

Oxidation of dietary linoleate occurs to a greater extent than dietary palmitate *in vivo* in humans

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33

34 **Abbreviations**

35 PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; SFA, saturated fatty acids; FA, fatty acids; CO₂, carbon
36 dioxide; IHTAG, intrahepatic triacylglycerol; TE, total energy; CRU, clinical research unit;
37 RQ, respiratory quotient; REE, resting energy expenditure; NEFA, non-esterified fatty acids;
38 TAG, triacylglycerol; 3OHB, β -hydroxybutyrate; PL, phospholipids; TTR, tracer to tracee
39 ratio; VLDL, very-low density lipoprotein; LPL, lipoprotein lipase; Acyl-CoA, acyl-
40 coenzyme A; CPT-1, carnitine palmitoyl transferase I

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42 **Short running heading:** Dietary fatty acid oxidation

43

Abstract

Background: It has been suggested that dietary polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) are partitioned into oxidation pathways to a greater extent than dietary saturated fatty acids (SFA). Whilst this has been demonstrated in animal models, evidence in humans is lacking. The potential divergence in the metabolic fate of these dietary fatty acids (FA) may explain some of the reported differences in ectopic fat deposition with SFA and PUFA enriched diets.

Aims: To compare whole-body oxidation of dietary palmitate and linoleate after consumption of a single test meal.

Methods: In a randomized, crossover design 24 healthy volunteers (12 males and 12 females, matched for age and BMI) underwent two study days separated by 2-week washout period. During each study day participants consumed a standardized test meal which contained [^{13}C]palmitate or [^{13}C]linoleate. Blood and breath samples were collected over the 6 hour postprandial period and the ^{13}C enrichment in breath CO_2 samples and plasma lipid fractions was determined.

Results: Appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 was significantly ($p<0.05$) increased after consumption of the meal containing [^{13}C]linoleate compared to the meal containing [^{13}C]palmitate. The recovery of tracer was $8.9\pm 1.2\%$ [^{13}C]linoleate vs. $5.6\pm 0.4\%$ [^{13}C]palmitate ($p<0.05$). The incorporation of ^{13}C from [^{13}C]palmitate was greater in plasma triacylglycerol and non-esterified fatty acids than [^{13}C]linoleate, whereas the incorporation of ^{13}C from [^{13}C]linoleate was greater than [^{13}C]palmitate in plasma

67 phospholipids. Although $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ was significantly ($p < 0.05$) higher in females compared to
68 males after consumption of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, there was no difference in $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ between sexes
69 after consumption of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate.

70

71 **Conclusions:** We demonstrate that whole-body oxidation of dietary linoleate is
72 comparatively higher than that of dietary palmitate in humans following consumption of a
73 single mixed-test meal. We found indications of sexual dimorphism for dietary palmitate but
74 not dietary linoleate.

75

76 **Keywords:** Fat oxidation, linoleate, palmitate, saturated fatty acid, polyunsaturated
77 fatty acid, dietary fat

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Introduction

Increased intrahepatic triacylglycerol (IHTAG) content is associated with type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease [1]. There is increasing evidence that dietary fatty acid (FA) composition may be a significant mediator of IHTAG content. For example, Rosqvist *et al.*, [2] demonstrated greater IHTAG accumulation during overfeeding with saturated fat (SFA) compared with n-6 polyunsaturated fat (PUFA) despite similar weight gain, a finding that has also been reported by others following both isocaloric and hypercaloric diets [3-5]. On the basis of these observations, it has been hypothesized that dietary PUFA are partitioned into oxidation, rather than esterification pathways to a greater extent than SFA. Although animal studies support this notion [6-14], evidence in humans is limited.

The influence of FA saturation on whole-body FA oxidation was highlighted by Jones *et al.*, [15] who fed six young healthy males a mixed meal containing either ^{13}C -labelled stearate, oleate or linoleate, in random order. They demonstrated that the postprandial appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 (a marker of whole-body fat oxidation) was significantly greater following consumption of the meals containing ^{13}C -oleate and linoleate, than ^{13}C -stearate [15]. Similarly Schmidt *et al.*, [16] found whole-body oxidation of oleate was 21% greater than palmitate when feeding ten healthy adults frequent (every 20 min) small mixed composition meals over a seven hour period. Together these studies suggest the postprandial oxidation of dietary unsaturated fat is greater than dietary saturated fat. In contrast, the findings from a small (n=4) study by DeLany *et al.*, [17] found no significant differences between the major dietary saturated and unsaturated FA, with the cumulative recoveries of ^{13}C in breath from palmitate, oleate and linoleate being comparable. To date, the majority of studies have only included males, but as we have previously observed sexual dimorphism in dietary FA oxidation [18], it would be of interest to compare the oxidation of dietary SFA and PUFA between males and females. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to

104 compare the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 in the 6-hour postprandial period following
105 consumption of a standardized mixed test meal containing either $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate or
106 $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate as a marker of whole-body fat oxidation of SFA and PUFA respectively, in
107 healthy males and females.

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Materials and Methods

Participants

Males and females of a similar age and body mass index (BMI) were recruited by word of mouth from the Oxfordshire area and from the Oxford BioBank (www.oxfordbiobank.org.uk) [19]. All volunteers were aged 18-65 years, free from any known metabolic disease, had a BMI between 18-30 kg/m², were not taking medication known to affect lipid or glucose metabolism, did not smoke, and did not consume alcohol above recommended UK limits (www.gov.uk) assessed at screening. The study was approved by the Portsmouth Research Ethics Committee (REC 12/SC/0267) and all participants gave written informed consent.

Experimental design

This study was a randomized, crossover design. Each participant completed two postprandial study days, which were separated by a 2-week washout period. The experimental study days involved feeding a standardized test meal which was identical except for the addition of either [U¹³C]palmitate or [U¹³C]linoleate, which were used to trace whole-body FA oxidation. Randomization was performed by a statistician who was not involved in the day-to-day running of the study, and the authors were blinded as to the study order until the end of the data collection period. All participants were advised to consume a eucaloric control diet (based on the UK EatWell plate) for 3 days before each experimental study day to standardize the run-in diet between participants and between study days. A 3-day diet diary was completed during the initial run-in period before the first study day and participants were asked to repeat this diet during the second pre-study day run-in period. Participants were instructed to avoid food naturally enriched in ¹³C (e.g. cornflakes, foods rich in corn-starch etc.) during run-in periods. All participants were asked to refrain from alcohol and strenuous

exercise for 24-hours prior to the study day. This study was registered at clinicaltrials.gov (NCT03587753).

Postprandial study days

The evening before the study day participants consumed a standardized low-fat test meal (commercially available frozen ready-meal: 292kcal, 64.4% total energy (TE) carbohydrate, 18.2% TE fat, and 17.4% TE protein). On the morning of the study day, participants came to the Clinical Research Unit (CRU) at the Oxford Centre for Diabetes Endocrinology and Metabolism after an overnight fast of approximately 10-hours. A Teflon catheter was inserted into an antecubital vein to allow for repeated blood sampling, after which a baseline, fasting venous blood sample (0) was collected in heparinized tubes (Sarstedt, Leicester, UK) and immediately spun at 3000g in a refrigerated centrifuge (4°C) for 10 minutes to obtain plasma, which was then stored at -20°C until analysis. Participants were then fed a mixed test meal containing 44g carbohydrate, 42g of fat and 9.7g of protein to which either 200mg of [^{13}C]palmitate or [^{13}C]linoleate was added. The FA composition of the test meal was ~32% palmitate, 35% oleate, 27% linoleate, 5% stearate and 1% trace FA. Blood samples were taken 30, 60, 90, 120, 180, 240, 300 and 360 minutes after consumption of the test meal.

Breath samples were collected in EXETAINER® tubes (Labco Ltd, High Wycombe, UK) before consumption of the test meal (0) and then at 30, 60, 90, 120, 180, 240, 300 and 360 minutes after consumption of the mixed test meal to determine $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ enrichment. Indirect calorimetry was performed in the fasting state and 120- and 360-minutes after meal consumption using a GEM calorimeter (GEMNutrition Ltd., Cheshire, UK) to determine whole-body CO_2 production, whole-body respiratory quotient (RQ), and resting energy

expenditure (REE). Body composition was assessed using Lunar iDXA machine (GE Healthcare, USA) during the first study day.

Plasma Biochemistry

Plasma glucose, non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), total and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, TAG, and β -hydroxybutyrate (3OHB), were measured on a semi-automatic analyser (ILab 600/650 clinical chemistry. Warrington, UK). Plasma insulin levels were determined by radioimmunoassay as described [20].

FA composition and isotopic enrichment

Total lipids were extracted from plasma fractions and FA methyl esters were prepared as previously described [21]. FA compositions ($\mu\text{mol}/100 \mu\text{mol}$ total FAs) were determined by gas chromatography (GC) [21]. Internal standards of known concentration were added to samples prior to lipid extraction to allow for determination of FA concentration. Enrichment of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate and $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate in plasma TAG, NEFA and phospholipid (PL) fractions were determined by gas chromatography-combustion-isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-C-IRMS). The ^{13}C enrichments expressed as $\delta^{13}\text{C}^0/_{00}$, were converted to a tracer to tracee ratio (TTR): $\text{TTR} (^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}) = ((\delta^{13}\text{C}^0/_{00}/1000)+1) \times 0.0112372 \times (17/16)$. The concentration of ^{13}C in specific lipid fractions was determined by multiplying the TTR by the corresponding palmitate or linoleate concentration in each lipid fraction. The TTR of a fasting sample (0), obtained before participants consumed the test meal, was subtracted from each sample to account for natural abundance of ^{13}C in all lipid fractions measured.

Analysis of ^{13}C enrichment in breath CO_2 samples was determined via IRMS, and whole-body meal-derived FA oxidation was calculated by multiplying the CO_2 production ($\dot{V} \text{CO}_2$, mmol/min) by the TTR of $^{13}\text{CO}_2/^{12}\text{CO}_2$ as described [22] and corrected for lean body mass.

Statistical analysis

Despite calculating the TTR of the meals to be similar, we measured a sample of each participants meal and found that the test meals containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate was notably lower (by ~37%) than the TTR of the meals containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate. Therefore, a correction factor was applied to the TTR of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate data on a participant to participant basis that was representative of the difference in the TTR of test meals. All data were analyzed using SPSS (V22.0) for windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Areas under the curve (AUC) were calculated by the trapezoidal method and were divided by the relevant time period to provide time-averaged values. Fasting biochemical characteristics were compared between visits using a Students paired t-test. Whole-body fat oxidation (primary outcome measure) and postprandial biochemistry during the two postprandial study days ($[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate vs. $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate) was compared using a two-way repeated measures ANOVA and Bonferroni post hoc analysis where appropriate. Sex-specific differences in the metabolism of palmitate and linoleate were analysed using an independent sample t-test and two-way ANOVA where appropriate. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Participant characteristics

Twenty-four healthy individuals (12 males and 12 females) participated in the study and their characteristics are shown in Table 1. By design, there was no difference in age or BMI between males and females, but males had a significantly ($p<0.05$) higher bodyweight and lean mass but significantly ($p<0.05$) lower amount of body fat compared to females (Table 1).

Table 1. Participant characteristics.

	Males	Females
n	12	12
Age (years)	41±2	46 ± 3
Weight (kg)	83.8±2.9	67.7 ± 2.9*
BMI (kg/m ²)	25.8±0.8	25.4 ± 0.9
Waist circumference (cm)	90.0 ± 2.8	85.8 ± 2.5
Body fat (%)	22.6±2.8	35.9±2.0*
Lean mass (kg)	60.9±1.8	38.4±3.4*

Data presented are means ± SEM. * $p<0.05$ significantly different between males and females. Abbreviations: BMI, body mass index.

Fasting and postprandial plasma biochemistry

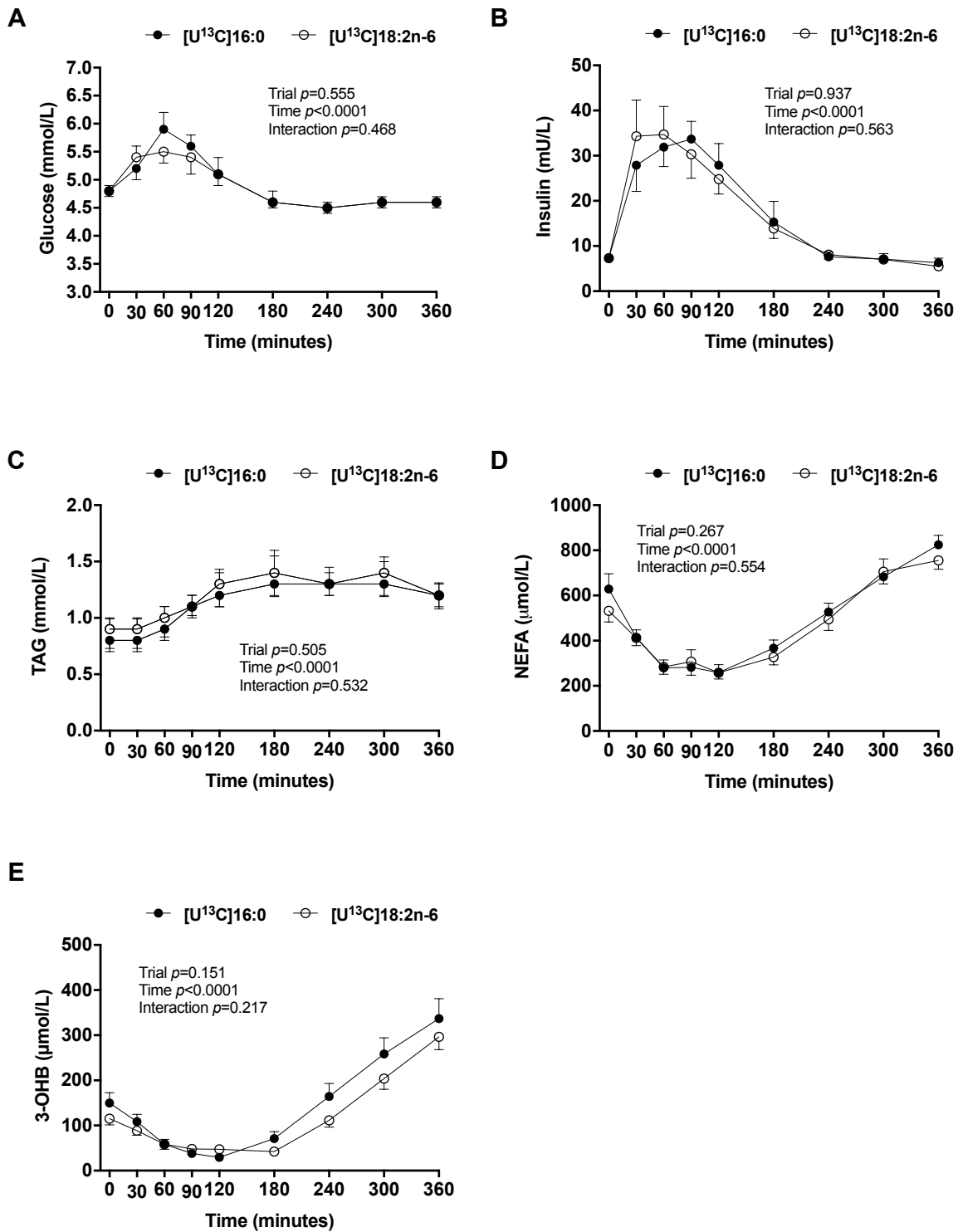
Fasting and postprandial biochemical parameters were similar on both study days (Table 2, Figure 1A-E).

215 **Table 2.** Fasting and postprandial biochemical and metabolic parameters.

	[U ¹³ C]palmitate	[U ¹³ C]linoleate
<i>Fasting plasma biochemical parameters</i>		
Glucose (mmol/L)	4.8±0.1	4.8±0.1
Insulin (mU/L)	7.4±0.7	7.3±0.7
HOMA-IR	1.6±0.2	1.5±0.2
NEFA (μmol/L)	629±67	532±49
TAG (mmol/L)	0.8±0.1	0.9±0.1
3OHB (μmol/L)	150±23	115±14
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.1±0.2	4.2±0.2
HDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.3±0.1	1.2±0.1
Non-HDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	2.9±0.1	2.9±0.1
<i>Indirect calorimetry</i>		
Fasting REE (kcal)	1306±58	1299±46
120 min REE (kcal)	1435±57	1458±55
360 min EE (kcal)	1408±60	1449±61
Fasting RQ	0.70±0.02	0.75±0.01
120 min RQ	0.77±0.02	0.78±0.01
360 min RQ	0.73±0.02	0.71±0.01
Net FA oxidation (g/min)	0.08±0.01	0.07±0.01

216 Data are presented as means ± SEM.

217 Abbreviations: HOMA-IR, Homeostatic Model Assessment of Insulin Resistance; NEFA,
 218 non-esterified fatty acids; TAG, triacylglycerol; 3OHB, β-hydroxybutyrate; HDL, high-
 219 density lipoprotein; REE, resting energy expenditure; RQ, respiratory quotient; FA, fatty
 220 acid.



221

222 **Figure 1.** Systemic plasma concentrations of (A) plasma glucose, (B) insulin, (C)

223 triacylglycerol (TAG), (D) non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA), and (E) β -hydroxybutyrate (3-

224 OHB), following a standardized test meal containing either $[U^{13}C]$ palmitate ($[U^{13}C]16:0$) or

225 $[U^{13}C]$ linoleate ($[U^{13}C]18:2n-6$). Data presented are means \pm SEM. $n = 24$.

Indirect calorimetry

Fasting and postprandial RQ and REE were similar on both study days (Table 2). We also calculated postprandial net FA oxidation rates [23], and found no significant difference in FA oxidation rates between the two study days (Table 2).

Whole-body FA oxidation

The appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 was significantly ($p < 0.05$) greater after consumption of the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate compared to the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate (Figure 2A), as was the recovery of tracer given (Figure 2B). As we have previously found differences in dietary FA oxidation between females and males [18] we investigated if sex-differences in the oxidation of the specific FAs (i.e. palmitate or linoleate) occurred. In-line with our previous finding when using $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, we found that the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 from $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate was significantly ($p < 0.05$) greater in females compared to males (Figure 3A). Conversely, the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 from $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate was similar between males and females (Figure 3B).

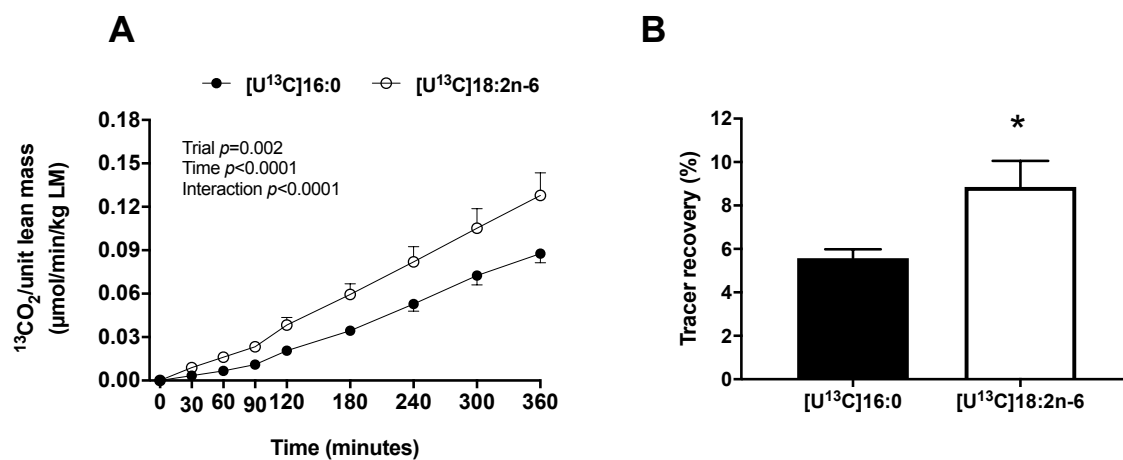


Figure 2. (A) Expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ over time and (B) 6-hour tracer recovery, following a standardized test meal containing either $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate ($[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]16:0$) or $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate ($[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]18:2n-6$). Data presented are means \pm SEM. $n = 24$. * $p < 0.05$ for $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate vs. $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate

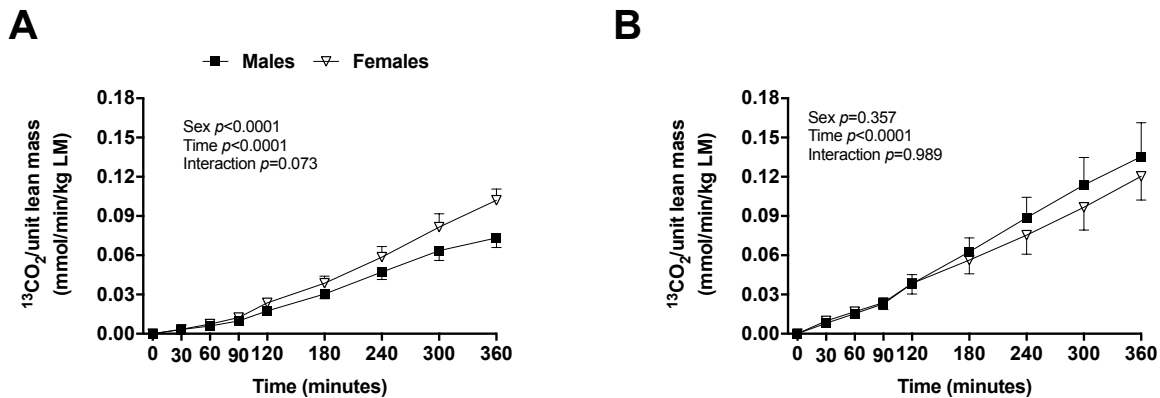


Figure 3. Expired $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ in males and females following a standardized test meal containing (A) $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate ($[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]16:0$) or (B) $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate ($[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]18:2n-6$). Data presented are means \pm SEM. $n = 12$ males and 12 females.

Tracer incorporation into plasma lipid fractions

The incorporation of ^{13}C from $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate and $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate into specific plasma lipid fractions was measured. Across the 6-hour postprandial period, the incorporation of ^{13}C was ~36% ($p < 0.05$) greater in plasma TAG and ~53% greater ($p < 0.05$) in plasma NEFA for $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate compared with $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate, with incorporation being similar between males and females for all plasma lipid fractions (Figure 4A and 4B). In contrast to plasma TAG and NEFA, ^{13}C incorporation into plasma phospholipid, was ~5-fold higher for $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate compared with $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate (Figure 4C). Sexual dimorphism was also apparent for the incorporation of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate into plasma PL, as females had an enrichment that was approximately double ($p < 0.05$) that of males (Figure 4C).

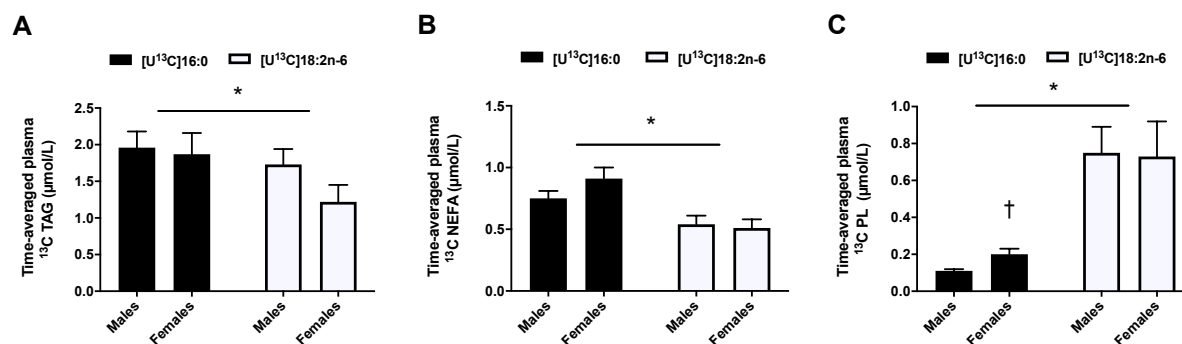


Figure 4. Time-averaged AUC concentrations ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) of ^{13}C palmitate or linoleate in (A) plasma triacylglycerol (TAG), (B) non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) and, (C) phospholipid (PL) in males and females following a standardized test meal containing either [U ^{13}C]palmitate ([U ^{13}C]16:0) or [U ^{13}C]linoleate ([U ^{13}C]18:2n-6). Data presented are means \pm SEM. $n = 24$ (12 males and 12 females). * $p < 0.05$ for [U ^{13}C]16:0 vs. [U ^{13}C]18:2n-6; † $p < 0.05$ for males vs. females.

Discussion

It has been hypothesized that dietary PUFA are partitioned into oxidation, rather than esterification pathways to a greater extent than SFA. This has been consistently demonstrated in rodents [6-12]; however, human data is limited. In this study we utilized stable-isotope tracers to assess the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 as a measure of whole-body oxidation of palmitate and linoleate, in 24 healthy participants after consumption of a single mixed composition meal. We found the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 was significantly greater after consumption of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate compared to $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, suggesting that dietary PUFA may preferentially enter oxidation pathways compared to dietary SFA. We also observed sexual dimorphism in this response, with ^{13}C appearance in expired CO_2 greater in females compared to males following the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, whereas $^{13}\text{CO}_2$ production from $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate was similar between males and females. There were also differences in the incorporation of ^{13}C in plasma lipid fractions; $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate incorporation into plasma TAG and NEFA was greater than that of $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate, whereas the opposite was observed in PL.

Our findings extend those of previous human studies and confirm that dietary FA oxidation is influenced by FA saturation. Jones *et al.*, [15] used ^{13}C tracers to compare oleate, linoleate and stearate oxidation in six healthy males and found the 9-hour recovery of tracer was ~15%, ~10% and ~3%, respectively. Similarly Schmidt *et al.*, [16] reported that the oxidation of oleate, was significantly greater than palmitate in ten healthy adults fed frequent small meals over a 7-hour period. Conversely, in a small ($n=4$ healthy males) study DeLany *et al.*, [17] found no significant differences when comparing the 9-hour recovery of ^{13}C oleate, linoleate and palmitate in breath after feeding standardized test meals. Although it is not possible to directly compare tracer recoveries across studies due to methodological

differences, taken together it would appear dietary unsaturated FAs enter oxidation pathways to a greater extent than dietary SFAs. This is in-line with the observation that individuals consuming diets enriched in unsaturated fat demonstrate a reduced ectopic fat deposition when compared to those consuming a diet enriched in SFA [3-5].

Differences in the appearance of labelled FA into expired CO₂ may be mediated by three processes: i) dietary FA absorption, ii) FA transport across cellular membranes, and iii) intracellular FA partitioning. Following ingestion, within enterocytes FA are esterified to TAG and then incorporated into chylomicrons for distribution to metabolic tissues [24]. We did not isolate chylomicron-TAG, rather we measured the ¹³C enrichment in plasma TAG, which reflects both chylomicron and very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL)-TAG in the postprandial period, and found TAG ¹³C enrichment was greater after the meal containing [U¹³C]palmitate. Thus, we cannot exclude the possibility that there may have been differences in absorption of the FA tracers. However, it has previously been shown that the incorporation of labelled palmitate and linoleate into chylomicron-TAG is similar in humans [25, 26]. If differences in absorption were apparent, it could be expected that ¹³C incorporation in plasma TAG would mirror the differences in ¹³CO₂ (i.e. greater enrichment after [U¹³C]linoleate ingestion), which is not the case. Thus, it is unlikely that differences in absorption explain our findings. However, it is plausible the difference in plasma TAG observed here is due to the partitioning of [¹³C]linoleate into other lipid fractions, such as plasma phospholipids; we found ~5-fold greater ¹³C enrichment in plasma phospholipids following the meal containing [U¹³C]linoleate compared to [U¹³C]palmitate.

In the postprandial period, circulating chylomicron-TAG are hydrolyzed by lipoprotein lipase (LPL) in the capillaries of metabolic tissues [27]. The liberated FA are then transported into

cells via diffusion across the plasma membrane, or by FA transporter proteins and FA translocase/cluster of differentiation 36 which are found on the surface of cells, including hepatocytes, adipocytes and myocytes [28]. Although it remains unclear whether the affinity of these proteins is influenced by FA saturation and/or chain length, human arterio-venous difference studies have reported that the uptake of palmitate and linoleate by liver and skeletal muscle are similar in the fasting state [29, 30], in contrast a recent study in a porcine model found hepatic uptake of linoleate was markedly higher than palmitate [31]. When investigating adipose tissue uptake of specific FAs using the arterio-venous difference technique, Summers *et al.*, report no difference in the postprandial uptake or LPL-mediated hydrolysis of palmitate and linoleate [32]. Although studies comparing the postprandial uptake of palmitate and linoleate in skeletal muscle and liver are sparse, findings from animal studies suggest that LPL-activity in heart- and skeletal muscle is higher after an n-6 PUFA compared to SFA diet [33, 34]. The greater appearance of ^{13}C in the plasma NEFA pool after the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate compared to $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ linoleate may reflect differences in “spillover” and chylomicron-TAG hydrolysis [35]; we did not directly assess chylomicron-TAG hydrolysis or chylomicron-derived spillover.

In humans, skeletal muscle and liver are major contributors to whole-body FA oxidation. Once within hepatocytes or myocytes, FAs are rapidly converted to fatty acyl-coenzyme A (Acyl-CoA) which are then partitioned into oxidation or storage pathways. Carnitine palmitoyl transferase I (CPT-1) transports Acyl-CoA into the mitochondria and represents a rate-limiting step in FA oxidation. Evidence from isolated rat liver mitochondria found that CPT-1 is activated by lower concentrations of linoleate than palmitate, which would facilitate more rapid transfer into mitochondria for β -oxidation [36]. This would suggest that differences intracellular metabolism might mediate the differences in palmitate and linoleate

oxidation. We were unable to determine which metabolic tissues were primarily responsible for the differences in whole-body FA oxidation however a recent murine study using ^{13}C isotope tracers demonstrated that hepatic oxidation of linoleate was ~3 fold higher than palmitate [31].

By studying males and females, matched for age and BMI, we investigated sex-specific differences in the oxidation of dietary palmitate and dietary linoleate. We found the appearance of ^{13}C in expired CO_2 was greater in females compared to males following the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, which is in-line with previous work from our group [18]. However, this difference was not evident for linoleate; the observation that sexual dimorphism in FA oxidation may be specific to individual FAs has not previously been demonstrated. The reasons for the differences in the oxidation of specific FA between sexes remain to be elucidated. However as we have previously reported increased chylomicron-derived spillover in females compared to males following a test meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate [37] it could be speculated that this may increase palmitate flux to non-adipose tissues such as liver and skeletal muscle in females, where they may enter oxidation pathways. This would be in line with the increased ^{13}C enrichment in plasma NEFA we observed in females following the meal containing $[\text{U}^{13}\text{C}]$ palmitate, which was approximately 17% greater than males. We have not previously investigated linoleate metabolism in regards to chylomicron metabolism, specifically chylomicron-derived spillover and it would be of interest to do so. There is currently limited work which has investigated sex-specific differences in FA metabolism and given the notable difference in the prevalence of NAFLD between males and females [38], it would be of interest to elucidate the sex-specific mechanisms underpinning our observations. Based on our

observations, it is clear that the choice of FA tracer may influence results when comparing FA oxidation between sexes.

This study is not without limitations. Firstly, it is a single meal feeding study and the test meal composition may not completely replicate the ratios of FAs typically consumed by the individuals. Additionally, although diets were standardized for 3-days before each study visit, we did not control participant's habitual diets. Others have fed unsaturated or SFA rich diets for longer periods (28 days) and found that increased dietary palmitate resulted in reduced FA oxidation and daily energy expenditure (assessed by indirect calorimetry) [39]. Evidence also suggests that postprandial net FA oxidation, measured by indirect calorimetry, is influenced acutely by meal FA composition [40]. Whether dietary or meal FA composition influences the oxidation of specific FA remains to be determined. We traced palmitate as a marker of SFA, and linoleate as a marker of PUFA, and it is unclear if our findings can be generalized to all SFA and PUFA. Additionally, we are unable to account for the endogenous production of palmitate in this study, which may influence the TTR following the meal containing [U¹³C]palmitate. As linoleate is an essential FA, accounting for endogenous production was not an issue.

In conclusion, we demonstrate that whole-body oxidation of linoleate is comparatively greater than whole-body oxidation of palmitate in humans consuming a mixed test meal. These observations, may help, in part to explain the increased ectopic fat deposition seen when feeding SFA enriched diets compared to PUFA enriched diets.

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Statement of authorship

LH designed research and gained research funding; LH, SAP, FR, TC, and AB conducted the research; SAP, FR, TC, and AB analyzed data; SAP, FR, and LH wrote the paper; LH had primary responsibility for final content. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of Interest

All authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Systemic plasma concentrations of (A) plasma glucose, (B) insulin, (C) triacylglycerol (TAG), (D) non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA), and (E) β -hydroxybutyrate (3-OHB), following a standardized test meal containing either [U¹³C]palmitate ([U¹³C]16:0) or [U¹³C]linoleate ([U¹³C]18:2n-6). Data presented are means \pm SEM. n = 24.

Figure 2. (A) Expired ¹³CO₂ over time and (B) 6-hour tracer recovery, following a standardized test meal containing either [U¹³C]palmitate ([U¹³C]16:0) or [U¹³C]linoleate ([U¹³C]18:2n-6). Data presented are means \pm SEM. n = 24. **p* < 0.05 for [U¹³C]palmitate vs. [U¹³C]linoleate

Figure 3. (A) Expired ¹³CO₂ in males and females following a standardized test meal containing [U¹³C]palmitate ([U¹³C]16:0) or (B) [U¹³C]linoleate ([U¹³C]18:2n-6). Data presented are means \pm SEM. n = 12 males and 12 females.

Figure 4. ¹³C enrichment in (A) plasma triacylglycerol (TAG), (B) non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) and, (C) phospholipid (PL) in males and females following a standardized test meal containing either [U¹³C]palmitate ([U¹³C]16:0) or [U¹³C]linoleate ([U¹³C]18:2n-6). Data presented are means \pm SEM. n = 24 (12 males and 12 females). **p* < 0.05 for [U¹³C]palmitate vs. [U¹³C]linoleate, †*p* < 0.05 for males vs. females.