂, 11β-PGE₂, as well as the total ARA COX oxylipins, a similar trend (P=0.08 – 0.10) towards such an interaction was observed. To further investigate this finding, male/female ratios of ARA COX oxylipins were calculated; this analysis indicated a significant diet effect with log₂ male/female ratios of 1.1-1.4 when provided the ALA diet, compared to 0.5-0.6 while on the DHA diet (log₂ ratios greater than 0 indicate higher ARA COX oxylipins in males), confirming a diet/sex interaction (**Figure 4**). The only other sex effect on oxylipin formation was observed in DGLA oxylipins, which also were higher

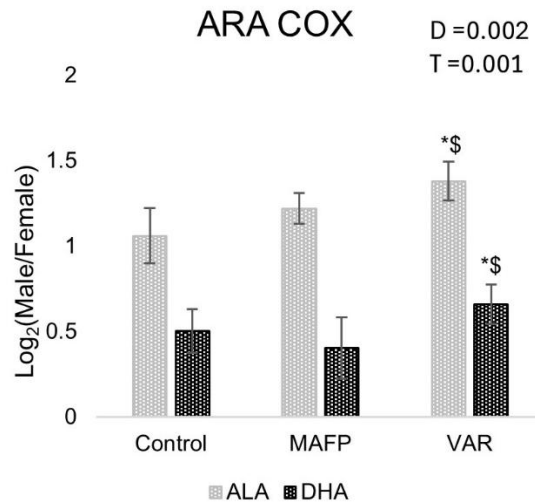


Figure 5-4. Effect of dietary ALA and DHA on the fold change in male/female ARA COX oxylipins in rat hearts (n=8, mean $\pm$ SE).

Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 μ M of VAR (sPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily iPLA₂ derived), MAFP – 10 μ M of MAFP (iPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is sPLA₂ derived). The fold change was calculated for each oxylipin (n=8). Significant results of 2-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner. D and T indicate diet and treatment effects, respectively. For treatment effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control and a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors.

in males than females (Figure 3E). Overall, in contrast to the overall higher PUFA release in females, there were no sex differences in PLA₂ related total oxylipin formation (Figure 2B).

Interestingly, there were many differences in these sex effects on oxylipin formation (Figure 3) when compared to baseline oxylipin data (Supplemental Figure 2). DHA, EPA and LA oxylipins at baseline were higher in females, compared to no sex effects for PLA₂ mediated oxylipin formation. ALA oxylipins at baseline and formed via PLA₂ activity were both higher in females, and ARA LOX and CYP oxylipins at baseline and formed after stimulation similarly had no sex effects. ARA COX and DGLA oxylipins at baseline were higher in females, but formation of these oxylipins was higher in males.

5.5 Discussion

The findings in this study indicate that sPLA₂ activity is selective towards DHA and its oxylipins, with some activity towards EPA, ARA and ARA oxylipins. In contrast, iPLA₂ causes the release of all PUFA and oxylipins that were analyzed, with the primary PUFA released being highly influenced by diet. Diet impacted activities of both sPLA₂ and iPLA₂, as the DHA diet resulted in more activity towards DHA and its oxylipins, and the ALA diet resulted in more activity towards ALA and its oxylipins (only for iPLA₂) and ARA and their oxylipins. While PUFA release was generally higher in females, there were fewer sex differences in oxylipin formation associated with PLA₂ activity, and in contrast to PUFA, oxylipins with sex differences were higher in males. Interestingly, the higher ARA COX oxylipin formation in males was modulated by dietary DHA compared to ALA. These findings may help explain dietary effects and sex-based differences in the incidence and prevalence of cardiovascular disease and may have implications for sex-based dietary guidelines and the development of pharmaceuticals in prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease.

The increase in PLA₂ activity towards DHA and its oxylipins with a DHA diet, and the increased activity towards ALA and ARA and their oxylipins with an ALA diet are novel findings. These results are consistent with previously observed changes in phospholipid fatty acid and oxylipin compositions in response to dietary ALA compared to DHA (Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Leng et al., 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018), and suggest that these effects are at least partly driven by PLA₂ activity. The reduced iPLA₂ activity in the DHA diet herein is consistent with a previous study showing that fish oil decreases iPLA₂ activity (Smesny et al., 2014). Fish oil also increased gene expression of most sPLA₂ isoforms but decreased sPLA₂ IIA (Rudkowska et al., 2013). This is potentially consistent with an overall no effect of diet on total sPLA₂ activity, as sPLA₂ IIA is highly expressed in the rat heart (Manson et al., 2023). In addition, an ALA deficient diet was shown to decrease iPLA₂ and increase sPLA₂ activity, protein, and/or mRNA in rat brain when compared to a diet with adequate ALA (Rao et al., 2007) or a diet with primarily DHA (Tyagi et al., 2014). Since we do not have an ALA deficient diet, these findings cannot be directly compared with those herein, but our data suggest a decrease in iPLA₂ activity could be due to low levels of ALA and EPA, which are primarily released by iPLA₂. The increase in sPLA₂ activity may be an adaptive mechanism, given its high selectivity for DHA, or may reflect an increase in activity towards ARA in that scenario. Thus, activity depends on the fatty acid substrate(s) analyzed, and our study highlights the nuances of different PLA₂ activities in relation to dietary effects on endogenous phospholipid fatty acids. Further studies are necessary to evaluate the effects of other dietary fatty acids such as EPA and LA.

Our findings indicate that sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activity towards several individual and total PUFA are higher in females, which was different than the lack of sex effects on total oxylipins and the higher ARA COX and DGLA oxylipins in males. Although, to the best of our knowledge,

there are no studies of sex differences in iPLA₂, a previous study reported higher sPLA₂ protein in females in one study (Boekholdt et al., 2005), but not in another (Mallat et al., 2007), which may be due to differences in age (Ward et al., 2018) or disease state (Pop et al., 2013). Since discrepancies in sex effects (including diet by sex interactions) in esterified PUFA and non-esterified oxylipins are known (L. G. J. Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a; Gabbs et al., 2021; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018), we hypothesized that non-esterified PUFA would better reflect oxylipin data, and PLA₂ activity to be potentially responsible for such discrepancies. However, this does not appear to be the case, and may be due to differences in oxylipin degradation in males and females (Pace, Sautebin, et al., 2017), which warrants further investigation. While a strength of the current analysis is that release of 4 major PUFA and the formation of 6 groups of oxylipins derived from PUFA were accounted for, there are even more fatty acids and oxylipins that could influence total activity. Given that sex differences in PLA₂ activity vary depending on which fatty acid or oxylipin is analyzed, more research is needed in this understudied topic of sex differences in PLA₂ activity.

A notable sex difference herein was the higher ARA COX metabolite production in stimulated male hearts. This is consistent with previous research showing higher production of ARA COX metabolites in stimulated human male neutrophils (Pace, Rossi, et al., 2017), higher PGE₂ production by male stimulated macrophages (Upmacis et al., 2022), and the possibly greater effectiveness of aspirin, a cyclooxygenase inhibitor, in males than females (Pace, Sautebin, et al., 2017). Interestingly, dietary DHA compared to ALA resulted in lower male/female ARA COX oxylipins in the stimulated heart, suggesting that DHA has a stronger effect on reducing ARA COX oxylipins in males. Similarly, variations in dietary DHA effects according to sex have also been shown as DHA supplementation upregulated wound healing and

PPAR α activation genes only in men's monocytes (So et al., 2024), and EPA reduced platelet aggregation in men whereas only DHA did in women (Phang et al., 2013). Due to the roles of ARA COX metabolites in the pathogenesis of cardiovascular disease (Gerges & El-Kadi, 2022; Pace, Sautebin, et al., 2017), these findings may be relevant to the complex sex-based differences in incidence, prevalence and prognosis of cardiovascular disease, for which sex differences vary according to specific diseases (Bergami et al., 2022; Regitz-Zagrosek & Gebhard, 2023; Roeters van Lennep et al., 2023; Suman et al., 2023). Therefore, our results suggest DHA may be a more effective therapeutic in acute cardiovascular events in males compared to females and this warrants further investigation. Notably, this study was conducted with minimally stressed and healthy animals, which should be considered in further analysis.

The current results and previous studies (Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016) show PLA₂ mediated oxylipin formation does not always reflect PUFA release. This is important because there is a general belief that PLA₂ enzymes could be potential drug targets (Hidalgo et al., 2024; Jantan et al., 2014; Shukla et al., 2015; Y. Zhang et al., 2023) due to their ability to reduce ARA release and consequently their pro-inflammatory oxylipins (Gabbs et al., 2015; Khan & Ilies, 2023; Y. Zhang et al., 2023). However, we show herein that Varespladib decreases DHA and its oxylipins (which are thought to have protective anti-inflammatory effects (Cambiaggi et al., 2023; Duan et al., 2021; Gabbs et al., 2015), has no effect on ARA COX oxylipins and only causes a small reduction in some LOX and CYP ARA oxylipins, despite a 50% reduction in ARA release. This may help explain why Varespladib failed phase-III clinical trials (Nicholls et al., 2014), reenforcing the importance of considering the impact of inhibitors on both oxylipin formation and fatty acid release.

The findings regarding sPLA₂ activity and impact on fatty acid release and oxylipin formation in the heart closely align with several previous studies and also may help explain some discrepancies in the literature. First, human sPLA₂ V (in-vitro) (Hayashi et al., 2021), mouse lymphoid tissue sPLA₂ IID (Miki et al., 2013), mouse recombinant sPLA₂ IIF (Yamamoto et al., 2015), mouse colon and sperm sPLA₂ X (Murase et al., 2016) and our previous study on rat heart sPLA₂ activity (Manson et al., 2023) all showed a preference for DHA release with an impact on DHA oxylipin formation (Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016). While most studies support a role of sPLA₂ in ARA release (Hayashi et al., 2021; Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016), ARA oxylipins are not always impacted (Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016), also consistent with current findings. Second, while some studies support a role of sPLA₂ enzymes on EPA release and their oxylipin formation (Hayashi et al., 2021; Miki et al., 2013; Murase et al., 2016), others do not (Manson et al., 2023). The current study provides evidence this could be due to variations in the substrate lipid composition, as endogenous EPA and its oxylipin concentrations are typically very low. Third, while there is a suggestion that human sPLA₂ V has *in vitro* activity towards LA (Hayashi et al., 2021; Mouchlis et al., 2018), our results on LA oxylipins do not suggest this, although fatty acid and oxylipin data are not always congruent, so this remains to be elucidated.

Our findings on iPLA₂ having activity towards all PUFA and the formation of their oxylipins closely matches a cardiac myocyte specific iPLA₂ γ knockout study, where ARA, LA, and DHA oxylipins were affected (other oxylipin classes were not analyzed) (Moon et al., 2016). Human iPLA₂ has a preference for EPA release *in vitro* (Hayashi et al., 2021), but the data herein highlight the very low mass of EPA relative to other PUFA, placing the importance of EPA *in vivo* in context. Our findings are similar to our previous study, which, to the best of our

knowledge, is the only one to demonstrate the importance of iPLA₂ activity towards ALA release and oxylipin formation (Manson et al., 2023). Some studies suggest that iPLA₂ is a major mediator of DHA release in brain (Cheon et al., 2012; Strokin et al., 2007) and liver (Deng et al., 2016). This difference from the current findings of DHA as a less important fatty acid released by iPLA₂ could be due to lack of comparison between sPLA₂ and iPLA₂, as well as tissue differences in sPLA₂ expression and DHA concentrations. Indeed, most iPLA₂ activity was directed towards DHA in the DHA group, whereas ALA was the major fatty acid released in the ALA group, indicating that the diet and/or substrate availability are an important consideration in determining the primary fatty acid released by iPLA₂.

In conclusion, a DHA diet resulted in more activity of sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ towards DHA and its oxylipins, whereas an ALA diet resulted in more activity of iPLA₂ towards ALA and its oxylipins, and more activity of both iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ towards ARA and its oxylipins. sPLA₂ activity was selective towards DHA and its oxylipins regardless of diet and sex, with some activity towards ARA and possibly EPA, with relatively less impact on their derived oxylipins. iPLA₂ appears to be less selective, and more dependent on diet/fatty acid composition. PUFA release by sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ were both generally higher in females, while sex differences in oxylipin formation was only higher in males for ARA COX and DGLA oxylipins. These sex differences and the attenuation of the sex difference in ARA COX oxylipins by dietary DHA may have implications in the development of sex-based dietary omega-3 guidelines in prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 *Overall thesis discussion*

This thesis highlights and confirms that oxylipins can be used to develop new methods and demonstrates their application to answer key questions in lipid metabolism. These findings confirm the overarching hypothesis that oxylipins can be used to provide novel insights to the field. Examples include guiding optimal dietary omega-3 fatty acid intake, such as ALA, with a comprehensive comparison to DHA; aiding in the development of new drugs by providing a thorough assessment of a drug's potential; in addition to answering fundamental questions in the understanding of lipid metabolism. These questions are all visited through the lenses of oxylipin analysis, which was not available until recently, by advances in mass spectrometry analysis, which makes feasible simultaneous analysis of the oxylipin profile. Since oxylipins mediate the effects of fatty acids and do not necessarily reflect fatty acid data (Cayer et al., 2019; Ferdouse et al., 2019a, 2019b; Leng et al., 2017, 2018; Mendonça et al., 2018; Pauls et al., 2020; Penner et al., 2021), this provides an important avenue to better understand and answer questions in lipid metabolism which have important value in physiology and pathophysiology due to the relevance of oxylipins' biological functions (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; Gabbs et al., 2015).

Chapter 2 shows how non-esterified DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins can be used to determine the dietary ALA requirement, which remains unknown for humans and rodents (European Food Safety Authority, 2010; Hamilton & Hogan, 1995; Institute of Medicine, 2005). Previous studies had indicated a lower ALA requirement by analysis of esterified DHA alone (Bourre et al., 1989; Couëdelo et al., 2022; Domenichiello et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2013; Tu et al., 2010; Whelan et al., 1991). However, since oxylipins are the biologically active lipid metabolites that mediate the functions of fatty acids, with non-esterified oxylipins and fatty acids

binding to their cognate receptors to elicit a biological response (Aukema & Ravandi, 2023; Gabbs et al., 2015), analysis of these compounds is expected to better reflect their biological functions. In addition, taking ARA into account when assessing the ALA requirement is more encompassing of its overall health benefits, as DHA and ARA have generally opposed effects (Gabbs et al., 2015). Since both DHA and ARA oxylipins are influenced by dietary ALA in a way that these effects reach a plateau with a certain level of dietary ALA intake, this indicates that dietary ALA intake beyond the plateau is unlikely to provide additional health benefits. Analysis of several tissues, including serum, liver, kidney and brain was a strength that allowed for comparison of which tissues would be expected to better reflect the dietary ALA requirement. Among these tissues, brain appears to be prioritized for ALA metabolism, thus, not being a useful marker of dietary ALA intake. Analysis of serum, liver and kidney of male rats and male and female mice generated breakpoints ranging from 0.2-0.75g ALA/100g of diet. Although we had suggested a requirement around the highest and more consistent result of around 0.7g ALA/100g of diet, a better estimate could be achieved with the average of our estimates which would be 0.54 ± 0.04 g of ALA/100g of diet 95% CI [0.45, 0.63]. This was concluded after having a more comprehensive picture that also included data from chapter 3. Thus, the objective of determining the dietary ALA requirement was achieved through the development of a new method and the hypothesis that by analyzing oxylipins this estimate is higher than previous estimates was confirmed, although non-esterified fatty acid data also suggested these can be used.

In chapter 3, we further expanded our analysis on the dietary ALA requirement, to understand what dosage of dietary DHA would be bioequivalent to the dietary ALA requirement. Although ALA is the essential omega-3 fatty acid, DHA alone can meet this requirement

(Carlson et al., 2019; De Meijer et al., 2010; Le et al., 2009, 2013; Ling et al., 2012). Even though this is an important topic that is highly debated in the lipid field, only one paper had previously aimed to address bioequivalence of ALA and DHA, and it was by analysis of fetal accretion of DHA in the brain (Greiner et al., 1997). Brain is a tissue we previously showed to be prioritized for ALA metabolism, and in this study, the growing rat would likely have different requirements than the fetus at peak brain development, and the DHA bioequivalence was not compared to the dietary requirement of ALA. The study in chapter 3 was fine tuned for determination of the ALA requirement based on previous findings, and considered the heart, in addition to serum, liver and brain, and females in addition to males. The dietary ALA requirement estimate was based on analysis of liver and serum of males and females. This was since the heart appears to be prioritized, even though it still has a higher ALA requirement than brain, and there were no conclusive sex differences in our studies. The average ALA requirement found was of 0.55g ALA/100g diet (1.3% energy), which is remarkably consistent with the study in chapter 2. In both studies, this requirement is slightly higher than what is provided by the AIN93G (i.e. ~0.5g ALA/100g diet), the standard rodent diet for growing rodents (Reeves et al., 1993). Based on this, the dose of dietary DHA that was bioequivalent to this dietary ALA requirement was 0.12g DHA/100g diet (0.3% energy), indicating that dietary DHA is about 5x more powerful than ALA in meeting omega-3 requirements in the growing rat. This confirmed the hypothesis we could apply this method to estimate the bioequivalence of DHA to the dietary ALA requirement and reached the objective of defining this bioequivalence.

In chapter 4 another method is presented. This is a method for evaluation of PLA₂ activity in the rat heart, while simultaneously considering the impact of iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activities by inhibitor use on fatty acids and oxylipins. This research highlights the first method

to assess activity of PLA₂ ex vivo, with advantages such as better mimicking *in vivo* conditions by use of endogenous lipid composition and enzyme expression, over commonly used in-vitro models with synthetic or labelled substrates and recombinant PLA₂ enzymes (Astudillo et al., 2023; Mouchlis et al., 2019). Most importantly, it allows assessment of changes in the oxylipin profile, in addition to PUFA, which even in PLA₂ research, do not always mimic the fatty acid results (Manson et al., 2023; Miki et al., 2013; Moon et al., 2016; Murase et al., 2016). This comprehensive assessment of PUFA and oxylipin profiles, allowed better determination of PLA₂ specificity for PUFA release, which was very poorly understood, particularly with respect to omega-3 fatty acids, and encompassing the impact on oxylipin classes that were never explored before. These findings raised important concerns for the use of PLA₂ inhibitors as potential drug targets. We showed that sPLA₂ has specificity towards DHA and its oxylipins, while it does not impact ARA oxylipins to the same extent as it impacts ARA. In addition, iPLA₂ was less specific and was primarily involved in EPA and ALA release and their oxylipin formation, which was unknown when this study began. While this manuscript was under production, Dennis and colleagues showed iPLA₂ preference for EPA release (Hayashi et al., 2021); however, our work remains the only one to demonstrate PLA₂ activity towards ALA and its oxylipins to the best of my knowledge. Therefore, by developing a new method we reached the objective of determining how PLA₂ activity impact fatty acid release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts and proved the hypothesis that different PLA₂ types would have distinct activities towards PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat hearts.

In chapter 5 the method presented in chapter 4 was applied to understand the nuances of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity mediating fatty acid release and oxylipin formation in the rat heart. Since our previous esterified fatty acid data did not reflect

oxylipin analysis (Ferdouse et al., 2019a), we hypothesized and tested the theory that PLA₂ could be responsible for differences in these profiles, particularly diet by sex interactions found. However, this hypothesis was not proven to be true as PLA₂ activity did not reflect the pattern observed in diet by sex interactions in our studies. Although other studies had shown diet (Y. Liu et al., 2014; Rao et al., 2007; Rudkowska et al., 2013; Smesny et al., 2014; K.-P. Su et al., 2018; Vincentini et al., 2011) and sex (Boekholdt et al., 2005; Keeting et al., 1998; Mallat et al., 2007; Pop et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2019; Ward et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2017) to influence PLA₂, others had not looked into how diet and sex would impact PLA₂ activity by measuring release of specific PUFA and oxylipins, in a comprehensive analysis. Gene expression, protein levels, or commercially available PLA₂ activity assays do not provide insights on enzyme preference and specificity. Thus, in addition to further confirming our findings in chapter 4, this work highlights important diet and sex effects on PLA₂ activity, which vary according to fatty acid or oxylipin class studied. Diet impacted both sPLA₂ and iPLA₂ activities, with a DHA rich diet resulting in more activity towards DHA and its oxylipins, while an ALA rich diet resulted in more activity towards ALA and ARA and their oxylipins. Diet impacted whether sPLA₂ had significant activity towards EPA or not, which helps understand discrepancies in previous studies in the field. Also, the primary fatty acid released by iPLA₂ was highly dependent on diet. In contrast to PLA₂ activity towards PUFA release being generally higher in females than males, few sex effects were found on oxylipins, and when they were present, they were higher in males. An unexpected finding of this work was the higher ARA COX oxylipin formation in stimulated male hearts, which was attenuated by dietary DHA. These findings shed new light on diet and sex effects on the role of PLA₂ activity in oxylipin biology, contributing meaningfully to the fundamental understanding of lipid metabolism. Although the hypothesis was not confirmed in this study, we

reached our objective of determining sex and dietary ALA and DHA influence on PLA₂ activity and if these could explain previous diet by sex interactions observed.

6.2 *Implications, limitations and future directions*

The findings in this thesis have important implications and expand knowledge in the field in addition to these studies' limitations generating insightful questions for further investigation. First, the studies in chapters 2 and 3 estimate the dietary ALA requirement in growing rats. Collectively, data of both studies suggest an average ALA requirement of 0.54 ± 0.04 g of ALA/100g diet 95% CI [0.47, 0.62]. Since the AIN93G, which is the standard rodent diet contains approximately 0.5 g of ALA/100g diet (Reeves et al., 1993), this suggests that this diet may need reformulation to meet the dietary ALA requirement. Placed in the context of dietary requirements, 0.54 is the average dietary requirement, which means it would be expected to meet the needs of about half of a rodent population (Institute of Medicine, 2005), thus, some animals could have higher requirements that would not be met by the AIN93G, particularly between different animal strains. Our studies suggests that the upper CI of 0.62g of ALA/100g of diet would be sufficient to meet the requirements of most animals, and this could reduce inconsistencies in research findings, such as on the benefits of increasing dietary ALA. The method developed could potentially be applied to human populations to test its feasibility; however, it would need to be in a population with low dietary ALA intake that does not consume dietary EPA and DHA. Importantly, there are some potentially deficient pediatric populations (Almasri et al., 2023; Cardino et al., 2024; Vyncke et al., 2012).

More research is necessary on the topic of understanding the dietary ALA requirement. Although the studies herein contained a high number of animals, this represents a relatively small sample size and only one rat and mouse strain. This comes as a limitation in contrast with

the whole rodent population, requiring further research to generate more precise estimates of the dietary ALA requirement. Further research should include males and females since our results are limited due to the inconclusive sex differences on the ALA requirement. It would be advisable to include more animals, particularly in the groups with dietary ALA intake around the breakpoint for improved estimates. Since we only used one concentration of dietary LA in all the diets, this limits extrapolation of the findings to different doses of LA. Since the concentration of LA could influence the dietary ALA requirement, different doses of LA should be further explored to determine the optimal omega-6/omega-3 ratio for dietary intake. Additionally, since the tissue with the highest ALA requirement would reflect what would be the optimal ALA intake, other tissues should be explored to determine if the requirement may not be underestimating the needs of a tissue with higher ALA requirement. Furthermore, it would be important to assess different life stages, as the research conducted for this thesis was limited to growing rats. Another point is that although the hypothesis that non-esterified DHA/ARA oxylipins generate higher breakpoints than esterified fatty acids appear to be true, we ended up finding that non-esterified fatty acids lead to generally similar results, but generally lower, to oxylipin analysis. This led to a further hypothesis that oxylipins lead to higher breakpoints than non-esterified fatty acids, and non-esterified fatty acids lead to higher breakpoints than esterified fatty acids. Further research is needed to answer this question. Additionally, oxylipin enantiomers can be produced enzymatically and non-enzymatically. Since different enantiomers can have distinct functions, further analysis to test whether non-enzymatic oxylipin production would affect the findings herein would be warranted (Fu et al., 2024).

In chapter 3, in addition to revisiting the dietary ALA requirement, the bioequivalence of DHA to the dietary ALA requirement was determined in growing rats. A DHA dose of 0.12 g of

DHA/100g diet was bioequivalent to the dietary ALA requirement of 0.55g of ALA/100g of diet, suggesting that DHA is roughly 5x more potent in comparison with dietary ALA. In addition, we found that any intake of DHA above the dietary ALA requirement is likely to generate an additional effect on DHA/ARA fatty acids and oxylipins beyond the maximal effect that can be achieved with dietary ALA alone. However, as a limitation we cannot affirm if this would result in additional health benefits, and this should be further investigated. This finding has potential implications as it is consistent with research on the health benefits of dietary ALA, which has either no effect or a small one, while EPA and DHA appear to have an effect on cardiovascular disease risk (Abdelhamid et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2006). Importantly, research on health benefits of ALA, EPA, and DHA is inconsistent, and these discrepancies could arise from variation in baseline intake of omega-3 fatty acids (Bae et al., 2023), which should be considered in future studies.

It remains to be clarified if there are any sex differences on the DHA bioequivalence to dietary ALA requirement, as our results are limited in reaching a conclusion, showing a potential difference that was not significant, and this could have been due to variability in research results or lack of power to detect a small difference. In addition, females had a stronger response to DHA dose in increasing DHA oxylipins in the heart. This suggests a difference in DHA dosage according to sex may be important to achieve health benefits in males and females, which remains to be further elucidated. Additionally, and similar to the limitations presented for the ALA requirement research, the DHA bioequivalence should be examined in relation to the dietary LA content, in other tissues and life cycles to determine if these factors would influence the DHA bioequivalence to dietary ALA. The method presented could also be used to answer other questions in lipid metabolism. Examples include determining the bioequivalence of dietary

EPA to ALA and DHA; determining the dietary LA requirement; or establishing requirements in different life cycles.

The results from chapter 4 on iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity for fatty acid release, which were further confirmed in the study on chapter 5, have important implications for drug development. One of the inhibitors used in these studies, Varespladib, an sPLA₂ inhibitor, had previously advanced into phase-III clinical trials for cardiovascular disease (Nicholls et al., 2014). Instead of improving cardiovascular disease, Varespladib showed an increased risk of myocardial infarction, stroke and cardiovascular mortality. The rationale for use of Varespladib was due to inhibition of ARA, which would then presumably lead to reduction of ARA oxylipins. In our study we show that ARA oxylipins, particularly pro-inflammatory ones were not altered, while DHA and its oxylipins, which have anti-inflammatory beneficial functions were decreased by Varespladib. Thus, these results provide a likely reason why Varespladib was linked to an increased risk of myocardial infarction, stroke and cardiovascular mortality. This research highlights how assumptions on the oxylipin profile should not be made from fatty acid data. Our results also suggest that either sPLA₂ or iPLA₂ inhibitors are unlikely to be potential successful drug targets, given their involvement in the release of omega-3 oxylipins. However, since a limitation of the study was that specific inhibitors were unavailable commercially or did not significantly inhibit fatty acid release or oxylipin formation, further research is needed to elucidate the role of specific PLA₂ isoforms in relation to our findings.

Lastly, the results from chapter 5 highlight the nuances of diet and sex effects on iPLA₂ and sPLA₂ activity mediating fatty acid release and oxylipin formation. This has implications in drug development, as discussed above, in the fundamental understanding of lipid metabolism, but also in cardiovascular physiology and pathophysiology. Importantly, the finding that ARA

COX oxylipins upon stimulation are higher in males could be related to the complex sex-based differences in the incidence and prevalence of cardiovascular disease (Bergami et al., 2022; Regitz-Zagrosek & Gebhard, 2023; Roeters van Lennep et al., 2023; Suman et al., 2023). Since DHA attenuated this sex-difference, this also offers potential avenues for the development of sex-based nutrition guidelines in the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease. However, since this is an *ex vivo* study in healthy rat hearts, it should be further elucidated whether these results would reflect effects seen in any specific type of cardiovascular disease and whether DHA would be more beneficial in the treatment of males.

The studies in PLA₂ activities also have limitations to be addressed in future studies. Future research should focus on targeting different specific isoforms, which were not explored herein. Individual isoforms can be studied and cPLA₂ activity in relation to diet and sex could be evaluated, but this would probably have to be conducted in a tissue that highly expresses cPLA₂ enzymes. In addition, further research on the understanding of how sex and dietary fat impact PLA₂ activity would be important since we here show it can influence PLA₂ activity findings. Further analysis can be conducted to evaluate complete dietary effects on fatty acids, which although contained the main understudied PUFA, it did not include LA and other remaining PUFA, or MUFA and SFA. However, it should be noted that MUFA and SFA do not form oxylipins. It would be important to test other dietary approaches that could have a substantial impact on PLA₂ activity, such as a high EPA diet, given the small proportion of EPA *in vivo* to other fatty acids and oxylipins without dietary EPA. Since PLA₂ does not seem to be responsible for discrepancies in fatty acid and oxylipin data, particularly with respect to sex effects and diet by sex interactions, further research is required to understand if differences in oxylipin turnover between males and females could explain these research findings.

In summary, the studies presented in this thesis focus on development of methods that aid in the understanding of how diet and sex impact metabolism of oxylipins, contributing to the fundamental understanding of lipid metabolism. The findings highlight how these methods using oxylipins can be effectively applied to advance the development of dietary intake guidelines and drugs targeting oxylipins, achieving this thesis overarching objective. In addition, this research has a potential impact in the development of therapies involving diet and sex for cardiovascular health.

Chapter 7: References

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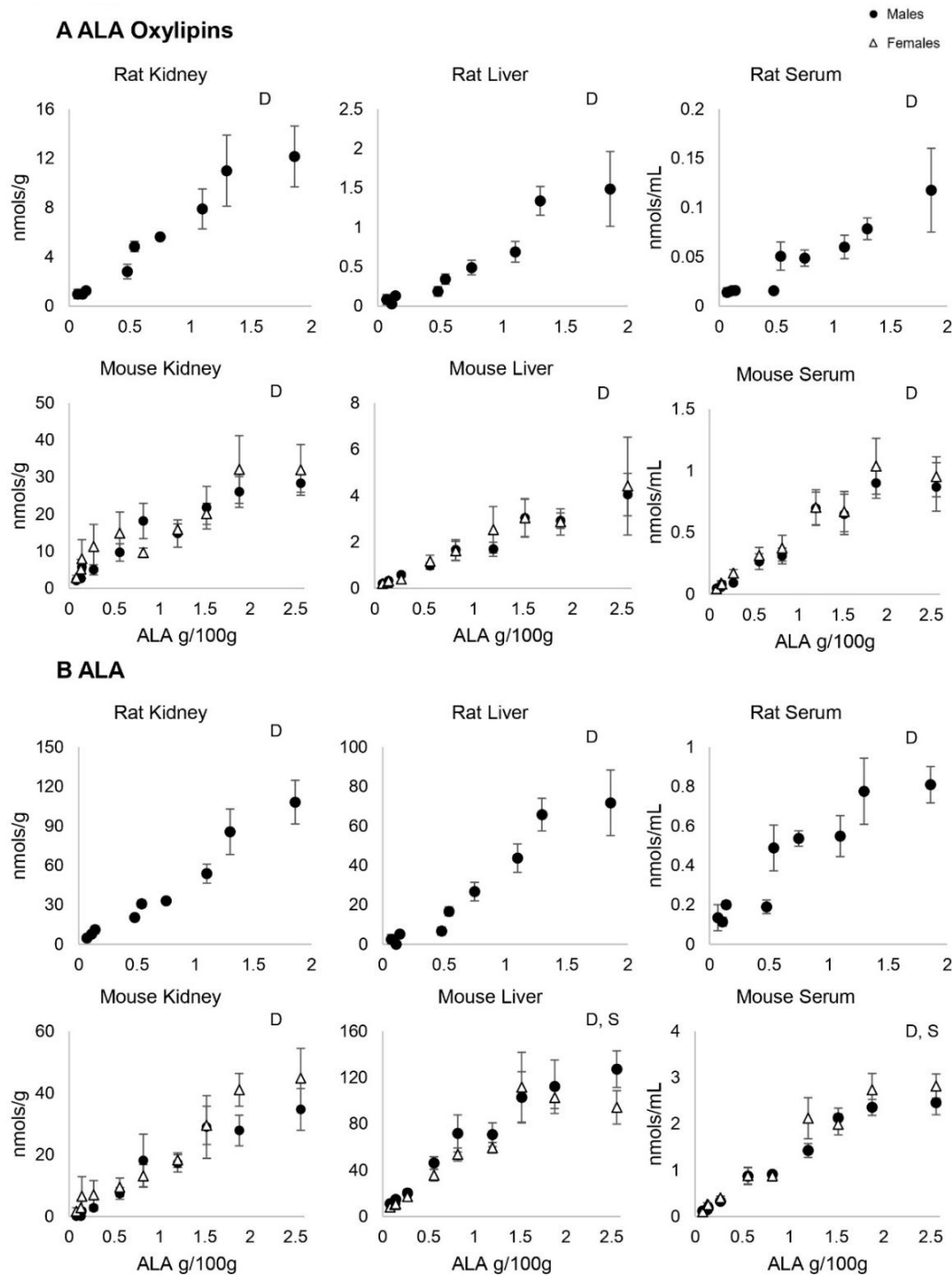
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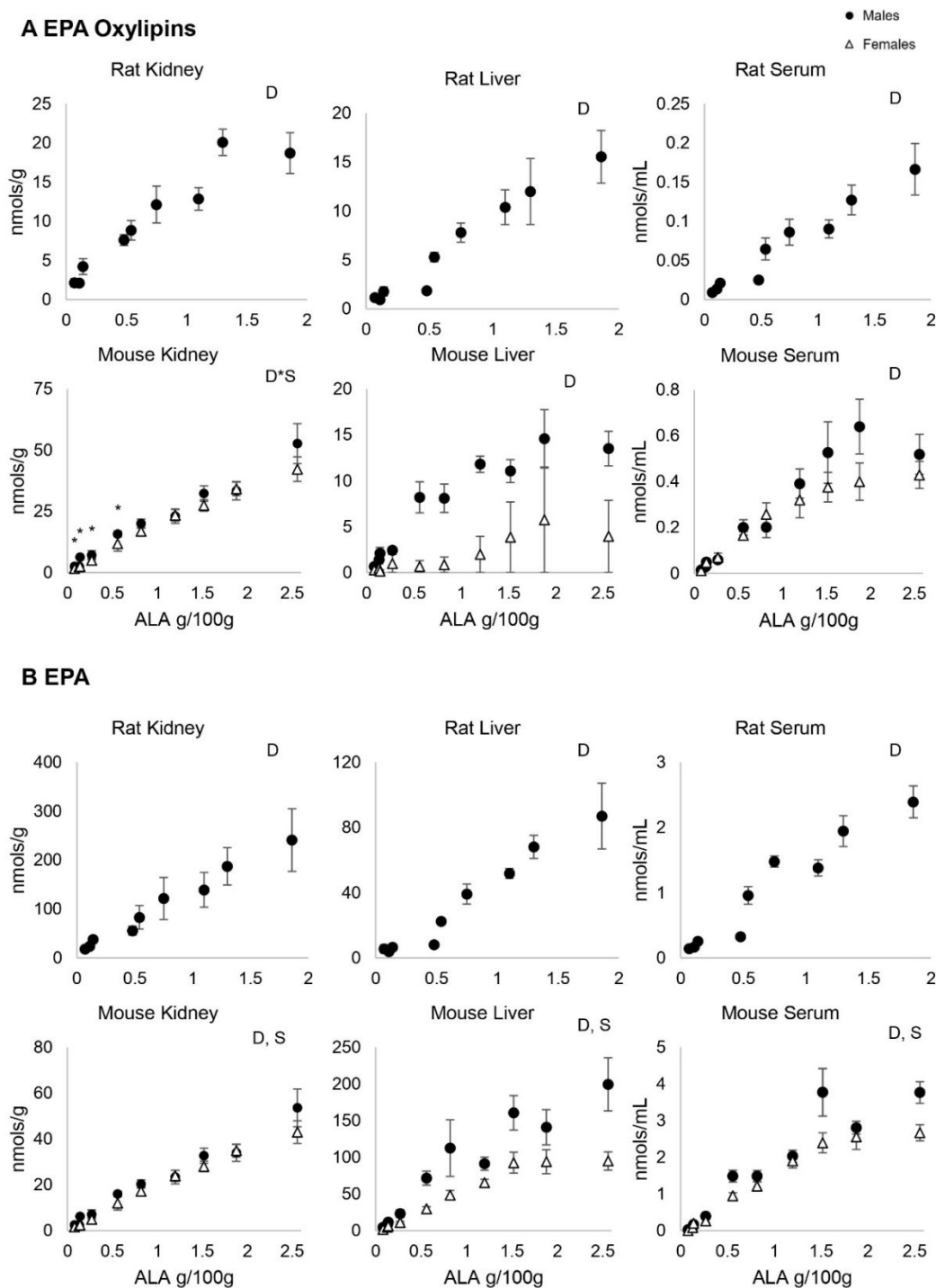
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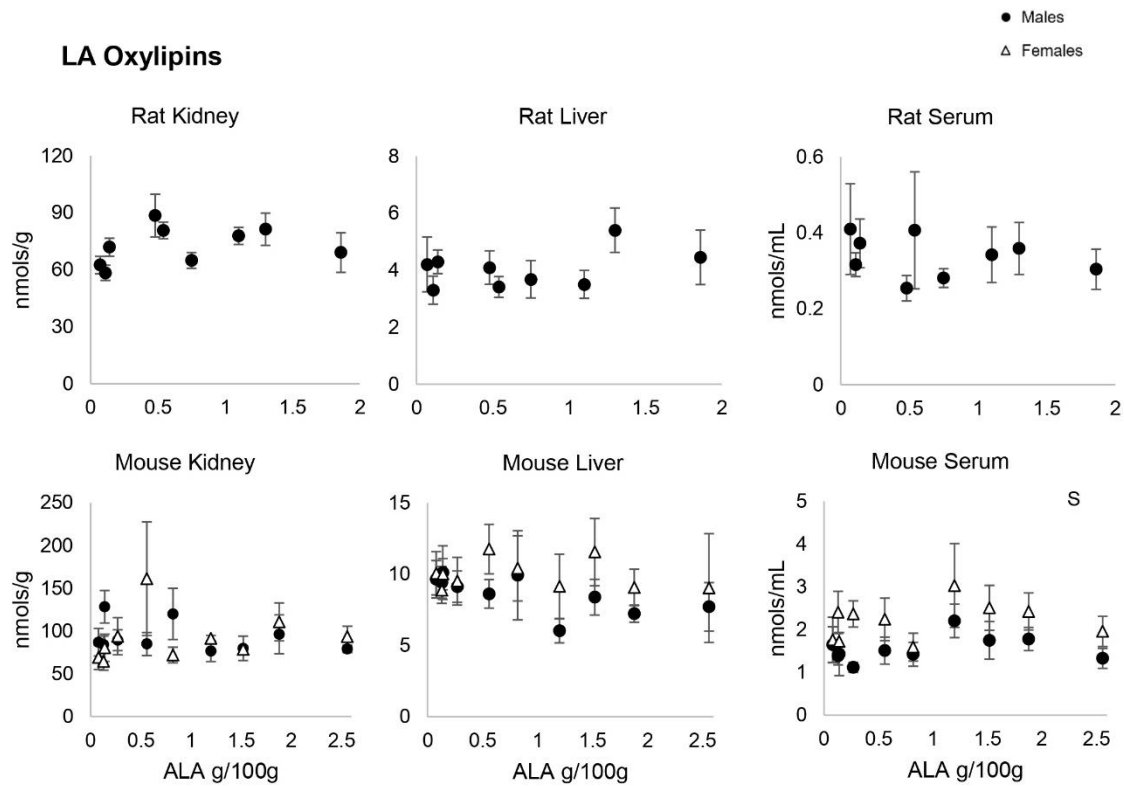
Appendix 1: Supplemental figures and tables for Chapter 2



Supplemental Figure 2-1. Total ALA oxylipins (A) and ALA (B) in response to dietary ALA. Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats, N total animals, n animals per group). D and S denote main effects of diet and sex, respectively, and diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5.



Supplemental Figure 2-2. Total EPA oxylipins (A) and EPA (B) in response to dietary ALA. Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats, N total animals, n animals per group). D and S denote main effects of diet and sex, respectively. D*S denotes diet by sex interaction for which sex differences are denoted by * above each diet group, and diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5.



Supplemental Figure 2-3. Total LA oxylipins in response to dietary ALA. Females: white triangles with black outline; Males: black-filled circles. Data shown as mean and SE (N=119-120, n=5-6 mice; N=45, n=5 rats, N total animals, n animals per group). S denotes sex main effect. Diet effects within each sex are reported in Supplemental Tables 4 and 5.

Supplemental Table 2-1. Oxylipins detected and quantified in serum and each tissue, ordered by FA precursor. Oxylipins included in DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} are in bold italics.

<u>Rat Kidney</u>	<u>Rat Liver</u>	<u>Rat Serum</u>	<u>Mouse Kidney</u>	<u>Mouse Liver</u>	<u>Mouse Serum</u>	<u>Mouse Brain</u>
ALA						
9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE
13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE
	12,13 EpODE	12,13 EpODE	12,13 EpODE	12,13 EpODE 12,13 diHODE		
EPA						
PGE3	PGE3	TXB3	PGE3	PGF3a	5-HEPE	PGD3
PGF3a	5-HEPE	5-HEPE	TXB3	5-HEPE	8-HEPE	12-HEPE
5-HEPE	8-HEPE	8-HEPE	5-HEPE	8-HEPE	9-HEPE	18-HEPE
9-HEPE	9-HEPE	11-HEPE	8-HEPE	11-HEPE	11-HEPE	
11-HEPE	11-HEPE	12-HEPE	9-HEPE	12-HEPE	12-HEPE	
12-HEPE	12-HEPE	15-HEPE	11-HEPE	15-HEPE	15-HEPE	
15-HEPE	15-HEPE	14,15 EpETE	12-HEPE	14,15 diHETE	14,15 EpETE	
17,18 diHETE	14,15 EpETE	14,15 diHETE	15-HEPE	17,18 diHETE	14,15 diHETE	
18-HEPE	14,15 diHETE	17,18 EpETE	14,15 diHETE	18-HEPE	17,18 EpETE	
	17,18 diHETE	18-HEPE	17,18 diHETE		17,18 diHETE	
	18-HEPE		18-HEPE		18-HEPE	
DHA						
<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>
<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>
<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>
<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>
<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>
<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>

<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>
<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>
<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	16,17 EpDoPE	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	16,17 DiHDoPE	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>
16,17 DiHDoPE	16,17 DiHDoPE	16,17 DiHDoPE	10S,17S-DiHDoHE	19,20 DiHDoPE	16,17 EpDoPE	16,17 EpDoPE
19,20 DiHDoPE	19,20 DiHDoPE	19,20 EpDoPE	16,17 EpDoPE	<i>20-HDoHE</i>	16,17 DiHDoPE	16,17 DiHDoPE
<i>20-HDoHE</i>	<i>20-HDoHE</i>	19,20 DiHDoPE	16,17 DiHDoPE		19,20 EpDoPE	19,20 DiHDoPE
		<i>20-HDoHE</i>	19,20 EpDoPE		19,20 DiHDoPE	<i>20-HDoHE</i>
			19,20 DiHDoPE		<i>20-HDoHE</i>	
			<i>20-HDoHE</i>			

ARA

PGD2	PGD2	PGD2	PGD2	PGD2	PGE2	PGD2
15d PGD2	PGE2	PGE2	PGE2	PGE2	11b PGE2	15d PGD2
PGE2	11b PGE2	PGA2	11b PGE2	11b PGE2	15k PGE2	dhk PGD2
11b PGE2	6k PGF1a	11b PGE2	15k PGE2	15k PGE2	TXB2	PGJ2
15k PGE2	PGF2a	PGF2a	6k PGF1a	6k PGF1a	12-HHTrE	PGE2
6k PGF1a	12-HHTrE	TXB2	PGF2a	PGF2a	<i>5-HETE</i>	PGA2
PGF2a	<i>5-HETE</i>	12-HHTrE	TXB2	TXB2	<i>8-HETE</i>	PGB2
TXB2	<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>5-HETE</i>	12-HHTrE	12-HHTrE	<i>9-HETE</i>	11b PGE2
12-HHTrE	<i>9-HETE</i>	<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>5-HETE</i>	<i>5-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	15k PGE2
<i>5-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	6k PGF1a
5,15 diHETE	<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>9-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	tetranor 12-HETE	PGF2a
<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>15-HETE</i>	tetranor 12-HETE	<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>15-HETE</i>	15k PGF2a
<i>9-HETE</i>	5,6 DiHETrE	<i>15-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	tetranor 12-HETE	6t LTB4	TXB2
<i>11-HETE</i>	8,9 EpETrE	6t LTB4	tetranor 12-HETE	<i>15-HETE</i>	6t, 12epi LTB4	12-HHTrE
<i>12-HETE</i>	8,9 DiHETrE	6t, 12epi LTB4	<i>15-HETE</i>	5,6 EpETrE	5,6 EpETrE	<i>5-HETE</i>
<i>15-HETE</i>	11,12 DiHETrE	LTB4	LTB4	5,6 DiHETrE	5,6 DiHETrE	<i>8-HETE</i>
8,15 diHETE	14,15 DiHETrE	6S-LXA4	12epi LTB4	8,9 EpETrE	8,9 EpETrE	<i>9-HETE</i>
6t LTB4	<i>16-HETE</i>	5,6 EpETrE	6S-LXA4	8,9 DiHETrE	8,9 DiHETrE	<i>11-HETE</i>
6t, 12epi LTB4	<i>18-HETE</i>	8,9 EpETrE	5,6 EpETrE	11,12 EpETrE	11,12 DiHETrE	<i>12-HETE</i>
5,6 DiHETrE	<i>20-HETE</i>	8,9 DiHETrE	5,6 DiHETrE	11,12 DiHETrE	14,15 EpETrE	<i>15-HETE</i>
8,9 EpETrE		11,12 DiHETrE	8,9 EpETrE	14,15 DiHETrE	14,15 DiHETrE	6S-LXA4
8,9 DiHETrE		14,15 EpETrE	8,9 DiHETrE		<i>16-HETE</i>	11,12 EpETrE

11,12 EpETrE	14,15 DiHETrE	11,12 DiHETrE	17-HETE	11,12 DiHETrE
11,12 DiHETrE	16-HETE	14,15 EpETrE	18-HETE	14,15 EpETrE
14,15 EpETrE	18-HETE	14,15 DiHETrE		14,15 DiHETrE
14,15 DiHETrE		16-HETE		
16-HETE		18-HETE		
18-HETE				
20-HETE				

LA						
9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE
13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE
9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME	9,10,13 triHOME
9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME	9,12,13 triHOME
9,10 diHOME	9,10 diHOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME
12,13 diHOME	12,13 EpOME	9,10 diHOME	9,10 diHOME	9,10 diHOME	9,10 diHOME	9,10 diHOME
	12,13 diHOME	12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME
		12,13 diHOME	12,13 diHOME	12,13 diHOME	12,13 diHOME	

Abbreviations: ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α -linolenic acid; DiHDoPE, dihydroxy-docosapentaenoic acid; DiHDoHE, dihydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; DiHETE, dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; DiHETrE, dihydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; DiHODE, dihydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; diHOME, dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; EpDoPE, epoxy-docosapentaenoic acid; EpETrE, epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid; EpODE, epoxy-octadecadienoic acid; EpOME, epoxy-octadecenoic acid; FA, fatty acid; HDoHE, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; HETrE, hydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; HHTrE, hydroxy-heptadecatrienoic acid; HODE, hydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; HOTrE, hydroxy-octadecatrienoic acid; LA, linoleic acid; LT, leukotriene; PG, prostaglandin; triHOME, trihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; TX, thromboxane.

Supplemental Table 2-2. Rat body and organ weights at the end of the study period.

Diet Group	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.5	2	Diet (P)
Body Weight	469 ± 18.0	487 ± 14.4	452 ± 29.6	462 ± 16.7	465 ± 19.7	482 ± 26.4	437 ± 13.5	445 ± 14.6	454 ± 12.3	0.6963
Right kidney	1.54 ± 0.077	1.64 ± 0.055	1.57 ± 0.096	1.56 ± 0.059	1.55 ± 0.080	1.60 ± 0.093	1.51 ± 0.060	1.56 ± 0.076	1.59 ± 0.058	0.9401
Left kidney	1.53 ± 0.090	1.66 ± 0.046	1.52 ± 0.082	1.55 ± 0.063	1.56 ± 0.080	1.58 ± 0.094	1.5 ± 0.049	1.52 ± 0.050	1.58 ± 0.039	0.8114
Liver	19.4 ± 1.50	23.8 ± 1.20	20.2 ± 2.34	21.5 ± 1.43	19.2 ± 1.80	22.1 ± 2.23	18.3 ± 0.916	18.7 ± 1.69	19.0 ± 1.08	0.3187

Data are shown in grams as means ± SEs (n=5).

Supplemental Table 2-3. Mouse body and organ weights at the end of the study period.

Diet Group		0.1	0.15	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.5	2	2.5	Diet (P)	Sex (P)
Body weight	Males	44.6 ± 1.73	41.1 ± 1.73	43.3 ± 1.62	42.6 ± 1.44	44.4 ± 1.12	42.9 ± 1.45	43 ± 1.44	45 ± 2.15	45.9 ± 2.26	47.9 ± 1.24	0.7783	<0.0001
	Females	34.2 ± 1.84	32.4 ± 1.74	35.5 ± 0.722	34 ± 2.17	32 ± 1.30	33.7 ± 2.53	35.5 ± 1.86	34.6 ± 3.30	32.6 ± 1.68	32.6 ± 1.22		
Right Kidney	Males	0.293 ± 0.014	0.332 ± 0.010	0.295 ± 0.014	0.333 ± 0.026	0.315 ± 0.016	0.327 ± 0.009	0.332 ± 0.009	0.333 ± 0.010	0.323 ± 0.012	0.33 ± 0.022	0.4796	<0.0001
	Females	0.212 ± 0.014	0.213 ± 0.014	0.215 ± 0.004	0.220 ± 0.008	0.205 ± 0.012	0.187 ± 0.013	0.208 ± 0.010	0.218 ± 0.015	0.182 ± 0.004	0.193 ± 0.008		
Left Kidney	Males	0.290 ± 0.018	0.315 ± 0.017	0.282 ± 0.011	0.322 ± 0.022	0.312 ± 0.013	0.318 ± 0.008	0.308 ± 0.008	0.317 ± 0.004	0.317 ± 0.010	0.308 ± 0.010	0.5922	<0.0001
	Females	0.208 ± 0.014	0.202 ± 0.011	0.205 ± 0.006	0.223 ± 0.009	0.195 ± 0.006	0.192 ± 0.010	0.205 ± 0.007	0.202 ± 0.015	0.188 ± 0.009	0.192 ± 0.007		
Liver	Males	2.57 ± 0.086	2.28 ± 0.117	2.34 ± 0.095	2.17 ± 0.086	2.39 ± 0.101	2.40 ± 0.126	2.18 ± 0.112	2.25 ± 0.246	2.25 ± 0.104	2.42 ± 0.078	0.6526	<0.0001
	Females	1.82 ± 0.149	1.61 ± 0.108	1.93 ± 0.101	1.92 ± 0.226	1.59 ± 0.092	1.83 ± 0.178	1.71 ± 0.102	1.83 ± 0.289	1.64 ± 0.131	1.65 ± 0.051		
Brain	Males	0.466 ± 0.013	0.477 ± 0.013	0.457 ± 0.018	0.467 ± 0.013	0.465 ± 0.057	0.452 ± 0.011	0.509 ± 0.014	0.492 ± 0.015	0.487 ± 0.010	0.488 ± 0.007	0.8089	0.2618
	Females	0.477 ± 0.015	0.487 ± 0.025	0.479 ± 0.009	0.532 ± 0.012	0.474 ± 0.020	0.488 ± 0.012	0.469 ± 0.012	0.480 ± 0.015	0.491 ± 0.020	0.480 ± 0.015		

Data are shown in grams as means ± SEs (n=6).

Supplemental Table 2-4. ANOVA results for total oxylipins by FA precursor and for FA in rat kidney (A), liver (B), serum (C).

A. Rat Kidney												
Diet Group	0.07	0.11	0.14	0.48	0.54	0.75	1.1	1.3	1.86	SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)
<i>NE Oxylipins (nmols/g)</i>												
ALA	0.989 ± 0.384 d	0.989 ± 0.078 d	1.27 ± 0.188 d	2.81 ± 0.593 c	4.85 ± 0.417 b	5.63 ± 0.216 b	7.90 ± 1.63 ab	11.0 ± 2.88 a	12.2 ± 2.47 a	<0.0001	0.1048	<0.0001
EPA	2.16 ± 0.529 f	2.12 ± 0.197 f	4.22 ± 1.01 e	7.62 ± 0.687 d	8.85 ± 1.25 cd	12.2 ± 2.35 cd	12.9 ± 1.44 bc	20.1 ± 1.69 a	18.7 ± 2.61 ab	0.0007	0.0877	<0.0001
DHA	18.6 ± 2.26 d	20.2 ± 2.14 cd	24.0 ± 2.79 bcd	39.8 ± 8.45 a	28.5 ± 1.5 abc	28.8 ± 3.95 abc	24.8 ± 1.33 abcd	33.1 ± 3.16 ab	22.3 ± 4.58 cd	0.0089	0.1953	0.0121
ARA	131 ± 19.3 abc	119 ± 24.7 abcd	149 ± 28.8 ab	185 ± 41.5 a	104 ± 23.9 bcd	77.7 ± 14.8 cd	76.8 ± 15.9 cd	95.0 ± 18.1 bcd	54.4 ± 13.6 d	0.1324	NA	0.0129
LA	62.5 ± 4.61	58.4 ± 4.00	71.9 ± 4.73	88.5 ± 11.2	80.7 ± 4.39	64.9 ± 4.12	77.8 ± 4.54	81.3 ± 8.48	69.0 ± 10.4	0.4704	NA	0.0588
<i>NE Fatty Acids (nmols/g)</i>												
ALA	4.86 ± 2.13 d	7.78 ± 1.05 d	11.1 ± 2.90 d	20.4 ± 1.55 c	30.9 ± 2.82 bc	33.1 ± 2.05 bc	53.8 ± 7.26 ab	85.6 ± 17.3 a	108.1 ± 16.6 a	0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
EPA	18.2 ± 4.27 g	23.6 ± 5.27 fg	37.5 ± 6.18 ef	55.6 ± 9.23 de	82.9 ± 24.0 cd	121.4 ± 42.9 bcd	139.1 ± 35.5 abc	187.3 ± 38.1 ab	240.9 ± 64.1 a	0.0054	0.2311	<0.0001
DHA	587 ± 104	653 ± 104	991 ± 172	1451 ± 365	1069 ± 309	1126 ± 282	1298 ± 260	1787 ± 401	1531 ± 287	0.2090	NA	0.0603
ARA	1324 ± 163	1179 ± 280	1353 ± 304	1889 ± 597	2121 ± 863	1556 ± 464	1230 ± 445	1504 ± 333	1491 ± 464	0.0485	0.3522	0.9867
B. Rat Liver												
Diet Group	0.07	0.11	0.14	0.48	0.54	0.75	1.1	1.3	1.86	SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)
<i>NE Oxylipins (nmols/g)</i>												
ALA	0.085 ± 0.064 de	0.031 ± 0.015 e	0.132 ± 0.034 de	0.189 ± 0.059 cde	0.344 ± 0.063 bcd	0.491 ± 0.092 bc	0.69 ± 0.131 b	1.34 ± 0.182 a	1.49 ± 0.474 a	<0.0001	0.1147	<0.0001
EPA	1.16 ± 0.108 de	0.943 ± 0.169 e	1.79 ± 0.456 de	1.85 ± 0.283 d	5.31 ± 0.473 c	7.8 ± 0.983 bc	10.4 ± 1.79 ab	12 ± 3.39 ab	15.6 ± 2.69 a	<0.0001	0.2795	<0.0001
DHA	2.40 ± 0.901	2.61 ± 0.678	2.12 ± 0.430	3.43 ± 0.670	3.71 ± 0.531	4.14 ± 0.760	3.04 ± 0.572	4.99 ± 1.08	3.82 ± 0.615	0.7815	NA	0.1511
ARA	9.33 ± 1.90 a	6.96 ± 0.882 ab	8.58 ± 1.62 a	6.67 ± 0.922 abc	5.96 ± 0.403 abcd	4.52 ± 0.593 cde	3.95 ± 0.394 de	4.86 ± 0.683 bcde	3.59 ± 0.518 e	0.0016	0.775	0.0004
LA	4.21 ± 0.963	3.30 ± 0.490	4.29 ± 0.414	4.09 ± 0.590	3.41 ± 0.363	3.68 ± 0.659	3.5 ± 0.491	5.41 ± 0.780	4.45 ± 0.958	0.0266	0.8935	0.4860

<i>NE Fatty Acids (nmols/g)</i>												
ALA	2.44 ± 2.44 e	ND e	5.21 ± 1.42 d	6.73 ± 2.02 d	16.7 ± 2.24 c	26.7 ± 4.70 bc	43.7 ± 7.17 ab	65.8 ± 8.32 a	71.8 ± 16.6 a	0.0008	0.002	<0.0001
EPA	5.48 ± 2.48 ef	3.84 ± 0.467 f	6.50 ± 0.503 de	8.07 ± 0.697 d	22.4 ± 1.39 c	39.2 ± 6.15 b	51.8 ± 3.09 ab	68.1 ± 7.11 a	87.0 ± 20.1 a	<0.0001	0.0006	<0.0001
DHA	395 ± 73.5 d	520 ± 33.4 cd	483 ± 31.4 cd	651 ± 35.3 bc	675 ± 59.0 bc	830 ± 73.9 ab	749 ± 60.6 ab	893 ± 98.8 a	742 ± 108 ab	0.4507	NA	<0.0001
ARA	526 ± 117 a	451 ± 54.6 ab	416 ± 29.3 abc	436 ± 35.3 ab	345 ± 16.6 abcd	339 ± 47.6 bcd	301 ± 31.1 cd	386 ± 47.1 abc	266 ± 42.5 d	0.0018	0.6517	0.0207

C. Rat Serum												
Diet Group	0.07	0.11	0.14	0.48	0.54	0.75	1.1	1.3	1.86	SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)
<i>NE Oxylipins (nmols/mL)</i>												
ALA	0.014 ± 0.005 c	0.016 ± 0.004 c	0.016 ± 0.004 c	0.016 ± 0.002 c	0.051 ± 0.014 b	0.049 ± 0.008 b	0.06 ± 0.012 ab	0.079 ± 0.011 ab	0.118 ± 0.042 a	<0.0001	0.8722	<0.0001
EPA	0.009 ± 0.002 f	0.014 ± 0.004 ef	0.021 ± 0.003 de	0.025 ± 0.003 d	0.065 ± 0.014 c	0.086 ± 0.017 bc	0.09 ± 0.011 bc	0.127 ± 0.019 ab	0.167 ± 0.033 a	0.0054	0.4616	<0.0001
DHA	0.074 ± 0.014 c	0.076 ± 0.012 c	0.072 ± 0.012 c	0.085 ± 0.009 bc	0.139 ± 0.017 ab	0.145 ± 0.024 a	0.128 ± 0.014 abc	0.149 ± 0.014 a	0.162 ± 0.043 a	0.0834	NA	0.0062
ARA	2.81 ± 0.429 ab	3.01 ± 0.513 a	2.60 ± 0.289 abc	1.95 ± 0.197 bcd	1.78 ± 0.240 cd	1.51 ± 0.306 d	1.20 ± 0.130 d	1.52 ± 0.425 d	1.11 ± 0.161 d	0.4791	NA	0.0005
LA	0.410 ± 0.120	0.316 ± 0.031	0.372 ± 0.064	0.254 ± 0.034	0.406 ± 0.154	0.281 ± 0.025	0.342 ± 0.073	0.359 ± 0.068	0.304 ± 0.053	0.0116	0.7789	0.9737
<i>NE Fatty Acids (nmols/mL)</i>												
ALA	0.135 ± 0.066 d	0.114 ± 0.022 d	0.201 ± 0.019 d	0.190 ± 0.034 d	0.489 ± 0.116 c	0.537 ± 0.039 bc	0.549 ± 0.104 bc	0.776 ± 0.168 ab	0.809 ± 0.092 a	0.0192	0.1605	<0.0001
EPA	0.144 ± 0.034 e	0.165 ± 0.024 e	0.255 ± 0.037 d	0.323 ± 0.029 d	0.957 ± 0.135 c	1.48 ± 0.084 b	1.38 ± 0.124 bc	1.94 ± 0.237 ab	2.39 ± 0.245 a	0.0165	0.6680	<0.0001
DHA	9.14 ± 2.02 c	9.95 ± 0.888 c	11.3 ± 1.75 c	12.6 ± 1.45 bc	18.3 ± 1.50 ab	22.3 ± 2.61 a	17.5 ± 1.77 ab	20.4 ± 2.89 a	19.2 ± 2.39 a	0.2079	<0.0001	<0.0001
ARA	15.4 ± 1.67 a	14.7 ± 1.14 ab	13.9 ± 0.931 ab	12.1 ± 0.633 bcd	13.3 ± 0.731 abc	12.8 ± 1.09 abcd	10.9 ± 0.702 cd	12 ± 0.898 bcd	10.1 ± 0.854 d	0.8354	<0.0001	0.0125

Data reported as means ± SEs (n=5; N=45). The SW column shows the shapiro wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows shapiro-wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal was analyzed using a one-way ANOVA for diet effects shown in the diet (P) column. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, ANOVA was applied to data that were closest to normality. Diet group means within each row with differing letters below the means indicate significant differences between diet groups as determined by Fisher's Protected LSD test (p<0.05). ND: not detected.

Supplemental Table 2-5. ANOVA results for total oxylipins by FA precursor and for FA in mouse kidney (A), liver (B), serum (C), and brain (D).

		A. Mouse Kidney														
Diet Group		0.08	0.13	0.14	0.27	0.56	0.82	1.2	1.52	1.88	2.56	SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)	Sex (P)	Diet*Sex (P)
NE Oxylipins (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	2.80 ± 0.701	5.12 ± 2.67	7.91 ± 5.23	11.3 ± 5.99	14.8 ± 5.76	9.58 ± 1.30	15.9 ± 1.52	20.1 ± 2.84	32.1 ± 9.14	32.0 ± 6.87	<0.0001	0.0027	<0.0001	0.5587	0.8253
	M	2.08 ± 0.476	2.60 ± 0.552	5.68 ± 1.04	4.97 ± 1.37	9.65 ± 2.34	18.2 ± 4.77	14.8 ± 3.70	21.8 ± 5.74	26.0 ± 4.17	28.4 ± 2.42					
		f	ef	de	d	c	bc	bc	ab	a	a					
EPA	F	1.63 ± 0.194	2.30 ± 0.105	2.44 ± 0.201	4.96 ± 0.817	12.0 ± 3.02	17.2 ± 1.54	23.9 ± 2.40	28.0 ± 2.28	34.9 ± 2.73	43.0 ± 4.94	<0.0001	0.2636	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0040
	M	2.56 ± 0.311	2.56 ± 0.536	6.25 ± 0.731	7.16 ± 1.91	16.0 ± 1.13	20.3 ± 1.84	23.4 ± 2.97	32.7 ± 3.27	34.0 ± 3.77	53.6 ± 8.23					
		k	k	ij	i	g	efg	ef	bcd	bcd	a					
DHA	F	96.8 ± 24.6	87.4 ± 8.85	69.8 ± 8.44	116.4 ± 11.2	128.7 ± 32.2	123.9 ± 22.5	139 ± 22.9	137 ± 10.8	138.2 ± 20	123.7 ± 25.2	0.1149	NA	0.0011	0.0002	0.7747
	M	93.5 ± 15.2	94.1 ± 18.7	149 ± 13.1	153 ± 17.4	161 ± 17.2	151 ± 19.7	174 ± 26.4	183 ± 18.2	171 ± 24.7	168 ± 29.6					
		c	c	bc	ab	ab	ab	a	a	a	ab					
ARA	F	208 ± 34.4	179 ± 17.7	145 ± 21.0	183 ± 20.9	164 ± 28.7	158 ± 24.1	154.6 ± 24.0	148 ± 11.9	127 ± 15.8	114 ± 15.1	0.0019	0.3702	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0812
	M	169 ± 13.7	105 ± 10.2	167 ± 15.2	122 ± 18.1	102 ± 4.50	98.5 ± 7.73	82.6 ± 10.3	79.9 ± 9.61	76.8 ± 13.4	72.9 ± 14.2					
		a	bc	ab	ab	bc	bcd	cde	cde	de	e					
LA	F	69.0 ± 14.0	64.4 ± 10.2	80.4 ± 15.9	93.8 ± 21.7	161 ± 66.4	71.9 ± 9.15	91.1 ± 3.75	78.4 ± 4.29	111 ± 22.1	93.3 ± 12.2	<0.0001	0.0860	0.6514	0.4858	0.2076
	M	86.9 ± 16.2	84 ± 10.2	128 ± 19.0	89.2 ± 12.2	84.8 ± 13.4	120 ± 30.0	76.4 ± 12.2	79.7 ± 14.3	96.1 ± 22.8	79.0 ± 4.25					
NE Fatty Acids (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	1.66 ± 1.14	2.74 ± 2.65	6.54 ± 6.32	6.93 ± 4.68	9.43 ± 2.98	13.1 ± 3.69	18.3 ± 2.36	29.5 ± 6.20	41.0 ± 5.30	44.8 ± 9.66	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.1163	0.9751
	M	0.056 ± 0.056	0.038 ± 0.715	1.74 ± 0.686	2.76 ± 0.911	7.44 ± 1.91	18.1 ± 8.51	17.2 ± 2.84	29.0 ± 10.2	27.8 ± 4.97	34.7 ± 6.79					
		f	f	f	e	d	cd	bc	ab	a	a					
EPA	F	3.02 ± 1.27	3.49 ± 0.451	3.32 ± 0.547	7.65 ± 1.40	14.3 ± 1.80	31.5 ± 6.38	38.8 ± 7.24	60.5 ± 11.0	70.3 ± 15.4	91.7 ± 26.5	<0.0001	0.7915	<0.0001	0.0008	0.8086
	M	1.94 ± 0.349	1.69 ± 0.385	3.32 ± 0.661	5.81 ± 1.58	14.5 ± 3.66	15.1 ± 2.79	33.3 ± 10.5	48.3 ± 12.9	43.5 ± 10.3	78.3 ± 27.1					
		g	fg	f	e	d	c	bc	ab	a	a					
DHA	F	12321 ± 5777	9212 ± 1290	6676 ± 1070	10779 ± 1988.5	8380 ± 1037	12041 ± 1839	10296 ± 1830	13833 ± 2205	13044 ± 2722	15030 ± 4873	<0.0001	0.2562	0.0267	0.7573	0.5998
	M	8449 ± 1631	5810 ± 1740	9720 ± 1319	10827.1 ± 1569	9838 ± 1967	8991 ± 948	12596 ± 2160	15094 ± 3406	11427 ± 2310	13038 ± 2968					
		bcd	d	cd	abc	bcd	abc	abc	a	abc	ab					
ARA	F	7002 ± 2609	5377 ± 712	3608 ± 502	5658 ± 892	3896 ± 673	4871 ± 894	4648 ± 981	5353 ± 832	5171 ± 1230	5651 ± 1939	<0.0001	0.8399	0.3184	<0.0001	0.5489
	M	4304 ± 518	2627 ± 650	3858 ± 475	3553 ± 428	2714 ± 485	2167 ± 236	2926 ± 740	3368 ± 697	2385 ± 673	2613 ± 698					

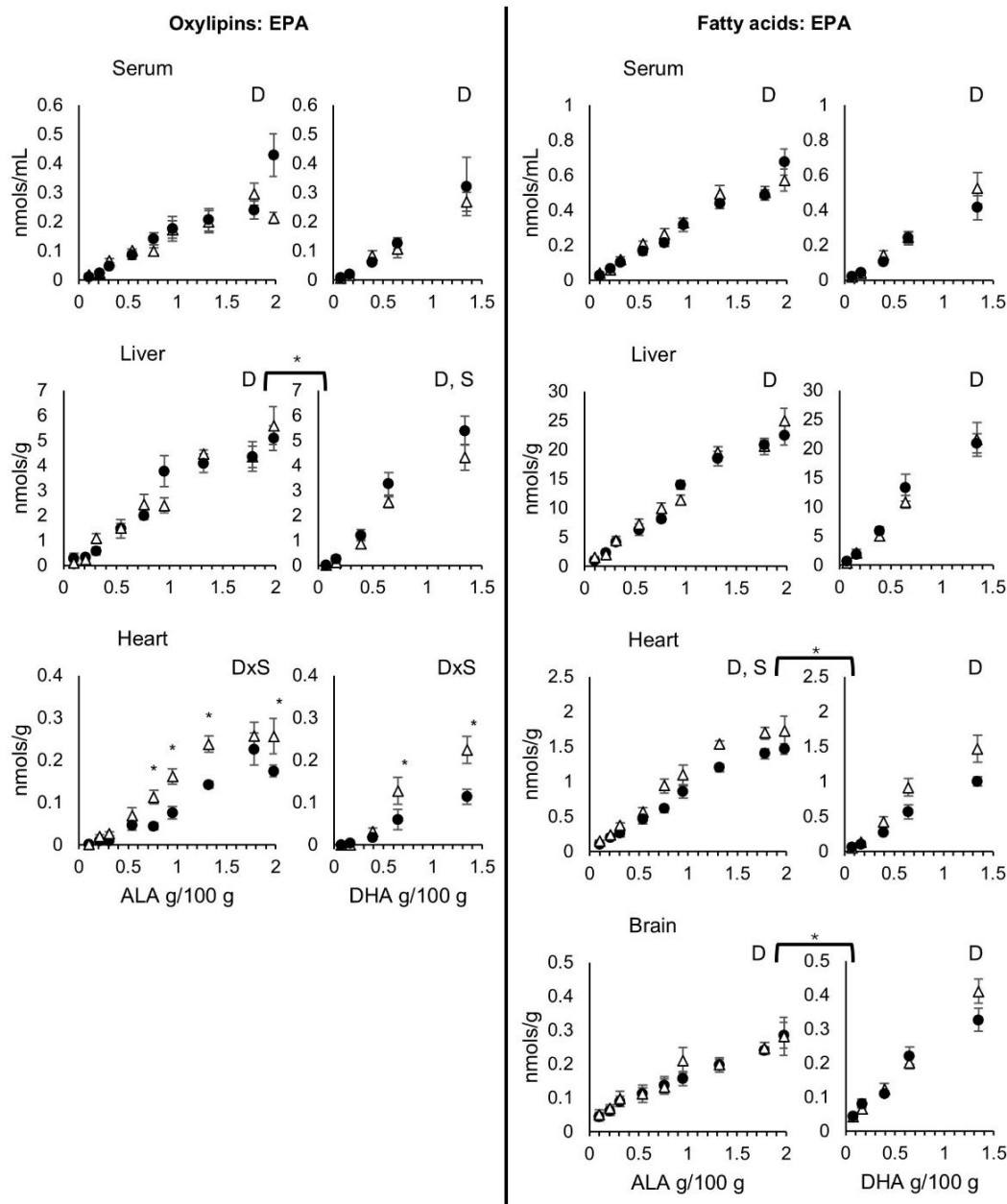
Diet Group		B. Mouse Liver										SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)	Sex (P)	Diet*Sex (P)
		0.08	0.13	0.14	0.27	0.56	0.82	1.2	1.52	1.88	2.56					
NE Oxylipins (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	0.196 ± 0.081	0.234 ± 0.083	0.304 ± 0.058	0.388 ± 0.097	1.16 ± 0.265	1.61 ± 0.416	2.53 ± 1.01	3.04 ± 0.807	2.86 ± 0.568	4.42 ± 2.11	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.8384	0.9967
	M	0.198 ± 0.037 e	0.234 ± 0.040 e	0.319 ± 0.066 e	0.577 ± 0.097 e	0.970 ± 0.148 d	1.66 ± 0.447 cd	1.68 ± 0.305 bc	3.04 ± 0.831 ab	2.92 ± 0.332 a	4.05 ± 0.918 a					
EPA	F	0.991 ± 0.268	1.79 ± 0.479	1.54 ± 0.155	3.66 ± 0.986	5.00 ± 0.647	7.48 ± 0.848	10.7 ± 1.98	11.7 ± 3.85	15.4 ± 5.76	17.8 ± 3.94	<0.0001	0.0009	<0.0001	0.7941	0.9120
	M	0.656 ± 0.114 f	1.39 ± 0.199 e	2.09 ± 0.655 e	2.42 ± 0.341 d	8.20 ± 1.68 c	8.10 ± 1.55 bc	11.8 ± 0.888 ab	11.1 ± 1.25 ab	14.6 ± 3.17 a	13.5 ± 1.88 a					
DHA	F	2.65 ± 0.424	3.29 ± 0.241	3.96 ± 0.397	4.18 ± 0.817	5.09 ± 0.642	4.59 ± 0.545	6.03 ± 2.11	4.92 ± 0.852	4.57 ± 0.297	3.62 ± 0.431	<0.0001	0.0274	<0.0001	0.3800	0.5074
	M	1.67 ± 0.171 d	3.01 ± 0.499 c	2.89 ± 0.332 c	3.88 ± 0.403 abc	4.78 ± 0.515 ab	4.79 ± 1.12 ab	5.05 ± 0.178 a	5.42 ± 0.566 a	5.02 ± 0.395 ab	4.15 ± 0.583 bc					
ARA	F	6.11 ± 0.799	4.41 ± 0.348	5.16 ± 0.647	4.08 ± 0.736	3.85 ± 0.503	2.75 ± 0.618	2.36 ± 0.539	2.18 ± 0.291	2.01 ± 0.234	1.54 ± 0.235	<0.0001	0.4096	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.4271
	M	3.78 ± 0.220 a	5.33 ± 0.825 a	3.79 ± 0.403 a	3.54 ± 0.378 ab	2.29 ± 0.191 bc	1.98 ± 0.277 cd	1.32 ± 0.116 de	1.53 ± 0.170 de	1.27 ± 0.258 ef	1.15 ± 0.234 f					
LA	F	10.1 ± 1.52	8.87 ± 0.916	10 ± 1.09	9.51 ± 1.67	11.8 ± 1.73	10.4 ± 2.28	9.14 ± 2.27	11.6 ± 2.36	9.08 ± 1.28	9.03 ± 3.82	<0.0001	0.1894	0.3409	0.1146	0.9773
	M	9.65 ± 1.31	9.43 ± 1.11	10.1 ± 1.88	9.13 ± 1.10	8.62 ± 1.00	9.93 ± 3.13	6.04 ± 0.857	8.38 ± 1.25	7.23 ± 0.607	7.71 ± 1.70					
NE Fatty Acids (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	7.90 ± 1.14	10.3 ± 1.23	10.5 ± 1.69	16.9 ± 2.96	35.6 ± 4.98	53.5 ± 5.63	59.3 ± 4.56	112 ± 30.2	103 ± 9.36	94.4 ± 14.4	<0.0001	0.7332	<0.0001	0.0115	0.9635
	M	10.9 ± 1.41 e	10.8 ± 2.18 e	14.5 ± 2.51 e	20.1 ± 3.43 d	46.2 ± 5.26 c	71.7 ± 16.0 b	70.7 ± 10.3 b	103 ± 22.1 a	112 ± 23.1 a	127 ± 15.8 a					
EPA	F	1.74 ± 0.356	4.68 ± 0.509	6.43 ± 0.677	10.9 ± 1.65	29.6 ± 3.22	48.5 ± 6.33	65.2 ± 4.78	92.6 ± 14.3	94.0 ± 16.3	94.9 ± 12.4	<0.0001	0.2001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.6580
	M	4.51 ± 0.799 g	7.68 ± 1.47 f	11.8 ± 3.06 e	23.2 ± 5.12 d	71.5 ± 9.58 c	113 ± 38.6 b	91.3 ± 8.94 b	161 ± 23.5 a	141 ± 24 a	199 ± 36.2 a					
DHA	F	406 ± 24.6	559 ± 46.8	538 ± 58.7	611 ± 63.6	808 ± 80.1	754 ± 114	854 ± 45.8	1016 ± 147	940 ± 140	648 ± 52.1	0.0011	0.5634	<0.0001	0.1334	0.4647
	M	341 ± 15.1 f	529 ± 74.5 de	514 ± 49.9 e	787 ± 122 cd	904 ± 62.8 abc	965 ± 191 abc	1001 ± 90.0 ab	1155 ± 190 a	840 ± 113 abc	920 ± 92 bc					
ARA	F	362 ± 37.2	352 ± 31.7	293 ± 27.4	301 ± 57.5	263 ± 31	230 ± 35.1	215 ± 25.1	238 ± 34.5	205 ± 24.6	132 ± 14.2	0.2571	NA	<0.0001	0.7500	0.5552
	M	394 ± 31.4 a	392 ± 46.2 a	362 ± 40 ab	301 ± 41.1 bc	251 ± 25.4 cd	213 ± 36.8 de	163 ± 24.9 ef	203 ± 40.7 de	125 ± 22.1 ef	140 ± 25.5 f					

Diet Group		C. Mouse Serum											SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)	Sex (P)	Diet*Sex (P)
		0.08	0.13	0.14	0.27	0.56	0.82	1.2	1.52	1.88	2.56						
NE Oxylipins (nmols/mL)																	
ALA	F	0.043 ± 0.015	0.089 ± 0.019	0.083 ± 0.008	0.170 ± 0.030	0.312 ± 0.067	0.373 ± 0.104	0.703 ± 0.144	0.669 ± 0.163	1.04 ± 0.226	0.953 ± 0.162	<0.0001	0.8123	<0.0001	0.1062	0.8353	
	M	0.048 ± 0.011	0.056 ± 0.007	0.079 ± 0.027	0.092 ± 0.014	0.265 ± 0.064	0.310 ± 0.065	0.696 ± 0.133	0.647 ± 0.164	0.902 ± 0.124	0.87 ± 0.196						
		f	e	e	d	c	c	ab	b	a	ab						
EPA	F	0.012 ± 0.005	0.043 ± 0.010	0.048 ± 0.006	0.069 ± 0.019	0.167 ± 0.016	0.257 ± 0.05	0.320 ± 0.077	0.376 ± 0.065	0.400 ± 0.081	0.429 ± 0.059	<0.0001	0.5251	<0.0001	0.1870	0.4305	
	M	0.014 ± 0.003	0.029 ± 0.006	0.050 ± 0.009	0.060 ± 0.007	0.201 ± 0.034	0.201 ± 0.045	0.391 ± 0.064	0.527 ± 0.134	0.640 ± 0.119	0.519 ± 0.087						
		e	d	cd	c	b	b	a	a	a	a						
DHA	F	0.213 ± 0.054	0.304 ± 0.051	0.33 ± 0.026	0.429 ± 0.086	0.585 ± 0.109	0.533 ± 0.118	0.695 ± 0.147	0.664 ± 0.104	0.565 ± 0.098	0.501 ± 0.121	<0.0001	0.9570	<0.0001	0.0032	0.3130	
	M	0.144 ± 0.02	0.145 ± 0.018	0.228 ± 0.069	0.219 ± 0.027	0.406 ± 0.07	0.387 ± 0.072	0.792 ± 0.087	0.739 ± 0.239	0.560 ± 0.112	0.460 ± 0.084						
		e	de	d	cd	b	bc	a	ab	ab	b						
ARA	F	1.11 ± 0.253	1.26 ± 0.3	0.809 ± 0.128	0.86 ± 0.357	0.699 ± 0.139	0.925 ± 0.191	0.523 ± 0.152	0.698 ± 0.144	0.548 ± 0.217	0.431 ± 0.093	<0.0001	0.0401	0.0004	<0.0001	0.4086	
	M	0.521 ± 0.052	0.470 ± 0.08	0.869 ± 0.285	0.338 ± 0.036	0.339 ± 0.045	0.275 ± 0.058	0.300 ± 0.057	0.406 ± 0.109	0.545 ± 0.201	0.207 ± 0.018						
		a	a	a	ab	ab	ab	bc	ab	bc	c						
LA	F	1.76 ± 0.532	2.4 ± 0.493	1.72 ± 0.203	2.37 ± 0.306	2.24 ± 0.497	1.59 ± 0.325	3.03 ± 0.980	2.51 ± 0.527	2.42 ± 0.433	1.96 ± 0.353	<0.0001	0.9602	0.3987	0.0006	0.8519	
	M	1.65 ± 0.417	1.38 ± 0.208	1.43 ± 0.506	1.12 ± 0.117	1.51 ± 0.314	1.42 ± 0.279	2.2 ± 0.391	1.75 ± 0.442	1.78 ± 0.271	1.33 ± 0.234						
NE Fatty Acids (nmols/mL)																	
ALA	F	0.099 ± 0.011	0.259 ± 0.037	0.25 ± 0.021	0.401 ± 0.039	0.88 ± 0.182	0.873 ± 0.104	2.12 ± 0.446	1.99 ± 0.225	2.74 ± 0.352	2.82 ± 0.263	<0.0001	0.7262	<0.0001	0.0156	0.2182	
	M	0.113 ± 0.015	0.146 ± 0.012	0.186 ± 0.036	0.327 ± 0.030	0.871 ± 0.183	0.909 ± 0.063	1.42 ± 0.150	2.13 ± 0.215	2.36 ± 0.172	2.46 ± 0.261						
		f	e	e	d	c	c	b	ab	a	a						
EPA	F	ND	0.083 ± 0.025	0.201 ± 0.042	0.265 ± 0.05	0.951 ± 0.082	1.21 ± 0.122	1.90 ± 0.190	2.39 ± 0.273	2.55 ± 0.340	2.67 ± 0.218	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.1060	
	M	0.029 ± 0.011	0.095 ± 0.015	0.170 ± 0.026	0.394 ± 0.051	1.49 ± 0.158	1.49 ± 0.151	2.03 ± 0.166	3.77 ± 0.648	2.80 ± 0.175	3.76 ± 0.295						
		g	fg	ef	e	d	d	c	ab	b	a						
DHA	F	7.42 ± 0.476	11.0 ± 1.43	16.4 ± 1.46	15.7 ± 1.57	24.3 ± 3.34	21.5 ± 1.14	30.2 ± 2.07	31.0 ± 5.1	28.9 ± 4.02	24.9 ± 2.71	<0.0001	0.2545	<0.0001	0.0627	0.0061	
		hi	g	ef	f	bcd	cde	ab	abc	bcd	bcd						
	M	6.29 ± 0.592	6.35 ± 0.547	10.1 ± 0.811	13.4 ± 1.85	24.9 ± 3.48	21.3 ± 1.9	28.3 ± 2.00	41.5 ± 6.39	30 ± 3.38	28.5 ± 2.46						
	i	i	gh	fg	bcd	de	bcd	a	ab	bcd							
ARA	F	7.37 ± 0.455	7.48 ± 0.848	7.98 ± 0.775	6.50 ± 1.01	7.03 ± 1.52	6.54 ± 0.485	6.50 ± 0.545	7.53 ± 1.05	5.45 ± 1.10	4.67 ± 0.524	0.0128	0.3771	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.3069	
	M	6.49 ± 0.473	3.94 ± 0.532	5.84 ± 0.545	5.03 ± 0.622	5.01 ± 0.979	3.51 ± 0.495	3.40 ± 0.267	5.94 ± 0.704	3.89 ± 0.455	2.87 ± 0.344						
		a	bc	ab	abc	abc	c	c	ab	cd	d						

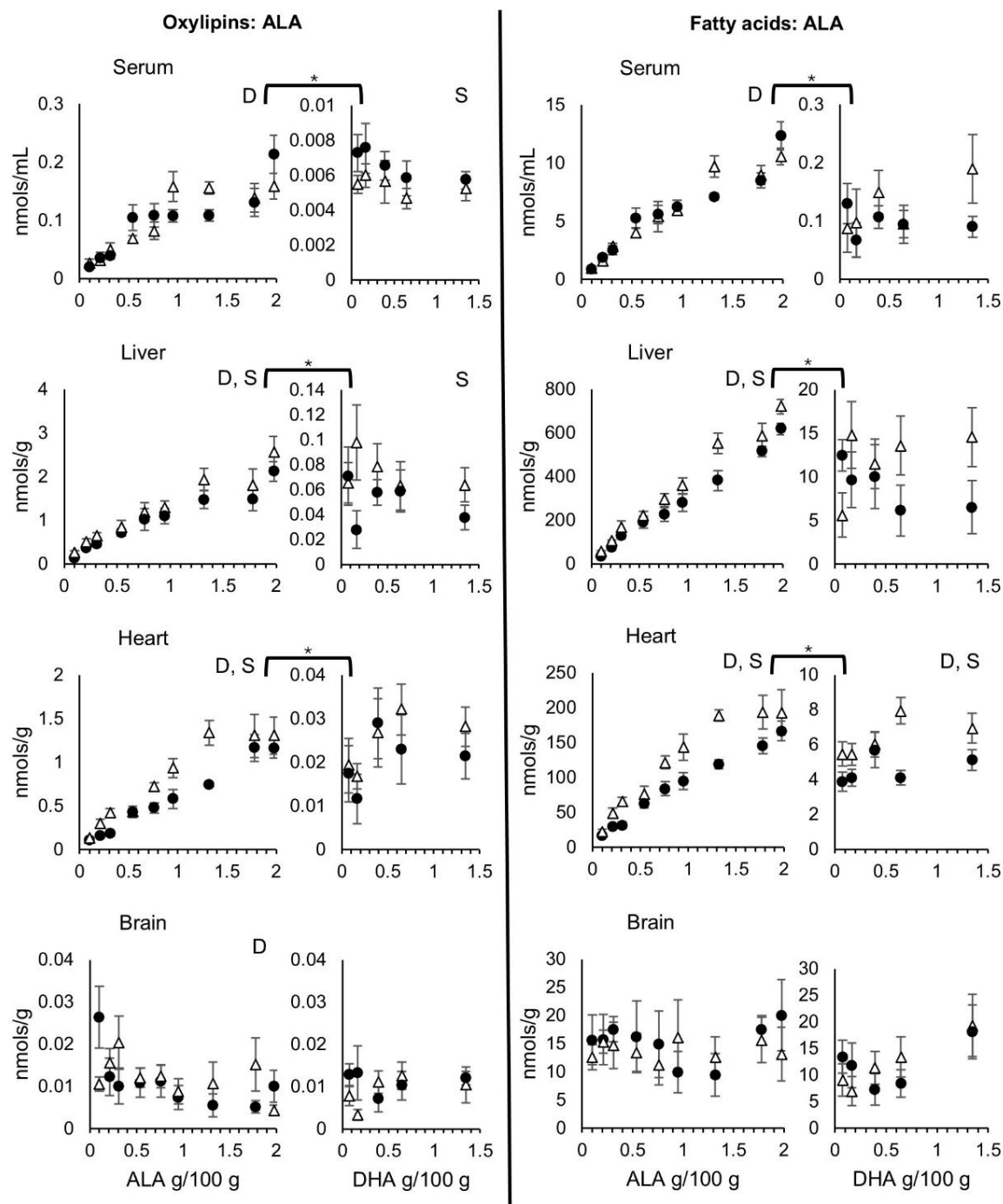
Diet Group		D. Mouse Brain										SW (P)	TSW (P)	Diet (P)	Sex (P)	Diet*Sex (P)
		0.08	0.13	0.14	0.27	0.56	0.82	1.2	1.52	1.88	2.56					
NE Oxylipins (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	7.05 ± 5.75	2.03 ± 1.11	0.214 ± 0.156	0.622 ± 0.290	1.37 ± 0.747	0.668 ± 0.368	1.26 ± 0.641	1.82 ± 0.807	1.61 ± 1.07	0.421 ± 0.285	<0.0001	0.0004	0.5210	0.5973	0.6755
	M	1.09 ± 0.622	1.15 ± 0.466	1.01 ± 0.432	1.17 ± 0.682	0.566 ± 0.287	3.62 ± 2.38	1.11 ± 0.626	5.56 ± 3.04	0.908 ± 0.469	1.01 ± 0.548					
EPA	F	0.015 ± 0.007	0.008 ± 0.006	0.011 ± 0.003	0.012 ± 0.001	0.020 ± 0.004	0.030 ± 0.005	0.040 ± 0.009	0.065 ± 0.012	0.059 ± 0.015	0.087 ± 0.016	0.0010	0.0036	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
	M	0.008 ± 0.002 fgh	0.013 ± 0.002 h	0.015 ± 0.003 h	0.026 ± 0.007 h	0.041 ± 0.008 fgh	0.072 ± 0.012 fgh	0.067 ± 0.012 efg	0.100 ± 0.016 de	0.126 ± 0.009 de	0.194 ± 0.023 cd					
DHA	F	2.20 ± 0.475	1.30 ± 0.156	1.57 ± 0.251	1.93 ± 0.268	1.69 ± 0.294	1.63 ± 0.210	2.27 ± 0.431	2.47 ± 0.260	2.13 ± 0.277	2.12 ± 0.316	0.0409	0.8298	0.4455	0.7872	0.2308
	M	1.45 ± 0.172	2.1 ± 0.271	1.87 ± 0.428	1.82 ± 0.301	1.86 ± 0.566	2.8 ± 0.512	1.97 ± 0.173	1.94 ± 0.241	1.76 ± 0.188	2.07 ± 0.199					
ARA	F	7.83 ± 0.841	6.34 ± 0.508	7.54 ± 0.653	7.04 ± 0.632	6.90 ± 0.516	6.75 ± 0.665	7.61 ± 0.657	8.19 ± 0.740	7.69 ± 0.306	7.7 ± 0.516	0.5180	NA	0.8317	0.0273	0.0730
	M	7.46 ± 0.298	8.67 ± 0.68	7.84 ± 0.846	8.13 ± 0.296	7.25 ± 0.748	9.79 ± 0.977	8.20 ± 0.474	8.00 ± 0.622	7.31 ± 0.345	7.38 ± 0.539					
LA	F	4.31 ± 2.90	5.95 ± 2.86	0.903 ± 0.529	2.03 ± 1.09	3.88 ± 1.78	2.13 ± 0.926	2.74 ± 1.50	5.48 ± 2.51	5.18 ± 3.21	1.57 ± 0.807	<0.0001	0.0030	0.4689	0.6952	0.7953
	M	2.39 ± 1.43	2.64 ± 0.941	2.79 ± 1.09	2.53 ± 1.43	1.02 ± 0.356	9.07 ± 5.29	2.24 ± 1.11	14.2 ± 8.36	2.08 ± 1.07	1.79 ± 0.985					
NE Fatty Acids (nmols/g)																
ALA	F	64.4 ± 44.3	13.5 ± 9.12	0.641 ± 0.641	3.72 ± 3.27	12.9 ± 9.64	3.22 ± 2.55	10.7 ± 4.97	6.26 ± 4.04	20.7 ± 19.7	4.11 ± 3.29	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.8080	0.6574	0.3522
	M	8.02 ± 7.67	10.4 ± 6.32	7.55 ± 4.90	13.4 ± 8.56	0.974 ± 0.493	27.9 ± 16.4	8.55 ± 6.54	60.0 ± 28.4	3.90 ± 2.36	7.11 ± 6.28					
EPA	F	0.487 ± 0.231	0.328 ± 0.057	0.378 ± 0.036	0.533 ± 0.055	0.85 ± 0.081	1.16 ± 0.029	1.83 ± 0.191	2.15 ± 0.109	2.40 ± 0.158	2.49 ± 0.199	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0008	0.1193
	M	0.261 ± 0.043 g	0.411 ± 0.076 fg	0.503 ± 0.069 f	0.868 ± 0.104 e	1.30 ± 0.213 d	1.85 ± 0.232 c	1.82 ± 0.309 c	2.60 ± 0.170 b	3.21 ± 0.201 ab	4.42 ± 0.376 a					
DHA	F	379 ± 51.5	341 ± 39.2	351 ± 31.8	408 ± 28.6	425 ± 54.4	410 ± 20.3	466 ± 46.9	490 ± 40.9	460 ± 15.1	438 ± 32.3	0.5423	NA	0.0813	0.8077	0.7390
	M	358 ± 30.8	382 ± 32.3	406 ± 43.9	466 ± 44.7	426 ± 57.6	454 ± 31.1	436 ± 38.8	414 ± 28.9	446 ± 30	418 ± 39.4					
ARA	F	368 ± 48.7	359 ± 44.6	348 ± 34.4	415 ± 26.5	402 ± 46.5	363 ± 30.1	420 ± 49.9	419 ± 32.9	374 ± 17.4	394 ± 29.7	0.1562	NA	0.9728	0.2188	0.9490
	M	420 ± 42.1	409 ± 39.7	411 ± 43.4	433 ± 45.9	390 ± 55.1	409 ± 28.9	418 ± 45.9	389 ± 28.9	417 ± 41.4	378 ± 38.3					

Data is reported as means ± SEs (n=5-6; N=119-120). The SW column shows the shapiro wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows shapiro-wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal was analyzed using a two-way ANOVA for diet, sex and diet*sex effects shown in the Diet (P), Sex (P) and Diet*Sex (P) column. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, ANOVA was applied to data that were closest to normality. Post hoc results are shown under each group diet mean, with main effects under both female and male data, and interactions under each male and female group, as determined by Fisher's Protected LSD test (p<0.05). Different letters indicate statistical significance between diet groups (p<0.05). ND: not detected.

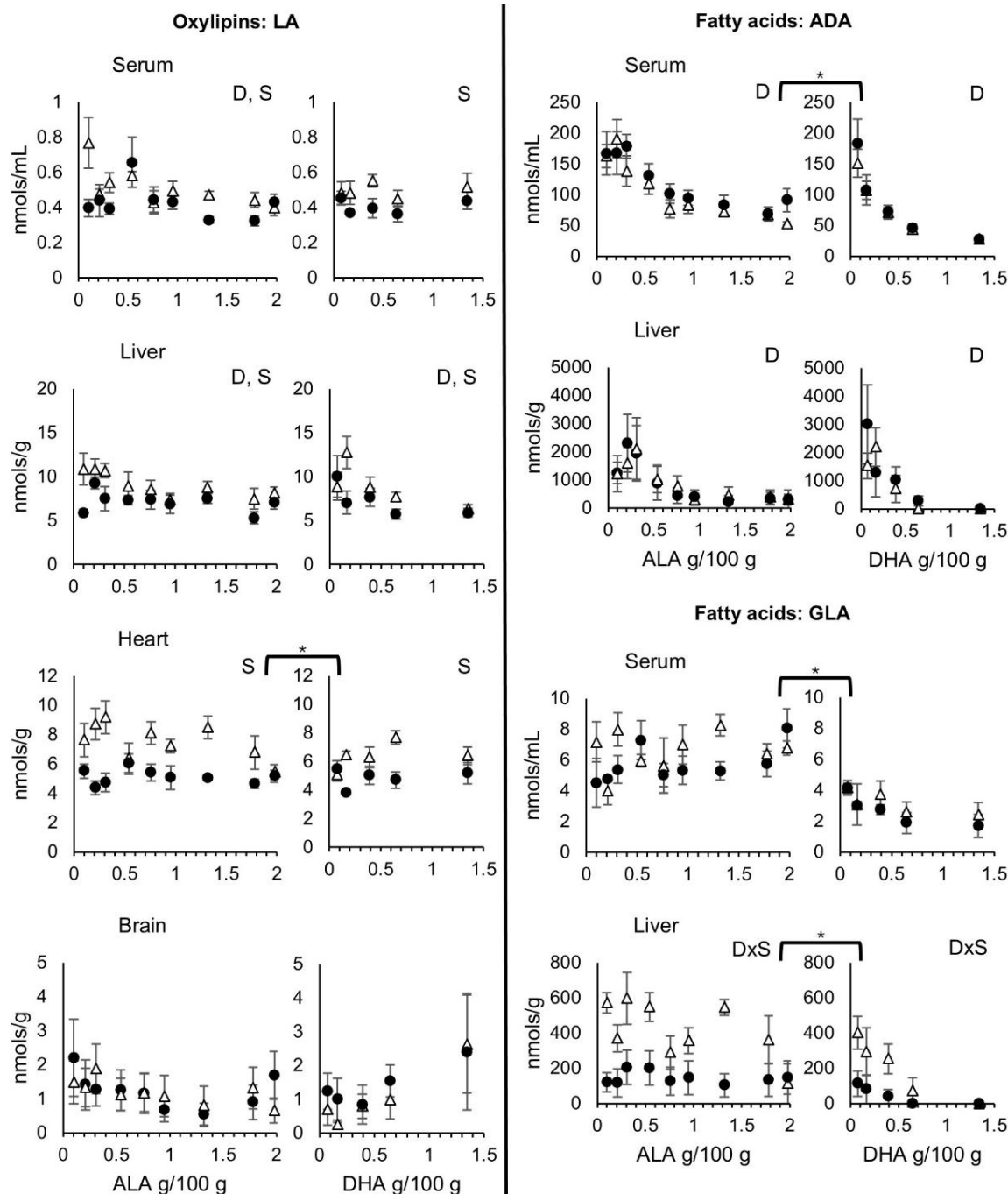
Appendix 2: Supplemental figures and tables for Chapter 3



Supplemental Figure 3-1. Non-esterified total EPA oxylipins (left) and EPA (right) in response to dietary ALA and DHA in serum, liver, heart, and brain (mean $\pm$ SE; n=6). Multiple linear regression was applied separately to dietary ALA and DHA groups to determine dose and sex effects. Results are shown on the upper right corner (D: Dose; S: Sex; DxS: interaction – for the interaction * denotes significant differences. “Indicates a result that was only significant when not adjusted by run). A separate multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine difference in effect between dietary ALA and DHA while controlling for dose and sex, with significance indicated by * above brackets between the dietary ALA and DHA graphs. ALA: grey; DHA: black; Males: filled circles; Females: outlined triangles. Complete statistical results are reported in Supplemental Tables 6-7.



Supplemental Figure 3-2. Non-esterified total ALA oxylipins (left) and ALA (right) in response to dietary ALA and DHA in serum, liver, heart, and brain (mean±SE; n=6). Multiple linear regression was applied separately to dietary ALA and DHA groups to determine dose and sex effects. Results are shown on the upper right corner (D: Dose; S: Sex; “Indicates a result that was only significant when not adjusted by run). A separate multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine difference in effect between dietary ALA and DHA while controlling for dose and sex, with significance indicated by * above brackets between the dietary ALA and DHA graphs. ALA: grey; DHA: black; Males: filled circles; Females: outlined triangles. Complete statistical results are reported in Supplemental Tables 6-7. Graphs for ALA and DHA diets are not on the same scale.



Supplemental Figure 3-3. Non-esterified total LA oxylipins (left), ADA (upper right) and GLA (lower right) in response to dietary ALA and DHA in serum, liver, heart, and brain (mean $\pm$ SE; n=6). Multiple linear regression was applied separately to dietary ALA and DHA groups to determine dose and sex effects. Results are shown on the upper right corner (D: Dose; S: Sex; DxS: interaction – for the interaction * denotes significant differences. “Indicates a result that was only significant when not adjusted by run). A separate multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine difference in effect between dietary ALA and DHA while controlling for dose and sex, with significance indicated by * above brackets between the dietary ALA and DHA graphs. ALA: grey; DHA: black; Males: filled circles; Females: outlined triangles. Complete statistical results are reported in Supplemental Tables 6-7.

Supplemental Table 3-1.**DHA oil composition**

	% Total FA
	Mean $\pm$ SE
C12:0	0.001 $\pm$ <0.001
C14:0	0.020 $\pm$ <0.001
C16:0	0.598 $\pm$ 0.001
C16:1t	0.004 $\pm$ <0.001
C16:1	0.026 $\pm$ <0.001
C17:1	0.001 $\pm$ <0.001
C18:0	0.026 $\pm$ 0.001
C18:1	0.011 $\pm$ <0.001
C18:2	0.046 $\pm$ 0.001
C18:3n6	0.012 $\pm$ <0.001
C18:3n3	0.051 $\pm$ 0.003
C20:0	0.042 $\pm$ 0.001
C20:3n6	0.470 $\pm$ 0.002
C20:4	0.070 $\pm$ 0.003
C20:5	0.418 $\pm$ 0.009
C22:0	0.068 $\pm$ <0.001
C22:1	0.005 $\pm$ 0.001
C22:2	0.007 $\pm$ 0.001
C22:5n3	0.069 $\pm$ 0.014
C22:6n3	98.0 $\pm$ 0.020
C24:0	0.040 $\pm$ 0.006

DHA oil analysis was conducted in triplicate and the results are shown as % of total fatty acid mass (mean $\pm$ SE).

Supplemental Table 3-2. Oxylipins detected and quantified that are included in total oxylipin sums in serum and each tissue, ordered by FA precursor. Oxylipins included in DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} are in bold italics.

<u>Serum</u>	<u>Liver</u>	<u>Heart</u>	<u>Brain</u>
		<u>ALA</u>	
9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	9-HOTrE	12,13 EpODE
13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	13-HOTrE	
12,13 EpODE	12,13 EpODE	12,13 EpODE	
	12,13 DiHODE	12,13 DiHODE	
		<u>EPA</u>	
5-HEPE	5-HEPE	5-HEPE	
8-HEPE	8-HEPE	12-HEPE	
9-HEPE	9-HEPE	18-HEPE	
11-HEPE	11-HEPE	14,15 EpETE	
12-HEPE	12-HEPE	17,18 EpETE	
15-HEPE	15-HEPE		
18-HEPE	18-HEPE		
14,15 DiHETE	14,15 EpETE		
17,18 EpETE	14,15 DiHETE		
17,18 DiHETE	17,18 DiHETE		
		<u>DHA</u>	
<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>	<i>4-HDoHE</i>
<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>	<i>7-HDoHE</i>
<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>	<i>8-HDoHE</i>
<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>	<i>10-HDoHE</i>
<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>	<i>11-HDoHE</i>
<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>	<i>13-HDoHE</i>
<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>	<i>14-HDoHE</i>
<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>	<i>16-HDoHE</i>
<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>	<i>17-HDoHE</i>
<i>20-HDoHE</i>	<i>20-HDoHE</i>	<i>20-HDoHE</i>	<i>20-HDoHE</i>
16,17 EpDoPE	16,17 EpDoPE	16,17 EpDoPE	
16,17 DiHDoPE	16,17 DiHDoPE	19,20 EpDoPE	
19,20 DiHDoPE	19,20 EpDoPE		
	19,20 DiHDoPE		
		<u>ARA</u>	
PGD ₂	PGD ₂	PGD ₂	PGD ₂
PGJ ₂	PGE ₂	PGE ₂	PGE ₂
PGE ₂	11β PGE ₂	15-keto PGE ₂	11β PGE ₂
11β PGE ₂	15-keto PGE ₂	6-keto PGF _{1α}	15-keto PGE ₂
15-keto PGE ₂	PGF _{2α}	12-HHTrE	6-keto PGF _{1α}
PGF _{2α}	TXB ₂	<i>5-HETE</i>	PGF _{2α}
TXB ₂	12-HHTrE	<i>8-HETE</i>	TXB ₂
12-HHTrE	<i>5-HETE</i>	<i>9-HETE</i>	12-HHTrE

Supplemental Table 3-2 (cont). Oxylipins detected and quantified that are included in total oxylipin sums in serum and each tissue, ordered by FA precursor. Oxylipins included in DHA_{OH}/ARA_{OH} are in bold italics.

<i>5-HETE</i>	<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>5-HETE</i>
<i>8-HETE</i>	<i>9-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>8-HETE</i>
<i>9-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>15-HETE</i>	<i>9-HETE</i>
<i>11-HETE</i>	<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>16-HETE</i>	<i>11-HETE</i>
<i>12-HETE</i>	<i>15-HETE</i>	5,6 EpETrE	<i>12-HETE</i>
tetranor 12-HETE	6S-LXA4	8,9 EpETrE	<i>15-HETE</i>
<i>15-HETE</i>	<i>18-HETE</i>	8,9 DiHETrE	6-trans LTB ₄
6-trans LTB ₄	<i>20-HETE</i>	11,12 EpETrE	6-trans, 12epi LTB ₄
6-trans, 12epi LTB ₄	5,6 EpETrE	14,15 EpETrE	5,6 EpETrE
6S-LXA4	5,6 DiHETrE	14,15 DiHETrE	5,6 DiHETrE
<i>16-HETE</i>	8,9 EpETrE		8,9 EpETrE
<i>18-HETE</i>	8,9 DiHETrE		11,12 EpETrE
5,6 EpETrE	11,12 EpETrE		14,15 EpETrE
5,6 DiHETrE	11,12 DiHETrE		14,15 DiHETrE
8,9 EpETrE	14,15 EpETrE		
8,9 DiHETrE	14,15 DiHETrE		
11,12 EpETrE			
11,12 DiHETrE			
14,15 EpETrE			
14,15 DiHETrE			
20-COOH AA			
<u>LA</u>			
9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE	9-HODE
13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE	13-HODE
9,10,13 TriHOME	9,10,13 TriHOME	9,10,13 TriHOME	9,10,13 TriHOME
9,12,13 TriHOME	9,12,13 TriHOME	9,12,13 TriHOME	9,12,13 TriHOME
9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME	9,10 EpOME
9,10 DiHOME	9,10 DiHOME	9,10 DiHOME	12,13 EpOME
12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME	12,13 EpOME	
12,13 DiHOME	12,13 DiHOME	12,13 DiHOME	

Abbreviations: ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α -linolenic acid; DiHDoPE, dihydroxy-docosapentaenoic acid; diHETE, dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; DiHETrE, dihydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; diHODE, dihydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; diHOME, dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; EpDoPE, epoxy-docosapentaenoic acid; EpETrE, epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid; EpODE, epoxy-octadecadienoic acid; EpOME, epoxy-octadecenoic acid; HDoHE, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; HHTrE, hydroxy-heptadecatrienoic acid; HODE, hydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; HOTrE, hydroxy-octadecatrienoic acid; LA, linoleic acid; LT, leukotriene; LX, lipoxin; PG, prostaglandin; triHOME, trihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; TX, thromboxane.

Supplemental Table 3-3. Animal body weight at termination, growth during study period, and tissue weight (liver, heart, brain) for rats in the ALA diets.

		Body and Tissue Weights (g)													
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW	TSW	ALA Dose	Sex	
Body Weight	F	292.6 ± 16.1	286.4 ± 17.5	326.8 ± 10.9	291.2 ± 10.5	298.6 ± 13.9	307.6 ± 15.1	303.7 ± 15.1	301.7 ± 5.45	302.9 ± 6.84	0.2614	NA	0.8040	<0.0001	
	M	523.4 ± 14.2	509.7 ± 14.3	533.0 ± 29.2	503.4 ± 19.0	504.2 ± 13.9	497.6 ± 14.8	514.6 ± 9.65	513.5 ± 15.8	524.6 ± 10.2					
Growth	F	200.5 ± 13.3	198.7 ± 14.3	235.9 ± 11.0	204.2 ± 8.93	207.2 ± 11.6	214.4 ± 14.1	216.5 ± 12.0	209.3 ± 9.34	215.2 ± 9.01	0.5341	NA	0.7510	<0.0001	
	M	423.7 ± 14.7	409.0 ± 11.4	428.6 ± 25.8	403.7 ± 19.3	405.1 ± 13.2	395.0 ± 12.0	413.8 ± 10.3	412.7 ± 12.9	423.9 ± 8.71					
Liver	F	10.1 ± 0.716	10.9 ± 0.79	12.1 ± 0.525	11.1 ± 0.685	11.7 ± 0.818	12.7 ± 1.33	11.3 ± 0.641	11.0 ± 0.185	12.1 ± 0.288	0.0024	0.2377	0.4490	<0.0001	
	M	21.6 ± 1.30	19.9 ± 0.533	21.9 ± 2.08	19.9 ± 1.75	20.2 ± 1.62	19.5 ± 0.950	19.9 ± 0.688	20.0 ± 0.831	20.9 ± 0.741					
Heart	F	1.01 ± 0.044	1.06 ± 0.048	1.18 ± 0.048	1.09 ± 0.042	1.05 ± 0.052	1.16 ± 0.069	1.09 ± 0.074	1.09 ± 0.030	1.15 ± 0.051	0.5940	NA	0.6610	<0.0001	
	M	1.70 ± 0.060	1.75 ± 0.045	1.75 ± 0.093	1.65 ± 0.066	1.64 ± 0.046	1.55 ± 0.039	1.67 ± 0.033	1.70 ± 0.029	1.60 ± 0.045					
Brain	F	1.95 ± 0.026	1.94 ± 0.047	1.94 ± 0.032	1.92 ± 0.061	1.91 ± 0.019	1.84 ± 0.025	1.90 ± 0.065	1.96 ± 0.018	1.85 ± 0.051	0.0382	0.0083	0.1380	<0.0001	
	M	2.09 ± 0.030	2.08 ± 0.082	2.16 ± 0.041	2.11 ± 0.045	2.10 ± 0.051	2.11 ± 0.028	2.05 ± 0.093	2.08 ± 0.063	2.07 ± 0.058					

Data reported as mean ± SE (n=6; N=108). The SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows Shapiro-Wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal were analyzed using multiple linear regression for diet dosage and sex effects. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, multiple linear regression was applied to data that were closest to normality.

Supplemental Table 3-4. Animal body weight at termination, growth during study period, and tissue weight (liver, heart, brain) for rats in the DHA diets.

		<i>Body and Tissue Weights (g)</i>							Sex
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW	DHA Dose	
Body Weight	F	301.5 ± 11.7	320.4 ± 13.8	308.2 ± 15.5	301.3 ± 7.77	303.8 ± 8.53	0.0812	0.9620	<0.0001
	M	520.2 ± 16.7	526.6 ± 20.7	507.9 ± 9.39	522.6 ± 20.7	525.7 ± 16.2			
Growth	F	212.2 ± 9.59	229.7 ± 11.6	220.7 ± 11.8	210.1 ± 6.36	215.4 ± 9.87	0.6346	0.9250	<0.0001
	M	420.9 ± 15.3	426.6 ± 17.2	409.0 ± 7.74	422.0 ± 17.4	424.9 ± 16.1			
Liver	F	12.1 ± 0.563	12.3 ± 0.755	11.8 ± 0.757	11.7 ± 0.423	11.3 ± 0.800	0.3607	0.2380	<0.0001
	M	20.9 ± 1.25	21.1 ± 0.969	20 ± 0.567	20.2 ± 0.984	20.2 ± 1.02			
Heart	F	1.10 ± 0.054	1.12 ± 0.045	1.11 ± 0.059	1.1 ± 0.041	1.12 ± 0.044	0.6125	0.7870	<0.0001
	M	1.69 ± 0.073	1.77 ± 0.094	1.66 ± 0.064	1.66 ± 0.054	1.69 ± 0.075			
Brain	F	1.93 ± 0.054	1.95 ± 0.028	1.92 ± 0.031	1.92 ± 0.037	2.03 ± 0.030	0.6944	0.2070	<0.0001
	M	2.17 ± 0.039	2.07 ± 0.041	2.17 ± 0.038	2.15 ± 0.052	2.13 ± 0.038			

Data reported as mean ± SE (n=6; N=60). The SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows Shapiro-Wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal were analyzed using multiple linear regression for diet dosage and sex effects. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, multiple linear regression was applied to data that were closest to normality.

Supplemental Table 3-5. Equations used for DHA bioequivalence calculation

Female					Male			
	ALA Equation	R ²	DHA Equation	R ²	ALA Equation	R ²	DHA Equation	R ²
<i>Serum</i>								
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	y=2.1269x -4.8427	0.61	y=1.3240ln(x) -0.6715	0.88	y=3.0262x -5.1523	0.45	y=1.2482ln(x) -0.8446	0.81
DHA/ARA	y=1.6825x -1.2925	0.42	y=0.8447ln(x) +1.5890	0.87	y=3.1785x -1.7953	0.48	y=0.7135ln(x) +1.4049	0.91
<i>Liver</i>								
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	y=2.2966x -1.5572	0.71	y=1.0347ln(x) +1.9322	0.94	y=4.0836x -2.2439	0.62	y=1.0397ln(x) +1.7213	0.94
DHA/ARA	y=2.5907x -0.8025	0.74	y=0.699ln(x) +1.8870	0.89	y=2.5023x -1.0712	0.53	y=0.7466ln(x) +1.7679	0.94
<i>Heart</i>								
DHA _{OH} /ARA _{OH}	y=4.9895x -2.6313	0.60	y=1.2450ln(x) +2.0807	0.94	y=3.9687x -2.5930	0.39	y=1.0429ln(x) +1.7103	0.93
DHA/ARA	y=3.8284x -1.9600	0.31	y=1.0484ln(x) +2.1030	0.90	y=4.8591x -2.5242	0.43	y=0.8940ln(x) +1.4981	0.82

Equation parameters used for determination of DHA bioequivalence: Y equals the ratio of interest, and x equals level of dietary ALA or DHA as applicable.

Supplemental Table 3-6. Complete multiple linear regression statistics for total non-esterified oxylipins by FA precursor and for non-esterified FA for rats that received ALA diets in rat serum (A), liver (B), heart (C), and Brain (D).

A. Serum																
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex	
Oxylipins (nmols/g)																
DHA	F	0.046 ± 0.007	0.058 ± 0.005	0.072 ± 0.010	0.102 ± 0.014	0.078 ± 0.014	0.144 ± 0.025	0.081 ± 0.009	0.099 ± 0.015	0.072 ± 0.015	<0.0001	0.8455	0.0001	0.0676	0.1966	
	M	0.034 ± 0.004	0.046 ± 0.009	0.055 ± 0.007	0.091 ± 0.023	0.083 ± 0.010	0.084 ± 0.015	0.076 ± 0.007	0.079 ± 0.013	0.093 ± 0.018						
		d	cd	bc	a	ab	a	ab	ab	ab						
EPA	F	0.017 ± 0.004	0.023 ± 0.004	0.066 ± 0.007	0.100 ± 0.007	0.099 ± 0.012	0.173 ± 0.03	0.200 ± 0.037	0.295 ± 0.038	0.213 ± 0.019	<0.0001	0.1178	<0.0001	0.6660	0.0876	
	M	0.010 ± 0.002	0.023 ± 0.005	0.046 ± 0.004	0.085 ± 0.015	0.141 ± 0.021	0.176 ± 0.042	0.207 ± 0.038	0.239 ± 0.031	0.428 ± 0.073						
		g	f	e	de	cd	bc	abc	ab	a						
ALA	F	0.027 ± 0.007	0.032 ± 0.003	0.050 ± 0.011	0.069 ± 0.005	0.082 ± 0.015	0.158 ± 0.025	0.156 ± 0.011	0.139 ± 0.024	0.159 ± 0.022	0.0001	0.8665	<0.0001	0.7160	0.6060	
	M	0.020 ± 0.003	0.035 ± 0.009	0.039 ± 0.006	0.104 ± 0.022	0.109 ± 0.020	0.108 ± 0.011	0.109 ± 0.009	0.131 ± 0.024	0.214 ± 0.032						
		e	de	d	c	bc	ab	ab	ab	a						
ARA	F	2.63 ± 0.174	2.07 ± 0.240	2.97 ± 0.532	2.37 ± 0.267	1.40 ± 0.216	1.89 ± 0.386	1.52 ± 0.326	2.00 ± 0.178	1.20 ± 0.102	0.0326	0.0051	0.0003	0.0880	0.0278	
		ab	bcdef	a	abcd	ef	bcdef	def	bcdef	f						
	M	2.15 ± 0.244	2.05 ± 0.306	2.28 ± 0.241	1.93 ± 0.229	2.16 ± 0.271	1.95 ± 0.499	1.75 ± 0.232	1.51 ± 0.255	2.48 ± 0.387						
		abcde	bcdef	abcde	bcdef	abcde	bcdef	cdef	def	abc						
LA	F	0.769 ± 0.145	0.475 ± 0.03	0.542 ± 0.056	0.580 ± 0.022	0.428 ± 0.066	0.495 ± 0.054	0.472 ± 0.020	0.441 ± 0.044	0.398 ± 0.044	<0.0001	0.0929	0.0039	0.0022	0.2381	
	M	0.397 ± 0.049	0.439 ± 0.092	0.392 ± 0.032	0.656 ± 0.144	0.444 ± 0.073	0.431 ± 0.041	0.328 ± 0.018	0.323 ± 0.028	0.432 ± 0.045						
		ab	bc	abc	a	bc	abc	c	c	bc						
Fatty acids (nmols/g)																
DHA	F	3.51 ± 0.242	5.46 ± 0.418	6.63 ± 0.721	7.67 ± 1.15	7.73 ± 0.691	9.73 ± 1.07	8.56 ± 1.02	9.02 ± 0.299	8.72 ± 0.659	0.0008	0.5866	<0.0001	0.0262	0.4240	
	M	3.16 ± 0.348	4.50 ± 0.427	5.69 ± 0.220	6.54 ± 0.221	6.87 ± 0.623	6.82 ± 0.614	8.40 ± 1.02	7.77 ± 0.595	9.90 ± 1.58						
		e	d	cd	bc	abc	ab	ab	ab	a						

A. Serum (cont)															
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex
EPA	F	0.042 ± 0.006	0.061 ± 0.005	0.120 ± 0.014	0.207 ± 0.018	0.261 ± 0.034	0.330 ± 0.028	0.495 ± 0.045	0.503 ± 0.031	0.571 ± 0.062	0.0098	0.0080	<0.0001	0.2370	0.2680
	M	0.029 ± 0.008	0.068 ± 0.006	0.103 ± 0.014	0.166 ± 0.022	0.216 ± 0.024	0.316 ± 0.037	0.438 ± 0.028	0.488 ± 0.029	0.675 ± 0.075					
		g	f	e	d	cd	bc	ab	a	a					
ALA	F	1.01 ± 0.165	1.61 ± 0.098	2.88 ± 0.224	4.01 ± 0.383	5.41 ± 1.31	5.95 ± 0.457	9.69 ± 0.928	8.98 ± 0.832	10.6 ± 0.712	<0.0001	0.3899	<0.0001	0.9940	0.9580
	M	0.901 ± 0.196	1.90 ± 0.251	2.52 ± 0.382	5.28 ± 0.838	5.60 ± 0.797	6.24 ± 0.570	7.12 ± 0.278	8.51 ± 0.643	12.4 ± 1.19					
		f	e	d	c	c	bc	ab	ab	a					
ARA	F	7.91 ± 0.448	10.3 ± 0.395	10.5 ± 1.03	10.1 ± 0.912	8.69 ± 0.819	10.1 ± 1.01	9.60 ± 1.15	9.25 ± 0.445	8.86 ± 0.359	0.0903	NA	0.5230	0.5260	0.1690
	M	8.92 ± 0.841	9.42 ± 0.660	10.2 ± 0.523	9.30 ± 0.434	10.1 ± 0.59	9.13 ± 0.543	9.75 ± 0.963	8.47 ± 0.767	12.2 ± 1.38					
ADA	F	162.6 ± 18.8	190.5 ± 30.7	138.0 ± 24.7	118.3 ± 18.1	76.4 ± 14.6	82.7 ± 13.3	72.4 ± 6.15	67.7 ± 6.98	53.1 ± 2.76	0.0444	0.0108	<0.0001	0.1620	0.5940
	M	166.9 ± 35.3	167.4 ± 34.4	178.2 ± 19.1	130.7 ± 19.5	101.6 ± 15.4	94.5 ± 12.5	83.4 ± 15.7	68.5 ± 10.8	90.9 ± 18.4					
		a	a	ab	bc	cd	cd	d	d	d					
GLA	F	7.18 ± 1.30	4.00 ± 0.903	7.98 ± 1.08	5.96 ± 0.404	5.64 ± 1.77	7.00 ± 1.27	8.26 ± 0.703	6.43 ± 0.614	6.78 ± 0.452	0.2773	NA	0.4170	0.1080	0.4720
	M	4.52 ± 1.57	4.79 ± 0.182	5.38 ± 0.896	7.28 ± 1.26	5.03 ± 0.752	5.32 ± 0.927	5.28 ± 0.580	5.75 ± 0.829	8.07 ± 1.26					

B. Liver											Log-T SW				
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	(P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex
Oxylipins (nmols/g)															
DHA	F	4.25 ± 0.809	4.32 ± 0.575	6.68 ± 1.07	6.55 ± 0.858	7.49 ± 1.17	7.04 ± 1.33	5.78 ± 0.725	6.71 ± 1.91	5.52 ± 0.557	0.0003	0.0130	0.0123	0.0009	0.1926
	M	1.99 ± 0.491	4.56 ± 0.363	3.86 ± 1.23	4.34 ± 0.578	5.73 ± 0.813	4.77 ± 0.623	5.62 ± 1.09	3.93 ± 0.507	5.62 ± 0.738					
		b	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a					
EPA	F	0.101 ± 0.065	0.239 ± 0.098	1.09 ± 0.177	1.51 ± 0.168	2.44 ± 0.418	2.41 ± 0.303	4.47 ± 0.155	4.36 ± 0.599	5.59 ± 0.756	0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.8870	0.6630
	M	0.279 ± 0.211	0.328 ± 0.126	0.581 ± 0.162	1.47 ± 0.365	1.99 ± 0.160	3.78 ± 0.627	4.09 ± 0.369	4.35 ± 0.432	5.10 ± 0.494					
		f	f	ef	de	d	c	b	b	a					

B. Liver (cont)											Log-T SW				
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	(P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex
ALA	F	0.262 ± 0.044	0.507 ± 0.065	0.653 ± 0.069	0.843 ± 0.153	1.19 ± 0.218	1.29 ± 0.161	1.94 ± 0.249	1.81 ± 0.375	2.57 ± 0.356	0.0008	0.2705	<0.0001	0.0046	0.4076
	M	0.143 ± 0.026	0.372 ± 0.028	0.465 ± 0.052	0.722 ± 0.088	1.02 ± 0.253	1.10 ± 0.175	1.47 ± 0.204	1.49 ± 0.266	2.12 ± 0.221					
		g	f	ef	de	cd	bc	ab	b	a					
ARA	F	10.5 ± 0.931	8.70 ± 0.884	10.5 ± 0.905	7.71 ± 0.576	6.19 ± 0.611	5.48 ± 0.706	5.80 ± 0.505	4.85 ± 0.64	5.15 ± 0.417	0.0076	0.6220	<0.0001	0.4020	0.9940
	M	8.70 ± 1.08	10.0 ± 0.743	8.06 ± 0.789	7.56 ± 0.166	6.37 ± 0.382	6.15 ± 0.748	5.97 ± 0.282	4.28 ± 0.622	4.64 ± 0.355					
		a	ab	ab	b	c	cd	cd	e	de					
LA	F	10.9 ± 1.79	10.9 ± 1.19	10.7 ± 0.785	8.96 ± 1.56	8.56 ± 1.01	7.38 ± 0.715	8.82 ± 0.656	7.50 ± 1.18	8.17 ± 0.676	0.0003	0.4500	0.0037	<0.0001	0.3426
	M	5.89 ± 0.403	9.29 ± 0.696	7.51 ± 1.40	7.33 ± 0.520	7.38 ± 1.07	6.89 ± 1.06	7.55 ± 0.594	5.31 ± 0.656	7.09 ± 0.800					
		b	a	ab	ab	b	bc	ab	c	bc					
Fatty acids (nmols/g)															
DHA	F	207.2 ± 13.5	235.8 ± 15.4	306.4 ± 33.9	346.4 ± 38.2	322.5 ± 21.1	366.3 ± 20.7	361.9 ± 20.8	384 ± 32.5	408.2 ± 31.1	0.0094	0.5353	<0.0001	0.0022	0.5105
	M	146.2 ± 7.59	222.4 ± 14.6	277.4 ± 20.4	280.2 ± 13.1	289.8 ± 20.8	320.6 ± 24.9	350.1 ± 39.3	338.6 ± 23.2	358.5 ± 14.8					
		e	d	c	bc	bc	abc	ab	ab	a					
EPA	F	1.52 ± 0.173	2.02 ± 0.183	4.47 ± 0.696	7.25 ± 0.833	9.99 ± 0.872	11.4 ± 0.79	19.6 ± 0.911	20.6 ± 1.38	25.0 ± 2.18	0.0002	0.0327	<0.0001	0.4180	0.5940
	M	0.949 ± 0.128	2.30 ± 0.144	4.17 ± 0.312	6.26 ± 0.974	8.16 ± 0.550	14.0 ± 0.774	18.5 ± 1.27	20.9 ± 0.771	22.5 ± 1.61					
		f	e	d	c	bc	b	a	a	a					
ALA	F	54.1 ± 6.72	103.6 ± 5.67	164.8 ± 31.9	219.6 ± 19.4	293.3 ± 29.4	358.6 ± 35.5	551.6 ± 47.1	584.4 ± 58.2	721.2 ± 33.6	0.0247	0.1594	<0.0001	0.0011	0.3950
	M	31.8 ± 2.67	74.5 ± 7.43	127.7 ± 13.6	189.9 ± 27.7	226.0 ± 32.6	279.5 ± 39.5	382.1 ± 46.4	515.6 ± 22.8	618.1 ± 24.9					
		g	f	e	d	cd	c	b	ab	a					
ARA	F	310.0 ± 20.5	265.7 ± 14.3	311.3 ± 24.5	298.6 ± 32.4	241.0 ± 22.3	239.2 ± 20.5	284.1 ± 19.0	263.8 ± 22.4	255.7 ± 14.5	0.0093	0.7277	0.0035	0.4332	0.6532
	M	260.1 ± 12.1	319.9 ± 25.2	343.7 ± 26.6	273.2 ± 11.3	264.8 ± 18.2	278.4 ± 17.1	292.1 ± 19.7	260.6 ± 23.2	240.4 ± 14.7					
		abc	ab	a	abc	bc	bc	abc	bc	c					

B. Liver (cont)														
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	ALA Dose	Dose*Sex
ADA	F	1222 ± 639.2	1608 ± 567.1	2114 ± 1092	1031.4 ± 489.3	783.7 ± 358.8	306.7 ± 194.7	458.5 ± 290.5	400.0 ± 253.1	317.3 ± 317.3	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0001	0.9470
	M	1245 ± 389.1	2312 ± 1024	1942 ± 986.7	882.1 ± 609.1	447.4 ± 283.0	394.0 ± 249.6	222.8 ± 222.8	346.5 ± 221.8	299.2 ± 189.5				0.7523
		abc	ab	a	bc	c	c	c	c	c				
GLA	F	573.4 ± 58.2	371.3 ± 77.2	599.0 ± 146.7	548.9 ± 81.6	288.9 ± 94.7	357.4 ± 74.2	546.9 ± 45.9	361.8 ± 135.7	113.4 ± 113.3	0.0014	0.0001	0.0025	<0.0001
	M	119.9 ± 53.6	117.0 ± 79.9	204.9 ± 96.8	201.8 ± 97.2	126.2 ± 79.9	146.0 ± 95.3	103.3 ± 65.9	134.4 ± 94.5	147.4 ± 94.0				0.0433
		cd	cd	cd	cd	cd	cd	d	cd	cd				

C. Heart														
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	ALA Dose	Dose*Sex
<i>Oxylipins (nmols/g)</i>														
DHA	F	1.24 ± 0.115	2.03 ± 0.326	3.19 ± 0.601	2.43 ± 0.386	2.78 ± 0.311	2.65 ± 0.292	2.73 ± 0.320	2.90 ± 0.192	2.74 ± 0.454	0.0060	<0.0001	0.0019	0.8984
	M	1.11 ± 0.287	1.79 ± 0.290	1.54 ± 0.307	2.62 ± 0.215	2.17 ± 0.307	1.79 ± 0.376	2.46 ± 0.264	2.47 ± 0.466	2.03 ± 0.281				
		c	b	ab	ab	ab	ab	ab	a	ab				
EPA	F	0.002 ± 0.002	0.021 ± 0.003	0.027 ± 0.004	0.07 ± 0.018	0.113 ± 0.016	0.162 ± 0.018	0.238 ± 0.019	0.258 ± 0.032	0.257 ± 0.042	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.3418
	M	0.001 ± 0.001	0.010 ± 0.006	0.010 ± 0.003	0.047 ± 0.013	0.044 ± 0.008	0.076 ± 0.015	0.143 ± 0.008	0.226 ± 0.038	0.175 ± 0.014				0.0144
		h	gh	fgh	efg	de	cd	a	a	a				
ALA	F	0.129 ± 0.018	0.298 ± 0.049	0.422 ± 0.053	0.434 ± 0.066	0.724 ± 0.044	0.933 ± 0.110	1.34 ± 0.142	1.30 ± 0.247	1.31 ± 0.213	<0.0001	0.1598	<0.0001	<0.0001
	M	0.104 ± 0.010	0.154 ± 0.026	0.184 ± 0.027	0.427 ± 0.044	0.480 ± 0.057	0.581 ± 0.107	0.740 ± 0.018	1.16 ± 0.153	1.16 ± 0.111				0.1567
		f	e	e	d	cd	bc	ab	a	a				
ARA	F	3.23 ± 0.227	3.67 ± 0.489	3.66 ± 0.366	2.72 ± 0.279	2.71 ± 0.213	2.48 ± 0.168	2.36 ± 0.196	2.32 ± 0.145	1.90 ± 0.174	0.0025	0.1708	<0.0001	0.0064
	M	3.73 ± 0.287	3.07 ± 0.272	2.70 ± 0.146	2.85 ± 0.182	2.35 ± 0.284	2.01 ± 0.159	2.02 ± 0.140	1.94 ± 0.258	1.77 ± 0.119				0.4540
		a	ab	ab	bc	cd	d	de	de	e				

C. Heart (cont)											Log-T SW				
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	(P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex
LA	F	7.64 ± 1.13	8.72 ± 1.07	9.19 ± 1.11	6.36 ± 1.06	8.11 ± 0.772	7.23 ± 0.460	8.49 ± 0.763	6.79 ± 1.14	5.47 ± 0.504	0.0244	0.5768	0.0822	<0.0001	0.0851
	M	5.51 ± 0.480	4.39 ± 0.454	4.73 ± 0.627	6.04 ± 0.643	5.41 ± 0.581	5.06 ± 0.806	5.03 ± 0.109	4.64 ± 0.323	5.18 ± 0.405					
<i>Fatty acids (nmols/g)</i>															
DHA	F	9.49 ± 2.52	16.7 ± 3.80	29.8 ± 6.54	25.0 ± 6.81	27.8 ± 7.09	26.8 ± 4.53	32.9 ± 7.57	38.2 ± 5.42	25.7 ± 5.82	0.0001	0.3817	<0.0001	0.0339	0.6368
	M	12.5 ± 3.06	13.7 ± 2.83	14.5 ± 4.20	24.5 ± 7.28	24.7 ± 4.38	18.3 ± 4.00	21.6 ± 4.95	20.5 ± 2.98	25.3 ± 4.52					
		c	bc	ab	ab	a	ab	a	a	a					
EPA	F	0.148 ± 0.016	0.236 ± 0.020	0.377 ± 0.040	0.568 ± 0.058	0.940 ± 0.098	1.10 ± 0.141	1.54 ± 0.046	1.70 ± 0.085	1.72 ± 0.221	0.0001	0.3168	<0.0001	0.0010	0.4193
	M	0.103 ± 0.020	0.193 ± 0.011	0.258 ± 0.045	0.458 ± 0.065	0.611 ± 0.052	0.856 ± 0.089	1.20 ± 0.054	1.40 ± 0.073	1.47 ± 0.076					
		f	e	d	c	b	b	a	a	a					
ALA	F	22.5 ± 3.07	49.3 ± 6.80	66.0 ± 5.60	76.5 ± 11.1	121.8 ± 9.18	143.9 ± 18.9	188.7 ± 7.92	193.7 ± 24.0	193.2 ± 32.5	<0.0001	0.1504	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.2678
	M	16.8 ± 2.28	30.3 ± 2.34	31.6 ± 4.35	62.5 ± 6.37	84.1 ± 9.84	95.1 ± 11.9	119.2 ± 6.16	145.9 ± 11.2	166.6 ± 14.0					
		f	e	e	d	c	bc	ab	a	a					
ARA	F	26.2 ± 3.64	34.7 ± 5.93	46.4 ± 5.52	35.4 ± 5.27	34.7 ± 5.47	30.9 ± 4.95	36.1 ± 1.97	34.8 ± 3.13	22.0 ± 4.50	0.3062	NA	0.0075	0.6012	0.4730
	M	51.1 ± 6.84	31.0 ± 5.69	30.4 ± 5.74	30.8 ± 6.22	35.9 ± 4.92	27.5 ± 3.28	28.3 ± 3.15	25.8 ± 3.23	29.4 ± 1.28					
		a	ab	a	ab	ab	ab	ab	ab	b					
D. Brain											Log-T SW				
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	(P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex
<i>Oxylipins (nmols/g)</i>															
DHA	F	0.674 ± 0.194	0.485 ± 0.094	0.752 ± 0.138	0.661 ± 0.146	0.477 ± 0.137	0.610 ± 0.079	0.547 ± 0.142	0.759 ± 0.15	0.513 ± 0.126	0.1754	NA	0.9739	0.0388	0.8260
	M	0.594 ± 0.171	0.689 ± 0.171	0.869 ± 0.149	0.939 ± 0.080	0.755 ± 0.173	0.633 ± 0.124	0.684 ± 0.186	0.675 ± 0.08	0.863 ± 0.167					
ALA	F	0.011 ± 0.002	0.016 ± 0.003	0.020 ± 0.006	0.012 ± 0.002	0.012 ± 0.003	0.009 ± 0.003	0.011 ± 0.005	0.015 ± 0.006	0.004 ± 0.001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0037	0.5498	0.4000
	M	0.026 ± 0.007	0.012 ± 0.004	0.010 ± 0.004	0.011 ± 0.003	0.011 ± 0.004	0.007 ± 0.003	0.006 ± 0.003	0.005 ± 0.001	0.010 ± 0.004					
		a	ab	ab	ab	ab	b	b	b	b					

D. Brain (cont)											Log-T SW					
ALA Dose		0.097	0.212	0.305	0.537	0.764	0.946	1.32	1.78	1.98	SW (P)	(P)	ALA Dose	Sex	Dose*Sex	
ARA	F	3.23 ± 0.442	3.00 ± 0.244	3.50 ± 0.476	3.04 ± 0.325	2.55 ± 0.194	3.19 ± 0.341	2.86 ± 0.165	3.78 ± 0.403	2.62 ± 0.371	0.6172	NA	0.9371	0.0055	0.7260	
	M	3.26 ± 0.356	3.46 ± 0.425	4.21 ± 0.588	3.99 ± 0.184	3.29 ± 0.497	3.26 ± 0.354	3.40 ± 0.491	3.56 ± 0.415	4.02 ± 0.526						
LA	F	1.48 ± 0.627	1.34 ± 0.562	1.89 ± 0.732	1.13 ± 0.475	1.18 ± 0.556	1.08 ± 0.606	0.800 ± 0.568	1.32 ± 0.617	0.660 ± 0.369	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.1440	0.9050	0.8720	
	M	2.20 ± 1.14	1.41 ± 0.742	1.27 ± 0.473	1.26 ± 0.596	1.16 ± 0.588	0.666 ± 0.333	0.534 ± 0.345	0.899 ± 0.506	1.69 ± 0.703						
Fatty acids (nmols/g)																
DHA	F	72.4 ± 7.87	82.4 ± 4.73	101.4 ± 4.79	84.6 ± 7.95	74.0 ± 12.7	88.3 ± 8.15	77.4 ± 3.05	91.1 ± 6.74	95.9 ± 20.9	0.0009	<0.0001	0.0447	0.5565	0.5820	
	M	68.3 ± 3.03	77.4 ± 6.40	92.6 ± 6.53	103.4 ± 12.6	90.4 ± 11.6	77.6 ± 7.03	78.1 ± 5.98	98.3 ± 7.14	102.8 ± 17.0						
		c	abc	ab	ab	abc	abc	bc	ab	a						
EPA	F	0.053 ± 0.013	0.071 ± 0.009	0.098 ± 0.022	0.114 ± 0.017	0.134 ± 0.022	0.211 ± 0.039	0.199 ± 0.016	0.247 ± 0.017	0.283 ± 0.057	<0.0001	0.0002	<0.0001	0.4880	0.3870	
	M	0.045 ± 0.012	0.062 ± 0.014	0.090 ± 0.016	0.113 ± 0.026	0.138 ± 0.026	0.157 ± 0.022	0.198 ± 0.022	0.241 ± 0.009	0.286 ± 0.038						
		f	e	de	d	cd	bc	ab	ab	a						
ALA	F	12.6 ± 2.26	15.4 ± 2.06	14.7 ± 4.13	13.5 ± 3.35	11.3 ± 3.54	16.2 ± 6.70	12.7 ± 3.64	15.7 ± 4.00	13.2 ± 4.81	0.0001	<0.0001	0.8220	0.4910	0.8890	
	M	15.7 ± 4.42	15.8 ± 4.49	17.6 ± 2.22	16.3 ± 6.37	14.9 ± 5.92	9.99 ± 3.64	9.50 ± 3.79	17.5 ± 2.52	20.1 ± 6.31						
ARA	F	180.3 ± 18.5	184.3 ± 9.17	199.3 ± 11.5	199.0 ± 16.1	153.9 ± 27.0	200.9 ± 16.1	193.3 ± 14.6	202.2 ± 16.8	197.5 ± 37.6	0.0537	NA	0.0988	0.3822	0.6030	
	M	161.4 ± 7.79	190.7 ± 16.7	223.9 ± 10.5	217.2 ± 16.1	179.7 ± 8.80	169.2 ± 18.3	192.6 ± 11.8	230.6 ± 14.7	214.8 ± 37.6						

Data reported as mean ± SE (n=6; N=108). The SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows Shapiro-Wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal were analyzed using multiple linear regression for diet dosage and sex effects, and dose*sex interactions. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, multiple linear regression was applied to data that were closest to normality. Diet group means within each row with differing letters below the means indicate significant differences between diet groups as determined by Fisher's Protected LSD test (p<0.05). NA: not applicable ND: not detected.

Supplemental Table 3-7. Complete multiple linear regression statistics for total non-esterified oxylipins by FA precursor and for non-esterified FA for rats that received DHA diets in rat serum (A), liver (B), heart (C), and Brain (D).

A. Serum												
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
Oxylipins (nmols/g)												
DHA	F	0.084 ± 0.015	0.144 ± 0.042	0.286 ± 0.034	0.307 ± 0.057	0.492 ± 0.079	0.0078	0.3644	<0.0001	0.4590	0.9490	<0.0001
	M	0.076 ± 0.012	0.148 ± 0.017	0.209 ± 0.027	0.253 ± 0.048	0.491 ± 0.056						
		d	c	b	b	a						
EPA	F	0.007 ± 0.002	0.016 ± 0.003	0.084 ± 0.018	0.107 ± 0.031	0.269 ± 0.033	<0.0001	0.5204	<0.0001	0.6180	0.7740	0.8540
	M	0.008 ± 0.001	0.019 ± 0.004	0.061 ± 0.007	0.126 ± 0.019	0.320 ± 0.100						
		d	c	b	b	a						
ALA	F	0.005 ± 0.001	0.006 ± 0.001	0.006 ± 0.001	0.005 ± 0.001	0.005 ± 0.001	0.3763	NA	0.1142	0.0337	0.4630	<0.0001
	M	0.007 ± 0.001	0.008 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.001	0.006 ± 0.001	0.006 ± 0.001						
ARA	F	2.99 ± 0.511	2.36 ± 0.481	1.91 ± 0.389	1.25 ± 0.297	1.23 ± 0.228	0.0006	0.7703	<0.0001	0.6370	0.8472	0.0183
	M	2.88 ± 0.390	2.32 ± 0.477	1.98 ± 0.251	1.36 ± 0.174	1.59 ± 0.528						
		a	ab	b	c	c						
LA	F	0.481 ± 0.065	0.483 ± 0.066	0.551 ± 0.035	0.451 ± 0.046	0.518 ± 0.075	0.2913	NA	0.7228	0.0084	0.9297	0.2944
	M	0.454 ± 0.036	0.370 ± 0.010	0.395 ± 0.055	0.363 ± 0.046	0.438 ± 0.051						
Fatty acids (nmols/g)												
DHA	F	6.08 ± 0.438	7.81 ± 0.999	14.3 ± 1.55	17.1 ± 1.18	25.0 ± 2.25	0.0068	0.7783	<0.0001	0.1690	0.2510	<0.0001
	M	5.48 ± 0.401	9.25 ± 0.553	11.7 ± 0.611	14.4 ± 0.744	19.5 ± 1.11						
		d	c	b	b	a						
EPA	F	0.014 ± 0.001	0.036 ± 0.008	0.140 ± 0.028	0.242 ± 0.032	0.525 ± 0.091	<0.0001	0.3356	<0.0001	0.9660	0.3470	0.0799
	M	0.019 ± 0.002	0.041 ± 0.003	0.102 ± 0.006	0.239 ± 0.038	0.414 ± 0.068						
		e	d	c	b	a						

A. Serum (cont)												
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
ALA	F	0.087 ± 0.041	0.097 ± 0.058	0.150 ± 0.037	0.095 ± 0.024	0.190 ± 0.058	0.0205	0.2810	0.8800	0.6400	0.2310	<0.0001
	M	0.130 ± 0.035	0.067 ± 0.03	0.107 ± 0.019	0.094 ± 0.032	0.090 ± 0.018						
ARA	F	8.86 ± 0.764	8.31 ± 1.06	8.01 ± 0.913	7.03 ± 0.995	7.30 ± 0.745	0.1794	NA	0.0497	0.1517	0.8140	<0.0001
	M	8.10 ± 0.845	7.88 ± 0.492	6.79 ± 0.474	6.59 ± 0.302	6.82 ± 0.590						
		a	ab	ab	b	ab						
ADA	F	151.0 ± 22.5	107.3 ± 24.6	70.9 ± 11.0	43.8 ± 6.23	27.9 ± 5.02	<0.0001	0.9664	<0.0001	0.4610	0.8570	<0.0001
	M	183.0 ± 39.8	107.2 ± 14.7	72.2 ± 6.22	45.3 ± 6.44	27.3 ± 2.24						
		a	b	b	c	d						
GLA	F	4.16 ± 0.487	3.08 ± 1.33	3.73 ± 0.857	2.59 ± 0.642	2.41 ± 0.808	0.5343	NA	0.1090	0.7660	0.6050	<0.0001
	M	4.12 ± 0.332	2.99 ± 0.273	2.75 ± 0.299	1.89 ± 0.674	1.69 ± 0.753						
B. Liver												
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
Oxylipins (nmols/g)												
DHA	F	6.68 ± 1.29	11.5 ± 1.39	12.6 ± 1.82	14.7 ± 1.40	17.9 ± 3.19	0.0016	0.1556	<0.0001	0.0350	0.4429	<0.0001
	M	5.05 ± 1.11	6.59 ± 0.574	12.1 ± 2.80	12.7 ± 3.42	15.6 ± 2.34						
		c	b	ab	a	a						
EPA	F	0.016 ± 0.003	0.126 ± 0.047	0.872 ± 0.187	2.53 ± 0.231	4.33 ± 0.521	0.0013	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0312	0.0696	0.0076
	M	0.027 ± 0.012	0.273 ± 0.134	1.21 ± 0.224	3.27 ± 0.449	5.40 ± 0.576						
		d	d	c	b	a						
ALA	F	0.066 ± 0.016	0.098 ± 0.030	0.078 ± 0.019	0.063 ± 0.02	0.064 ± 0.014	0.0159	<0.0001	0.3084	0.0467	0.8930	<0.0001
	M	0.071 ± 0.023	0.028 ± 0.015	0.058 ± 0.010	0.059 ± 0.017	0.038 ± 0.010						

B. Liver (cont)

DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
ARA	F	7.65 ± 0.814	8.85 ± 1.22	5.52 ± 0.598	4.30 ± 0.446	2.42 ± 0.292	0.0001	0.9193	<0.0001	0.6420	0.4800	<0.0001
	M	9.73 ± 1.45 a	7.05 ± 0.470 a	5.62 ± 0.493 b	3.92 ± 0.395 c	2.86 ± 0.193 d						
LA	F	8.91 ± 1.56	12.8 ± 1.80	8.83 ± 1.14	7.74 ± 0.486	6.41 ± 0.425	0.0010	0.8025	0.0033	0.0190	0.6528	0.0936
	M	10.0 ± 2.36 ab	7.05 ± 1.31 a	7.66 ± 1.04 abc	5.72 ± 0.576 bc	5.88 ± 0.497 c						
<i>Fatty acids (nmols/g)</i>												
DHA	F	286.0 ± 18.2	432.7 ± 34.5	466.0 ± 30.3	596.9 ± 36.4	704.5 ± 38.3	0.1279	NA	<0.0001	0.0219	0.4230	<0.0001
	M	257.6 ± 31.4 e	328.5 ± 40.7 d	484.6 ± 57.7 c	518.3 ± 14.7 b	601.7 ± 22.8 a						
EPA	F	0.386 ± 0.021	2.16 ± 0.524	5.00 ± 0.745	10.9 ± 1.14	21.6 ± 2.89	<0.0001	0.0581	<0.0001	0.3180	0.5280	0.9290
	M	0.719 ± 0.050 e	1.91 ± 0.243 d	5.95 ± 0.61 c	13.3 ± 2.32 b	20.9 ± 1.62 a						
ALA	F	5.62 ± 2.53	14.8 ± 3.80	11.5 ± 2.80	13.6 ± 3.34	14.6 ± 3.35	0.1133	NA	0.9820	0.1310	0.0580	<0.0001
	M	12.5 ± 1.79	9.68 ± 3.16	10.1 ± 3.66	6.16 ± 2.92	6.52 ± 3.06						
ARA	F	268.5 ± 14.6	285.5 ± 29.7	206.9 ± 13.4	193.6 ± 11.7	171.4 ± 27.3	0.0006	0.0784	<0.0001	0.7140	0.7250	<0.0001
	M	288.9 ± 33.9 a	241.5 ± 28.0 ab	237.0 ± 18.1 bc	186.2 ± 14.0 cd	151.9 ± 4.40 d						
ADA	F	1526 ± 442.7	2202 ± 681.1	706 ± 479.3	0.001 ± 0.000	0.001 ± 0.000	<0.0001	0.0001	0.0003	0.5732	0.7164	0.1040
	M	2997 ± 1405 a	1265 ± 838.7 ab	1020 ± 476.7 bc	279.2 ± 176.7 c	0.001 ± 0.000 c						

B. Liver (cont)

DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
GLA	F	403.7 ± 92.8 a	294.6 ± 136.1 ab	254.1 ± 85.7 abc	73.5 ± 73.4 cd	0.015 ± 0.000 d	0.0464	NA	0.0001	0.0002	0.0305	<0.0001
	M	112.4 ± 71.1 bcd	80.8 ± 80.8 cd	40.0 ± 39.9 d	0.015 ± 0.000 d	0.015 ± 0.000 d						

C. Heart

DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
<i>Oxylipins (nmols/g)</i>												
DHA	F	2.37 ± 0.238 f	3.91 ± 0.476 def	6.66 ± 0.630 c	9.29 ± 1.06 b	13.2 ± 1.26 a	0.4306	NA	<0.0001	0.7090	0.0020	<0.0001
	M	2.92 ± 0.498 f	3.17 ± 0.293 ef	4.99 ± 0.299 cde	5.24 ± 0.525 cd	9.49 ± 0.878 b						
EPA	F	ND d	ND d	0.032 ± 0.008 cd	0.128 ± 0.032 b	0.225 ± 0.032 a	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.4766	0.0002	0.8530
	M	ND d	0.004 ± 0.004 d	0.017 ± 0.002 cd	0.060 ± 0.024 c	0.114 ± 0.018 b						
ALA	F	0.019 ± 0.006	0.017 ± 0.003	0.027 ± 0.008	0.032 ± 0.006	0.028 ± 0.005	0.0018	<0.0001	0.1440	0.2930	0.6400	<0.0001
	M	0.017 ± 0.006	0.012 ± 0.006	0.029 ± 0.008	0.023 ± 0.008	0.021 ± 0.005						
ARA	F	2.7 ± 0.118	2.36 ± 0.154	2.11 ± 0.142	1.86 ± 0.179	1.18 ± 0.076	0.6971	NA	<0.0001	0.7500	0.2910	<0.0001
	M	3.14 ± 0.290 a	2.33 ± 0.210 b	2.11 ± 0.229 b	1.33 ± 0.140 c	1.11 ± 0.126 d						
LA	F	5.08 ± 0.450	6.45 ± 0.268	6.29 ± 0.701	7.68 ± 0.464	6.41 ± 0.608	0.0097	0.1655	0.2440	0.0001	0.6791	0.0115
	M	5.47 ± 0.605	3.81 ± 0.157	5.03 ± 0.637	4.70 ± 0.573	5.20 ± 0.751						

C. Heart (cont)												
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
Fatty acids (nmols/g)												
DHA	F	28.9 ± 9.62	24.9 ± 4.32	55.9 ± 8.56	94.9 ± 22.4	108.3 ± 18.2	0.0005	0.7912	<0.0001	0.0197	0.1900	<0.0001
	M	23.3 ± 4.93	23.0 ± 3.49	43.5 ± 6.67	46.3 ± 9.24	65.1 ± 11.8						
		c	c	b	ab	a						
EPA	F	0.057 ± 0.005	0.136 ± 0.019	0.426 ± 0.076	0.918 ± 0.125	1.47 ± 0.192	<0.0001	0.2063	<0.0001	0.0870	0.3880	0.0238
	M	0.066 ± 0.007	0.107 ± 0.007	0.274 ± 0.006	0.569 ± 0.102	1.01 ± 0.065						
		e	d	c	b	a						
ALA	F	5.47 ± 0.698	5.46 ± 0.627	6.03 ± 0.716	7.94 ± 0.752	6.95 ± 0.863	0.0008	0.1711	0.0255	<0.0001	0.7521	<0.0001
	M	3.89 ± 0.545	4.11 ± 0.479	5.69 ± 1.01	4.11 ± 0.427	5.13 ± 0.592						
		b	ab	ab	ab	a						
ARA	F	35.5 ± 5.65	22.5 ± 3.72	28.2 ± 3.69	30.1 ± 4.67	18.1 ± 2.85	0.5887	NA	0.0003	0.7877	0.5146	<0.0001
	M	37.0 ± 4.81	25.5 ± 4.18	30.4 ± 2.14	20.7 ± 3.28	17.2 ± 2.55						
		a	bc	ab	bc	c						

D. Brain												
DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
Oxylipins (nmols/g)												
DHA	F	0.421 ± 0.118	0.350 ± 0.051	0.564 ± 0.157	0.465 ± 0.076	1.16 ± 0.251	0.0001	0.4165	0.0192	0.0547	0.0780	0.8466
	M	0.744 ± 0.229	1.25 ± 0.415	0.518 ± 0.176	0.975 ± 0.177	0.929 ± 0.310						
		b	ab	b	ab	a						
DHA	F	0.421 ± 0.118	0.350 ± 0.051	0.564 ± 0.157	0.465 ± 0.076	1.16 ± 0.251			0.2164	0.0245	0.0608	0.3219
	M	0.744 ± 0.229	1.25 ± 0.415	0.518 ± 0.176	0.975 ± 0.177	0.929 ± 0.310			adjusted by Run			

adjusted by Run

D. Brain (cont)

DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
ALA	F	0.008 ± 0.002	0.003 ± 0.001	0.011 ± 0.003	0.013 ± 0.003	0.010 ± 0.004	0.0037	<0.0001	0.4730	0.3390	0.3753	0.0999
	M	0.013 ± 0.003	0.013 ± 0.006	0.007 ± 0.003	0.010 ± 0.003	0.012 ± 0.002						
ARA	F	2.81 ± 0.336	2.59 ± 0.187	2.87 ± 0.434	2.70 ± 0.299	3.81 ± 0.607	0.0237	0.5675	0.7145	0.0626	0.0628	0.4761
	M	3.67 ± 0.504	4.43 ± 0.631	2.83 ± 0.506	3.79 ± 0.429	3.35 ± 0.802						
LA	F	0.700 ± 0.465	0.254 ± 0.066	0.795 ± 0.366	0.991 ± 0.566	2.64 ± 1.45	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0133	0.5113	0.5834	0.4459
	M	1.23 ± 0.533	1.01 ± 0.618	0.842 ± 0.575	1.54 ± 0.473	2.41 ± 1.73						
		ab	b	b	ab	a						
LA	F	0.700 ± 0.465	0.254 ± 0.066	0.795 ± 0.366	0.991 ± 0.566	2.64 ± 1.45			0.2036	0.5636	0.5611	0.2889
	M	1.23 ± 0.533	1.01 ± 0.618	0.842 ± 0.575	1.54 ± 0.473	2.41 ± 1.73			adjusted by Run			
<i>Fatty acids (nmols/g)</i>												
DHA	F	82.3 ± 6.17	80.1 ± 7.78	85.6 ± 8.19	81.1 ± 6.25	116.6 ± 12.0	0.3564	NA	0.0033	0.9943	0.1472	0.1035
	M	79.4 ± 7.32	92.5 ± 8.64	78.8 ± 7.27	100.9 ± 12.5	94.2 ± 7.06						
		b	b	b	ab	a						
DHA	F	82.3 ± 6.17	80.1 ± 7.78	85.6 ± 8.19	81.1 ± 6.25	116.6 ± 12.0			0.0665	0.9834	0.1495	0.0468
	M	79.4 ± 7.32	92.5 ± 8.64	78.8 ± 7.27	100.9 ± 12.5	94.2 ± 7.06			adjusted by Run			
EPA	F	0.043 ± 0.005	0.066 ± 0.007	0.124 ± 0.017	0.202 ± 0.019	0.412 ± 0.035	0.0035	0.4076	<0.0001	1.0000	0.2420	<0.0001
	M	0.045 ± 0.007	0.082 ± 0.013	0.111 ± 0.007	0.222 ± 0.026	0.328 ± 0.034						
		e	d	c	b	a						
ALA	F	9.12 ± 3.01	6.99 ± 2.73	11.4 ± 3.14	13.4 ± 3.81	19.4 ± 5.87	0.0062	<0.0001	0.0112	0.9265	0.3774	0.2330
	M	13.4 ± 3.10	11.9 ± 4.19	7.32 ± 2.96	8.46 ± 2.57	18.1 ± 5.06						
		b	b	b	b	a						

D. Brain (cont)

DHA Dose		0.074	0.165	0.392	0.646	1.35	SW (P)	Log-T SW (P)	DHA Dose	Sex	Dose* Sex	Diet ALA vs DHA
ALA	F	9.12 ± 3.01	6.99 ± 2.73	11.4 ± 3.14	13.4 ± 3.81	19.4 ± 5.87			0.3990	0.7560	0.3010	0.0900
	M	13.4 ± 3.10	11.9 ± 4.19	7.32 ± 2.96	8.46 ± 2.57	18.1 ± 5.06			adjusted by Run			
ARA	F	200.3 ± 17.1	180.8 ± 18.1	174.2 ± 14.7	171.0 ± 15.4	208.3 ± 14.9	0.3596	NA	0.5630	0.7740	0.0734	0.4610
	M	188.7 ± 9.28	209.9 ± 17.6	168.1 ± 13.0	191.8 ± 16.6	161.9 ± 10.6						

Data reported as mean ± SE (n=6; N=60). The SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk test p value results and the TSW column shows Shapiro-Wilk p values for log transformed data. Data that were normal were analyzed using multiple linear regression for diet dosage and sex effects, and dose*sex interactions. If data were not normal even following log-transformation, multiple linear regression was applied to data that were closest to normality. Diet group means within each row with differing letters below the means indicate significant differences between diet groups as determined by Fisher's Protected LSD test (p<0.05). ALA vs. DHA indicates results of multiple linear regression applied for comparison. NA: not applicable ND: not detected.

Appendix 3: Supplemental figures and tables for Chapter 4

Abbreviations: ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α -linolenic acid; BEL, bromoenol lactone; COX, cyclooxygenase; CYP, cytochrome P450; DGLA, dihomo- γ -linolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; DiHDoPE, dihydroxy-docosapentaenoic acid; DiHDoHE, dihydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; DiHETE, dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; DiHETrE, dihydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; DiHODE, dihydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; diHOME, dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; EpDoPE, epoxy-docosapentaenoic acid; EpETrE, epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid; EpODE, epoxy-octadecadienoic acid; EpOME, epoxy-octadecenoic acid; GLA, γ -linolenic acid; HDoHE, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; HETrE, hydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; HHTrE, hydroxy-heptadecatrienoic acid; HODE, hydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; HOTrE, hydroxy-octadecatrienoic acid; HX, hepxilin; k, keto; LA, linoleic acid; LOX, lipoxygenase; LT, leukotriene; LX, lipoxin; MAFP, methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate; PAF-AH, platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase; PG, prostaglandin; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; PYR, pyrrophenone; triHOME, trihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; TX, thromboxane; VAR, varespladib.

Supplemental Table 4-1. Internal standard composition.

Internal Standard	(ng/100μl)
6-k-PGF _{1α} -d4	1.125
TXB ₂ -d4	0.300
PGF _{2α} -d4	1.50
PGE ₂ -d4	0.375
PGD ₂ -d4	0.600
13,14-dihydro-15-keto-PGF _{2α} -d4	1.50
8-iso PGF _{2α} -d4	3.375
LTB ₄ -d4	1.50
20-HETE-d6	3.00
15-HETE-d8	1.125
12-HETE-d8	1.50
5-HETE-d8	2.25
13-HODE-d4	0.750
9-HODE-d4	1.50
12,13-DiHOME-d4	0.1875
9,10-DiHOME-d4	0.09375
14,15-DHET-d11	0.300
11,12-DHET-d11	0.375
8,9-DHET-d11	1.50
15d-PGJ ₂ -d4	3.00
EPA-d5	3.00
5-OxoETE-d7	10.125
RvD ₁ -d5	1.125

Concentration of deuterated internal standards diluted in 50% ethanol, of which 100uL was added to each sample. Rv: Resolvin

Supplemental Table 4-2. PLA₂ isoform primers used for RT-qPCR

PLA ₂ isoform	Gene name	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Fasta sequence	Amplicon length
sPLA ₂ IB	PLA2G1B	GCGTTACTGCACACAGCATCA	GAGTCTGGCAGCACCTGTCTA	NM_031585.1	171
sPLA ₂ IIA	PLA2G2A	AAGCCATACCACCATCCCATC	CTGGACCTGAATTGAGCCAAAG	NM_031598.3	97
sPLA ₂ IIC	PLA2G2C	TATGCGTTCAGGGGAAAGGGA	CTGCCAGTTCAGCTCCAACAGA	NM_019202.2	183
sPLA ₂ IID	PLA2G2D	GGCTGCTGCTGGCTGGTATAA	TCCTTGGGTGTCTTTGCC	NM_001013428.1	148
sPLA ₂ IIE	PLA2G2E	GTGGACCAGACGGATTGGTG	AGTCGTTCTACCAGCACAGAA	NM_001106696.1	138
sPLA ₂ IIF	PLA2G2F	TGAAGTCCATGGTGAAGCC	CATCTCATCCATGGGGTGGC	NM_001109587.1	107
sPLA ₂ V	PLA2G5	ATCAGCATCACGCACGGAAT	GCGCTTCATTTCTTGGGTCTTT	NM_017174.1	174
sPLA ₂ X	PLA2G10 (1)	TGTCTCAGCGAAGCAACCA	GCGATCGAGGACCAACACAA	NM_017176.2	91
sPLA ₂ X	PLA2G10 (2)	AAGCAACCAGGAGGTCACAT	GGTAGTAGCAGCACCAGTCAAT	NM_017176.2	168
sPLA ₂ XIIA	PLA2G12A	CCAGGAACAGGACCAGACCAC	ATATCCATAGCGTGGGGCAGG	NM_001108565.1	172
sPLA ₂ XIIB	PLA2G12B	AGCTTCGAGTCGGTCAACAG	GCCCAAGTCCATACTTCCCG	XM_006256432.2	189
cPLA ₂ α	PLA2G4A	AGGGGACCTTTGGCGATATG	GCATCCATCAATGTGATCTCCAA	NM_133551.2	187
cPLA ₂ β	PLA2G4B	CCG TTCCTGTGGATTTGGTCT	CAGTCAGAGGATGTCACTAGGTC	NM_001107764.2	144
cPLA ₂ γ	PLA2G4C	ACTGGTTAGACCTGAGCCTG	TAGCCCCTGTTAAGAACTTCAG	NM_001145982.1	146
cPLA ₂ δ	PLA2G4D	TTCCCGAGTCCCAGATTTGC	ATGAGGGCTCCTTCTCTGAGT	XM_001080051.5	147
cPLA ₂ ε	PLA2G4E	GAGGTGGCACGAGGTCTATG	AGGTAGCCATTGTCCAGGTTG	XM_017592204.1	123
cPLA ₂ ζ	PLA2G4F	ACTCTAAGGACCCCGTGAA	TGTTTGTCTGTTCCACTCCTGG	XM_017592206.1	131
iPLA ₂ β	PNPLA9	CTCCCTGGACAGAACTCAGCC	CAGGTGGTCATGGCTTCGCT	NM_001005560.1	139
iPLA ₂ γ	PNPLA8	CCTCGCGATTGATGGTGGAG	GCTAATATGGCCCCTGTGCTT	NM_001108020.2	135
iPLA ₂ δ	PNPLA6	TAGTTGGGGAGTATGGCCGA	TAAGGCGAGTCACGACCTGT	XM_008769012.2	168
iPLA ₂ ε	PNPLA3	GCGGCTTCCTAGGCTTCTAC	TCCATGATGTGATCGAGAGGG	NM_001282324.1	157
iPLA ₂ ζ	PNPLA2	CGGATTCTAGAGCACCTGCC	GCCACTCCAACAAACGGATG	NM_001108509.2	184

Supplemental Table 4-2. Cont

PLA₂ isoform	Gene name	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Fasta sequecence	Amplicon length
iPLA ₂ η	PNPLA4	CATTTTCGTCCGCACGTCAG	TCATGGTAGTGGCTGCAAGT	XM_006256967.3	97
Lp-PLA ₂ G7A	PLA2G7	CTAGGAGTTGGCTCACGCTG	GCTTCCGTTTGTGTTCTGTTCA	NM_001009353.1	90
Lp-PLA ₂ G7B	PAFAH2	CGGATGTGATGGAGGGTCAC	GCAAGCGACAGGATCCGATG	NM_177932.2	195
LPLA ₂	PLA2G15	CTATGGTGGAGAGTCTTGTGGG	AAGGCCCGTTTTTCATTGTTGGG	NM_001004277.2	99

Supplemental Table 4-3. Effects of 3 doses of VAR and MAFP on PUFA release

	CTR	0.1μM	MAFP		0.01 μM	VAR		p
			1μM	10μM		0.1μM	1μM	
ARA	5053 ± 865	3936 ± 819.6	2688 ± 1627	2377 ± 463.8	3286 ± 698.6	2257 ± 481.4	2919 ± 905.4	0.0217
DHA	5218 ± 472.2	5584 ± 1088	5103 ± 1927	2956 ± 146.8	2800 ± 535.9	1117 ± 151.4	1437 ± 274.4	0.0001
ALA	60.4 ± 15.2	64.9 ± 20.8	25.9 ± 5.17	4.68 ± 10.3	63.4 ± 5.96	55.7 ± 10.6	60.6 ± 4.51	<.0001
EPA	14.9 ± 1.88	17.6 ± 1.18	8.01 ± 1.02	4.99 ± 1.19	15 ± 1.55	14.7 ± 1.82	15.3 ± 0.472	<.0001

Results are shown as pmol/g of tissue/min of incubation (mean ± SE). n=6 for CTR, MAFP 10μM, and VAR 0.1μM (these data are shown in Figure 2), n=3 for remaining doses.

Indicates a significant difference when compared to control (p<0.05). Statistical significance between inhibitors is not shown.

Supplemental Table 4-4. Effects of 3 doses of VAR and MAFP on oxylipin formation

	CTR	MAFP			VAR			p
		0.1μM	1μM	10μM	0.01 μM	0.1μM	1μM	
ARA COX Oxylipins								
PGD ₂	2.5 ± 0.225	2.04 ± 0.024	2.08 ± 0.044	2.36 ± 0.229	2.31 ± 0.072	2.54 ± 0.106	2.24 ± 0.057	0.591
PGE ₂	2.14 ± 0.129	1.97 ± 0.134	1.91 ± 0.171	1.94 ± 0.132	2.19 ± 0.146	2.22 ± 0.095	2.11 ± 0.223	0.0038
11βPGE ₂	1.35 ± 0.12	1.18 ± 0.029	1.18 ± 0.044	1.21 ± 0.075	1.34 ± 0.03	1.43 ± 0.071	1.3 ± 0.05	0.0796
15k PGE ₂	2.07 ± 0.429	2.25 ± 0.409	1.26 ± 0.216	1.21 ± 0.197	2.08 ± 0.14	2.04 ± 0.294	1.82 ± 0.464	0.101
TXB ₂	0.926 ± 0.065	0.977 ± 0.059	1.13 ± 0.097	1.1 ± 0.096	1.08 ± 0.086	1 ± 0.077	1.07 ± 0.087	0.0001
PGF ₂ α	9.9 ± 0.727	9.86 ± 1.75	10.2 ± 1.73	9.24 ± 0.85	11.1 ± 1.58	11.2 ± 0.885	11 ± 1.69	<.0001
15k PGF ₂ α	5.59 ± 0.39	5.79 ± 0.478	4.92 ± 0.642	4.77 ± 0.416	5.86 ± 0.557	6.22 ± 0.337	6.1 ± 0.713	<.0001
12-HHTrE	64.5 ± 10.9	47.2 ± 5.24	39.8 ± 4.51	49.4 ± 4.14	45 ± 6.29	60.9 ± 9.53	42.9 ± 3.98	0.3933
6k PGF ₁ α	63 ± 4.9	69.4 ± 5.48	68 ± 7.69	61.4 ± 5.38	71 ± 9.35	67.2 ± 4.85	73.6 ± 8.41	0.0217
ARA LOX Oxylipins								
5-HETE	14 ± 1.32	11.1 ± 1.23	6.42 ± 1.39	7.29 ± 1.3	12.9 ± 1.97	11.8 ± 0.602	11.9 ± 0.245	0.0021
8-HETE	10.3 ± 1.32	9.63 ± 2.05	4.69 ± 0.658	3.57 ± 0.407	10.6 ± 0.645	9.99 ± 0.529	10.5 ± 0.266	<.0001
9-HETE	10.1 ± 1.51	13.9 ± 4.28	5.42 ± 1.34	5.12 ± 1.35	12 ± 2.34	9.33 ± 0.984	8.92 ± 2.21	0.0197
11-HETE	12.6 ± 1.2	10.8 ± 0.716	6.96 ± 1.07	7.65 ± 0.806	10.7 ± 0.536	9.8 ± 0.546	10.2 ± 1.03	0.0006
12-HETE	51.5 ± 4.59	49.9 ± 8.4	47.4 ± 7.75	45.3 ± 5.11	57.2 ± 8.85	55.3 ± 4.51	54.6 ± 9.35	0.084
15-HETE	21 ± 2.78	16.5 ± 1.21	11.4 ± 1.59	10.6 ± 1.92	16.4 ± 0.815	16.3 ± 0.946	16.1 ± 0.785	0.001
LTB ₄	0.245 ± 0.069	0.187 ± 0.05	0.127 ± 0.025	0.108 ± 0.035	0.218 ± 0.038	0.195 ± 0.027	0.248 ± 0.051	0.1491
12epi LTB ₄	0.272 ± 0.066	0.192 ± 0.038	0.167 ± 0.025	0.137 ± 0.026	0.232 ± 0.024	0.194 ± 0.031	0.242 ± 0.041	0.1803
6S-LXA ₄	2.57 ± 0.97	1.07 ± 0.419	0.744 ± 0.2	1.58 ± 0.682	0.976 ± 0.234	1.78 ± 0.283	1.06 ± 0.096	0.1984
ARA CYP Oxylipins								
16-HETE	3.12 ± 0.613	2.22 ± 0.279	1.07 ± 0.567	1.21 ± 0.442	2.41 ± 0.577	2.68 ± 0.267	2.34 ± 0.357	0.0002
5,6 EpETrE	5.31 ± 1.53	2.97 ± 0.132	2.38 ± 0.451	2.62 ± 1.709	4.26 ± 0.312	3.26 ± 1.22	3.78 ± 0.777	0.2315
8,9 EpETrE	1.2 ± 0.3	0.812 ± 0.08	0.662 ± 0.055	0.5 ± 0.349	1.1 ± 0.135	0.842 ± 0.265	0.986 ± 0.087	0.1764
8,9 DiHETrE	0.293 ± 0.048	0.215 ± 0.06	0.113 ± 0.04	0.131 ± 0.044	0.217 ± 0.031	0.268 ± 0.056	0.249 ± 0.03	0.0012

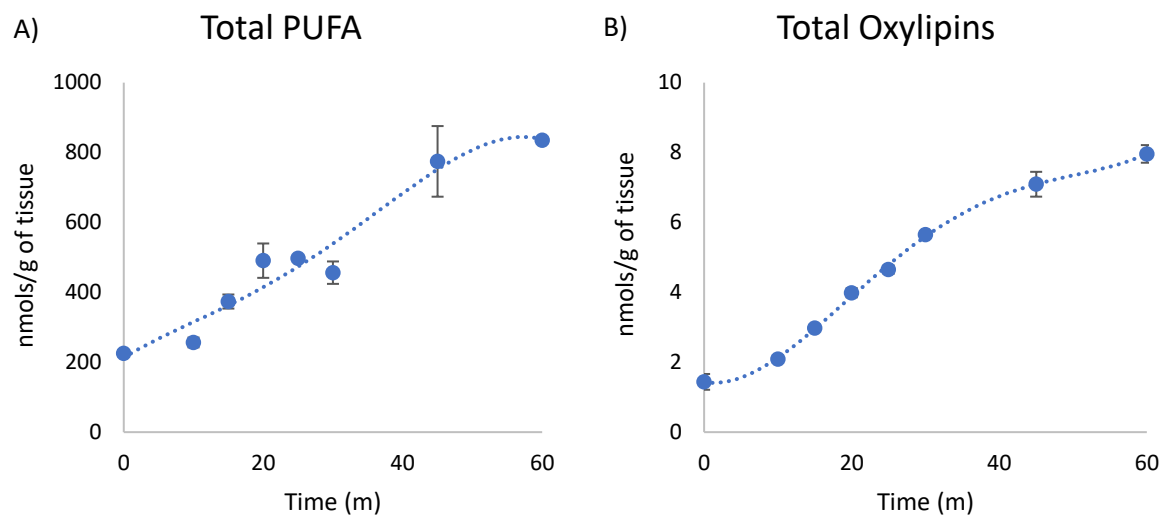
	CTR	MAFP			VAR			p
		0.1μM	1μM	10μM	0.01 μM	0.1μM	1μM	
11,12 EpETrE	2.13 ± 0.413	1.35 ± 0.179	1.55 ± 0.079	0.406 ± 0.386	2.17 ± 0.315	1.69 ± 0.522	1.9 ± 0.074	0.0194
11,12 DiHETrE	0.217 ± 0.034	0.166 ± 0.025	0.141 ± 0.005	0.124 ± 0.022	0.158 ± 0.013	0.167 ± 0.021	0.14 ± 0.01	0.0003
14,15 EpETrE	0.891 ± 0.07	0.74 ± 0.133	0.616 ± 0.05	0.067 ± 0.145	1 ± 0.257	0.829 ± 0.281	0.944 ± 0.132	0.0239
14,15 DiHETrE	0.205 ± 0.029	0.157 ± 0.017	0.107 ± 0.009	0.091 ± 0.018	0.137 ± 0.011	0.155 ± 0.018	0.131 ± 0.011	<.0001
LA LOX Oxylipins								
9-HODE	135 ± 19.3	96.8 ± 8.02	55.1 ± 5.06	42.5 ± 10.3	134 ± 12.4	144.5 ± 8.35	137.7 ± 10.6	<.0001
13-HODE	48.7 ± 7.43	37.8 ± 3.14	20.1 ± 2.23	17.8 ± 4.4	49.8 ± 2.96	54.7 ± 4.64	50.7 ± 5.26	<.0001
9,10,13 triHOME	17 ± 3.68	13.6 ± 1.75	7.9 ± 1.98	7.9 ± 3.95	17.5 ± 1.9	17.1 ± 2.34	18.8 ± 5.83	0.0156
9,12,13 triHOME	6.15 ± 1.48	5.18 ± 0.816	2.84 ± 0.815	3.39 ± 1.54	6.7 ± 0.984	6 ± 1.08	6.83 ± 1.87	0.0337
LA CYP Oxylipins								
9,10 EpOME	3.01 ± 0.45	1.8 ± 0.561	0.013 ± 0.432	-0.961 ± 0.371	3.37 ± 0.172	3.1 ± 0.676	3.17 ± 0.197	<.0001
9,10 diHOME	0.423 ± 0.054	0.412 ± 0.049	0.232 ± 0.004	0.116 ± 0.016	0.415 ± 0.041	0.451 ± 0.068	0.411 ± 0.038	<.0001
12,13 EpOME	2.22 ± 0.246	1.67 ± 0.709	-0.1 ± 0.191	-0.872 ± 0.375	2.94 ± 0.367	2.31 ± 0.607	2.63 ± 0.318	<.0001
12,13 diHOME	0.445 ± 0.086	0.518 ± 0.07	0.285 ± 0.03	0.117 ± 0.038	0.514 ± 0.088	0.482 ± 0.08	0.478 ± 0.114	<.0001
GLA Oxylipins								
13-HOTrE-y	0.206 ± 0.032	0.164 ± 0.045	0.094 ± 0.04	0.089 ± 0.03	0.215 ± 0.072	0.312 ± 0.058	0.239 ± 0.065	0.0014
DGLA COX Oxylipins								
15k PGE ₁	0.073 ± 0.025	0.082 ± 0.01	0.045 ± 0.014	0.042 ± 0.008	0.071 ± 0.004	0.072 ± 0.012	0.07 ± 0.025	0.6186
PGF _{1α}	0.219 ± 0.021	0.235 ± 0.052	0.26 ± 0.04	0.251 ± 0.029	0.253 ± 0.031	0.269 ± 0.026	0.263 ± 0.033	0.0735
DGLA LOX Oxylipins								
8-HETrE	0.457 ± 0.059	0.413 ± 0.124	0.153 ± 0.116	0.123 ± 0.081	0.564 ± 0.164	0.452 ± 0.064	0.424 ± 0.095	0.0092
15-HETrE	1.82 ± 0.287	1.53 ± 0.167	1.35 ± 0.328	1.25 ± 0.288	1.95 ± 0.298	1.96 ± 0.247	1.85 ± 0.287	0.0619
DHA LOX Oxylipins								
4-HDoHE	9.62 ± 1.41	8.38 ± 0.633	6.95 ± 1.95	6.72 ± 0.793	4.01 ± 0.804	2.61 ± 0.246	3.1 ± 0.3	<.0001
7-HDoHE	1.92 ± 0.256	2 ± 0.399	1.4 ± 0.344	1.3 ± 0.223	1.08 ± 0.052	0.769 ± 0.115	0.933 ± 0.264	0.0064
8-HDoHE	5.47 ± 0.74	4.55 ± 0.561	2.54 ± 0.789	3.27 ± 0.583	2.23 ± 0.082	1.39 ± 0.337	1.01 ± 0.356	<.0001

	CTR	MAFP			VAR			p
		0.1μM	1μM	10μM	0.01μM	0.1μM	1μM	
10-HDoHE	2 ± 0.321	1.77 ± 0.212	1.15 ± 0.483	1.28 ± 0.236	0.82 ± 0.057	0.65 ± 0.065	0.727 ± 0.15	0.0006
11-HDoHE	2.51 ± 0.176	2.56 ± 0.794	1.75 ± 0.635	1.67 ± 0.258	1.43 ± 0.18	0.765 ± 0.211	0.918 ± 0.361	0.0002
13-HDoHE	3.3 ± 0.567	3.33 ± 0.605	2.39 ± 0.919	2.54 ± 0.486	1.39 ± 0.191	1.08 ± 0.114	1.46 ± 0.385	<.0001
14-HDoHE	11.6 ± 2	11.2 ± 4.18	9.3 ± 3.57	9.73 ± 1.98	7.53 ± 2.07	7.19 ± 1.27	6.85 ± 2.01	0.0534
16-HDoHE	2.99 ± 0.368	2.51 ± 0.365	2.08 ± 0.55	1.75 ± 0.256	1.25 ± 0.278	0.919 ± 0.128	0.916 ± 0.175	<.0001
17-HDoHE	38.6 ± 6.31	37.5 ± 9.93	31.7 ± 9.31	28 ± 4.64	24 ± 4.49	19.3 ± 2.12	21.3 ± 4.77	<.0001
DHA CYP Oxylipins								
20-HDoHE	5.4 ± 1.25	4.3 ± 0.753	3.43 ± 1.05	2.97 ± 0.527	2.53 ± 0.772	1.27 ± 0.488	1.49 ± 0.666	0.0011
16,17 EpDoPE	5.37 ± 1.17	4.9 ± 1.45	4.05 ± 1.22	2.64 ± 0.592	2.31 ± 0.244	0.925 ± 0.428	0.976 ± 0.157	0.0022
19,20 EpDoPE	1.3 ± 0.193	1.43 ± 0.556	1.17 ± 0.341	0.88 ± 0.282	0.533 ± 0.244	0.348 ± 0.095	0.16 ± 0.339	0.0142
16,17 DiHDoPE	0.038 ± 0.004	0.036 ± 0.009	0.018 ± 0.004	0.02 ± 0.006	0.012 ± 0.006	0.022 ± 0.005	0.012 ± 0.005	0.0054
ALA LOX Oxylipins								
9-HOTrE	1.29 ± 0.331	0.785 ± 0.096	0.292 ± 0.083	0.267 ± 0.102	1.14 ± 0.168	1.76 ± 0.382	1.05 ± 0.104	<.0001
13-HOTrE	1.59 ± 0.432	0.923 ± 0.346	0.812 ± 0.296	0.995 ± 0.239	1.16 ± 0.437	2.24 ± 0.602	1.24 ± 0.389	0.007
EPA LOX Oxylipins								
12-HEPE	0.687 ± 0.122	0.89 ± 0.203	0.58 ± 0.095	0.757 ± 0.215	0.867 ± 0.136	1.01 ± 0.216	0.709 ± 0.128	0.3192
EPA CYP Oxylipins								
18-HEPE	0.263 ± 0.072	0.189 ± 0.079	0.007 ± 0.033	-0.059 ± 0.044	0.148 ± 0.021	0.248 ± 0.038	0.192 ± 0.088	0.0012
14,15 diHETE	0.322 ± 0.108	0.218 ± 0.169	0.231 ± 0.082	0.095 ± 0.192	0.306 ± 0.097	0.363 ± 0.057	0.638 ± 0.123	0.3256
Non-quantifiable oxylipins								
HXB ₃	5.21 ± 1.03	5.45 ± 0.969	4.24 ± 0.866	3.24 ± 0.5	5.53 ± 1.13	5.19 ± 0.812	6.15 ± 2.07	0.0609
9,10 EpODE	0.715 ± 0.101	0.481 ± 0.14	0.073 ± 0.069	0.059 ± 0.16	0.942 ± 0.082	0.967 ± 0.181	0.902 ± 0.062	0.0001
15,16 diHODE	5.1 ± 0.842	5.15 ± 1.39	4.36 ± 1.17	4.73 ± 1.09	5.65 ± 1.83	4.76 ± 0.95	5.16 ± 1.5	0.5503
5-iso PGF _{2α} -VI	3.3 ± 0.579	3.16 ± 0.718	1.95 ± 0.652	2.58 ± 0.523	1.75 ± 0.401	3.61 ± 0.857	1.97 ± 0.203	0.33
8-iso PGF _{2α} -III	6.5 ± 0.736	9.32 ± 0.754	6.45 ± 1.47	7.58 ± 0.869	6.83 ± 1.25	6.62 ± 0.626	5.59 ± 0.366	0.2136

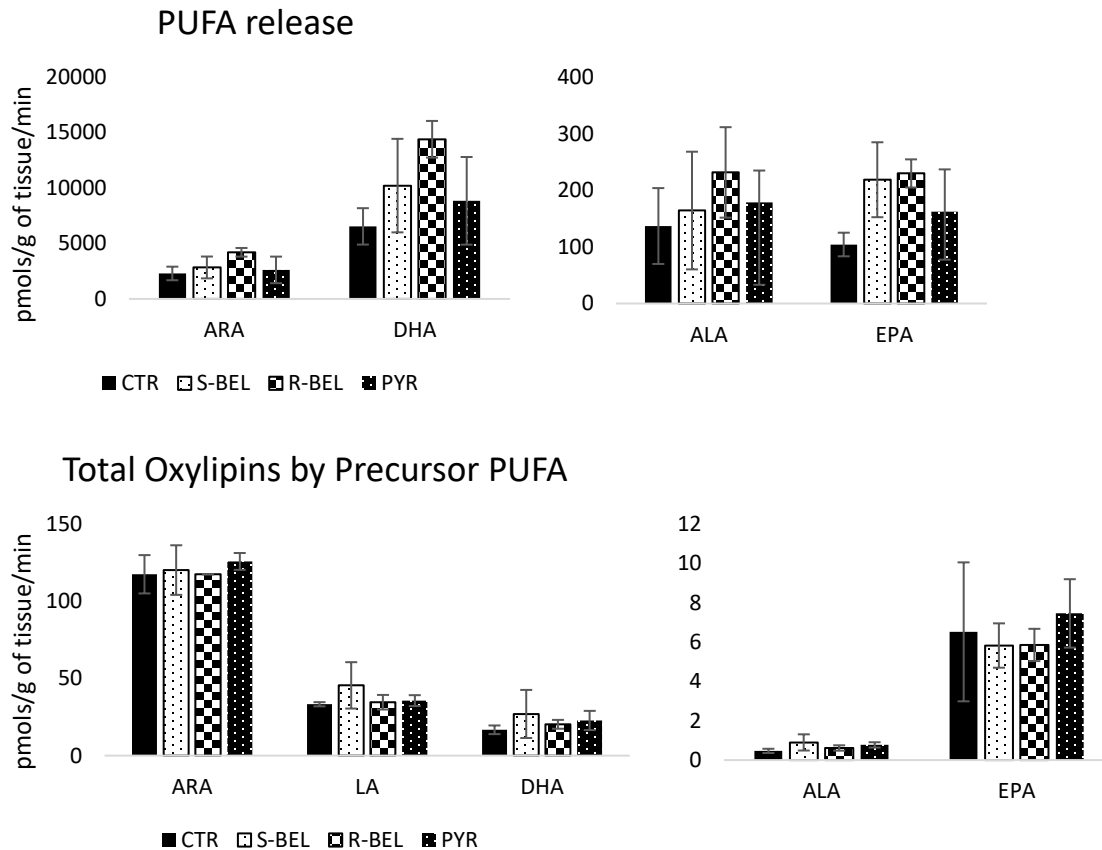
Results are shown as pmol/g of tissue/min of incubation (mean ± SE). n=6 for CTR, MAFP 10Mm, and VAR 0.1Mm (these data are shown in Figures 4-6), n=3 for remaining doses].

Indicates a significant difference when compared to control (p<0.05). Statistical significance between inhibitors is not shown.

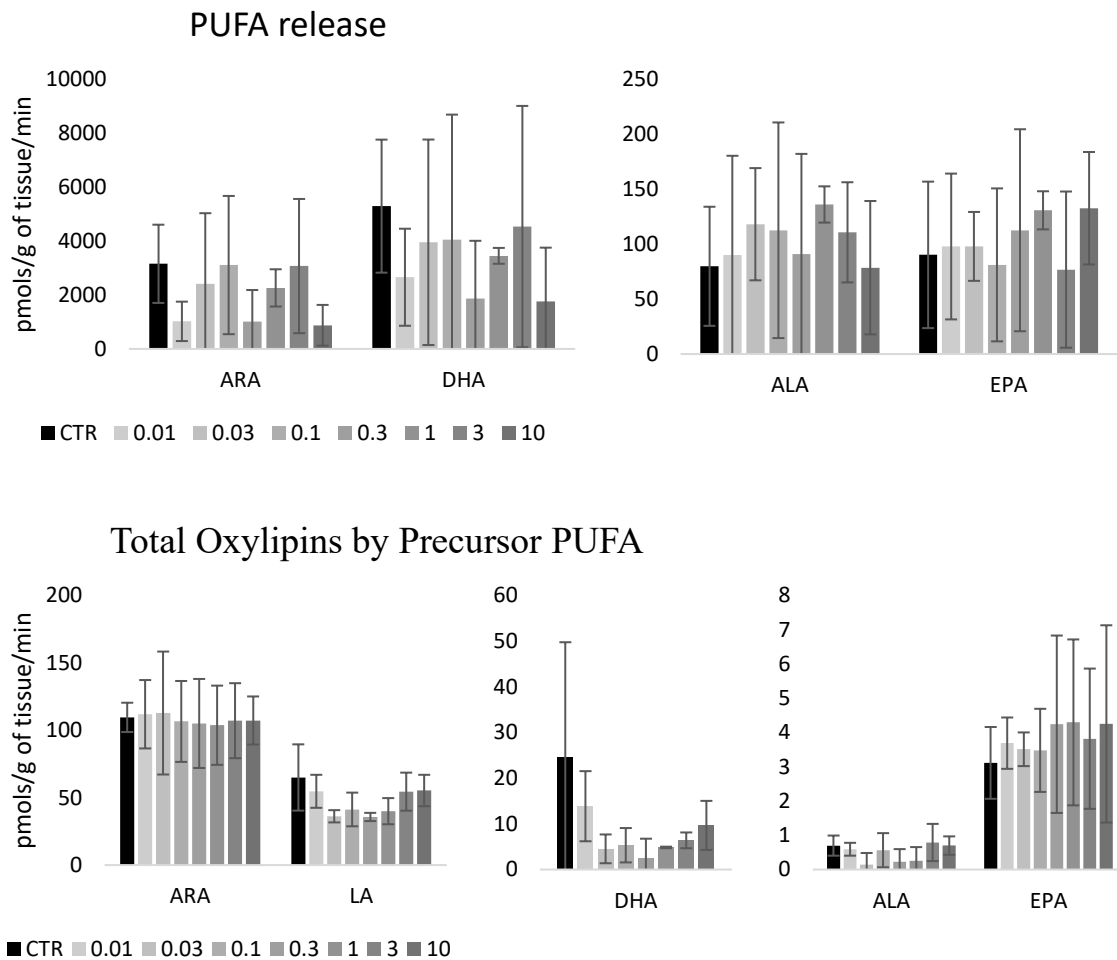
Supplemental Figure 4-1. Representative time course for A) total PUFA release and B) total oxylipins formed in duplicates of the same rat heart. Error bars are SD.



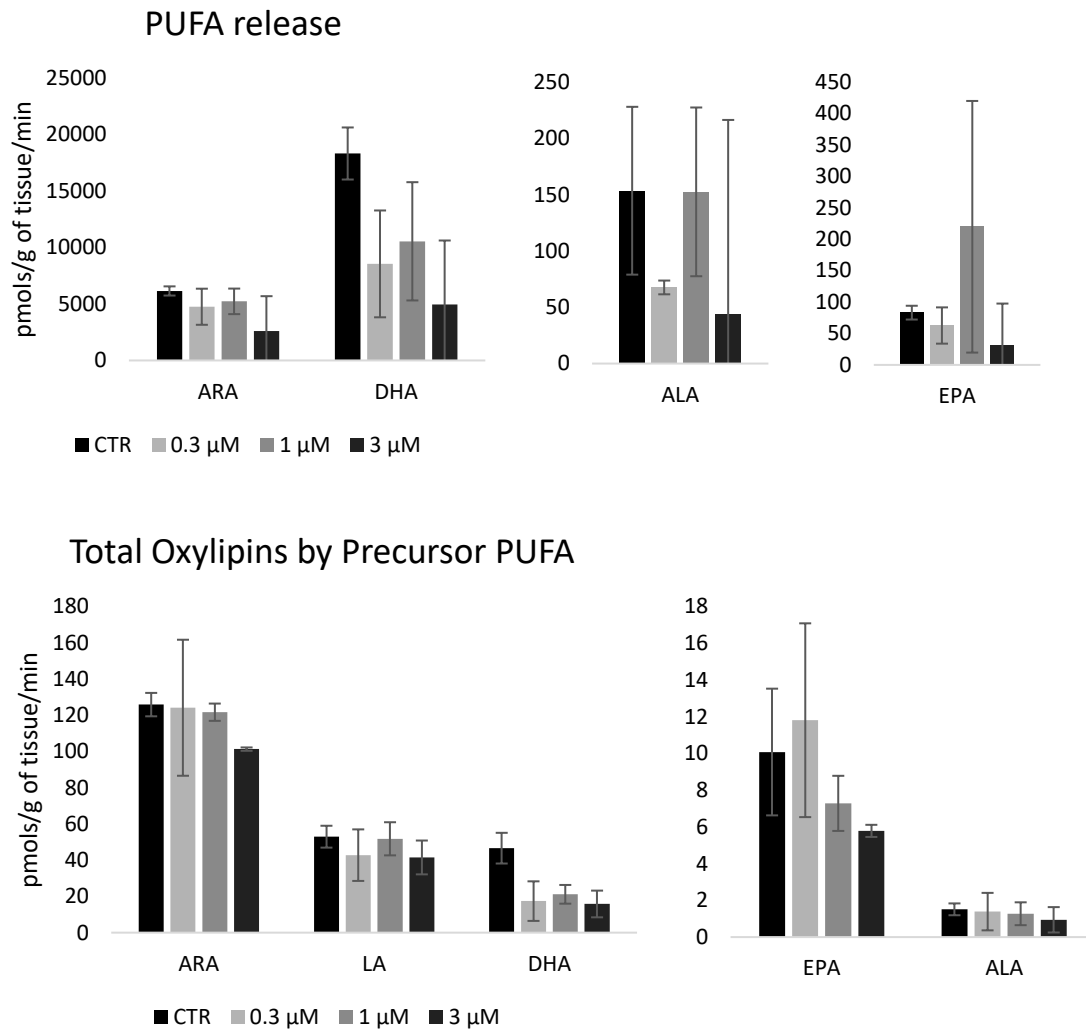
Supplemental Figure 4-2. Effects of specific inhibitors for iPLA₂β, iPLA₂γ, and cPLA₂α on PUFA release and oxylipin formation. Data show one rat heart homogenate analyzed in duplicate (mean ± SD), which was representative of multiple experiments conducted under different conditions (i.e. other incubation times or inhibitor doses). CTR – control samples without inhibitor, S-BEL – 10μM of S-BEL (iPLA₂β inhibitor), R-BEL – 10μM of R-BEL (iPLA₂γ inhibitor), PYR – 10μM Pyrrophenone (cPLA₂α inhibitor).



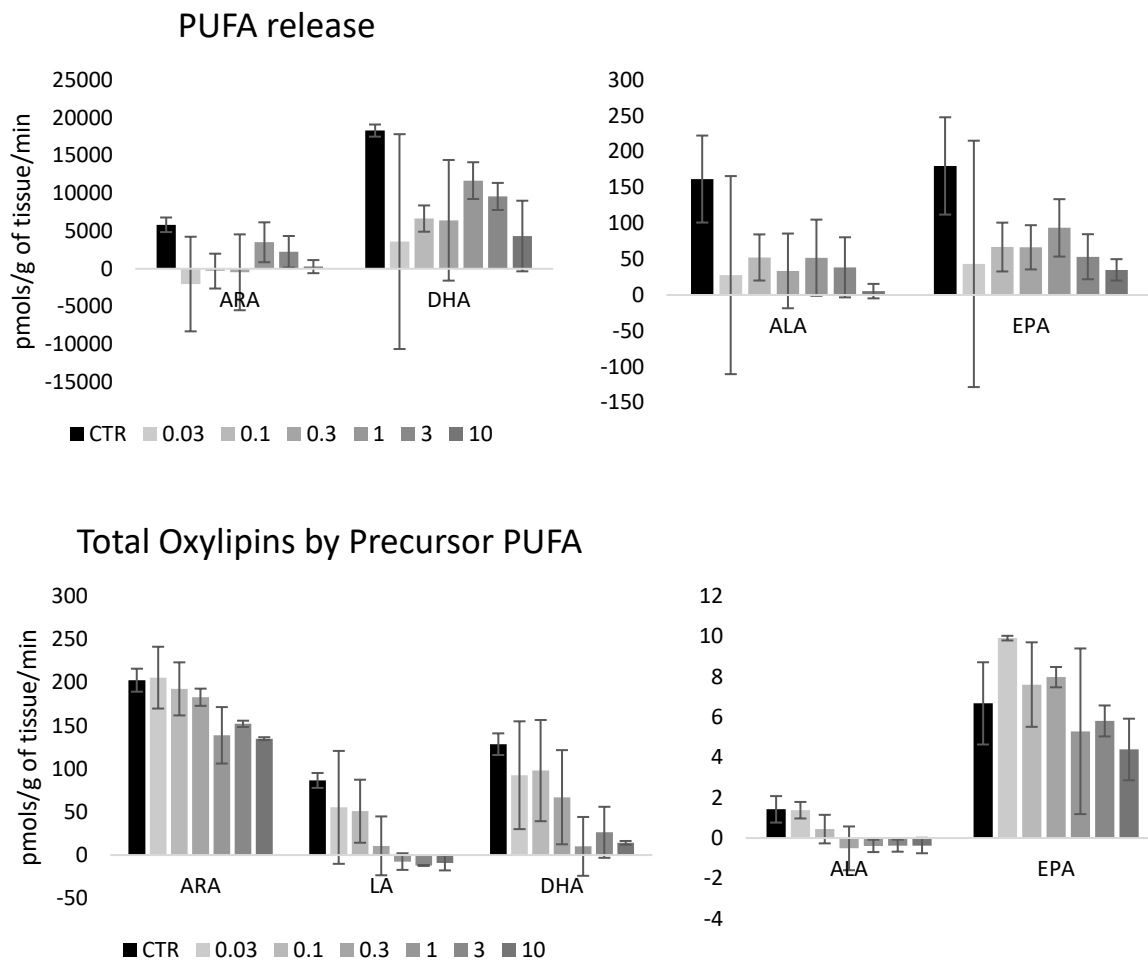
Supplemental Figure 4-3. Effect of dose of VAR, an inhibitor of sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X, on PUFA release and oxylipin formation in rat heart. The results are shown for n=2 with mean±SD. Numbers in the legend indicate dose in μ M.



Supplemental Figure 4-4. Effects of dose of LY311727, another inhibitor for sPLA₂ IIA, V, and X, on PUFA release and oxylipin formation. Data show one rat heart homogenate analyzed in duplicate (mean $\pm$ SD).

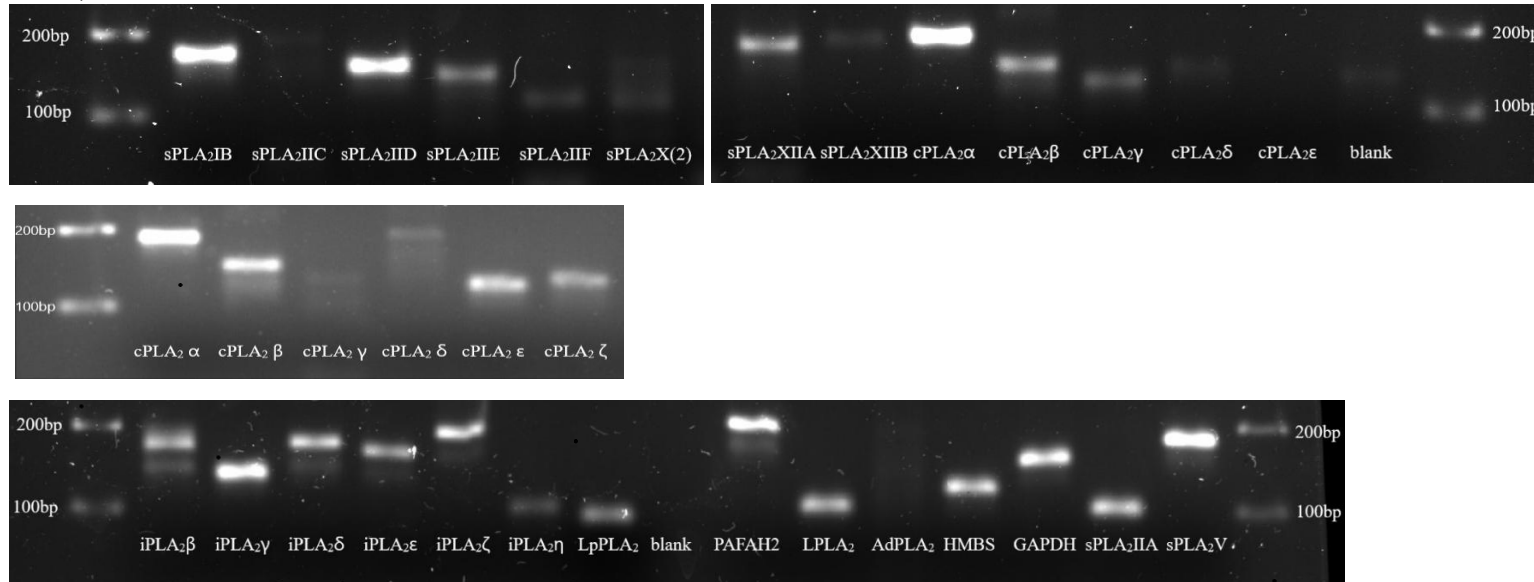


Supplemental Figure 4-5. Effects of dose of MAFP, and inhibitor of cPLA₂ and iPLA₂, on PUFA release and oxylipin formation. Data are from one rat heart homogenate analyzed in duplicate (mean $\pm$ SD). Numbers in the legend indicate dose in μ M.

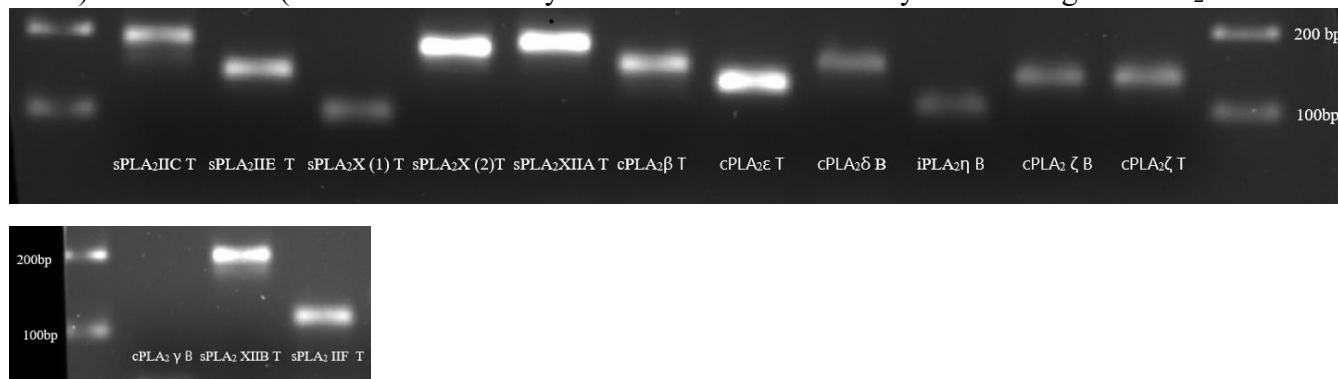


Supplemental Figure 4-6. RT-qPCR products were run in a agarose gel to verify product amplicon length. Amplicon length is reported in Supplemental Table 2 and were generally between 100-200bp. A) Images of gels for results from heart samples. B) Images of gels for results from testis (T) and brain (B) samples to confirm primers of isoforms not found in heart samples.

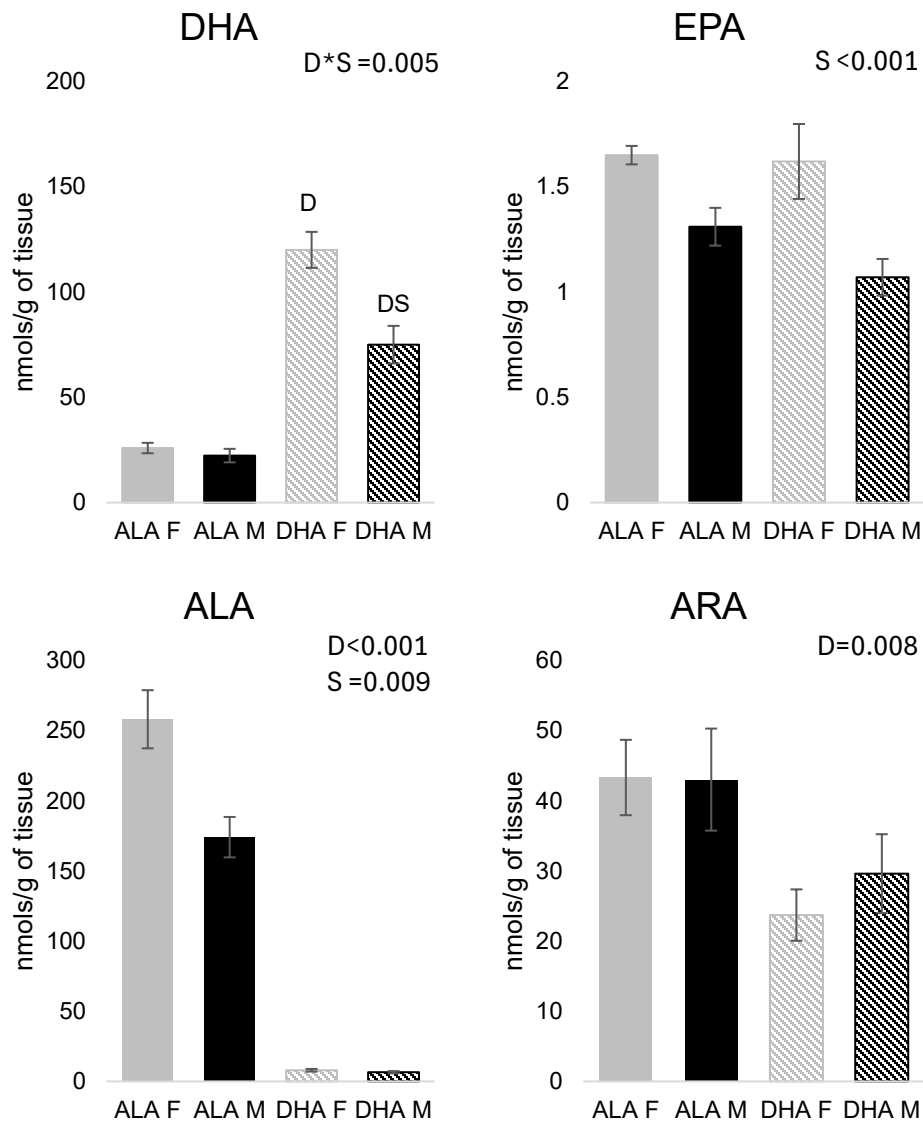
A) Heart results for each PLA₂ isoform:



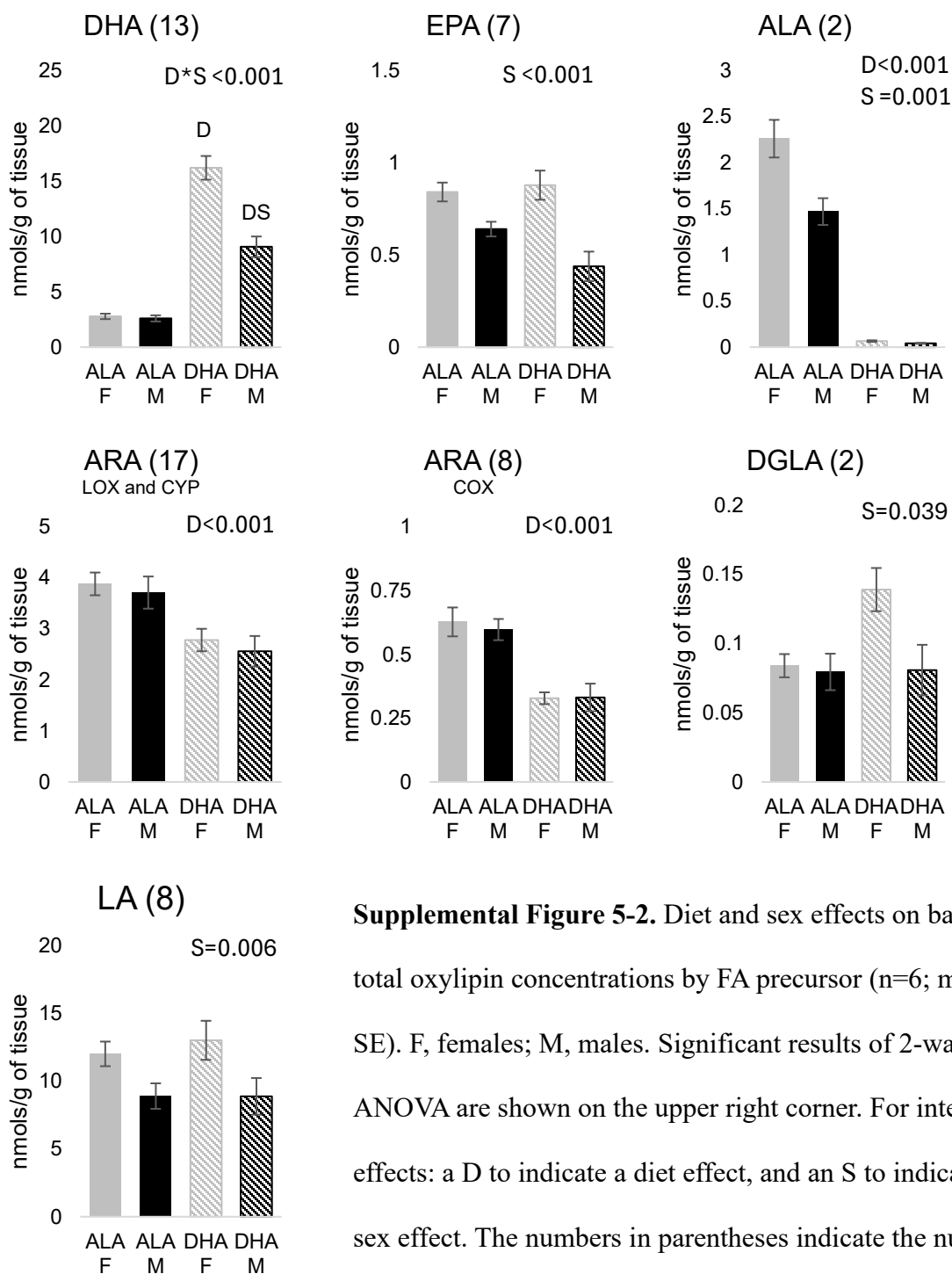
B) Other tissues (Testis is indicated by T and Brain is indicated by B following the PLA₂ isoform abbreviation):



Appendix 4: Supplemental figures and tables for Chapter 5



Supplemental Figure 5-1. Diet and sex effects on baseline FA levels (n=6; mean $\pm$ SE). F, females; M, males. Significant results of 2-way ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner. For interaction effects: a D to indicate a diet effect, and an S to indicate a sex effect.



Supplemental Figure 5-2. Diet and sex effects on baseline total oxylin concentrations by FA precursor (n=6; mean $\pm$ SE). F, females; M, males. Significant results of 2-way ANOVA are shown on the upper right corner. For interaction effects: a D to indicate a diet effect, and an S to indicate a sex effect. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number

Supplemental Table 5-1. Oil amounts and fatty acid composition of diets used.

	ALA diet	DHA diet
<i>Dietary oils (g/100g)</i>		
DHA oil	0.000	1.15
Flax oil	2.29	0.000
Coconut oil	1.98	2.19
Safflower oil	2.42	2.82
Olive oil	0.310	0.840
<i>Analyzed Fatty acids (g/100g)</i>		
SFA	2.35	2.16
MUFA	1.15	1.08
PUFA	3.56	3.54
LA	2.24	2.18
ALA	1.32	0.009
EPA	0.001	0.002
DHA (g/100g diet or %diet wt)	0.000	1.35
ALA and DHA (energy %)	3.16	3.22

AIN93G-based diets were formulated as follows: cornstarch (39.8g/100g), casein (20g/100g), dextrose (13.2g/100g), sucrose (10g/100g), fibre (5g/100g), AIN93G-MX (3.5g/100g), AIN93G-VX (1g/100g), L-cystine (0.3g/100g), choline bitartrate, 41.1% choline (0.25g/100g), TBHQ (0.0014g/100g), oil (7g/100g). Diet fatty acids were analyzed in duplicate.

Supplemental Table 5-2. Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified PUFA in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

		ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
Fatty acids														
DHA	Control	133 ± 11.0	97.1 ± 11.4	205 ± 23.0	155 ± 18.7	S (A:D)								
	MAFP	89.8 ± 7.43	65.4 ± 7.80	132 ± 14.2	103 ± 15.6	*S (A:D)	0.6961	0.0001	0.0172	<0.0001	0.6667	0.0862	0.0303	0.9368
	VAR	32.1 ± 5.39	26.7 ± 4.18	78.0 ± 8.48	65.5 ± 2.95	*\$ (A:D)								
EPA	Control	1.83 ± 0.086	1.40 ± 0.114 s	1.49 ± 0.200	1.04 ± 0.043 ds									
	MAFP	0.739 ± 0.064 *	0.510 ± 0.067 *	0.582 ± 0.080 *	0.422 ± 0.025 *		0.2813	0.0539	0.0023	<0.0001	0.7047	0.0226	0.0265	0.5842
	VAR	1.45 ± 0.085 *\$	0.988 ± 0.055 *\$s	1.24 ± 0.227 *\$	0.951 ± 0.073 \$									
ALA	Control	153 ± 20.1	116 ± 10.4	5.52 ± 0.869	4.69 ± 0.830									
	MAFP	39.6 ± 15.8	26.5 ± 6.51	2.59 ± 0.428	1.65 ± 1.07	*	0.0025 (T)	<0.0001	0.0300	<0.0001	0.1383	0.0513	0.6950	0.1586
	VAR	193 ± 29.9	132 ± 10.8	7.22 ± 1.19	6.24 ± 0.997	\$								
ARA	Control	80.3 ± 8.4	54.3 ± 8.92	43.0 ± 8.02	37.2 ± 4.79									
	MAFP	37.6 ± 5.98	33.3 ± 6.74	24.9 ± 5.20	17.8 ± 3.05	*	0.5670	0.0008	0.0732	<0.0001	0.1549	0.1361	0.2604	0.1298
	VAR	49.5 ± 7.75	31.6 ± 4.06	22.0 ± 5.57	28.9 ± 3.35	*								

Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 µM of VAR (sPLA2 inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily iPLA2 derived), MAFP – 10 µM of MAFP (iPLA2 inhibitor – remaining activity is sPLA2 derived). Complete results of 3-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown. For interaction effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control, a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors, a D to indicate a diet effect, and an S to indicate a sex effect. T indicates a treatment effect. Effects applicable to the treatment group are shown on the post hoc column, with (A:D) indicating results were averaged over diet, (A:S) averaged over sex, or (A:T) averaged over treatment. When a 3-way interaction analysis was conducted, results are shown in superscript, beside mean ± SE with the difference being from the same sex or diet group within that treatment. SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk results and whether log transformation was applied (T), or log + 1 (T+1). Oxylin totals are included for complete display of statistical analysis results. Significant ANOVA p values to be interpreted are highlighted in yellow.

Abbreviations: ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α-linolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; F, female; M, male; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids.

Supplemental Table 5-3. Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

Group		ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
DHA Oxylipins														
4-HDoHE	Control	1.56 ± 0.158	1.34 ± 0.095	3.09 ± 0.479	2.52 ± 0.676		<0.0001 (T)	0.0103	0.8726	<0.0001	0.9470	0.9270	0.1838	0.9631
	MAFP	1.05 ± 0.108	0.843 ± 0.130	1.52 ± 0.195	1.49 ± 0.369	*								
	VAR	0.269 ± 0.046	0.432 ± 0.058	0.797 ± 0.201	0.913 ± 0.199	*\$								
7-HDoHE	Control	0.291 ± 0.051	0.255 ± 0.022	0.507 ± 0.079	0.450 ± 0.129		0.0081 (T+1)	0.0311	0.8717	<0.0001	0.8863	0.0708	0.5236	0.6646
	MAFP	0.212 ± 0.033	0.189 ± 0.033	0.233 ± 0.074	0.258 ± 0.056	*								
	VAR	0.039 ± 0.015	0.084 ± 0.019	0.108 ± 0.042	0.103 ± 0.035	*\$								
8-HDoHE	Control	0.315 ± 0.041	0.239 ± 0.010	0.494 ± 0.096	0.464 ± 0.142		0.0004 (T+1)	0.0589	0.4109	<0.0001	0.7490	0.1095	0.7299	0.9803
	MAFP	0.241 ± 0.029	0.185 ± 0.021	0.254 ± 0.073	0.223 ± 0.062	*								
	VAR	0.088 ± 0.017	0.087 ± 0.012	0.125 ± 0.056	0.132 ± 0.063	*\$								
10-HDoHE	Control	0.417 ± 0.111	0.279 ± 0.025	0.601 ± 0.048	0.395 ± 0.030		0.0001 (T+1)	0.0078	0.0341	<0.0001	0.1797	0.5711	0.1194	0.7448
	MAFP	0.21 ± 0.043	0.189 ± 0.014	0.348 ± 0.051	0.238 ± 0.089	*								
	VAR	0.040 ± 0.014	0.072 ± 0.016	0.186 ± 0.024	0.097 ± 0.045	*\$								
11-HDoHE	Control	0.330 ± 0.070	0.199 ± 0.018	0.521 ± 0.032	0.371 ± 0.040	S	0.0294	0.0001	0.0547	<0.0001	0.4117	0.0636	0.0048	0.7230
	MAFP	0.163 ± 0.027	0.157 ± 0.017	0.276 ± 0.032	0.246 ± 0.067	*(A:D)								
	VAR	0.027 ± 0.010	0.072 ± 0.014	0.149 ± 0.027	0.109 ± 0.018	*\$ (A:D)								
13-HDoHE	Control	0.419 ± 0.107	0.244 ± 0.034	0.64 ± 0.059	0.475 ± 0.035		0.1001 (T+1)	0.0013	0.0694	<0.0001	0.3838	0.1825	0.1705	0.3193
	MAFP	0.215 ± 0.041	0.214 ± 0.016	0.382 ± 0.038	0.351 ± 0.110	*								
	VAR	0.039 ± 0.011	0.067 ± 0.016	0.193 ± 0.038	0.072 ± 0.058	*\$								
14-HDoHE	Control	0.319 ± 0.037	0.273 ± 0.035	0.665 ± 0.143 d	0.493 ± 0.095 d		0.0230 (T+1)	0.0018	0.3368	<0.0001	0.4453	0.0400	0.0060	0.6783
	MAFP	0.241 ± 0.041	0.184 ± 0.027	0.467 ± 0.071 *d	0.282 ± 0.046 *									
	VAR	0.045 ± 0.013 *\$	0.112 ± 0.032 *	0.124 ± 0.054 *\$	0.178 ± 0.022 *									
16-HDoHE	Control	0.375 ± 0.063	0.288 ± 0.025	0.569 ± 0.135	0.473 ± 0.093		0.0015 (T+1)	0.0327	0.4004	<0.0001	0.9222	0.4208	0.0220	0.9000
	MAFP	0.304 ± 0.052	0.187 ± 0.020 *	0.420 ± 0.036	0.271 ± 0.033 *	(A:D)								
	VAR	0.047 ± 0.011 *\$	0.102 ± 0.024 *	0.089 ± 0.083 *\$	0.180 ± 0.077 *	(A:D)								
17-HDoHE	Control	0.909 ± 0.131	0.688 ± 0.084	1.24 ± 0.213	1.08 ± 0.297		0.1717 (T+2)	0.0435	0.6232	<0.0001	0.3918	0.4827	0.0279	0.8024
	MAFP	0.641 ± 0.087 *	0.403 ± 0.046*	0.755 ± 0.131*	0.606 ± 0.132*	(A:D)								
	VAR	0.093 ± 0.029 *\$	0.199 ± 0.052*	0.051 ± 0.123*\$	0.390 ± 0.136*	(A:D)								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
16,17-EpDoPE	Control	4.44 ± 0.430	3.56 ± 0.264	6.7 ± 0.568	6.03 ± 0.628	D								
	MAFP	2.75 ± 0.356	2.15 ± 0.381	3.49 ± 0.949	3.49 ± 0.545	* (A:S)	0.3803	0.0014	0.2727	<0.0001	0.9151	0.0201	0.5701	0.5512
	VAR	0.444 ± 0.088	0.469 ± 0.120	1.69 ± 0.707	1.16 ± 0.221	*\$ (A:S)								
16,17-DiHDoPE	Control	0.0047 ± 0.0021	0.0024 ± 0.0015	0.0134 ± 0.0007 d	0.0063 ± 0.0020 s									
	MAFP	0.0023 ± 0.0014	ND	0.0112 ± 0.0011 d	0.0016 ± 0.0016 *s		0.4302	<0.0001	0.0001	<0.0001	0.0069	0.0194	0.0380	0.4842
	VAR	ND *	ND	0.0034 ± 0.0015 *\$	ND *									
19,20-EpDoPE	Control	0.388 ± 0.056	0.290 ± 0.021	0.537 ± 0.055	0.542 ± 0.067									
	MAFP	0.237 ± 0.038	0.163 ± 0.026	0.345 ± 0.053	0.308 ± 0.079	*	0.6821	0.0006	0.6697	<0.0001	0.4465	0.1403	0.0852	0.7212
	VAR	-0.004 ± 0.017	0.044 ± 0.024	0.0775 ± 0.029	0.144 ± 0.044	*\$								
20-HDoHE	Control	1.13 ± 0.191	0.758 ± 0.089	1.47 ± 0.444	1.45 ± 0.175									
	MAFP	0.759 ± 0.116	0.523 ± 0.120	0.954 ± 0.249	0.794 ± 0.191	*	0.1492 (T+1)	0.1272	0.6773	<0.0001	0.5023	0.7115	0.3953	0.4469
	VAR	0.176 ± 0.051	0.201 ± 0.080	0.409 ± 0.174	0.418 ± 0.089	*\$								
Total DHA Oxylipins	Control	10.9 ± 1.3	8.41 ± 0.542	17.0 ± 1.79	14.7 ± 1.54	D								
	MAFP	7.03 ± 0.809	5.39 ± 0.770	9.46 ± 1.22	8.56 ± 1.43	*D (A:S)	0.3876	0.0001	0.1772	<0.0001	0.9723	0.0073	0.1269	0.8433
	VAR	1.30 ± 0.13	1.94 ± 0.386	4.00 ± 1.21	3.89 ± 0.68	*\$D (A:S)								
EPA Oxylipins														
5-HEPE	Control	0.0163 ± 0.0097	0.0312 ± 0.0097	0.0128 ± 0.00998	0.0226 ± 0.0195									
	MAFP	-0.0152 ± 0.0079	0.0045 ± 0.0088	-0.0025 ± 0.0098	-0.0043 ± 0.012	*	0.0007 (T+1)	0.4256	0.1079	0.0001	0.4476	0.1903	0.2893	0.7402
	VAR	0.0078 ± 0.0055	0.0405 ± 0.0071	-0.0024 ± 0.0105	0.016 ± 0.015	\$								
8-HEPE	Control	0.0191 ± 0.0104	0.0438 ± 0.0455	0.0326 ± 0.0284	0.0392 ± 0.026									
	MAFP	-0.0208 ± 0.0103	0.0341 ± 0.0188	0.018 ± 0.0222	0.0247 ± 0.0159		0.4963	0.7283	0.3034	0.1127	0.4092	0.8248	0.7520	0.7596
	VAR	0.012 ± 0.0203	0.0509 ± 0.0247	0.0342 ± 0.0211	0.0343 ± 0.0238									
11-HEPE	Control	0.242 ± 0.071	0.226 ± 0.0356	0.120 ± 0.024	0.212 ± 0.065									
	MAFP	-0.014 ± 0.038	0.098 ± 0.040	0.036 ± 0.030	0.109 ± 0.060	*	0.8305	0.7803	0.1393	<0.0001	0.9716	0.1465	0.3772	0.2162
	VAR	0.127 ± 0.043	0.181 ± 0.034	0.168 ± 0.035	0.160 ± 0.034	\$								
12-HEPE	Control	0.0384 ± 0.0059	0.0656 ± 0.0187	0.0737 ± 0.0158	0.039 ± 0.0065									
	MAFP	0.0146 ± 0.0267	0.0602 ± 0.0167	0.0604 ± 0.0205	0.0347 ± 0.0078		0.4307	0.7420	0.9013	0.0256	0.0270	0.7636	0.4348	0.7123
	VAR	0.0459 ± 0.020	0.0777 ± 0.0152	0.0883 ± 0.0125	0.0456 ± 0.0101	\$								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
14,15-EpETE	Control	0.0057 ± 0.0025	0.0057 ± 0.0022	0.0019 ± 0.0025	0.0020 ± 0.0019									
	MAFP	-0.0018 ± 0.0020	-0.0029 ± 0.0018	-0.0039 ± 0.0017	-0.0010 ± 0.0019	*	0.6987	0.3497	0.7035	<0.0001	0.6631	0.2294	0.8819	0.5860
	VAR	0.0005 ± 0.0022	0.0014 ± 0.0013	-0.0006 ± 0.0025	0.0006 ± 0.0023	*\$								
17,18-EpETE	Control	0.0057 ± 0.0033	0.0033 ± 0.0022	-0.0014 ± 0.0025	-0.0020 ± 0.0026									
	MAFP	-0.0012 ± 0.0029 *	-0.0033 ± 0.0016 *	-0.0021 ± 0.0035	0.0016 ± 0.0023	(A:S)	0.3201	0.3212	0.9484	0.0070	0.3837	0.0006	0.3644	0.5214
	VAR	0.0009 ± 0.0035 *	-0.0008 ± 0.0010 *	-0.0053 ± 0.0029	-0.0013 ± 0.0034	(A:S)								
18-HEPE	Control	0.116 ± 0.022	0.077 ± 0.006	0.079 ± 0.032	0.042 ± 0.011									
	MAFP	0.032 ± 0.028	0.002 ± 0.016	0.020 ± 0.021	0.021 ± 0.021	*	0.0818	0.1072	0.6570	<0.0001	0.7063	0.1143	0.0939	0.8769
	VAR	0.114 ± 0.021	0.137 ± 0.044	0.051 ± 0.018	0.082 ± 0.035	\$								
Total EPA Oxylipins	Control	0.484 ± 0.121	0.453 ± 0.094	0.318 ± 0.049	0.354 ± 0.082									
	MAFP	-0.006 ± 0.062	0.193 ± 0.053	0.126 ± 0.066	0.186 ± 0.068	*	0.1600	0.4075	0.1685	<0.0001	0.4389	0.0890	0.3309	0.3275
	VAR	0.308 ± 0.041	0.488 ± 0.0673	0.333 ± 0.042	0.337 ± 0.084	\$								
ALA Oxylipins														
9-HOTrE	Control	0.779 ± 0.162	0.54 ± 0.060	0.019 ± 0.004	0.021 ± 0.002	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.111 ± 0.079 *	0.022 ± 0.036 *	0.004 ± 0.003	0.005 ± 0.002	(A:S)	<0.0001 (T+1)	0.0000	0.3252	<0.0001	0.3444	<0.0001	0.6910	0.5906
	VAR	0.871 ± 0.108 *\$	0.826 ± 0.196 *\$	0.030 ± 0.007	0.022 ± 0.004	D (A:S)								
13-HOTrE	Control	0.560 ± 0.168	0.341 ± 0.061	0.016 ± 0.004	0.017 ± 0.007	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	-0.043 ± 0.057 *	0.061 ± 0.034 *	0.002 ± 0.005	0.010 ± 0.005	(A:S)	<0.0001 (T+10)	0.0000	0.6598	<0.0001	0.6150	<0.0001	0.2611	0.2879
	VAR	0.559 ± 0.132 \$	0.544 ± 0.082 \$	0.020 ± 0.003	0.018 ± 0.003	D (A:S)								
TALA	Control	1.34 ± 0.302	0.881 ± 0.104	0.036 ± 0.002 d	0.038 ± 0.009 d		0.9965 (T)	0.0000	0.2504	<0.0001	0.0692	0.0002	0.8548	0.0164
	MAFP	0.068 ± 0.104 *	0.083 ± 0.021 *s	0.005 ± 0.006 *d	0.015 ± 0.005*d									
	VAR	1.43 ± 0.124 \$	1.37 ± 0.249 \$	0.050 ± 0.008 \$d	0.040 ± 0.005 \$d									
ARA COX Oxylipins														
6-keto-PGF _{1α}	Control	0.599 ± 0.077	2.11 ± 0.436	0.66 ± 0.162	1.23 ± 0.231									
	MAFP	0.707 ± 0.095	2.22 ± 0.411	0.593 ± 0.162 *	1.02 ± 0.260 *	(A:S)	0.5788	0.0923	0.0010	0.8148	0.0816	<0.0001	0.5089	0.2642
	VAR	0.586 ± 0.077 \$	2.06 ± 0.406 \$	0.692 ± 0.195 \$	1.29 ± 0.307 \$	(A:S)								
PGD ₂	Control	0.046 ± 0.006	0.070 ± 0.010 s	0.051 ± 0.005	0.046 ± 0.005 d	(A:T)								
	MAFP	0.034 ± 0.007	0.073 ± 0.009 s	0.046 ± 0.005	0.037 ± 0.008 d	(A:T)	0.7178	0.1724	0.0239	0.0463	0.0039	0.2931	0.1584	0.2126
	VAR	0.036 ± 0.004	0.075 ± 0.008 s	0.052 ± 0.006	0.052 ± 0.005 d	(A:T)								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
PGE ₂	Control	0.028 ± 0.003	0.062 ± 0.011	0.022 ± 0.006	0.034 ± 0.005									
	MAFP	0.023 ± 0.005	0.057 ± 0.010	0.017 ± 0.004	0.025 ± 0.006	*	0.0320	0.0211	0.0025	0.0004	0.0844	0.3389	0.1961	0.7705
	VAR	0.023 ± 0.002	0.062 ± 0.012	0.021 ± 0.006	0.034 ± 0.006	\$								
11β-PGE ₂	Control	0.029 ± 0.006	0.059 ± 0.010	0.029 ± 0.004	0.040 ± 0.006	S (A:D)								
	MAFP	0.028 ± 0.005	0.053 ± 0.008 *	0.025 ± 0.003	0.030 ± 0.008 *	(A:D)	0.2998	0.1155	0.0053	0.0007	0.1042	0.4637	0.0109	0.6317
	VAR	0.025 ± 0.003	0.062 ± 0.010 \$	0.029 ± 0.005	0.040 ± 0.007 \$	S (A:D)								
15-keto-PGE ₂	Control	0.0102 ± 0.0025	0.0172 ± 0.0038 s	0.0072 ± 0.0019	0.0081 ± 0.0016 d	(A:T)								
	MAFP	0.0002 ± 0.0018	0.0119 ± 0.0022 s	0.0038 ± 0.0015	0.0029 ± 0.0018 d	(A:T)*	0.0003 (T+1)	0.0068	0.0014	0.0005	0.0062	0.5441	0.4842	0.5607
	VAR	0.0068 ± 0.0040	0.0191 ± 0.0021 s	0.0062 ± 0.0014	0.0093 ± 0.0020 d	(A:T) \$								
PGF _{2α}	Control	0.022 ± 0.002	0.070 ± 0.014	0.022 ± 0.006	0.040 ± 0.009									
	MAFP	0.027 ± 0.004	0.073 ± 0.014	0.023 ± 0.006	0.039 ± 0.010		0.0944 T	0.1293	0.0078	0.4377	0.3660	0.1980	0.2479	0.9935
	VAR	0.022 ± 0.002	0.074 ± 0.018	0.024 ± 0.006	0.046 ± 0.012									
TXB ₂	Control	0.0115 ± 0.0009	0.022 ± 0.0043	0.0063 ± 0.0016	0.0109 ± 0.0010	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.0129 ± 0.0012 *	0.0269 ± 0.0044 *	0.007 ± 0.0019	0.0122 ± 0.0024	D (A:S)	0.2106	0.0034	0.0020	0.0003	0.1720	0.0045	0.1056	0.3553
	VAR	0.0096 ± 0.0010 \$	0.0224 ± 0.0042 \$	0.0063 ± 0.0023	0.0125 ± 0.0016	D (A:S)								
12-HHTrE	Control	0.853 ± 0.076	1.27 ± 0.128	0.475 ± 0.075	0.665 ± 0.088									
	MAFP	0.593 ± 0.124	1.20 ± 0.179	0.343 ± 0.048	0.596 ± 0.148	*	0.0127	0.0003	0.0017	0.0097	0.1753	0.3406	0.2320	0.5705
	VAR	0.643 ± 0.070	1.20 ± 0.137	0.425 ± 0.088	0.656 ± 0.115									
Total ARA COX Oxylinpns	Control	1.54 ± 0.146	3.68 ± 0.599	1.27 ± 0.252	2.07 ± 0.332									
	MAFP	1.42 ± 0.215	3.71 ± 0.628	1.06 ± 0.226	1.77 ± 0.416	D (A:S)	0.1809	0.0213	0.0009	0.0613	0.0845	0.0212	0.7045	0.5153
	VAR	1.35 ± 0.137	3.57 ± 0.580	1.25 ± 0.298 \$	2.14 ± 0.438 \$	(A:S)								
ARA LOX and CYP Oxylinpns														
5-HETE	Control	0.785 ± 0.123	0.885 ± 0.131	0.387 ± 0.074	0.429 ± 0.164									
	MAFP	0.345 ± 0.075	0.388 ± 0.115	0.113 ± 0.0475	0.155 ± 0.098	*	0.1138 (T+1)	0.0001	0.3065	<0.0001	0.7207	0.5898	0.6435	0.9108
	VAR	0.459 ± 0.091	0.662 ± 0.108	0.187 ± 0.036	0.278 ± 0.090	*\$								
8-HETE	Control	0.095 ± 0.026	0.149 ± 0.019	0.043 ± 0.013	0.049 ± 0.028									
	MAFP	0.055 ± 0.015	0.051 ± 0.016	0.005 ± 0.008	0.007 ± 0.016	*	0.0103 (T+1)	<0.0001	0.0677	0.0001	0.1615	0.4777	0.2023	0.3194
	VAR	0.056 ± 0.011	0.120 ± 0.016	0.023 ± 0.011	0.031 ± 0.011	*\$								
9-HETE	Control	0.250 ± 0.048	0.343 ± 0.068	0.094 ± 0.035	0.135 ± 0.0541									
	MAFP	0.119 ± 0.047	0.152 ± 0.043	-0.001 ± 0.017	0.017 ± 0.030	*	0.0568	0.0001	0.0844	<0.0001	0.2952	0.4749	0.4634	0.4137
	VAR	0.135 ± 0.043	0.297 ± 0.059	0.027 ± 0.034	0.042 ± 0.028	*\$								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
11-HETE	Control	0.396 ± 0.105	0.348 ± 0.043	0.146 ± 0.019 d	0.144 ± 0.011 d									
	MAFP	0.135 ± 0.059 *	0.279 ± 0.032 s	0.058 ± 0.016	0.109 ± 0.043 d		0.0175 (T+1)	0.0002	0.0746	<0.0001	0.3066	0.0415	0.0120	0.1367
	VAR	0.129 ± 0.023 *	0.301 ± 0.044 s	0.099 ± 0.0226	0.127 ± 0.035 d									
12-HETE	Control	0.412 ± 0.087	0.599 ± 0.0796	0.243 ± 0.085	0.285 ± 0.056									
	MAFP	0.33 ± 0.155	0.532 ± 0.0877	0.203 ± 0.078	0.259 ± 0.064		0.4817	0.0195	0.1735	0.1116	0.3927	0.1767	0.4950	0.4602
	VAR	0.313 ± 0.088	0.583 ± 0.098	0.278 ± 0.093	0.314 ± 0.059									
15-HETE	Control	0.859 ± 0.189	0.654 ± 0.097	0.356 ± 0.073	0.287 ± 0.081	(A:D)								
	MAFP	0.419 ± 0.141 *	0.266 ± 0.070 *	0.121 ± 0.043 *	0.092 ± 0.049 *	(A:D)	0.0954	0.0002	0.8861	0.0001	0.8609	0.2981	0.0268	0.3841
	VAR	0.401 ± 0.085 *	0.687 ± 0.154 \$	0.127 ± 0.066 *	0.233 ± 0.103 \$	(A:D)								
6-trans-LTB ₄	Control	0.022 ± 0.003	0.021 ± 0.004	0.014 ± 0.006	0.006 ± 0.004	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.014 ± 0.002 *	0.011 ± 0.002 *	0.011 ± 0.005	0.008 ± 0.004	(A:S)	0.0146	0.1218	0.6466	0.0260	0.4111	0.0126	0.1222	0.2516
	VAR	0.009 ± 0.004 *	0.017 ± 0.003 *	0.013 ± 0.005	0.010 ± 0.004	(A:S)								
6-trans-12epi-LTB ₄	Control	0.038 ± 0.008	0.050 ± 0.008	0.030 ± 0.012	0.027 ± 0.007									
	MAFP	0.018 ± 0.012	0.025 ± 0.005	0.008 ± 0.012	0.009 ± 0.009	*	0.1398	0.1959	0.3776	<0.0001	0.4630	0.1904	0.3439	0.7465
	VAR	0.015 ± 0.005	0.036 ± 0.008	0.019 ± 0.011	0.025 ± 0.005	*\$								
LTB ₄	Control	0.0092 ± 0.0027	0.012 ± 0.0038	0.0036 ± 0.0007	0.0065 ± 0.0027									
	MAFP	0.0015 ± 0.0022	0.0036 ± 0.0016	0.0032 ± 0.0023	0.0033 ± 0.0031	*	0.5420	0.1678	0.0541	0.0094	0.6650	0.1614	0.1686	0.9005
	VAR	0.0041 ± 0.0031	0.0126 ± 0.0025	0.0025 ± 0.0014	0.0082 ± 0.0034	\$								
6S-LXA ₄	Control	0.075 ± 0.019	0.064 ± 0.026	0.034 ± 0.012	0.017 ± 0.018									
	MAFP	-0.006 ± 0.012	0.021 ± 0.009	0.020 ± 0.020	-0.002 ± 0.016	*	0.0136 (T+1)	0.0181	0.7763	0.0046	0.3047	0.1605	0.4022	0.6809
	VAR	0.057 ± 0.020	0.088 ± 0.030	0.019 ± 0.016	0.033 ± 0.023	\$								
5,6-EpETrE	Control	0.322 ± 0.036	0.283 ± 0.041	0.092 ± 0.020	0.180 ± 0.068	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.083 ± 0.035 *	0.070 ± 0.011 *	0.025 ± 0.015 *	0.059 ± 0.016 *	(A:S)	0.0008 (T+1)	0.0003	0.2146	<0.0001	0.1170	0.0025	0.6352	0.4765
	VAR	0.136 ± 0.019 *\$	0.159 ± 0.023 *\$	0.039 ± 0.007 *	0.100 ± 0.013 *	D (A:S)								
8,9-EpETrE	Control	0.105 ± 0.010	0.084 ± 0.017	0.032 ± 0.006	0.054 ± 0.021	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.031 ± 0.016 *	0.018 ± 0.006 *	0.006 ± 0.002 *	0.019 ± 0.007 *	(A:S)	0.0052 (T+1)	0.0006	0.5200	<0.0001	0.0760	0.0162	0.4112	0.7217
	VAR	0.056 ± 0.012 *\$	0.060 ± 0.011 *\$	0.010 ± 0.002	0.036 ± 0.009	D (A:S)								
11,12-EpETrE	Control	0.031 ± 0.006	0.027 ± 0.005	0.010 ± 0.002	0.011 ± 0.001	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.015 ± 0.004 *	0.008 ± 0.002 *	0.004 ± 0.001 *	0.004 ± 0.001 *	D(A:S)	0.0244	0.0002	0.7502	<0.0001	0.2516	0.0002	0.2691	0.8589
	VAR	0.011 ± 0.002 *	0.011 ± 0.002 *	0.003 ± 0.001 *	0.007 ± 0.003 *	(A:S)								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
14,15-EpETrE	Control	0.213 ± 0.029	0.187 ± 0.012	0.061 ± 0.006 d	0.088 ± 0.015 d									
	MAFP	0.102 ± 0.017 *	0.060 ± 0.012 *	0.018 ± 0.009 *d	0.038 ± 0.007 *		0.0514	<0.0001	0.6346	<0.0001	0.0293	<0.0001	0.0559	0.7065
	VAR	0.070 ± 0.013 *	0.079 ± 0.007 *	0.020 ± 0.006 *d	0.065 ± 0.018									
14,15-DiHETrE	Control	0.0040 ± 0.0005	0.0032 ± 0.0002	0.0018 ± 0.0004	0.0020 ± 0.0002	D (A:S)								
	MAFP	0.0020 ± 0.0007 *	0.0015 ± 0.0003 *	0.0007 ± 0.0005 *	0.0005 ± 0.0003 *	D(A:S)	0.8664	0.0022	0.4839	<0.0001	0.3798	0.0359	0.6709	0.4355
	VAR	0.0025 ± 0.0003 *\$	0.0021 ± 0.0003 *\$	0.0013 ± 0.0005 \$	0.0016 ± 0.0003 \$	(A:S)								
16-HETE	Control	0.080 ± 0.013	0.066 ± 0.012	0.033 ± 0.017	0.035 ± 0.012	(A:D)								
	MAFP	0.026 ± 0.012 *	0.028 ± 0.0051 *	0.021 ± 0.007 *	0.013 ± 0.010 *	(A:D)	0.1616	0.0165	0.5055	0.0001	0.8497	0.0978	0.0221	0.4153
	VAR	0.038 ± 0.014 *	0.076 ± 0.020 \$	0.018 ± 0.012 *	0.038 ± 0.011 \$	(A:D)								
18-HETE	Control	0.0061 ± 0.0031	0.0007 ± 0.0011	0.0015 ± 0.0016	0.0011 ± 0.0008									
	MAFP	-0.0018 ± 0.0021 *	-0.0014 ± 0.0006 *	0.0019 ± 0.0023	0.0002 ± 0.0010		0.0289	0.5591	0.0917	0.0008	0.7513	0.0132	0.3356	0.1648
	VAR	0.0065 ± 0.0016 \$	0.0035 ± 0.0020 \$	0.0039 ± 0.0014	0.0003 ± 0.0011									
Total ARA LOX + CYP Oxylipins	Control	3.63 ± 0.516	3.78 ± 0.361	1.58 ± 0.277	1.76 ± 0.303									
	MAFP	1.69 ± 0.431	1.91 ± 0.270	0.617 ± 0.149	0.792 ± 0.201		0.4978	<0.0001	0.1413	<0.0001	0.6041	0.0423	0.0981	0.4253
	VAR	1.90 ± 0.245	3.19 ± 0.425	0.889 ± 0.238	1.35 ± 0.265									
DGLA Oxylipins														
8-HETrE	Control	0.041 ± 0.006	0.052 ± 0.018	0.021 ± 0.005	0.042 ± 0.018									
	MAFP	0.007 ± 0.003	0.029 ± 0.013	-0.007 ± 0.004	0.021 ± 0.010 *	*	0.0033 (T+10)	0.2079	0.0482	<0.0001	0.6087	0.8440	0.5658	0.9361
	VAR	0.031 ± 0.007	0.040 ± 0.012	0.015 ± 0.005	0.038 ± 0.011	\$								
15-HETrE	Control	0.037 ± 0.005	0.037 ± 0.004	0.034 ± 0.012	0.041 ± 0.006									
	MAFP	0.017 ± 0.006	0.011 ± 0.006	0.014 ± 0.007	0.016 ± 0.005 *	*	0.5828	0.8649	0.2174	<0.0001	0.9748	0.8385	0.0985	0.4837
	VAR	0.029 ± 0.006	0.055 ± 0.013	0.031 ± 0.012	0.044 ± 0.008	\$								
Total DGLA Oxylipins	Control	0.078 ± 0.010	0.089 ± 0.018	0.055 ± 0.016	0.083 ± 0.018									
	MAFP	0.023 ± 0.008	0.041 ± 0.011	0.007 ± 0.009	0.037 ± 0.013 *	*	0.4776	0.2546	0.0260	<0.0001	0.6817	0.9621	0.5963	0.8367
	VAR	0.059 ± 0.008	0.095 ± 0.022	0.047 ± 0.014	0.081 ± 0.016	\$								
LA Oxylipins														
9-HODE	Control	1.62 ± 0.539	1.43 ± 0.200	0.923 ± 0.348	1.53 ± 0.187									
	MAFP	0.239 ± 0.214	0.285 ± 0.075	0.457 ± 0.212	0.465 ± 0.154 *	*	0.5373 (T+1)	0.9009	0.4299	<0.0001	0.8012	0.1283	0.5480	0.1779
	VAR	1.47 ± 0.214	1.78 ± 0.398	1.56 ± 0.331	1.42 ± 0.230	\$								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

	Group	ALA F	ALA M	DHA F	DHA M	Post hoc	SW	Diet	Sex	Treatment (Treat)	Diet* Sex	Diet* Treat	Sex* Treat	Diet*Sex *Treat
13-HODE	Control	3.62 ± 0.555	2.18 ± 0.449	2.03 ± 0.343	2.68 ± 0.532									
	MAFP	0.412 ± 0.607	0.423 ± 0.416	-0.675 ± 0.55	0.721 ± 0.458	*	0.3035	0.1632	0.8272	<0.0001	0.0280	0.9638	0.1883	0.7836
	VAR	3.89 ± 0.799	3.14 ± 0.259	2.69 ± 0.27	3.27 ± 0.329	*\$								
9,10,13-TriHOME	Control	0.553 ± 0.166	0.706 ± 0.142	0.241 ± 0.1	0.628 ± 0.161	(A:D)								
	MAFP	-0.121 ± 0.097 *	0.035 ± 0.020 *	-0.234 ± 0.102 *	0.0092 ± 0.087 *	(A:D)	0.1325 (T+1)	0.0900	0.1459	<0.0001	0.5322	0.3551	0.0428	0.9116
	VAR	1.34 ± 0.636 *\$	0.986 ± 0.186 \$	0.572 ± 0.139 *\$	0.598 ± 0.139 \$	(A:D)								
9,12,13-TriHOME	Control	0.641 ± 0.206	0.848 ± 0.117	0.278 ± 0.171	0.706 ± 0.126									
	MAFP	-0.077 ± 0.134	0.073 ± 0.045	-0.344 ± 0.151	0.109 ± 0.081	*	0.4809	0.1072	0.0571	<0.0001	0.6836	0.5794	0.5809	0.2789
	VAR	0.869 ± 0.179	1.13 ± 0.171	0.691 ± 0.281	0.746 ± 0.141	*\$								
9,10-EpOME	Control	0.487 ± 0.065	0.425 ± 0.050	0.291 ± 0.046	0.419 ± 0.086									
	MAFP	-0.062 ± 0.047	-0.002 ± 0.027	-0.093 ± 0.043	0.020 ± 0.047	*	<0.0001 (T+1)	0.2823	0.5844	<0.0001	0.3061	0.5959	0.2424	0.8653
	VAR	0.772 ± 0.352	0.504 ± 0.082	0.445 ± 0.043	0.482 ± 0.086	*\$								
9,10-DiHOME	Control	0.037 ± 0.006	0.025 ± 0.003	0.029 ± 0.006	0.031 ± 0.003									
	MAFP	0.009 ± 0.003 *	0.008 ± 0.003 *	0.007 ± 0.002 *	0.009 ± 0.001 *		<0.0001 (T+1)	0.3559	0.1531	<0.0001	0.0792	0.1600	0.0568	0.0454
	VAR	0.060 ± 0.018 *\$	0.025 ± 0.002 \$s	0.029 ± 0.004 \$d	0.031 ± 0.005 \$									
12,13-EpOME	Control	0.251 ± 0.048	0.294 ± 0.023	0.176 ± 0.064	0.302 ± 0.047									
	MAFP	0.015 ± 0.011	0.0108 ± 0.031	-0.071 ± 0.040	0.059 ± 0.034	*	0.3533	0.6647	0.0498	<0.0001	0.1341	0.7422	0.9041	0.8915
	VAR	0.242 ± 0.070	0.257 ± 0.023	0.201 ± 0.061	0.314 ± 0.058	\$								
12,13-DiHOME	Control	0.052 ± 0.016	0.029 ± 0.003	0.032 ± 0.007	0.035 ± 0.004									
	MAFP	0.009 ± 0.004	0.009 ± 0.004	0.008 ± 0.004	0.011 ± 0.002	*	0.0004 (T+1)	0.7669	0.3200	<0.0001	0.2230	0.3733	0.0646	0.1403
	VAR	0.046 ± 0.013	0.027 ± 0.004	0.038 ± 0.004	0.036 ± 0.005	\$								
Total LA Oxylipins	Control	7.26 ± 1.21	5.93 ± 0.799	4.00 ± 0.836	6.34 ± 1.01									
	MAFP	0.425 ± 0.510	0.842 ± 0.346	-0.945 ± 0.849	1.40 ± 0.643	*	0.5204	0.1037	0.3939	<0.0001	0.1028	0.4444	0.3954	0.5710
	VAR	8.69 ± 1.54	7.85 ± 1.00	6.22 ± 0.855	6.90 ± 0.924	*\$								

Supplemental Table 5-3 (cont). Effects of sex and dietary ALA and DHA on PLA₂ activity towards non-esterified oxylipins in rat hearts (n=6; mean ± SE).

Treatments: Control – incubation without inhibitor, VAR – 0.1 µM of VAR (sPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily iPLA₂ derived), MAFP – 10 µM of MAFP (iPLA₂ inhibitor – remaining activity is primarily sPLA₂ derived). Complete results of 3-way repeated measures ANOVA are shown. For interaction effects, relevant differences as determined by BH post hoc tests were denoted with a * to indicate differences from Control, a \$ to indicate differences between inhibitors, a D to indicate a diet effect, and an S to indicate a sex effect. T indicates a treatment effect. Effects applicable to the treatment group are shown on the post hoc column, with (A:D) indicating results were averaged over diet, (A:S) averaged over sex, or (A:T) averaged over treatment. When a 3-way interaction analysis was conducted, results are shown in superscript, beside mean ± SE with the difference being from the same sex or diet group within that treatment. SW column shows the Shapiro-Wilk results and whether log transformation was applied (T), or log + 1 (T+1). Oxylipin totals are included for complete display of statistical analysis results. Significant ANOVA p values to be interpreted are highlighted in yellow. Abbreviations: ARA, arachidonic acid; ALA, α-linolenic acid; COX, cyclooxygenase; CYP, cytochrome P450; DGLA, dihomο-γ-linolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; DiHDoPE, dihydroxy-docosapentaenoic acid; DiHDoHE, dihydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; DiHETE, dihydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; DiHETrE, dihydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; DiHODE, dihydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; diHOME, dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; EpDoPE, epoxy-docosapentaenoic acid; EpETrE, epoxy-eicosatrienoic acid; EpODE, epoxy-octadecadienoic acid; EpOME, epoxy-octadecenoic acid; F, females; HDoHE, hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid; HEPE, hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid; HETE, hydroxy-eicosatetraenoic acid; HETrE, hydroxy-eicosatrienoic acid; HHTrE, hydroxy-heptadecatrienoic acid; HODE, hydroxy-octadecadienoic acid; HOTrE, hydroxy-octadecatrienoic acid; HX, hexoxilin; LA, linoleic acid; LOX, lipoxygenase; LT, leukotriene; LX, lipoxin; M, males; MAFP, methyl arachidonyl fluorophosphonate; PG, prostaglandin; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; triHOME, trihydroxy-octadecenoic acid; TX, thromboxane; VAR, varespladib.