

1 *Concept Paper*

## 2 **Omega-3 fatty acid supplementation – A possible dietary adjunct to** 3 **enhance immune therapy in cancer?**

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### 13 **Abstract**

14 Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-3 PUFA) have been found to be modulators of immune  
15 function. Additionally, they may affect the growth of colorectal cancer (CRC). With the advent of  
16 novel treatment approaches in oncology targeting immune checkpoint inhibition and aiming to  
17 boost the immune response against tumors the exact role of n-3 and n-6 PUFA in inflammation as  
18 well as in CRC needs to be re-evaluated in order to understand potential interactions with these new  
19 treatment paradigms. Interestingly, for the cyclooxygenase (COX) inhibitor aspirin a possible  
20 synergistic effect together with a PD1-Ligand antibody has been shown. However, could n-3 PUFA  
21 be disadvantageous in the context of immune tumor therapy due to an immune suppressive effect  
22 that has been described for these fatty acids in the past, or could they also enhance the effect of  
23 immune checkpoint inhibition?

24 In this paper, we discuss the current data regarding the immune modulatory as well as the anti-CRC  
25 effect of n-3 PUFA. Arguing towards an immune-activating effect of n-3 PUFA, we demonstrate the  
26 results of a pilot study. Here, we show that incubation of human peripheral blood mononuclear cells  
27 (PBMCs) with the n-3 PUFA docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) significantly decreases CRC-cell  
28 supernatant-triggered secretion of IL-10 and increases secretion of TNF- $\alpha$ , while the omega-6  
29 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-6 PUFA) arachidonic acid (AA) reduced TNF- $\alpha$  secretion. These  
30 changes in cytokine secretion upon incubation with DHA demonstrate a possible enhancing effect of  
31 n-3 PUFA on an anti-tumor immune response.

32 **Keywords:** Omega-3 and omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids; colorectal cancer; Cancer Immune  
33 Therapy.

34 **Abbreviations:** AA, arachidonic acid; ASA, acetylsalicylic acid; CM, conditioned media derived  
35 from human colorectal adenocarcinoma HT-29 cells; COX, cyclooxygenase; CRC, colorectal cancer;  
36 DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; LX, lipoxin; n-3, omega-3; n-6, omega-6;  
37 NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cell; PG,  
38 prostaglandin; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; SEM, standard error of the mean; TX,  
39 thromboxane.  
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## 42 1. Introduction

### 43 Aspirin and Cancer Immune Therapy in Colorectal Cancer

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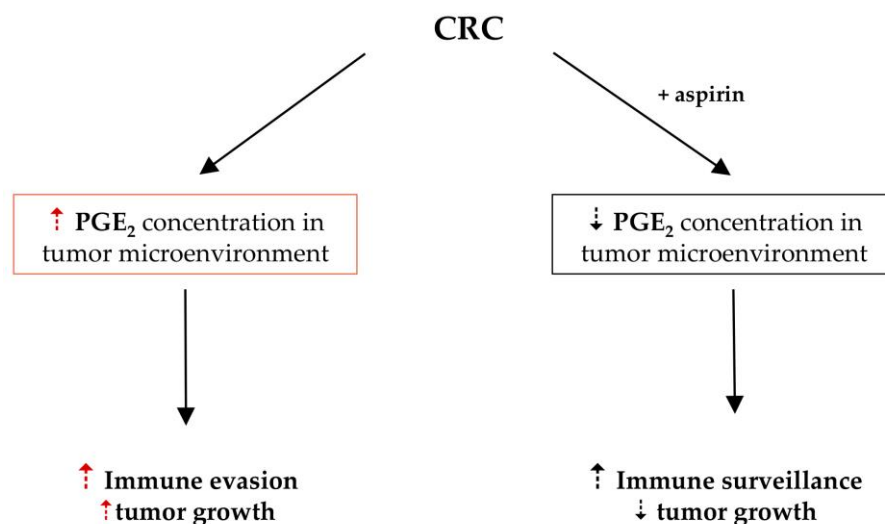
45 Colorectal cancer (CRC) is one of the most common cancers worldwide [1, 2]. Several  
46 epidemiological studies show that the long-term intake of acetylsalicylic acid (ASA, aspirin) and  
47 other NSAIDs reduces the incidence of CRC [3-7]. Moreover, aspirin-intake is associated with  
48 improved overall survival in CRC-patients [8, 9]. These beneficial effects are associated with the  
49 reduced conversion of the omega-6 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-6 PUFA) arachidonic acid (AA)  
50 into biologically active eicosanoids [5, 10]. Experimental evidence suggests that CRC and other  
51 tumors evade immune surveillance and T-cell mediated immune response by an overproduction of  
52 prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> (PGE<sub>2</sub>) [11, 12]. PGE<sub>2</sub> is established as pro-tumorigenic eicosanoid in CRC  
53 development [13-15] and oral treatment with aspirin decreases colonic tissue PGE<sub>2</sub> levels in healthy  
54 individuals [7] and in those suffering from CRC [16]. Thus, NSAIDs, such as aspirin, can help  
55 reverse immune evasion by reducing high levels of anti-inflammatory, tumor-promoting lipid  
56 mediators, such as PGE<sub>2</sub> [15, 17-21].

57 Recently, several studies have been published, which offer the prospect to a novel treatment of CRC  
58 by targeting cancer-immune checkpoints, such as the programmed cell death 1 (PD-1) pathway, in  
59 the tumor microenvironment [12]. The PD-1 pathway is a negative feedback system that suppresses  
60 the Th1 cytotoxic immune response. Its blockade with the PD-1 monoclonal antibody  
61 pembrolizumab can overcome immune resistance of tumor cells [22, 23]. In this context, Le *et al.* and  
62 others demonstrated that especially CRC with high-level microsatellite instability (MSI) are  
63 susceptible to the blockade of the PD-1 pathway [12, 22, 24, 25]. Indeed, the U.S. Food and Drug  
64 Administration (FDA) approved the anti-PDCD1 (PD-1) antibody pembrolizumab for treating solid  
65 tumors with high-level microsatellite instability (MSI) or mismatch repair deficiency, including  
66 MSI-high CRC. These have a large number of neoantigens due to a high number of (frameshift)  
67 mutations. Particularly for this CRC subgroup the concept of an anti-tumor immune response is well  
68 represented [26, 27]. The inflammatory reaction in the tumor-microenvironment is thought to  
69 represent the host's local immune response against infiltrating tumor cells [28]. Numerous studies  
70 concluded that the inflammatory infiltrate in and around the tumor correlates with improved  
71 survival [28-30]. Especially tumor infiltrating T lymphocytes and their subsets show strong  
72 associations with disease outcome. Thus, a pronounced infiltrate of cells positive for T-cell markers  
73 such as CD3, CD45RO (memory T-lymphocytes), and CD8 (cytotoxic T-lymphocytes) correlates with  
74 improved survival and a reduced recurrence of CRC [28, 31-33]. Galon *et al.* were able to  
75 demonstrate that type, density, and location of T-lymphocytes represent a more accurate predictor  
76 of survival than the widely used UICC-TNM classification [32]. Moreover, tumor associated  
77 macrophages, which are associated with poorer outcome in several other tumor entities,  
78 predominantly correlate with improved survival in CRC [28, 34-36].

79

80 Evidence for a synergistic effect of PD-1 immune checkpoint blockade and NSAID-mediated  
81 antitumor pathways has been provided by Zelenay *et al.* [21, 24]. These data show a pivotal role of  
82 PGE<sub>2</sub> in the context of antitumor immune surveillance (Figure 1). It was also shown that association  
83 of aspirin use with CRC survival is stronger in patients with tumors expressing a low PD1 ligand

84 expression level. These findings suggest a differential antitumor effect of aspirin according to  
 85 immune checkpoint status [11].  
 86



87

88 **Figure 1. Effect of PGE<sub>2</sub> in colorectal cancer.** Figure adapted and modified from [21].

89

90

## 91 **2. Hypothesis**

92 Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids to enhance immune therapy in colorectal cancer?

93

94 Based on their systematic literature review, the World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF) and the  
 95 American Institute for Cancer Research (AICR) expert panel concluded that high fish or marine n-3  
 96 PUFA (EPA and DHA) consumption possibly decreases CRC risk [37, 38]. PUFA are fatty acids,  
 97 characterized by at least two carbon-to-carbon double bonds. Their classification is based on the  
 98 position of the first double bond, counting from the methyl (omega) end [39, 40]. Thus, in omega-3  
 99 (n-3) PUFA, the first double bond is located at the third carbon atom, whereas in n-6 PUFA it is at the  
 100 sixth carbon atom [41, 42]. Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA; C20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA;  
 101 C22:6n-3) are essential members of the n-3 series [43, 44]. Likewise, arachidonic acid (AA; C20:4n-6)  
 102 has been found to be a crucial member of the n-6 series [45, 46]. A recently published meta-analysis  
 103 including 19 case-control and 22 prospective cohort studies was able to conclude that intake of fish  
 104 high in n-3 PUFA may significantly reduce the risk of CRC by as much as 12% [47]. Additionally,  
 105 Hall and Kojima *et al.* observed an inverse correlation between n-3 PUFA blood levels and risk of  
 106 CRC [48, 49].

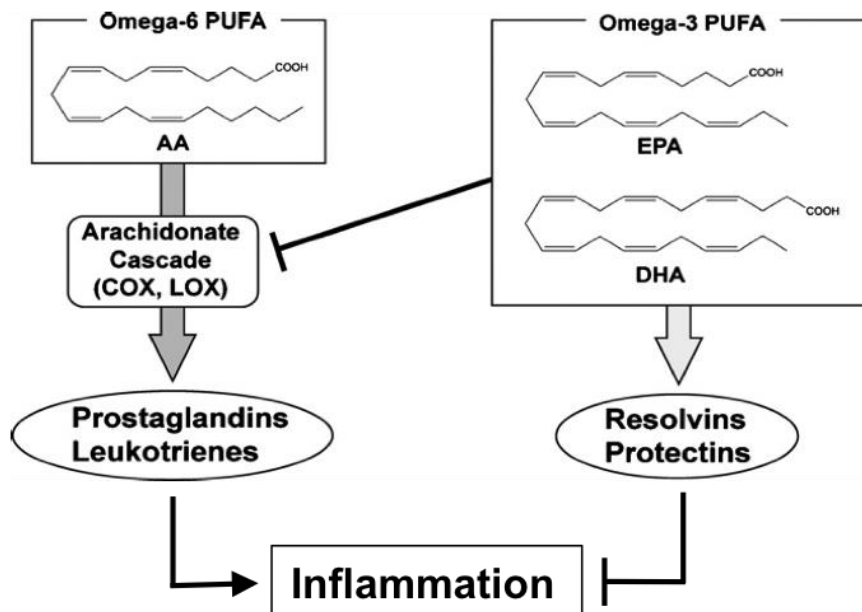
107 Several clinical, animal, and *in vitro* studies have demonstrated the possible preventive and  
 108 therapeutic role of n-3 PUFA against CRC [50]. Thus, it was demonstrated that dietary  
 109 supplementation with fish oil or EPA significantly reduced crypt cell proliferation and increased  
 110 apoptosis in patients with colorectal adenomas [51, 52]. Additionally, the *fat-1* transgenic mice model  
 111 provides evidence that n-3 PUFA and their metabolites are likely to suppress colitis-associated

112 cancer development [53-56]. These mice carry a transferred gene, which encodes for a fatty-acid  
113 desaturase enzyme that converts n-6 to n-3 PUFA, resulting in a low n-6 to n-3 ratio of almost 1 [53].  
114 In a study with dextran-sodium-sulfate-induced colitis-associated colon cancer, *fat-1* mice showed a  
115 reduced number of colonic adenocarcinomas, elevated apoptosis, and enhanced ability to resolve  
116 chronic colitis [55]. An animal model using mice with an APC gene defect (*Apc*<sup>Min/+</sup> mice) reported  
117 similar results for EPA [57]. Moreover, several *in vitro* experiments conducted with CRC cell lines  
118 demonstrated anti-proliferative effects of EPA and DHA [58-61].

119 These studies have also elucidated the multiple molecular pathways by how n-3 PUFA may  
120 modulate cancer development. Previous reviews by us and others summarized and critically  
121 analyzed these pathways [50, 62-64]. Several of the effects associated with n-3 PUFA, such as EPA  
122 and DHA, as well as n-6 PUFA (e.g. AA) are believed to be mediated through action of lipid  
123 mediators [44, 65-69]. AA-derived PGE<sub>2</sub>, in particular, has shown to be pro-tumorigenic as well as  
124 instrumental in tumor immune evasion [13, 14, 21]. Moreover, in a previous study we demonstrated  
125 the ability of DHA to reduce proliferation as well as formation of PGE<sub>2</sub> in CRC cells [70].  
126

127 Many observations point towards polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) modulating the immune  
128 response in the context of colon cancer, possibly mediated by their lipid mediators. These are  
129 synthesized through several enzymatic pathways, including COX, lipoxygenase (LOX), and  
130 cytochrome P-450 (CYP) monooxygenase pathways [71-73]. Past decades have seen a great number  
131 of studies on the functions of AA-derived prostaglandins (PGs), leukotrienes (LTs), lipoxins (LXs),  
132 and thromboxanes (TXs) [74]. This interest is largely due to the well-established role of these  
133 metabolites in several pathological processes, including inflammatory disorders, cellular  
134 proliferation and thrombosis [69, 75].

135 The n-6 PUFA AA promotes a predominantly pro-inflammatory state, whereas EPA and DHA exert  
136 a modulating influence on immune cells [75, 76]. Indeed, AA-derived LTs and PGs can act as potent  
137 pro-inflammatory lipid metabolites (depending on cell type and receptor) [75, 77-81]. EPA and  
138 DHA, on the other hand, inhibit synthesis of AA-derived, pro-inflammatory eicosanoids such as  
139 PGE<sub>2</sub> [82]. Moreover, n-3 PUFA are also precursors to anti-inflammatory lipid mediators, such as  
140 resolvins (RVs) and protectins (PDs) (Figure 2) [42, 76, 77, 83]. In this context, n-3 PUFA and their  
141 derivatives have shown to decrease activation of nuclear factor kappa B (NFκB), a major  
142 transcription factor for the upregulation of genes involved in the inflammatory process [46, 84-86].  
143 Activation of NF-κB results in the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., IL-1, IL-2, IL-6,  
144 IL-12, and TNF-α), adhesion molecules, and the expression of inducible enzymes, such as COX-2  
145 [76]. N-3-PUFA-supplementation and *in vitro* studies demonstrated that n-3 PUFA can suppress the  
146 secretion of IL-1, IL-2, IL-6, and TNF-α from immune cells [87-92]. EPA- and DHA-derived lipid  
147 mediators, such as RVs, PDs, and maresins (MaRs) as well as 18-HEPE and 17-HDHA can reduce  
148 inflammatory parameters in animal and *in vitro* studies [66, 93-98].  
149



150

151

152 **Figure 2. Possible mechanisms of PUFA pro- and anti-inflammatory actions.** N-3 PUFA prevent the conversion of AA into  
 153 pro-inflammatory eicosanoids, such as AA-derived PGs and LTs. In addition, EPA and DHA are precursors to potent  
 154 anti-inflammatory lipid mediators, such as resolvins and protectins. Figure adapted and modified from [78, 83].

154

155 Due to the demonstrated effects of n-3 and n-6 PUFA on the immune system, these fatty acids could  
 156 affect the immune response to tumors. Particularly in light of the previously published findings of  
 157 immune-based therapies in CRC patients, and the paradigm of immune-activation as anti-cancer  
 158 treatment approach, it is now pertinent to reassess the possible effects of n-3 and n-6 PUFA on  
 159 immune cell activity in this context: Do these fatty acids suppress immune function including  
 160 anti-tumor immune reactions, or could they even have immune-stimulatory effects in the tumor  
 161 microenvironment, supporting Cancer Immune Therapy?

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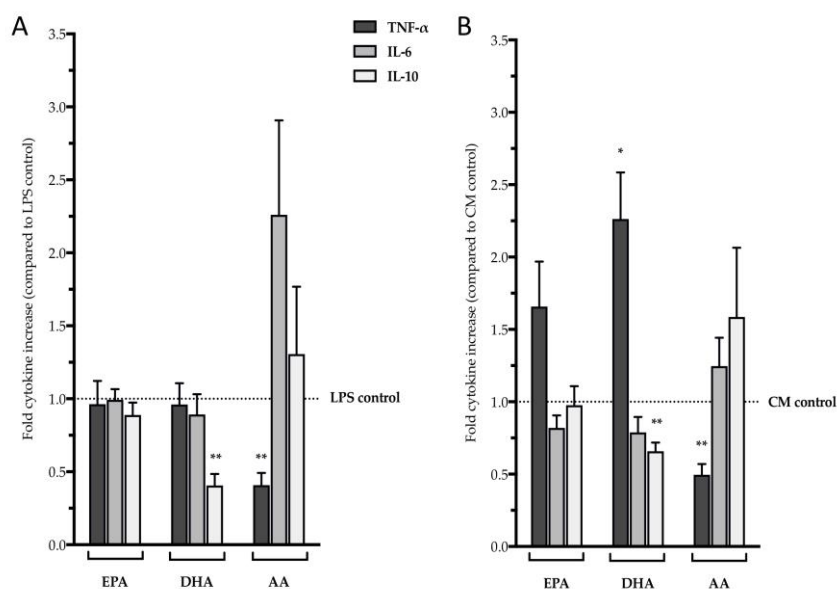
163 As outlined above, high levels of PGE<sub>2</sub> play an important role in mediating effects of AA [80, 99-101].  
 164 PGE<sub>2</sub> inhibits phagocytosis and the TLR-dependent activation of TNF- $\alpha$  secretion via the IL-1R-  
 165 associated kinase-M [100-106]. A decrease in PGE<sub>2</sub> therefore seems to be a plausible mechanism for  
 166 immune-modulating effects of DHA and EPA (Figure 2). In line with the possibility to transfer the  
 167 anti-tumor paradigm stated by Zelenay *et al.* [21] for aspirin to the n-3 PUFA, an increase in the  
 168 dietary n-3 to n-6 PUFA ratio was found to not only correlate with higher TNF- $\alpha$  secretion but also  
 169 with significantly lower levels of AA-derived PGE<sub>2</sub> in immune cells [102] as well as colon cancer cells  
 170 [70]. Indeed, several studies with n-3 PUFA emphasize their inhibitory action on the synthesis of  
 171 PGE<sub>2</sub> [102, 103, 107-109], supporting the hypothesis of increased tumor immune surveillance due to  
 172 this PGE<sub>2</sub>-suppressive n-3 PUFA effect.

173

174 Similarly, incubation of murine peritoneal macrophages with AA potently inhibited LPS-induced  
 175 TNF- $\alpha$  production [110]. It was observed that concomitant treatment of these macrophages with AA  
 176 and indomethacin (inhibiting the synthesis of PGs) restored 90% of the TNF- $\alpha$  concentration, which  
 177 indicates that AA exerts an inhibitory effect on TNF- $\alpha$  secretion via increased PG-levels.

178

179 In our hands, to directly test for effects of n-3 and n-6 PUFA on differentially induced cytokine  
 180 secretion by human PBMCs we incubated cells derived from healthy donors with two different  
 181 stimuli, (1) LPS to mimic activation by bacterial products and (2) colon tumor cell conditioned media  
 182 to mimic activation by tumor cells (Figure 3). This small study showed that DHA significantly  
 183 reduced LPS-triggered IL-10 secretion by PBMCs (Figure 3A). Interestingly, DHA had a more  
 184 pronounced effect on cytokine secretion that was induced by conditioned media derived from  
 185 human colorectal adenocarcinoma HT-29 cells (CM): CM reduced secretion of IL-10 while increasing  
 186 TNF- $\alpha$  levels (Figure 3B). The n-6 PUFA AA, on the other hand, reduced TNF- $\alpha$  secretion by PBMCs  
 187 stimulated with LPS as well as with CM (Figure 3A and B, respectively). In analysis of variance  
 188 (ANOVA), when compared to PBMCs treated with AA, LPS- as well as CM-induced TNF- $\alpha$   
 189 secretion was significantly higher in cells incubated with EPA or DHA ( $p < 0.05$ ). TNF- $\alpha$  is a typical  
 190 pro-inflammatory cytokine, while IL-10 has been shown to exert effects limiting cytotoxic T-cell  
 191 action [111-118]. Considering these findings, our results suggest that incubation of PBMCs with  
 192 DHA results in a more aggressive immunological response against tumor cells, while AA could be  
 193 associated with an immunosuppressive effect in the context of tumor immunity.



194

195 **Figure 3. Effect of three major n-3 and n-6 PUFA (EPA, DHA, and AA) on cytokine secretion by PBMCs. (a) LPS-induced cytokine**  
 196 **secretion; (b) Cytokine secretion induced by conditioned media derived from human colorectal adenocarcinoma HT-29 cells (CM).**  
 197 This small experimental series was established to explore the immunomodulatory effects of n-3 and n-6 PUFA with regard to a  
 198 possible effect of CRC tumor cells. For this, PBMCs were isolated from leukocyte depletion filters, acquired from adult blood bank  
 199 donors. After incubation with EPA, DHA, or AA, PBMCs were stimulated with LPS (a) or CM (b). Subsequently TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-6, and  
 200 IL-10 secretion was measured using ELISA. For controls PBMCs stimulated with LPS or CM, without prior incubation with PUFA,  
 201 were used (for a detailed description of materials and methods used, refer to supplementary data). Data is expressed as the relative  
 202 mean + SEM of 5 PBMC donors as compared to LPS and CM control, respectively. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ .

203

204 However, the implications of the observed changes in cytokine secretion are not entirely clear for  
 205 several reasons. For one, TNF- $\alpha$  has shown to exert ambivalent effects on cancer cells, depending on  
 206 the activation of intracellular pathways [119, 120]. Also the role of IL-10 in the context of cancer is

207 controversial: While many data show that IL-10 can reduce antigen-specific T-cell activation and  
 208 induce T-cell anergy [118, 121] and might thus be a pro-tumorigenic inflammatory mediator  
 209 [122], recent data demonstrate an important role for IL-10 in effective immune surveillance of tumor  
 210 cells [123, 124].

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### 213 3. Conclusion and Outlook

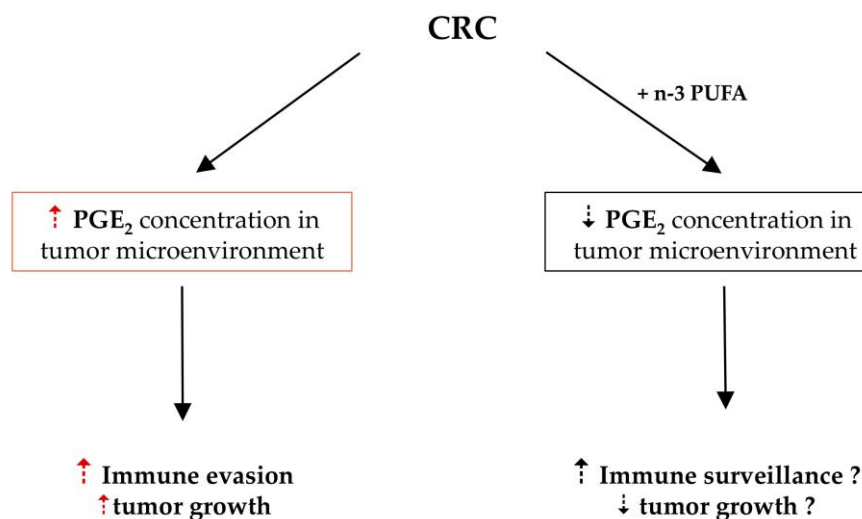
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215 The primary prevention of CRC by long-term NSAID-intake, in particular aspirin, is believed to be  
 216 caused by a reduced conversion of AA into biologically active eicosanoids such as PGE<sub>2</sub>, which has  
 217 been shown to contribute to immune evasion by tumor cells [15, 17-21]. Additionally, the recently  
 218 published studies on immune checkpoint inhibitors demonstrate the clinical effectiveness of  
 219 increasing an anti-tumor immune response as a novel treatment approach in CRC [123-126]. Indeed,  
 220 the data reviewed above indicate a possible supporting effect of aspirin in the context of immune  
 221 checkpoint inhibitor use for cancer therapy [21].

222

223 Our summary presented here raises the possibility of a pro-immunogenic effect of n-3 PUFA in the  
 224 context of the immune system's response to cancer (Figure 4). This could be of particular interest  
 225 with the advent of immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy in oncology as this implies the possibility of  
 226 an enhancing effect of n-3 PUFA in the context of these therapeutic interventions.

227



228

229 **Figure 4. Possible effect of n-3 PUFA in colorectal cancer.** In analogy to the aspirin effect increasing the anti-tumor immune response  
 230 [21] n-3 PUFA might have a similar effect.

231

232 We therefore propose future studies, in experimental (animal) models as well as in the clinical  
 233 setting, to test for an enhanced anti-tumor effect of the combination of high n-3 PUFA  
 234 supplementation with cancer immunotherapy as compared to immunotherapy in the context of a  
 235 high n-6 PUFA environment.

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