

Beverly S. Muhlhausler and Gérard P. Ailhaud

Omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids and the early origins of obesity

Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity, 2013; 20(1):56-61

Copyright: © 2013 Wolters Kluwer Health

This is a non-final version of an article published in final form in **Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity**, 2013; 20(1):56-61.

Final version available at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MED.0b013e32835c1ba7>

PERMISSIONS

<http://edmgr.ovid.com/coe/accounts/copyrightTransfer.pdf>

Transfer of Copyright

AUTHOR's OWN WORK: In consideration of LWW's publication of the Work, the author hereby transfers, assigns, and otherwise conveys all his/her copyright ownership worldwide, in all languages, and in all forms of media now or hereafter known, including electronic media such as CD-ROM, Internet, and Intranet, to LWW. If LWW should decide for any reason not to publish the Work, LWW shall give prompt notice of its decision to the corresponding author, this agreement shall terminate, and neither the author nor LWW shall be under any further liability or obligation. Each author grants LWW the rights to use his or her name and biographical data (including professional affiliation) in the Work and in its or the journal's promotion. Notwithstanding the foregoing, this paragraph shall not apply, and any transfer made pursuant to this paragraph shall be null and void if (i) the work has been accepted by LWW for publication, and (ii) the author chooses to have the work published by LWW as an open access publication.

Author(s) Posting of Articles to an Institutional Repository

Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity will permit the author (s) to deposit for display a "final peer-reviewed manuscript" (the final manuscript after peer-review and acceptance for publication but prior to the publisher's copyediting, design, formatting, and other services) 12 months after publication of the final article on his/her personal web site, university's institutional repository or employer's intranet, subject to the following:

* You may only deposit the final peer-reviewed manuscript.

* You may not update the final peer-reviewed manuscript text or replace it with a proof or with the final published version.

* You may not include the final peer-reviewed manuscript or any other version of the article in any commercial site or in any repository owned or operated by

any third party. For authors of articles based on research funded by NIH, Wellcome Trust, HHMI, or other funding agency, see below for the services that LWW will provide on your behalf to comply with "Public Access Policy" guidelines.

* You may not display the final peer-reviewed manuscript until twelve months after publication of the final article.

* You must attach the following notice to the final peer-reviewed manuscript: "This is a non-final version of an article published in final form in (provide complete journal citation)".

* You shall provide a link in the final peer-reviewed manuscript to the *Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity* website.

8 December 2016

1 **Omega-6 Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids (PUFA) and the Early Origins of Obesity**

2 BS Muhlhausler¹, GP Ailhaud²

3 ¹FOODplus Research Centre, School of Agriculture Food and Wine, Waite Main Building,

4 The University of Adelaide, SA 5064, Australia ²Faculté de Médecine, Université de Nice

5 Sophia-Antipolis, Nice, France

6

7 **Running title:** Omega-6 PUFA and obesity

8

9

10

11 **Please address all correspondence to:**

12 Dr Beverly Muhlhausler

13 FOODplus Research Centre

14 School of Agriculture Food and Wine

15 The University of Adelaide

16 Adelaide 5064

17 Australia

18 Phone +61 8 8313 0848

19 Fax: +61 8 8303 7135

20 Email: beverly.muhlhausler@adelaide.edu.au

21 **Abstract**

22 *Purpose of review:* The incidence of obesity and its related metabolic disorders has increased
23 significantly over the past 3 decades, culminating in the current global epidemic of metabolic
24 disease, leading to the search for contributing factors. Exposure of the developing fetus/neonate
25 to a typical Western diet increases their risk of obesity and metabolic disorders throughout the
26 life-course, creating an intergenerational cycle of metabolic disease. In Western countries, this
27 epidemic of metabolic disease has coincided with a marked increase in the intake of omega-6
28 polyunsaturated fatty acids (omega-6 PUFA), leading to suggestions that the two may be
29 causally related.

30 *Recent findings:* Recent studies have emphasised the pro-adipogenic properties of the omega-
31 6 PUFA, and provided evidence that rodents fed on diets with omega-6 PUFA contents similar
32 to the typical US diet (6-8%energy) increased fat mass. Importantly, recent studies have shown
33 that perinatal exposure to a high omega-6 PUFA diet results in a progressive accumulation of
34 body fat across generations.

35

36 *Summary:* This review highlights the recent evidence supporting the role of the omega-6 PUFA
37 in the early life origins of obesity and metabolic disease, the need for more clinical studies and
38 the potential need for health agencies to re-evaluate current recommendations to further
39 increase omega-6 PUFA intakes.

40

41 **Keywords:** omega-6 PUFA, adipose tissue, biological programming, obesity, maternal
42 nutrition

43

44 **Introduction**

45 The past decades have seen a substantial increase in the global incidence of obesity and its
46 related metabolic disorders. In addition to the health and quality of life implications of these
47 diseases, the direct and indirect costs of these conditions represent a significant economic
48 burden to countries world-wide [1]. As a result, identifying the causes of this epidemic and
49 strategies to overcome it has become a major public health priority, and numerous anti-obesity
50 health campaigns have been launched. To date, however, these campaigns have done little to
51 successfully combat the problem.

52

53 The importance of quantity and quality of nutritional intake for the regulation of body weight
54 and fat mass in individuals is widely acknowledged, and has led to suggestions that changes in
55 the nutritional quality of the typical Western diet is an important driver of the expanding
56 waistlines of populations world-wide. Whilst good nutrition is important at all life stages, it is
57 increasingly recognised that the nutritional environment an individual experiences before birth
58 and in early infancy is of particular importance for their later metabolic health, and that
59 exposure to an inappropriate nutritional supply during critical windows of development can
60 predispose an individual to obesity and type 2 diabetes later in life [2, 3]. By extension, the diet
61 consumed by pregnant and breast-feeding women is a key determinant of the metabolic health
62 of future generations [4].

63

64 In this review, we will present the temporal and biological evidence underlying the hypothesis
65 that excess intake of omega-6 PUFA is associated with increases in body fat mass, with a focus
66 on existing evidence from animal and human studies that exposure to elevated intakes of
67 omega-6 PUFA before birth or in early infancy can program an increased susceptibility to
68 obesity throughout the life course. We will highlight the current paucity of human studies

69 which have examined the long-term consequences of perinatal exposure to high omega-6
70 PUFA intakes, and emphasise the need for increased research in order to establish conclusively
71 whether there is a true causative association.

72

73 **Setting the Scene: The Global Epidemic of Obesity and Metabolic Disease**

74 The global incidence of overweight, obesity and metabolic disease nearly doubled in the period
75 from 1980 to 2008 and continues to increase. In 2008, more than 1.4 billion adults (20 years
76 and older) and 40 million children under the age of five were overweight and, of these, over
77 200 million men and nearly 300 million women were obese [1]. This increase in the number of
78 overweight and obese individuals has been accompanied by a dramatic increase in the
79 incidence of its associated co-morbidities, including type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease.
80 The significant impact of obesity and its associated metabolic disorders on both the health and
81 quality of life of sufferers and on the health budgets of economies world-wide has prompted
82 extensive research to identify factors which have contributed to the epidemic and strategies for
83 reversing the current trend.

84

85 Both genetic and environmental factors have been implicated in the aetiology of obesity and
86 metabolic disease. There appears little doubt that genetics plays role in pre-disposing certain
87 individuals to obesity and metabolic disease, and a there is an ever-growing list of single
88 nucleotide polymorphisms that confer increased susceptibility to obesity and type 2 diabetes
89 [5]. However, it is unlikely that there has been any substantial shift in the gene pool of humans
90 over the relatively short time frame that the obesity epidemic has taken hold, suggesting that
91 environmental, rather than genetic, factors are likely to play the more important role. Of these
92 environmental factors, poor dietary habits play a significant role in promoting weight gain and
93 the accumulation of body fat mass in individuals [6]. However, not all dietary components are

94 equal in this regard, and there are some which contribute more to fat accumulation than others,
95 and there have been numerous attempts to identify those components of the diet which are the
96 major contributors to weight gain on a population level.

97

98 **Examining the Causes: Focus on Fat**

99 It was initially postulated that excessive intake of saturated fat was a key driver of the obesity
100 epidemic. However, it is now clear that the epidemic of obesity in the US, Australia and other
101 Western countries has in fact coincided with a significant decline in the per capita intake of
102 saturated fat, creating somewhat of a problem with this hypothesis. However, as saturated fatty
103 acid intake has fallen, there has been a corresponding increase in the intake of omega-6 PUFA
104 in Westernised nations around the world, leading to a significant increase in per capita omega-
105 6 PUFA intake over this time [7]. This shift was initially prompted by the limited availability
106 of animal-based fats during the Second World War, which led to their replacement with plant-
107 based alternatives, and has since been reinforced by health recommendations which favour
108 polyunsaturated over saturated fats [8]. In addition, changes in the lipid composition of
109 formulated animal feeds have led to changes in the fatty acid composition of animal products,
110 including meat and eggs [9].

111

112 There is growing concern that this increasing dominance of omega-6 PUFA may have negative
113 consequences for metabolic health. These concerns are based on the biological actions of
114 omega-6 (linoleic acid (LA); 18:2(n-6) and derivatives thereof), which are largely pro-
115 inflammatory, pro-thrombotic and pro-adipogenic. It has been suggested that increases in
116 omega-6 PUFA intake over the past few decades may be an important factor contributing to
117 the current obesity epidemic; in particular there is evidence that exposure to excess omega-6
118 PUFA before birth or in early infancy may be responsible for promoting fat cell formation early

119 in life and thereby predisposing individuals to excess accumulation of body fat as children and
120 adults [10].

121

122 **The Early Life Origins of Obesity**

123 Whilst good nutrition is important at all life stages, a number of critical periods in development
124 have been identified during which exposure to a sub-optimal nutritional environment are
125 particularly detrimental, since they can have lasting effects on an individual's propensity to
126 develop obesity and metabolic disease later in life. Of these critical windows, the most
127 important appear to be those that coincide with the major periods of development of the key
128 metabolic systems, ie. before birth and during the first 2 years of life in humans, and during the
129 fetal and suckling periods in rodents. Both human and experimental animal studies have shown
130 that exposure to an inappropriate nutrient supply during these critical windows of development
131 has life-long consequences for an individual's health [11]. The early studies of this 'biological
132 programming of metabolic disease', focussed primarily on the effects of sub-optimal nutrition,
133 either global caloric restriction or low protein, and showed that these exposures were associated
134 with an increased accumulation of visceral adipose tissue in the offspring and, consequently, a
135 predisposition to insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes [12]. More recently, attention has
136 turned to the more common situation in most Western countries; that of maternal overnutrition,
137 and these studies have demonstrated that exposure to a 'high-fat' and/or 'high-sugar' diet
138 before birth or in the early neonatal period predisposes the offspring to obesity and metabolic
139 disease after birth [2].

140

141 Numerous studies in both large and small animal models have explored the mechanisms
142 underlying this association, and have demonstrated that altered nutrient supply to the
143 developing fetus/neonate plays a predominant role. These studies demonstrate that exposure to

144 either excessive calories or an increased supply of fat and/or sugar during critical
145 developmental windows leads to altered development of key systems involved in the regulation
146 of energy balance and metabolism which permanently affects their structure and function [2,
147 13]. These systems include, but are not limited to, the central neural network for appetite
148 regulation, the fat cell or adipocyte, the mesolimbic reward system and insulin signalling
149 pathways in skeletal muscle [9, 13]. As a result of these programmed changes in development,
150 these offspring are hyperphagic, have an increased propensity to accumulate body fat, have a
151 preference for high-fat and high-sugar foods and are less insulin sensitive [14].

152

153 However, despite the extensive work which has been done in this area, fundamental questions
154 remain about which specific components of the diet are responsible for these programming
155 effect, and questions have been raised about the relevance of the common model of high-fat,
156 high-sugar feeding to typical human diets. In particular, the high-fat diets that are commonly
157 used in animal studies to induce maternal obesity are high in a number of fatty acid classes, but
158 there have been limited attempts to dissect out which of the individual fatty acids is responsible
159 for the programming effects. In the majority of these diets, saturated fat is the main fat
160 component of the high-fat mix which, from what we have seen in the previous section, may
161 not in fact be truly reflective of current trends in fatty acid intakes in humans. However, in our
162 hands, changes in dietary saturated fat content via the cafeteria diet approach was associated
163 with an increase in omega-6 PUFA in the maternal milk and offspring plasma (*Vithayathil &*
164 *Muhlhausler, unpublished observations*), and may be playing a central role in the adverse
165 outcomes of offspring born to mothers who consume high-fat diets during pregnancy and
166 lactation.

167

168 **Omega-6 PUFA and the Adipocyte**

169 The hypothesis that increased intake maternal intake of omega-6 PUFA could have
170 consequences for fat deposition for the fetus or breast-fed offspring has a clear biological basis.
171 A series of studies have demonstrated the capacity of LA and its long-chain derivative,
172 arachidonic acid (AA; 20:4(n-6)) to promote the differentiation of pre-adipocytes *in vitro*,
173 suggesting that increased exposure to omega-6 PUFA during critical windows in the
174 development of the adipocyte could result in a permanent increase in the number of adipocytes
175 in an individual, and thus their propensity to accumulate body fat [15, 16]. These *in vitro*
176 studies are supported by experimental animal studies, in which rats provided with diets
177 containing higher LA levels and/or higher ratios of LA/ALA exhibit an increased expression
178 of lipogenic genes, increased fat mass and greater adipocyte size and adipocyte number
179 compared with rats fed a diet containing lower LA levels [17, 18]. Thus, omega-6 PUFA
180 promoted the expansion of fat depots by upregulating both hyperplasia and hypertrophy. In a
181 study by Hibbeln and colleagues, mice were fed diets which contained either 1% energy LA or
182 8% energy LA, similar to the 7-8%en LA found in the typical US diet. Mice consuming the
183 high LA diet exhibited increased food intake, increased body weight and higher fat mass
184 compared to those on the 1% LA diet [19]. This provided new evidence that omega-6 PUFA
185 could promote increases in fat deposition at levels of dietary LA which are commonly
186 encountered in human diets.

187

188 **Omega-6 PUFA and the Early Origins of Obesity**

189 The major period of fat development in human infants occurs before birth and in the first year
190 of life, with nutritional exposures during this time having permanent consequences for the
191 regulation of body fat mass throughout life. The established pro-adipogenic role of the omega-
192 6 PUFA forms the basis of the hypothesis that exposure to an increased supply of these fatty
193 acids during the period of fat cell development could result in permanent programming of

194 increased body fat mass. The potential role of omega-6 PUFA in the programming of obesity
195 is supported by numerous animal studies. In one such study, the offspring of mice fed an LA-
196 rich diet during pregnancy were 40% heavier at weaning than offspring of dams fed on diets
197 with a balanced LA/ALA ratio [20]. Importantly, this occurred in conjunction with a significant
198 increase in body fat mass, and was still present in adult life [20]. The potential importance of
199 the omega-6 PUFA in the intergenerational cycle of obesity has been emphasised by a recent
200 study by Massiera and colleagues, which demonstrated that feeding rats a diet in which LA
201 made up 55% of the lipid fraction (19% of total energy) over four generations, led to a
202 progressive increase in body fat mass in each successive generation, in the absence of any
203 difference in the intake of saturated fat between the groups [21]. The accumulation of body fat
204 mass was due to an increase in both the hyperplastic and hypertrophic expansion of the adipose
205 depots, driven by the upregulation of genes implicated in the hyperplastic and hypertrophic
206 development of adipose tissue [21]. Importantly, in the guinea pig, which is considered as the
207 best animal model of adipose tissue growth, increasing the LA/ALA ratio from 2:1 to 30:1
208 during the pre-weaning period also resulted in increased fat mass in adulthood [22].

209

210 Since the period of fat cell development extends into the postnatal period in the majority of
211 species, including humans, the fatty acid composition of the infant diet is also likely to
212 contribute to the programming of the adipocyte and propensity to obesity. In lactating women,
213 the fatty acid composition of the maternal diet is reflected in the composition of the breast-
214 milk. Previous studies have demonstrated that women supplemented with omega-3 LCPUFA
215 accumulate EPA and DHA in their breast milk in proportion with their level of intake [23].
216 Consequently, the fatty acid composition of breast-milk in Western countries has undergone a
217 shift in line which that seen in the diet of the general population [7]. **Infant formulas have also**
218 **undergone a marked evolution in their fatty acid composition over the past 3 decades. Those**

219 formulas which are now manufactured provide an adequate content of ALA and have a more
220 balanced LA/ALA ratio, generally ranging between 5 and 10 to 1 [24] (*Philippe Guesnet,*
221 *personal communication*). The Global Standard for the composition of infant formula by a
222 coordinated group of international experts suggested that the minimum LA level of 2.7%
223 energy would be adequate to meet requirements [24]. However due to the exclusive use of
224 vegetable oils in the formulation of infant formulas, the contents of LA in many formulas are
225 well above physiological requirements, and may be high enough to interfere with omega-3
226 PUFA metabolism (*Philippe Guesnet, personal communication*). The International Society for
227 the Study of Fatty Acids and Lipids (ISSFAL), in their 2008 Statement on Dietary Fats in Infant
228 Nutrition, stated that the LA content of formulas ranged from between 6% and 25% of total
229 fatty acids, however acknowledged that, given the potential negative effects of high omega-6
230 PUFA exposure, further research on high omega-6 formulas was needed [25].

231 Thus, Western infants, whether breast or formula-fed, are exposed to elevated levels of omega-
232 6 PUFA not only before birth, but also during the early infant period, which could further
233 exacerbate the effects of these fatty acids on the development of adipose tissue in these
234 children.

235

236 **Evidence from Humans**

237 In humans, most studies have focussed on the effects of increasing omega-3 intake, and there
238 are currently no clinical studies which have directly investigated the effects of increasing
239 maternal omega-6 PUFA intake in a randomised controlled trial. In the Project Viva cohort, a
240 higher omega-6:omega-3 PUFA ratio in umbilical cord blood phospholipids was associated
241 with a high subscapular skin-fold thickness at 3 years of age [26]. In contrast, a recent
242 intervention study involving supplementation with EPA and DHA and instruction to lower

243 arachidonic acid intake during pregnancy and lactation did not show any effect on infant fat
244 mass and fat distribution during the first year of life [27]. Further studies should help to solve
245 this issue.

246

247

248 **Conclusion**

249 The hypothesis that increased maternal intake of omega-6 PUFA could be associated with
250 adverse metabolic outcomes in her offspring is certainly not new. A series of papers in the mid-
251 2000s focussed on the potential role of the omega-6 PUFAs in the origins of childhood obesity,
252 and raised several of the points outlined in this review [7, 28-30]. The increase in dietary intakes
253 of omega-6 PUFA has been documented in several large studies, and has occurred over a time
254 when the prevalence of obesity in the population has risen sharply, despite declines in the per
255 capita intake of saturated fat. There is evidence supporting the hypothesis that omega-6 PUFA
256 have pro-adipogenic and pro-lipogenic properties, and recent work in animals has
257 demonstrated that exposure to a high omega-6 PUFA diet during early life is sufficient to
258 program an increased body fat mass in the offspring.

259

260 Thus far, the work implicating omega-6 PUFA in the programming of obesity appears to have
261 been largely ignored by health agencies, which continue to advocate the health benefits of
262 polyunsaturates without identifying the functional differences between omega-6 and omega-3
263 types [31]. In addition, the potential link between omega-6 PUFA and obesity does not appear
264 to have challenged the popular belief that saturated fats are ‘bad’ and polyunsaturated fats are
265 ‘good’. It is difficult, as scientists, to understand the reason for this. It is clear, however that
266 there is an urgent need for human clinical studies, in particular randomized controlled trials, to
267 conclusively demonstrate whether there is a causal link between maternal omega-6 PUFA

268 intakes and health outcomes in children, including obesity and insulin resistance. If causality
269 is established, then it will be critical to use this as an evidence base for modifying existing
270 dietary fat recommendations, particularly in light of the fact that the full impact of current high
271 omega-6 PUFA intakes on future generations will not yet be apparent.

272

273 **Word Count:** 2838

274

275 **Key points:**

- 276 1. The omega-6 PUFA content of the typical Western diet has increased significantly in
277 the past few decades
- 278 2. Omega-6 PUFA promote adipogenesis and increase expression of lipogenic genes
- 279 3. Increased intake of omega-6 PUFA by pregnant and lactating women may be
280 contributing to the intergenerational cycle of obesity

281

282 **Acknowledgements:** BSM is supported by a Career Development Award from the National
283 Health and Medical Research Council of Australia. The authors wish to thank Dr Christopher
284 Ramsden and Dr Philippe Guesnet for their valuable comments, and Dr John Carragher for
285 editorial assistance.

286

287

288

289 **References:**

- 290 1. WHO. Fact sheet: obesity and
291 overweight. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en/>. 2012 [cited 2012 26
292 September]; Available from: <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs311/en/>.

293 *2. Poston L, Harthoorn LF, van der Beek EM. Obesity in Pregnancy: Implications for the
294 Mother and Lifelong Health of the Child. A Consensus Statement. *Pediatr Res.* 2011;69(2):175-
295 80.

296 **This paper provides a comprehensive update of the negative health implications of obesity**
297 **in pregnancy for future metabolic health of the children.**
298

299 3. Muhlhausler BS, Ong ZY. The fetal origins of obesity: early origins of altered food
300 intake. *Endocr Metab Immune Disord Drug Targets.* 2011;11(1):189-97.

301 4. Innis SM. Essential fatty acid transfer and fetal development. *Placenta.* 2005;26:S70-
302 S5.

303 5. **Drong AW, Lindgren CM, McCarthy MI. The Genetic and Epigenetic Basis of Type
304 2 Diabetes and Obesity. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 2012;Oct 10 [Epub ahead of print].

305 **This paper provides an up-to-date summary of the genetic and epigenetic factors**
306 **implicated in the risk of obesity**
307

308 6. Campbell KJ, Hesketh KD. Strategies which aim to positively impact on weight,
309 physical activity, diet and sedentary behaviours in children from zero to five years. A
310 systematic review of the literature. *Obesity Rev.* 2007;8(4):327-38.

311 7. Ailhaud G, Massiera F, Weill P, Legrand P, Alessandri JM, Guesnet P. Temporal
312 changes in dietary fats: role of n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids in excessive adipose tissue
313 development and relationship to obesity. *Prog Lipid Res.* 2006;45(3):203-36.

314 8. Simopoulos AP. Commentary on the workshop statement. Essentiality of and
315 recommended dietary intakes for Omega-6 and Omega-3 fatty acids. *Prostaglandins Leukot*
316 *Essent Fatty Acids.* 2000;63(3):123-4.

317 9. Simopoulos AP. Evolutionary aspects of the dietary omega-6:omega-3 fatty acid ratio:
318 medical implications. *World Rev Nutr Diet.* 2009;100:1-21.

- 319 10. Hauner H, Vollhardt C, Schneider KT, Zimmermann A, Schuster T, Amann-Gassner
320 U. The impact of nutritional fatty acids during pregnancy and lactation on early human adipose
321 tissue development. Rationale and design of the INFAT study. *Ann Nutr Metab.* 2009;54(2):97-
322 103.
- 323 11. McMillen IC, MacLaughlin SM, Muhlhausler BS, Gentili S, Duffield JA, Morrison JL.
324 Developmental origins of adult health and disease: the role of periconceptional and fetal
325 nutrition. *Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol.* 2008;102(2):82-9.
- 326 12. Hales CN, Barker DJP. The thrifty phenotype hypothesis. *Br Med Bull.* 2001;60(1):5-
327 20.
- 328 13. **Poston L. Intergenerational transmission of insulin resistance and type 2
329 diabetes. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol.* 2011;106(1):315-22.
- 330 **Provides a comprehensive description of the mechanisms linking maternal obesity and**
331 **diabetes to adverse metabolic outcomes in the offspring.**
332
- 333 14. Rkhezay-Jaf J, O'Dowd JF, Stocker CJ. Maternal Obesity and the Fetal Origins of the
334 Metabolic Syndrome. *Curr Cardiovasc Risk Rep.* 2012;6(5):487-95.
- 335 15. Gaillard D, Négre R, Lagarde M, Ailhaud G. Requirement and role of arachidonic acid
336 in the differentiation of pre-adipose cells. *Biochem J.* 1989;257(2):389-97.
- 337 16. Azain MJ. Role of fatty acids in adipocyte growth and development. *J Anim Sci.*
338 2004;82(3):916-24.
- 339 17. Javadi M, Everts H, Hovenier R, Kocsis S, Lankhorst AE, Lemmens AG, et al. The
340 effect of six different C18 fatty acids on body fat and energy metabolism in mice. *Br J Nutr.*
341 2004 92(3):391-9.
- 342 18. Muhlhausler BS, Cook-Johnson R, James M, Miljkovic D, Duthoit E, Gibson R.
343 Opposing effects of omega-3 and omega-6 long chain polyunsaturated Fatty acids on the

344 expression of lipogenic genes in omental and retroperitoneal adipose depots in the rat. *J Nutr*
345 *Metab.* 2010;Epub 2010 Aug 5.

346 19. **Alvheim AR, Malde MK, Osei-Hyiaman D, Hong Lin Y, Pawlosky RJ, Madsen L,
347 et al. Dietary Linoleic Acid Elevates Endogenous 2-AG and Anandamide and Induces
348 Obesity. *obesity.* 2012;20(10):1984-94.

349 **This was the first study to show that intake of LA at similar levels to those present in**
350 **typical western diets was associated with increased tissue levels of the LA derivatives and,**
351 **importantly, with hyperphagia and obesity in a rodent model**
352

353 20. Massiera F, Saint-Marc P, Seydoux J, Murata T, Kobayashi T, Narumiya S, et al.
354 Arachidonic acid and prostacyclin signaling promote adipose tissue development: a human
355 health concern? *J Lipid Res.* 2003;44(2):271-9.

356 21. Massiera F, Barbry P, Guesnet P, Joly A, Luquet S, Moreilhon-Brest C, et al. A
357 Western-like fat diet is sufficient to induce a gradual enhancement in fat mass over

358 22. Pouteau E, Aprikian O, Grenot C, Reynaud D, Pace-Asciak C, Cuilleron CY, et al. A
359 low alpha-linolenic intake during early life increases adiposity in the adult guinea pig. *Nutr*
360 *Metab.* 2010;7(8).

361 23. Makrides M, Neumann MA, Gibson RA. Effect of maternal docosahexaenoic acid
362 (DHA) supplementation on breast milk composition. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 1996;50(6):352-7.

363 24. Koletzko B, Baker S, Cleghorn G, Neto UF, Gopalan S, Hernell O, et al. Global
364 standard for the composition of infant formula: recommendations of an ESPGHAN
365 coordinated international expert group. *J Pediatr Gastroenterol Nutr.* 2005;41(5):584-99.

366 25. Rice R. Draft ISSFAL statement on dietary recommendations on LCPUFA in infant
367 formula. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids.* 2008;78(4-5):229.

368 26. **Donahue SM, Rifas-Shiman SL, Gold DR, Jouni ZE, Gillman MW, Oken E. Prenatal
369 fatty acid status and child adiposity at age 3 y: results from a US pregnancy cohort. *Am J Clin*
370 *Nutr.* 2011;93(4):780-8.

371 **One of the first studies in humans to link higher intake of omega-6 PUFA during**
372 **pregnancy with increased accumulation of fat mass in children.**
373

374 27. **Hauner H, Much D, Vollhardt C, Brunner S, Schmid D, Sedlmeier E-M, et al. Effect
375 of reducing the n-6:n-3 long-chain PUFA ratio during pregnancy and lactation on infant
376 adipose tissue growth within the first year of life: an open-label randomized controlled trial. *Am*
377 *J Clin Nutr.* 2012;95(2):383-94.

378 **This is currently the only human trial which, in addition to supplementing the diet of**
379 **pregnant and lactating women with omega-3 PUFA, also included advice to lower omega-**
380 **6 PUFA intake. Whilst the results of the study do not show any significant effects on body**
381 **fat mass of the infants, it is clear that further studies are needed.**
382

383 28. Ailhaud G, Guesnet P. Fatty acid composition of fats is an early determinant of
384 childhood obesity: a short review and an opinion. *Obes Rev.* 2004;5:21-6.

385 29. Ailhaud G, Guesnet P, Cunnane SC. An emerging risk factor for obesity: does
386 disequilibrium of polyunsaturated fatty acid metabolism contribute to excessive adipose tissue
387 development? *Br J Nutr.* 2008;100(03):461-70.

388 30. Ailhaud G, Massiera F, Alessandri J, Guesnet P. Fatty acid composition as an early
389 determinant of childhood obesity. *Genes Nutr.* 2007;2(1):39-40.

390 31. Position Statement: Fish, fish oils, n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and cardiovascular
391 health. National Heart Foundation. 2009.

392

393