Intake of Palmitic Acid and Its association with Metabolic Flexibility in Middle-Aged Individuals: A Preliminary Study

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Abstract

Background: Disparities in data regarding the health effects of dietary fats may arise from the distinct roles various dietary fatty acids play in metabolic flexibility (MF).

Objective: This study aimed to assess the relationship between dietary palmitic acid (PA) intake and its association with body fat deposition and MF in middle-aged healthy individuals.

Methods: Fifteen healthy participants (n=15; 6 males, 9 females) with a mean age of 54 were enlisted. They were subjected to graded exercise tests using a cycle ergometer coupled with a calorimeter. Respiratory gas exchange was evaluated to determine two MF parameters. First, the MF index (MFI) was derived by multiplying peak fatty acid oxidation (PFO) per kg of fat-free mass (FFM) with the percentage of VO2max at PFO. The second parameter, Peak Energy Substrates’ Oxidation (PESO), was computed by aggregating the kilocalories from PFO and Peak Carbohydrate Oxidation (PCO), normalized per kg FFM. Dietary intake was gauged using a 7-day dietary record. Spearman’s regression was employed to analyze the association between dietary intake of specific fat classes, PA, MF parameters, and body fat percentage.

Results: Preliminary results demonstrate that dietary saturated fatty acids (SFA) within physiological limits correlate with enhanced substrate oxidation capacity. This suggests augmented MF in middle-aged subjects. Among dietary SFAs, PA was identified as the primary factor in this favorable correlation.

Conclusions: Our initial observations, even though preliminary, strongly suggest a beneficial association between PA intake, MF, and body fat percentage. This underscores the potential nutritional importance of PA in promoting MF.
Introduction
Multiple epidemiological investigations have demonstrated a correlation between increased dietary fat consumption and elevated body mass index (BMI) in humans (Bray and Popkin, 1998). The predominant American diet sources approximately 35-40% of its caloric intake from fats (Reeves, 1997). This exceeds the recommended threshold of 30% of total energy derived from fats (Hooper et al., 2020) as also recently pointed out by WHO (World Health, 2023) even though strongly criticized (Ludwig et al., 2023). An increase in obesity rates in the United States has coincided with a decline in fat and calorie intake, a phenomenon termed the "American paradox" (Heini and Weinsier, 1997). A recent comprehensive review examining dietary patterns in relation to non-communicable disease onset found an inverse correlation between animal fat consumption and these diseases (Lee et al., 2022). The existing disparities in data on dietary fat could be attributed to the varied roles that dietary fatty acids (FA) exert, especially in modulating inflammatory pathways and insulin resistance (IR). Additionally, bioactive metabolites originating from FA can influence lipid and energy metabolism through the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)-α and endocannabinoid (EC) systems (Banni and Di Marzo, 2010, Tsuboi et al., 2018).

A high intake of saturated fatty acids (SFA) correlates with elevated endogenous cholesterol production and blood lipoprotein cholesterol concentrations, potentially resulting in lipotoxicity, cellular impairment, and the onset of metabolic syndrome. However, some randomized controlled trials did not identify a relationship between diminished SFA consumption and reduced overall or cardiovascular-related mortality (Astrup et al., 2020). As such, dietary fats, especially PA, appear to profoundly impact lipid and energy metabolism, and subsequently, metabolic adaptability under various pathophysiological contexts.

Our recent findings suggest that in obese rats dietary PA enhances metabolic flexibility (MF) pointing to a unique nutritional influence exerted by PA (Carta et al., 2023).

In the present research, our objective was to determine if dietary PA, in ostensibly healthy individuals, correlates with changes in body fat deposition and MF. The latter was evaluated using two novel parameters identified through metabolimetric analysis and previously studied in middle-aged athletes with varied exercise intensities (submitted for publication): 1) The Metabolic Flexibility Index (MFI): computed as the product of peak FA oxidation (PFO) normalized for kg of fat-free mass (FFM) and the percentage of VO2max at PFO, reflecting the relative PFO as the ability to utilize FA as substrates increases with the incremental %VO2max. 2) Peak Energy Substrates’ Oxidation (PESO): determined by adding the kilocalories from PFO and Peak Carbohydrate Oxidation (PCO), normalized per kg of FFM, representing the utmost capability to oxidize both primary energy substrates.

Materials and methods

Population and recruitment
The present study was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki and all procedures involving individuals were approved by the ethical committee of A.O.U.CA (Azienda Ospedaliera Universitaria di Cagliari). The trial was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (prot no. NCT06012227). Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects. Healthy individuals (n=15, 6M, 9F) were recruited from the Coronary Intensive Care Unit (UTIC) of the University Hospital of Cagliari, see table 1 for anthropometric characteristics. No subjects reported metabolic dysfunction nor were on medication.
**Metabolimetric analysis**
Following an overnight fast of at least 12 hours, volunteers undergo a maximal cardiopulmonary exercise test (CPET) during a cyclo-ergometer (Ergoline Bosch 500, Berlin, Germany) incremental test. Oxygen consumption (VO2) and carbon dioxide production (VCO2) were collected by a breath-by-breath analysis (Ergostik, Geratherm Medical AG, Geschwenda, Germany) and heart rate was continuously recorded by a 12-lead electrocardiogram (Mortara X-Scribe stress test, Milwaukee, WI, USA) under the supervision of a cardiologist. Blood pressure measurements were carried out at rest, during exercise and recovery.

After a 3 min resting period the subjects started pedaling at 60 rpm with the workload progressively increased to 15 up or 30 watts every 5 min (to allow the achievement of a metabolic steady state) until volitional exhaustion, indicated by the subject’s inability to maintain a pedalling rate of at least 50 rpm.

**Maximal oxygen consumption**
Along testing, the gas-analyzer provided averaged data every 5-7 seconds. The acquired data were collected and analyzed by averaging the amount of the last 1 minute of each step. The results obtained were then interfaced with the relative power held by the athlete and reported on Cartesian graphs, which showed the workload on the abscissa and the oxygen consumption on ordered axis. The calculated VO2max was considered valid if it met the achievement of these two criteria: 1) respiratory exchange ratio >1.10; and 2) a HR ± 10 beats/min (bpm) of predicted maximum HR calculated as 220 minus the age (Howley et al., 1995).

**Fatty Acid (FA) and Carbohydrate (CH) Oxidation Rate Analyses**
For the measurement of total FAO and CHO, stoichiometric equations were applied according to the methodology described by Frayn (Frayn, 1983).

We assessed two measurable parameters of MF (methodology under publication): 1) the metabolic flexibility index (MFI) calculated by the product between %VO2max at PFO and PFO, normalized per kg of FFM. MFI could be considered to represent a unifying numerically measurable parameter for MF, displaying the ability to use FA as energy substrate during incremental exercise. 2) by evaluating the combination of PFO and PCO levels, we calculated the Peak of Energy Substrates’ Oxidation (PESO), expressed in kilocalories (kcal) and obtained by the sum between PFO and PCO, normalized per kg of FFM.

**Bioelectrical impedance analysis (BIA)**
BIA was performed by Handy 3000 (DS Medica S.r.l., Milano, Italy). A constant current source at a frequency of 50 kHz and 100 kHz and 0,8 mÅ was applied to estimate body composition.

**Food diary**
A comprehensive analysis of food consumption was conducted by implementing a 7-day dietary recording method. Participants were directed to meticulously record their daily dietary consumption in a dedicated diary and present it in a tabular format categorized into five primary daily meals. The dietary data recorded in the food diary were then analyzed using the WinFood software, Medimatica S.u.r.l., Colonnella (TE).

**Statistical Analysis**
Data are expressed as mean ± Standard Deviation (SD). Data were analysed using the GraphPad Prism 8.0.1 software (La Jolla, CA, USA). Correlations between PESO and the intake of different lipid classes, SFA, monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) and PUFA were assessed using the Spearman
correlation coefficient with a 95% CI. Statistical significances were indicated as follows: * p ≤ 0.05; ** p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001.

Results
Spearman’ regression analysis between PESO and the intake of different lipid classes, SFA, MUFA and PUFA (Figure 1) showed a positive correlation between PESO and dietary SFA (R=0.573, p=0.026), PESO and dietary PA (R=0.549, p=0.036). Quite interesting was the correlation between PESO and the dietary ratio SFA/PUFA (R=0.549, p=0.036).

However, no significant correlation was found between dietary intake of total fat or any of the macronutrients and PESO (Figure 2).

We therefore evaluated whether dietary fat classes, SFA, MUFA and PUFA were correlated to body fat % (Figure 3). Data showed an inverse correlation with dietary SFA (R= -0.566, p=0.030), PA and MUFA (R= -0.601, p=0.017) but not with PUFA (R= -0.340, p=0.214).

Figure 3E Clearly show an inverse correlation between PESO and % of Body Fat. On the other hand, we didn’t find any significant correlation between MFI and dietary fat classes or PA intake (data not shown).

Discussion
Metabolic flexibility is defined as the organism’s ability to adeptly adjust to variations in metabolic or energy requirements based on prevailing conditions or activities (Olson et al., 2016). This flexibility can also be conceptualized as the capacity to alternate between energy substrates—FA and carbohydrates—contingent on metabolic conditions, training status, and nutrient presence. The primary impetus behind this substrate alternation is the transition between catabolic and anabolic processes, facilitating efficient energy storage in skeletal muscle, adipose tissue, and hepatic tissue.

Our initial findings indicate that dietary SFA within a physiological threshold correlate with a superior ability for substrate oxidation, which in turn implies enhanced MF in middle-aged individuals. Among dietary SFA, PA appears to be the principal contributor to this positive correlation. MF represents the capacity of organisms to discern, preserve, and utilize energy substrates based on availability and requirement (Kelley, 2005). Consequently, by enhancing optimal fat deposition, MF might elucidate its association with body fat percentage. Indeed, it provides not only a window into efficient energy substrate use but also reflects the proficiency in their storage. This ensures metabolic equilibrium post demanding activities, fostering synergistic interactions between adipose and muscular tissues, mitigating dynapenia (muscular atrophy), and promoting optimal body composition.

Remarkably, both SFA and MUFA displayed an inverse relationship with body fat percentage. One could postulate a pivotal role of certain metabolites derived from these FA, specifically palmitoylethanolamide (PEA) and oleoylethanolamide (OEA), in bolstering MF. The enhancement in MF could stem from the activation of particular receptors such as PPAR-α, amplifying FA beta-oxidation and, subsequently, more efficient glucose utilization. This might elucidate the observed inverse correlation between PESO and body mass percentage. Notably, our recent observations indicated that augmented dietary PA led to a rise in PEA and OEA levels in the muscular tissues of obese rodents, which corresponded with enhanced MF (Carta et al., 2023).

Contrary to expectations, PUFA did not demonstrate a correlation with either MF or body fat percentage. Future research endeavors should prioritize assessing, via intervention studies, if altering the PUFA omega-6 to omega-3 ratio might influence this trend favorably towards MF. In previous studies, we established that krill oil intake, abundant in PUFA omega-3 eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n3, EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n3, DHA) in phospholipid form, can ameliorate
glucose and lipid metabolism by suppressing EC biosynthesis in both animals and humans (Banni et al., 2011, Batetta et al., 2009, Murru et al., 2013).

In summary, our preliminary findings indicate a positive correlation between PA, MF, and body fat percentage, underscoring the potential nutritional importance of PA in promoting MF. However, it is crucial to emphasize that such correlations do not necessarily establish causation. Future studies should explore the potential of modulating MF via dietary PA in a physiological context in humans as also potential determinant of a balance intake of dietary different lipid classes. Further investigations should also address its implications for body composition, particularly in individuals aged 45-65, when the incidence of most non-communicable chronic diseases intensifies.

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Conflict of Interest Statement: The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

References


Figures’ Legend

Figure 1: Spearman’ regression analysis between PESO and intake of different lipid classes in participants: A) with saturated fatty acids, SFA; B) with monounsaturated fatty acids, MUFA; C) with polyunsaturated fatty acids, PUFA; D) with SFA/PUFA; E) with palmitic acid (PA). Statistical significance: p<0.05.

Figure 2: Spearman’ regression analysis between PESO and intake of different macronutrients in participants: A) with carbohydrate; B) with protein; C) with lipids. Statistical significance: p<0.05.

Figure 3: Spearman’ regression analysis between % of body fat and intake of different lipid classes in participants: A) with saturated fatty acids, SFA; B) with monounsaturated fatty acids, MUFA; C) with polyunsaturated fatty acids, PUFA; D) with palmitic acid (PA); with PESO. Statistical significance: p<0.05.
Table 1 Anthropometric characteristics. Values are presented as mean ± S.E.M.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Values</th>
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<tr>
<td>Total n</td>
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<tr>
<td>Males, n</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females, n</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>53.65 ± 4.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>Body weight, Kg</td>
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<tr>
<td>BMI</td>
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<td>Kg</td>
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<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>77.66 ± 2.15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fat mass</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kg</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>22.23 ± 2.17</td>
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BMI, body mass index
Figure 1

(A) Dietary SFA g/Kg of BW

(B) Dietary MUFA g/Kg of BW

(C) Dietary PUFA g/Kg of BW

(D) Dietary PA g/Kg of BW

(E) Dietary SFA/PUFA g/Kg of BW

R = 0.573
p = 0.026

R = 0.259
p = 0.358

R = 0.549
p = 0.036

R = 0.549
p = 0.036
Figure 2
Figure 3

(A) Dietary SFA (g/Kg of BW) vs % of Body FAT, R = -0.566, p = 0.030

(B) Dietary MUFA (g/Kg of BW) vs % of Body FAT, R = -0.534, p = 0.042

(C) Dietary PUFA (g/Kg of BW) vs % of Body FAT, R = -0.340, p = 0.214

(D) Dietary PA (g/Kg of BW) vs % of Body FAT, R = -0.601, p = 0.017

(E) PESO vs % of Body FAT, R = -0.517, p = 0.049
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