Letter to the Editor

n-6 Fatty acids and risk for CHD: consider all the evidence

(First published online 17 June 2011)

Ramsden et al. have recently confirmed what many other studies have shown: that consumption of vegetable oils rich in n-6 PUFA lowers the risk of CHD⁽¹⁾. These authors performed a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials which evaluated the effects of increased consumption of such oils, largely in place of animal fats, on CHD outcomes. The key difference from a similar meta-analysis(2) was that here the authors stratified studies by whether the vegetable oil intervention included any n-3 PUFA or not, i.e. soyabean oil (which contains small amounts of α -linolenic acid (ALA)) or maize oil (which contains little to no ALA). The former group also included one trial that encouraged cod liver oil consumption. In the four trials utilising soyabean oil, CHD events were reduced by 22% (relative risk (RR) 0.78 (95% CI 0.65, 0.93): P=0.005); these results were robust in various sensitivity analyses. This is a welcomed observation, as these authors had previously worried that soyabean oil, with its 'high' n-6:n-3 PUFA ratio, would increase CHD risk⁽³⁾. Here, based on their own estimates from the soyabean oil trials in which n-6 PUFA consumption was often raised to very high levels (far exceeding the currently recommended 5-10% energy from PUFA and producing, in three trials, n-6:n-3 PUFA ratios ranging from 7 to 21), they demonstrated CHD benefit, not detriment. Thus, these results directly contradict widely cited but unsupported hypotheses that high n-6 PUFA intakes or 'high' n-6:n-3 PUFA ratios, increase the risk of CHD.

In the two trials utilising maize oil, no significant effect on CHD events was seen (RR $1\cdot13$ (95% CI $0\cdot84$, $1\cdot53$); $P=0\cdot43$). Because of its limited statistical power, this two-trial analysis provides insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis that consumption of maize oil reduces (or increases) CHD events, and it clearly cannot support the authors' statement that 'advice to specifically increase n-6 PUFA intake is unlikely to provide the intended benefits, and may actually increase the risk of CHD and death'.

As pointed out in our own previous studies^(2,4), each of these fat/oil-substitution randomised trials had important potential limitations, such as lack of double-blinding, non-compliance, somewhat variable dietary interventions, and limited statistical power due to small sample sizes or few events. In the setting of such limitations, performing stratified analyses is interesting for hypothesis generation but is insufficient for deriving meaningful conclusions. Accordingly, evidence from these types of trials, although helpful and relevant, should be interpreted cautiously and – more importantly – in the

context of supporting (or contradictory) evidence from other types of studies in human subjects.

This last critical point appears wholly forgotten by Ramsden et al. (1). Metabolic feeding trials demonstrate clear benefits of n-6 PUFA consumption on blood lipid levels (5) and large prospective observational cohorts demonstrate significant inverse associations between n-6 PUFA or total PUFA consumption and risk of CHD events (6,7). The magnitudes of both the expected lower risk from blood lipid changes and the observed lower risk in cohort studies are remarkably consistent with the risk reduction demonstrated by Ramsden et al. (1) in the soyabean oil trials and in prior meta-analyses of all PUFA trials⁽²⁾. The total body of evidence continues to support the view that higher consumption of n-6 PUFA lowers the risk of CHD. Based on these findings, and together with emerging evidence on cardiovascular benefits of ALA⁽⁸⁾, it would be reasonable to recommend (as the American Heart Association has done (4,9) increased consumption of both forms of PUFA - n-6 and n-3 both plant- and fish-derived.

Conflicts of interest

W. S. H. has been a speaker for GlaxoSmithKline and a consultant to several other companies with interests in *n-3* fatty acids, including Monsanto, Acasti Pharma, Unilever and Omthera. In addition, he is the owner of OmegaQuant, LLC which provides blood fatty acid testing to researchers and clinicians.

I. A. B. was employed by Wageningen University and posted to the Wageningen Centre for Food Sciences (WCFS) for 100% of her time from 1999 to 2005. The WCFS is a partnership which receives funding from the Netherlands Ministry of Economic Affairs, five research organisations (University of Groningen, Wageningen University and Research Centre, Maastricht University, NIZO Food Research, and TNO Quality of Life) and six Dutch food industries. In 2006 she moved to VU University but continued with the WCFS and its successor Top Institute (TI) Food and Nutrition for 40% of her time in 2006 and for 10% in 2007 and the first half of 2008. Her research involved B vitamins and *n*-3 fatty acids. As from August 2008 she has no conflicts of interest to report.

D. M. reports receiving research grants from GlaxoSmith-Kline, Sigma Tau, Pronova, and the National Institutes of Health for an investigator-initiated, not-for-profit clinical trial 952 Letter to the Editor

of fish oil; travel reimbursement, honoraria, or consulting fees from Aramark, Unilever, SPRIM, and Nutrition Impact for topics related to diet and cardiovascular health; and royalties from UpToDate for an online chapter on fish oil.

> William S. Harris Cardiovascular Health Research Center Sanford Research/USD and Sanford School of Medicine University of South Dakota Sioux Falls

SDUSA

MA

email bill.harris@sanfordhealth.org

Ingeborg A. Brouwer Department of Health Sciences and the EMGO Institute for Health Care Research Faculty of Earth and Life Sciences VU University Amsterdam The Netherlands

Dariush Mozaffarian Division of Cardiovascular Medicine Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School and Departments of Epidemiology and Nutrition Harvard School of Public Health **Boston**

USA

doi:10.1017/S000711451100105X

References

- 1. Ramsden CE, Hibbeln JR, Majchrzak SF, et al. (2010) n-6 Fatty acid-specific and mixed polyunsaturate dietary interventions have different effects on CHD risk: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. Br J Nutr 104, 1586-1600.
- Mozaffarian D, Micha R & Wallace S (2010) Effects on coronary heart disease of increasing polyunsaturated fat in place of saturated fat: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. PLoS Med 7, e1000252.
- 3. Hibbeln JR, Nieminen LR, Blasbalg TL, et al. (2006) Healthy intakes of n-3 and n-6 fatty acids: estimations considering worldwide diversity. Am J Clin Nutr 83, 1483S-1493S.
- 4. Harris WS, Mozaffarian D, Rimm EB, et al. (2009) Omega-6 fatty acids and risk for cardiovascular disease: a science advisory from the American Heart Association Nutrition Committee. Circulation 119, 902-907.
- 5. Mensink RP, Zock PL, Kester AD, et al. (2003) Effects of dietary fatty acids and carbohydrates on the ratio of serum total to HDL cholesterol and on serum lipids and apolipoproteins: a meta-analysis of 60 controlled trials. Am J Clin Nutr 77, 1146-1155.
- 6. Oh K, Hu FB, Manson JE, et al. (2005) Dietary fat intake and risk of coronary heart disease in women: 20 years of follow-up of the Nurses' Health Study. Am J Epidemiol 161, 672-679.
- 7. Jakobsen MU, O'Reilly EJ, Heitmann BL, et al. (2009) Major types of dietary fat and risk of coronary heart disease: a pooled analysis of 11 cohort studies. Am J Clin Nutr 89,
- 8. Geleijnse JM, de Goede J & Brouwer IA (2010) α-Linolenic acid: is it essential to cardiovascular health? Curr Atheroscler Rep **12**, 359–367.
- 9. Kris-Etherton PM, Harris WS & Appel LJ (2002) Fish consumption, fish oil, omega-3 fatty acids, and cardiovascular disease. Circulation 106, 2747-2757.

