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DHA-enriched fish oil upregulates cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A (P16^{INK}) expression and downregulates telomerase activity without modulating effects of PPAR γ Pro12Ala polymorphism in type 2 diabetic patients: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial

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- DHA-enriched fish oil upregulates cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A (P16^{INK}) expression and downregulates telomerase activity without modulating effects of PPARγ Pro12Ala polymorphism in type 2 diabetic patients: A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial
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65 **Abstract**

66 **Objective:** The present study investigated the effects of docosahexaenoic acid (DHA)-67 enriched fish oil supplement on telomerase activity, mRNA expression of P16^{INK}, IL-6, 68 and TNF- α considering Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ gene.

Methods/Design: In this double-blind randomized controlled trial, 72 PPARy Pro12Ala 69 polymorphism genotyped type 2 diabetic patients aged 30-70 years were randomly 70 assigned to receive 2.4 gr of DHA-enriched fish oil or a placebo for 8 weeks. 71 Genotyping of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPARy gene was assessed using 72 polymerase chain reaction-restriction length polymorphism (PCR-RFLP), telomerase 73 74 activity in the peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) was measured using PCR-ELISA based on the telomeric repeat amplification protocol (TRAP), and changes in the 75 mRNA expression of P16, IL-6, and TNF-α were measured using real-time quantitative 76 77 reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR).

Results: In the DHA group, telomerase activity was decreased (p=0.001) during the intervention. In addition, between-group comparisons showed significant differences in the changes in telomerase activity (p=0.003) and P16 mRNA expression (p=0.028) and non-significant differences in TNF- α and IL-6 mRNA expression. The gene*DHA interaction could not affect changes in P16, IL-6, or TNF- α mRNA expression or in telomerase activity in PBMC.

Discussion: Short-time DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation caused increased levels of P16 expression and a decline in telomerase activity compared with the control group without modulating the effects of Pro12Ala polymorphism on the PPARy gene. Because

- of the positive correlation between P16 activity and cellular senescence, the possibility of senescence stimulation by DHA is proposed.
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- 91
- 92 Keywords: Type 2 diabetes, Docosahexaenoic acid, Telomerase activity, Cyclin-
- 93 dependent kinase inhibitor p16, PPAR gamma, Interleukin-6
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98 Introduction

⁹⁹ Proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) are a superfamily of nuclear receptors that act ¹⁰⁰ as transcriptional factors and regulate gene expression (1). The role of PPAR α ¹⁰¹ activation in the proliferation of intima media smooth muscle cells by inhibiting the cell-¹⁰² cycle progression in vascular smooth muscle cell (VSMC) has been proposed and ¹⁰³ attributed to the induced levels of the tumor suppressor gene p16^{INK} (2, 3).

P16 (also known as cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A and multiple tumor suppressor 1) plays important roles in cell-cycle control and cell senescence by reducing cyclindependent kinase 4 (CDK4) and CDK6 as well as their phosphorylation properties and providing cell proliferation regulation by inhibiting the activity of cyclin–CDK complexes (3).

Telomeres are stabilized by telomerase to serve as a protective capping and prevent cellular senescence; telomerase activation affects cell proliferation by maintaining telomere length (4). Saito et al. found that p16^{INK} inhibits telomerase activity through the suppression of human telomerase reverse transcriptase (hTERT) expression at transcriptional levels (5), and Gizard et al. showed that the effects of p16^{INK} on cell-cycle arrest are mediated through the inhibition of telomerase activity (3).

Although DNA replication is precisely regulated, some important body of evidence has expressed that telomerase deficiency reduces atherosclerosis and neointima formation because of telomere shortening and the inhibition of mitotic proliferation (3). In contrast, higher telomerase activity is linked to smooth muscle cell proliferation. In support, Narducci et al. found higher telomerase activity in neutrophils driven from unstable coronary plaques (6).

PPARy, another member of PPAR family, is involved in adipocyte function and 121 differentiation, lipid storage by adipocytes, and glucose responsiveness (7). Some 122 experimental studies have demonstrated that PPARy activation by thiazolidinedione 123 (TZD) inhibits the proliferation and migration of VSMCs (8). Furthermore, a study 124 conducted by Gan et al. defined an important role for PPARy in accelerating cellular 125 senescence through the overexpression of p16^{INK} in human diploid fibroblasts (9). Some 126 point mutations and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are defined for this 127 nuclear receptor. Pro12Ala missense mutation in PPARy2 specific B exon and a 128 CCA→GCA base exchange is a highly prevalent polymorphism which causes the 129 replacement of alanine amino acid instead of proline. The possibility of an association 130 between this SNP by lower blood levels of total and LDL cholesterol and improved lipid 131

profile (10); reduced risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and coronary heart disease 132 (CHD) (11): diabetic nephropathy: metabolic syndrome: homeostasis model 133 assessment (HOMA-IR); hepatic growth factor (HGF); and nerve growth factor (NGF) 134 has been proposed by previous studies (12). Investigating the effects of Pro12Ala SNP 135 on BMI and insulin sensitivity has had some conflicting results (10, 13, 14). Because 136 alanine substitution at codon 12 of exon B is related to the ligand-independent activation 137 domain in the PPARy gene, the possibility of this SNP altering transcriptional activity 138 has been proposed. Recently, Lapice et al. reported that the effects of changes to the 139 energy content and composition of the diet on anthropometric and body composition 140 measures are more intense in Ala carriers than in wild types, and the Ala allele could 141 result in weight loss in response to a healthy lifestyle (15). 142

Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6 n-3), a long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA), 143 is a nutritional ligand for PPARa and PPARy (16, 17), and the anti-inflammatory effects 144 of this ligand through the inhibition of activated NF- κ B in a PPAR α -dependent pathway 145 have been proved. PPARa activation by DHA can inhibit the gene expression of acute-146 phase and inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumor necrosis 147 factor alpha (TNFa), which implies an anti-inflammatory role for PPARa (18). Some 148 evidence shows that omega-3 fatty acid levels are correlated with telomere aging in 149 PBMC (19). T lymphocytes and other immune cells release TNFα and IL-6 during 150 chronic inflammatory responses that are inflammatory cytokines and have an important 151 role in plaque formation (18). Since serum levels of TNFα and IL-6 are related to intima 152 media thickness, preventing inflammation by inhibiting cytokine expression can be a 153 critical issue in modulating atherosclerotic cascade responses. 154

The risk of macro- and micro-vascular disorders is greater in T2DM patients than in 155 non-diabetic subjects, and this contributes to altered lipid and lipoprotein metabolism, 156 low-grade inflammation, endothelial dysfunction, etc. Hence, the present study was 157 conducted to identify the effects of DHA as a natural ligand for PPARs on telomerase 158 activity, P16, TNFa, and IL-6 regarding the effects of the highly prevalent polymorphism 159 of the PPARy gene. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the present study is a 160 pioneer work that attempts to combine in vivo nutrigenetics and nutrigenomics in the 161 format of a randomized, controlled trial to investigate the alteration in cell signaling 162 pathways. 163

164

165 Subjects and Methods

166 **Study participants**

Based on the 5.94% frequency of Pro12Ala in the PPARy gene among the Iranian 167 population, 465 type 2 diabetic patients were subjected to polymorphism screening. To 168 obtain additional information on the treatment, a 2:1 allocation rate (two wild types 169 versus one polymorphic subject) was used (20). Seventy-two T2DM males and females 170 were selected based on this particular SNP. Forty-eight non-Ala carriers (Pro/Pro) and 171 24 Ala carriers (22 Pro/Ala and two Ala/Ala genotypes) were enrolled in this RCT. The 172 stratification was based on sex (male or female) and age (<50 or ≥50 year), and a 173 random number table was applied to randomly allocate the participants to DHA-174 enriched fish oil supplementation or control groups as mentioned previously. The final 175 gene*DHA intervention groups were as follows: Ala+*DHA supplementation group, 176 Ala+*control group, Ala-*DHA supplementation group, and Ala-*control group. Pregnant 177

and/or lactating women; patients with a history of severe reactions to fish or fish oil, a history of liver, kidney, coagulation, or thyroid disorders, insulin therapy, thiazolidinedione therapy, intake of anticoagulant and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents, daily consumption of fish or omega-3, vitamins A or D, or B12 supplements within the last 3 months, or any changes in medications during the study; and patients with an intake of less than 90% of total soft gels were excluded.

For 8 weeks, all patients took four 600 mg soft gels orally per day (two after breakfast 184 and 2 after dinner). Each DHA-enriched fish oil soft gel contained 600 mg omega-3 fatty 185 acids; more specifically, 362.5 mg DHA plus 100 mg EPA according to the 186 manufacturer's information (DHA Ultimate, Pure Encapsulations, Boston, USA). Other 187 ingredients were gelatin capsule, fish oil (tilapia), 1 IU natural mixed tocopherols, and 188 rosemary extract (leaf). The control group received soft gels that were identical in 189 190 appearance to the DHA-enriched fish oil soft gels but contained 600 mg paraffin (Zahravi, Tabriz, Iran). 191

Patients who met the inclusion criteria were fully informed about the study's protocol which was approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of Tehran University of Medical Sciences and was in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Informed consent was obtained from each subject, and the study was registered in Iranian Registry of Clinical Trials (www.irct.ir) as IRCT2013071213964N1.

197

198 Forms and questionnaires

Demographic and physical activity questionnaires were completed at the baseline and repeated for physical activity at the endpoint of the study as previously described (21). A

3-day food record (2 weekdays and 1 weekend day) in the first week of intervention and
another 3-day diet record in the last week of intervention were completed by
participants, analyzed by Nutritionist IV (The Hearst Corporation, San Bruno, CA), and
compared within and between the studied groups.

205

206 Laboratory methods

After 12h overnight fasting, 20 ml samples of venous blood were obtained and subjected to biochemical and genetic assessments. Telomerase activity and mRNA gene expression were assessed at both baseline and endpoint of the intervention.

210

Genotyping of Pro12Ala polymorphism in PPARy

Genomic DNA was extracted from samples of whole blood using the salting-out method 212 (22). PCR was performed in 25 µL of the mixture containing 2X Tag polymerase mix 213 (Amplicon co.), 75 ng DNA, and 0.6 mM of each primer (Forward: 214 5'-CTGATGTCTTGACTCATGGGTGTATTCAC-3'; Reverse: 5'-215 ACAGTGTATCAGTGAAGGAATCGCTTTCCG -3') in 35 cycles at 94 °C for 30 s, 58 °C 216 217 for 40 s, and 72 °C for 40 s on a peQSTAR thermocycler system (PeQLab, Germany). Genotyping was conducted by the RFLP method using BstU-I at 37 °C overnight. The 218 digested PCR products (CC: one 196 bp band; CG: 196, 166, and 30 bp bands; GG: 219 two 166 and 30 bp bands) were analyzed using 8% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis 220 and subsequent staining with fluorescent red dyes (Biotium Inc.) as previously 221 described. 222

223

RNA extraction and real-time PCR

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from whole blood using the
standard Ficoll method, and RNA was extracted by a Hybrid-R[™] Blood RNA Kit
(GeneAll, Seoul, Korea). The quality and purity of the extracted RNA were checked by
spectrophotometer (NanoDrop, Thermo Scientific, USA).

Total RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using a cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo 229 Scientific, USA). Standard quantitative real-time PCR (RT-PCR) was carried out in the 230 StepOne system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA) using the SYBR Green 231 method (Takara Bio Inc., Japan). Real-time PCR primers were designed using Primer 232 Blast, Oligocalc, and Generunner 5.0.99; the primer sequences are listed in Table 1. 233 The glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) housekeeping gene was 234 included as an endogenous normalization control. PCR efficiency was estimated using 235 LinRegPCR software (23). Changes in mRNA expression were computed using the 236 Pfaffl equation (24). 237

238

239 Assessment of telomerase activity in PBMC

Telomerase activity was measured using a commercial telomerase PCR-ELISA (Roche Diagnostics Corp., Indianapolis, IN, USA) based on the telomeric repeat amplification protocol (TRAP). Briefly, 2×10^5 purified PBMCs for each sample were lysed and 2 µl of supernatant was added to 25 µl reaction mixture until the final volume reached 50 µl. Sample-containing tubes were amplified, denaturized, hybridized to a digoxigenin-(DIG)-labeled, immobilized to streptavidin-coated microplate, detected with antibody against digoxigenin, and visualized. Sample absorbance was determined at 450 nm

- using the reference wavelength at 690 nm, and the measured optical density wasconsidered to be telomerase activity in PBMC.
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- 251

252 Statistical analysis

The one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to establish normal data 253 distribution. Because of the non-parametric distribution of some study parameters, the 254 data was transformed to normal values for statistical analyses and then back-255 transformed into natural units for exhibition in the related tables or figures. Continuous 256 data was expressed as mean±standard deviation, and categorical variables were 257 presented as number and percentage. Between-group comparisons for nominal 258 variables were made using the chi-square test. The independent sample t-test was used 259 to compare parametric continuous data, and the paired t-test was conducted to evaluate 260 within-group differences (before and after intervention). Factorial ANOVA followed by 261 the least significant difference (LSD) post-hoc test was applied to detect the effects of 262 interaction between the polymorphic phenotype and DHA supplementation, and 263 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted by controlling for possible 264 confounders to assess between-group differences. The alpha value was set at 0.05 to 265 indicate the statistical significant level for the comparisons. All data entry and statistical 266 analyses were conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Inc., 267 Chicago, IL, USA), version 18.0. 268

269

270 **Results**

271 Basic information

To investigate PPARγ genotyping, 465 participants were enrolled and screened for
Pro12Ala polymorphism. The frequencies of Pro/Pro, Pro/Ala, and Ala/Ala genotypes
were 90.32%, 8.6%, and about 1%, respectively.

The background information of the participants is shown in Table 2. Three patients in the control group were excluded from the study because of traveling (n=1), a diagnosis of cancer during intervention (n=1), and poor compliance (n=1). One patient in the intervention group left the study because of gastrointestinal distress, and the final data for one DHA-enriched fish oil-supplemented patient was excluded because of fibrate usage during the study. At the endpoint, 67 patients (33 males and 34 females) completed the intervention.

As shown, the DHA-enriched fish oil and control groups did not differ significantly in terms of background and demographics. It should be mentioned that all data analyses based on Pro12Ala polymorphism (regarding Ala and non-Ala carriers) were applied and the same results were obtained (data not shown). No significant difference in background characteristics existed between the studied groups.

287

288 Dietary data and anthropometric parameters

The results of the baseline and endpoint dietary intakes (including total energy intake and percentage of energy from carbohydrates, protein, total fat, saturated fatty acids, mono-unsaturated fatty acids, and poly-unsaturated fatty acids) were reported in a previous article as well as the data for physical activity (25). Briefly, it was reported that

between-group analyses at the baseline and within-group changes at the endpoint of
the study did not differ significantly in the studied groups with or without consideration
given Pro12Ala polymorphism in PPARγ. It should also be mentioned that the effects of
DHA-enriched fish oil on anthropometric and biochemical values were discussed in
detail in the authors' previous article (25).

298 Effects of DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation on telomerase activity

The effects of DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation on telomerase activity are shown in Fig. 1. At the endpoint of the study, telomerase activity was significantly reduced in the DHA group (p=0.001) when compared with the baseline. The same result was not achieved in the control group (p=0.5). The mean changes of telomerase activity in the DHA-enriched fish oil group were significantly higher than those of telomerase activity in the control group, even after adjusting for age and gender (p=0.003) (Table 3).

305

306 Effects of DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation on mRNA gene 307 expression

Figure 2 shows the relative changes of mRNA expression in TNF-α and IL-6 genes in 308 PBMC from the DHA-enriched fish oil and control groups during the intervention. As 309 shown in Table 3, P16 expression was increased 1.86-fold in the DHA-enriched fish oil 310 group. Furthermore, comparisons of the relative changes in mRNA expression between 311 the intervention groups revealed significant differences and proved the overexpression 312 of P16 gene in the DHA-enriched fish oil group (p = 0.021), while between-group 313 analyses of TNF-a or IL-6 mRNA expression levels could not reach significant levels 314 (p=0.4 and p=0.6, respectively). It should be mentioned that, even after adjusting for 315

confounders, between-group differences in P16 mRNA expression still remained significant (p = 0.028) (Table 3).

318

319 Effects of gene and DHA interaction on study parameters

In addition to the observed differences in telomerase activity, the polymorphism-based analysis conducted for changes in telomerase activity did not reveal significant gene*-DHA interactions; also, no significant differences were found in changes in telomerase activity levels between the Ala+*DHA and Ala-*DHA groups (See Fig. 3).

Telomerase activity reduction levels in the Ala+*DHA group during the study were higher than those of the Ala-*DHA group (-0.64 \pm 0.97 ver. -0.43 \pm 0.73), but this difference was not statistically significant (p = 0.4). The same analyses were conducted for changes in P16, IL-6, and TNF- α mRNA expressions, and no significant gene*DHA interaction effect was found on the relative changes of P16 mRNA expression (p = 0.7) as well as TNF- α (p = 0.8) and IL-6 (p = 0.3) (Table 4).

330

331 **Discussion**

The most important finding of the current study was the significant reduction in telomerase activity and enhanced P16 mRNA expression levels achieved with DHAenriched fish oil supplementation even after controlling for possible confounders. In addition, a significant inverse correlation between changes in telomerase activity and P16 mRNA expression was observed with no modulation of the effects of Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPARy gene.

Some cross-sectional studies have reported lower telomerase activity in PBMC for 338 diabetic and hemodialysis patients (26), while some others have reported higher 339 telomerase activity in obese subjects and patients with metabolic syndrome or angina 340 (6). Lower telomerase activity in PBMC contributes to pre-mature senescence and 341 higher inflammatory activity in PBMC (27), while higher telomerase activity in PBMC is 342 explained by the systemic activation of immune blood cells such as macrophages (28, 343 29). Some cellular studies have reported that PPAR activation via synthetic ligands can 344 accelerate PPAR-related cellular senescence in some cell lines that will be discussed 345 further in detail (3, 9). The main objective of the current study was to determine whether 346 347 DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation as a natural ligand for PPARs (not the synthetic ligand) could induce P16 expression levels and reduce telomerase activity in PBMC, 348 both of which are related to cellular senescence. It was found that DHA 349 supplementation reduced telomerase activity in PBMC of T2DM patients and 350 overexpression of P16 gene. Some mechanisms are described for the control of 351 telomerase activity such as regulation of gene expression, phosphorylation of the 352 enzyme, and interactions by regulatory proteins (30). Regulation of human telomerase 353 reverse transcriptase (hTERT), a catalytic subunit of telomerase which is the most 354 important subunit of the enzyme telomerase, comprises the prominent pathway in 355 regulating telomerase activity in eukaryotic cells. Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p16 356 (p16) is known as a more important cell cycle inhibitor that can inhibit telomerase 357 activity by repressing hTERT subunit of telomerase. In two correlated studies, Gizard et 358 al. showed that PPARa activation via synthetic ligands could modulate telomerase 359 activity through the overexpression of tumor suppressor P16 by an indirect mechanism 360

(2, 3). They showed that PPAR α activation via synthetic ligands can lead to 361 RXR/PPARa heterodimer formation and subsequent binding to the DR1 PPAR-362 response element (PPRE) sequence in the P16 promoter and up-regulation of P16 as a 363 downstream target gene (2). The underlying mechanism for the effects of P16 on 364 telomerase activity is explained by the necessity of P16 to the recruitment of P107 and 365 P130 pocket proteins to the trans-activation site of the TERT promoter, inhibiting E2F-1 366 binding to this promoter and subsequent negative cross-talk and trans-repression (3). 367 Although the pathways mentioned by Gizard et al. can explain the finding of the current 368 study related to P16 upregulation and telomerase activity reduction to a great extent. In 369 370 another study, Eitsuka et al. suggested that LC-PUFA, specifically EPA or DHA, can reduce telomerase activity by the underexpression of hTERT and myc genes (31) that 371 can be attributed, to some extent, to the inhibition of protein kinase C (32, 33). Very 372 373 similar results were obtained by Oda et al. for oleic acid (omega-9) (34). One interesting point in the current findings is the lack of differences in PPARy gene expression in 374 PBMC by DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation during intervention (data not shown). 375 Such result could emphasize different PPARy regulatory mechanisms in PBMC and 376 propose that a large percentage of the observed DHA effects on P16/telomerase 377 pathway in the present study was related to PPAR binding and PPAR activation instead 378 of PPAR overexpression. Conversely, neither differences in P16 expression levels nor 379 changes in telomerase activity were associated with Pro12Ala polymorphism in the 380 PPARy gene. Although it is supposed that the alanine substitution in the PPARy coding 381 gene (instead of proline) leads to structural and functional changes in the PPARy 382 protein because of the α -helix formation facilitated by alanine amino acid (35), no 383

significant differences between Ala carriers and non-carriers were found in this study, 384 nor was a reduction in transcriptional activity of PPARy in P16 expression by Ala allele 385 observed. It seems that the phosphorylation status of PPARy that could be the main 386 determinant of protein activity is not affected by this polymorphism. Besides various 387 underlying pathways that control P16 expression in PBMC, it is possible that the 388 relatively small sample size of polymorphic sub-groups, ethnic differences, or the short 389 interventional period could account for non-significant gene-diet interactions despite the 390 baseline genotype stratification. 391

In the present study, no association was observed between differences in TNF-a or IL-6 392 mRNA expression in PBMC with DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation. Moreover, P16 393 overexpression and telomerase activity downregulation were not in accordance with the 394 changes of inflammatory cytokines' mRNA expression, probably due to the different and 395 396 multi-factorial underlying mechanisms involved in inflammatory pathways. Although the primary and classic anti-inflammatory effects of long chain n-3 fatty acids were defined 397 and proven by multiple pathways, including direct PPAR activation or indirect NF-kB or 398 AP-1 pathway inhibition (18), and even though inhibition of the lipopolysaccharide-399 induced overproduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines including TNF-α and IL-6 through 400 the activation of G protein-coupled receptor 120 (GPR120) signaling was defined for 401 DHA (36), it is likely that, because of the presence and coexistence of T2DM and 402 obesity in the studied population, the proinflammatory pathways were so strong that 403 DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation could not down-regulate the expression of 404 inflammatory cytokines. The c ombination of obesity and insulin resistance leads to an 405 increased quantity of activated macrophages in the blood as well as adipose tissue, 406

which directly affects the production and secretion of inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-6, and IL-1b (37). This could account for the lack of differences in mRNA expression of inflammatory cytokines in the current study; as seen by Labonté et al. in 2013, DHA+ EPA supplementation by 5 g/d for 8 weeks in obese T2DM patients had no effect on TNF- α or II-6 intestinal mRNA expression (38).

Because of the elevated P16 expression and reduced telomerase activity by DHA-412 enriched fish oil, the possibility of senescence induction in the present study was 413 proposed. Cellular senescence is defined as irreversible cellular changes such as 414 mitochondrial and endoplasmic reticulum impairment and induction of free radical levels 415 416 in order for cell-cycle arrest (39). The induced secretion of pro-inflammatory factors by senescent cells leads to a condition called senescence-associated secretory phenotype 417 (40). In other words, the anti-inflammatory effects of DHA-enriched fish oil and the 418 secretion of pro-inflammatory mediators by senescent cells resisted each other and 419 made judging the effects of DHA on mRNA expression of inflammatory cytokines 420 harder. However, this subject needs further investigation. 421

This study had some limitations. One is the small sample size of patients in the 422 polymorphic sub-groups, which could partly account for limited statistical power and 423 insignificant results in telomerase activity changes or P16 mRNA expression between 424 polymorphic sub-groups. A second important limitation of the current study is the lack of 425 access to some senescence-related genes or cell-cycle regulators, such as hTERT, 426 P53, or P38, that could broaden the knowledge about cell-cycle regulation. However, to 427 the best of the authors' knowledge, the present study was the first parallel randomized 428 controlled trial in humans that examined the effects of natural PPAR ligand on P16 429

levels as a tumor suppressor and cell-cycle regulator based on the interactions of 430 nutrigenomics and nutrigenetics. These primary results may open new horizons on 431 using natural PPAR ligands for some chronic diseases such as T2DM or cardiovascular 432 disease alone or in combination with synthetic PPAR ligands to reduce drug doses or 433 prevent possible drug-associated side effects. Also, P16 as a key target of the present 434 study is one of the main senescence markers involved in some stem or progenitor cell 435 senescence. On the other hand, because the hypothesis of this study was based on 436 telomerase activity or P16 expression established on PPAR-related pathways and with 437 respect to the key points that PPARa was also expressed in great values in vascular 438 endothelial and smooth muscle cells and PPARy was expressed in white adipose tissue 439 (even more than PBMC), assessing the effects of natural PPAR ligands and PPAR 440 activation on such tissue with the aim of CVD prevention or anti-inflammatory pathway 441 442 stimulation could be recommended for future studies.

443

444 Conclusion

Short-term DHA-enriched fish oil increased P16 mRNA levels and decreased
telomerase activity in PBMC without modulating the effects of Pro12Ala polymorphism
in PPARγ genes. Because of the positive correlation between P16 activity and cellular
senescence, the possibility of senescence stimulation by DHA-enriched fish oil could be
proposed.

450

451 Authors' contributions

452	Toupchian: Initiated and coordinated the study and finalized the study protocol,
453	developed the dietary intervention, developed the first draft of the manuscript and its
454	subsequent versions,
455	Mansoori: Initiated and coordinated the study and finalized the study protocol
456	Koohdani and Sotoudeh: Conceptualized and designed the study and assisted in the
457	development of the study,
458	Ensieh Nasli-Esfahani, Mahmoud Djalali, Seyyed Ali Keshavarz and Shima Abdollahi
459	edited the final edition of the manuscript,
460	Ehsan Alvandi and Reza Chahardoli assisted in the telomerase activity assay and real-
461	time procedure.
462	All the authors contributed to drafts of the manuscript and approved the final version.
463	

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473 Conflict of interest

The authors of this manuscript have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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617	Table 1: Real-time PCR primers
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	Forward	Reverse
TNF-α	CCAGGGACCTCTCTCTAATCAG	TGAGGTACAGGCCCTCTGATG
IL-6	GACAGCCACTCACCTCTTCAG	GTGCCTCTTTGCTGCTTTCAC

	P16	CTTCCTGGACACGCTGGTG	GCATGGTTACTGCCTCTGGTG
	GAPDH*	TGGTATCGTGGAAGGACTCATG	GCTTCACCACCTTCTTGATGTC
619			
620	*Glycerald	ehyde-3-Phosphate Dehydrogenase	
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633	Table	2. Baseline characteristics of type 2 d	iabetic patients
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	DHA-	Control	P-value [†]
	enriched	(n=33)	
	Fish oil		
	(n=34)		
Age (years, mean±SD)	55.9±7.8	56±7	0.9 ^a
Diabetes duration (years, mean±SD)	8.9±5	11.2±7.7	0.1 ^a
Sex (female, %)	47.1	54.5	0.5 ^b
Diabetes complications			
CVD event (%)	11.8	15.2	0.7 ^b
Kidney disorders (%)	2.9	3	0.9 ^b
Hepatic disorders (%)	8.8	9.1	0.9 ^b
Neuropathy (%)	14.7	15.2	0.7 ^b

Retinopathy (%)	14.7	18.2	0.7 ^b
Smoking (%)	5.9	9.1	0.6 ^b
Medication intake			
Metformin (%)	91.2	97	0.7 ^b
Glibenclamide (%)	61.8	63.6	0.8 ^b
Statins (%)	50	48.5	0.9 ^b
BP lowering drugs (%)*	41.2	30.3	0.3 ^b
Aspirin (%)	35.3	27.3	0.7 ^b

Baseline data are given as mean±SD or relative frequency (%) where appropriate.

638 CVD: Cardiovascular disease

639 * Blood pressure lowering drugs

[†]The presented p-values are associated with baseline comparisons of the DHA enriched fish oil and control groups using the: ^a independent-sample t-test or: ^b chi square test.

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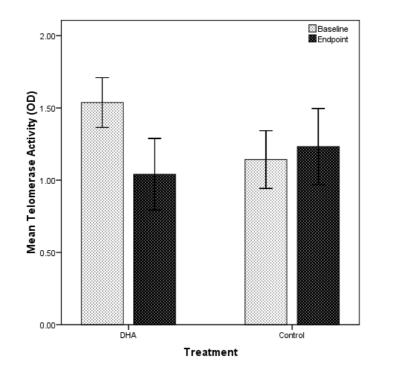


Fig 1: Baseline and endpoint values for telomerase activity in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of DHA and control groups. Telomerase activity was down-regulated in DHA-enriched fish oil group during intervention (p=0.001) while in control group it didn't differed from baselines (p=0.5). Between group analyses of mean changes in telomerase activity, conducted using independent sample t-test, also revealed significant differences (p=0.006).

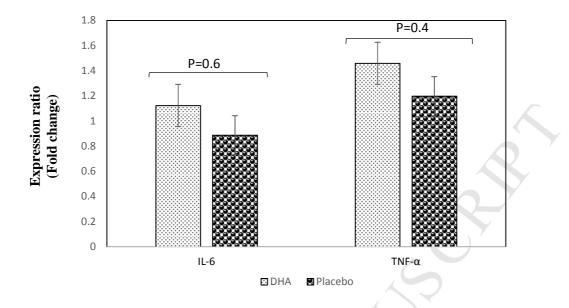


Fig 2: Data is expressed as relative changes in IL-6 and TNF-α gene expressions
(normalized to GAPDH gene expression) in peripheral blood mononuclear cells from
T2DM patients and comparing DHA-enriched fish oil (n=32) and Placebo (n=28) groups
(Independent sample t-test).

- **Table 3:** Comparison of mean changes in telomerase activity and P16 mRNA
- 683 expression in type 2 diabetic patients

684					
685	Variable	DHA-enriched	control (n=33)	ANCO	AVC
		Fish oil (n=34)	Mean±SD	P-va	
		Mean±SD			
				Model 1 [*]	0.006
	ТА	-0.49±0.8	0.08±0.8	Model 2 [†]	0.003
				Model 1	0.021
	P16	1.86±1.5	1.1±1.0	Model 2	0.028
686 687					Y
688	TA: Telomerase	Activity based on	optical density (O	D)	
689	* Unadjusted mo				
690	[†] Adjusted for a				
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Table 4. Combined effect of gene and DHA-enriched fish oil supplementation on
 telomerase activity and mRNA expression in type 2 diabetic patients

	DHA-enrich	ned Fish oil	Cor	ntrol	P-value [†]		P-value [†]	
	Ala+	Ala-	Ala+	Ala-	Intervention	Genotype	Gene*DHA	
	(n=10)	(n=24)	(n= 11)	(n=22)			interaction	
P16*	1.66± 1.5	1.95± 1.5	1.06± 0.8	1.11± 1.2	0.06	0.4	0.2	
IL-6*	1.02± 1.7	1.17±1.3	1.32± 1.6	1.02±1.7	0.09	0.2	0.2	
TNF-α*	1.5± 1.4	1.42± 1.3	1.45± 1.2	1.03± 0.9	0.5	0.4	0.6	

710 Data presented as mean± SD

* Changes in gene expression relative to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
 (GAPDH) during the study period

[†] The presented p-values are associated with: net effect of intervention on changes in
 mRNA expression specified by intervention; net effect of genotype on changes in mRNA
 expression specified by genotype; and combined effect of genotype and intervention on
 changes in mRNA expression that specified by gene*DHA interaction

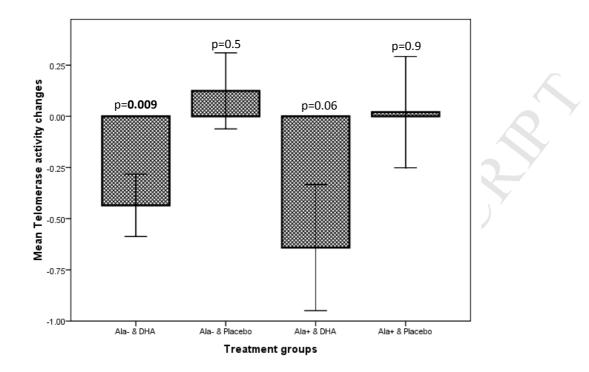




Fig 3: Comparison for changes in telomerase activity in PBMC according to Pro12Ala polymorphism in PPAR-γ gene. There were no significant differences between studied groups (p=0.7) and also Ala+*DHA and Ala-*DHA groups (p=0.4). The presented pvalue above each column is associated with within-group changes during intervention using paired t-test

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