

**Odd chain fatty acids and odd chain phenolic lipids (alkylresorcinols): Essential for diet?**

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## Abstract

8 Odd chain fatty acids (C15:0 and C17:0) from dairy fat as well as odd chain phenolic  
9 lipids (alkylresorcinols) from whole grain are commonly reviewed as candidate  
10 biomarkers for dietary analysis and their ingestion are inversely related to chronic disease  
11 risks. Therefore, low levels of dietary intake of these odd chain molecules may be related  
12 to higher risk of physiological states that cause chronic diseases or mortality. It is a  
13 prerequisite to examine and understand their main role in beneficial health effects in  
14 disease prevention. We propose odd chain fatty acids (OC-FA) and most importantly odd  
15 chain phenolic lipids (OC-PL) as potential essential dietary compounds since they play  
16 key roles in physiological mechanisms. This review evaluates potential roles of OC-FA  
17 and OC-PL in mitigating chronic diseases *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies to support our  
18 hypothesis for odd chain molecules as essential dietary lipids. Further studies are needed  
19 to investigate the relationship between reduced intake of OC-FA and OC-PL containing  
20 foods and susceptibilities to chronic diseases.

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30       **1. Introduction**

31   Observational studies have shown an association of plasma odd chain fatty acids (OC-  
32   FA) with the consumption of dairy products, especially milk fat with lower risk of  
33   cardiometabolic diseases (Hodson, Skeaff, & Fielding, 2008; Kröger et al., 2010;  
34   Smedman, Gustafsson, Berglund, & Vessby, 1999). Similarly, epidemiologic studies  
35   have also shown an inverse relationship between consumption of whole grains and the  
36   risk of chronic diseases, and main contribution of this health benefits could be attributed  
37   to protection effects of phytochemicals such as alkylresorcinols. Alkylresorcinols are  
38   amphiphilic odd chain phenolic lipids; they play structural roles in the cell membrane  
39   including antioxidant, antibacterial, cytotoxic, genotoxic, and signalling properties. Their  
40   structural diversity and related biological activities have been reviewed (Kozubek &  
41   Tyman, 1999).

42   The aim of this review is to propose OC-FA and OC-PL as essential dietary lipids. OC-  
43   FA will first be discussed briefly in the following section; then OC-PL will be presented  
44   with their health beneficial effects in mitigating chronic diseases *in vitro* and *in vivo*  
45   studies to support our hypothesis for odd chain molecules as essential dietary  
46   lipids. Further studies are needed to investigate the relationship between reduced intake  
47   of OC-FA and OC-PL containing foods and susceptibilities to chronic diseases.

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49       **2. Odd chain fatty acids; C15:0 & C17:0**

50   OC-FA are pentadecanoic (C15:0) and heptadecanoic (C17:0) fatty acids with an odd  
51   numbered acyl chain while OC-PL are phenolics with odd numbered alkyl chains. Their  
52   incorporation into cell membranes can enhance functionality by effecting membrane

53 fluidity. Odd chain saturated fatty acids have lower melting points that can increase  
54 fluidity of cellular membranes than their lower even-numbered homologs (Kurotani et al.,  
55 2017a).

56 Studies have linked increase in odd-chain saturated fatty acids concentrations with  
57 reduced risk of coronary heart disease and diabetes. The EPIC-Norfolk prospective study  
58 assessed the relationship between plasma phospholipid fatty acid concentration and  
59 coronary heart disease in a European population and found that increased concentrations  
60 of plasma odd chain phospholipid fatty acids resulted in a lower risk of coronary heart  
61 disease (Khaw, Friesen, Riboli, Luben, & Wareham, 2012). The EPIC-InterAct case-  
62 cohort study investigated the association of individual plasma phospholipid saturated  
63 fatty acids and type 2 diabetes incidences in a European population. The study  
64 demonstrated the inverse association of odd chain fatty acids C15:0 (pentadecanoic acid)  
65 and C17:0 (heptadecanoic acid) and positive relationship of even chain saturated fatty  
66 acids (C14:0, C16:0, and C18:0) with type 2 diabetes (Forouhi et al., 2014). Moreover, an  
67 inverse association between longer chain saturated fatty acids (C20:0, C22:0, C23:0, and  
68 C24:0) was found furthering the argument that all saturated fatty acids should not be  
69 classified as adverse to health. A cross-sectional study Kurotani et al., (2017a) examined  
70 the association of saturated fatty acids in serum phospholipid and circulating levels of  
71 adipokines secreted from adipose tissue in Japanese population. Elevated levels of  
72 C15:0 and C17:0 fatty acids were inversely associated with circulating levels of leptin  
73 and PAI-1, both of which in high concentrations are associated with increased risk of  
74 type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease.

75 Plasma OC-FA is causally associated with consumption of dairy products and humans  
76 were previously thought unable to synthesize OC-FA, while cows can use propionyl-CoA  
77 instead of acetyl-CoA for OC-FA synthesis (Weitkunat et al. 2017). However, a recent  
78 study by Weitkunat et al. (2017) revealed that propionate production in the gut following  
79 dietary fibre intake, such as inulin, can lead to OC-FA synthesis in humans. The study  
80 showed evidence for a novel pathway for endogenous production of odd chain fatty acids  
81 from gut derived propionate, a by-product of dietary fiber consumption. For 7 days  
82 participants received daily doses of 30 g of either cellulose (control; non-fermentable  
83 dietary fibre), inulin (fermentable dietary fibre), or propionate (3 carbon short chain fatty  
84 acid). OC-FA were then determined in plasma phospholipids. Intake of inulin and  
85 propionate increased plasma heptadecanoic (17 carbon fatty acid) by 11% ( $P<0.01$ ) and  
86 13% ( $P<0.001$ ), respectively, and plasma pentadecanoic acid (15 carbon fatty acid) by ~  
87 17% ( $P<0.05$ ) and ~ 13% ( $P=0.05$ ), respectively, while the non-fermentable cellulose had  
88 no effect. The mechanism proposed for endogenous synthesis of OC-FA due to dietary  
89 fibre consumption in humans is the absorption of gut derived propionate through the  
90 portal vein and transportation to the liver where it is converted to propionyl-CoA and  
91 competes with acetyl-CoA for fatty acid synthesis. Since the starter unit for the fatty acid  
92 synthase reaction has 3 carbons (propionyl-CoA) instead of 2 carbons (acetyl-CoA) the  
93 product is an OC-FA.

94 In a very recent study, C15:0 has been proposed as a potential essential fatty acid that  
95 attenuates inflammation, anemia, dyslipidemia and fibrosis *in vivo*, potentially by  
96 binding to key metabolic regulators and repairing mitochondrial function (Venn-Watson,  
97 Lumpkin, & Dennis, 2020).

98           **2.1 The pathway of odd chain fatty acids**

99    There is an inverse relationship between higher circulating concentration of OC-FA  
100   (C15:0 and C17:0) and lower risks of cardiometabolic diseases, indicating lower  
101   mortality with higher odd chain fatty acids consumption (Venn-Watson et al., 2020).  
102   OC-FA, commonly found in dairy fat are produced by rumen microbial fermentation and  
103   microbial *de-novo* lipogenesis (Vlaeminck, Fievez, Cabrita, Fonseca, & Dewhurst, 2006),  
104   then transferred into the host animal (Jenkins, West, & Koulman, 2015). The microbial  
105   *de-novo* lipogenesis consists of malonyl CoA condensation reactions with acetyl CoA  
106   (starter molecule). Sequential condensation reactions yield mainly even numbered fatty  
107   acids; hexadecanoic acid (C16:0) and less octadecanoic acid (C18:0); they are end  
108   products of *de novo* lipogenesis. Two possible pathways for odd chain fatty acid  
109   synthesis have been mentioned including either  $\alpha$ -oxidation of even number fatty acids or  
110   *de novo* synthesis from propionyl-CoA as starting molecules. More specifically, OC-FA  
111   is produced by alpha carbon removal from the *de novo* lipogenesis end products (C16:0  
112   or C18:0), followed by decarboxylation to produce either C15:0 or C17:0, respectively.  
113   Those odd chain fatty acids in the animal rumen utilized by the mammary gland produce  
114   milk fat, yielding 1.5-2.5% total odd chain fatty acids. Since C16:0 is relatively abundant  
115   compared to C18:0 during *de novo* lipogenesis, the ratio of C15:0 to C17:0 is ~ 2:1  
116   (Jenkins et al., 2015).

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### 121        **3. Odd chain phenolic lipids; (alklyresorcinols)**

122 Phenolics/polyphenols are secondary plant metabolites and they act as a natural defense  
123 mechanism providing protection against external damages (Agil & Hosseinian, 2012b).  
124 ARs belong to a large group of phenolic lipids that differ mainly by the odd-numbered  
125 hydrocarbon chain attached to position 5 on the benzene ring (Kozubek & Tyman, 1999).  
126 Structurally, ARs consist of 1, 3-dihydroxy-5-alkylbenzene (5-alkylresorcinol) and is  
127 alkylated at position 5 by mostly a saturated, odd numbered hydrocarbon side-chain  
128 containing 13-27 carbon atoms. The structure of ARs can vary according to the degree of  
129 unsaturation, chain length, ring or chain substituted functional groups on the alkyl chain  
130 or aromatic ring, and position of the alkyl chain (Kozubek & Tyman, 1999; Ross, Kamal-  
131 Eldin, & Åman, 2004). These isoprenoid OC-PL are present as mixtures of several  
132 homologues and derivatives. ARs occur in high amount in rye (Ross et al., 2003b), wheat  
133 (Kulawinek, Jaromin, Kozubek, & Zarnowski, 2008), and triticale (Ross et al., 2003b),  
134 with the lowest levels reported in barley (Andersson et al., 2008; Ross et al., 2003b).  
135 Phenolics in plants can act as natural antioxidants by preventing oxidation of foods,  
136 enhancing their shelf life. Whole grain cereals are main sources of energy, protein, and  
137 fiber in the world. Their beneficial health effects depend on how they are consumed;  
138 refined or whole grain. Nowadays, they are mostly consumed in refined forms, and large  
139 amount of bioactive components are removed in the bran or germ during milling  
140 (Landberg et al., 2019).

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### 142        **3.1 The pathway of phenolic lipids (alkylresorcinols)**

143 Shikimate and polyketide (acetate) are the two main pathways of phenolic compounds  
144 synthesis. The first pathway forms phenylpropanoids like hydroxycinnamic acids and  
145 coumarins, and the second produces simple phenols leading to quinones formation  
146 (Kozubek & Tyman, 1999). At the same time, the largest group of phenolics (flavonoids)  
147 are formed through a combination of both pathways. Resorcinolic lipids are derived from  
148 the polyketide (acetate) pathway by 2'-oxoalkylresorcylic acid synthase (ORAS), a type  
149 III polyketide synthase (Yu, Xu, Zeng, & Zhan, 2012). The acetate pathway starts with  
150 polyketomethylene chains  $(\text{CH}_2\text{-C})_m$ , which is derived from acetic acid, the activated  
151 forms of acetyl-S-CoA and malonyl-S-CoA (Birch & Donovan, 1953). Both polyketide  
152 and fatty acid pathways are similar since the formation of linear chains occurs by the  
153 addition of  $\text{C}_2$  units. A fatty acyl CoA reacts with malonyl CoA three times to form a  
154 tetraketide intermediate by aldol condensation type reactions (Funa, Ozawa, Hirata, &  
155 Horinouchi, 2006). The odd numbered ARs side chain is the direct result of the fatty acid  
156 precursor (Suzuki, kurano, Esumi, Yamaguchi, & Doi, 2003). The intermediate compound  
157 undergoes an aldol condensation type ring closure and hydrolysis to release the CoA to  
158 form an alkylresorcylic acid. The next step follows non-enzymatic decarboxylation to  
159 yield 5-n-alkylresorcinols (Figure 1) (Baerson et al., 2010).

### 160           **3.2 Pharmacokinetics of OC-PL (ARs)**

161 The primary pharmacokinetic data in the literature comes from alkylresorcinols. Since OC-FA  
162 share similar structures with phenolics lipids (alkyl chain and phenol head group), they  
163 presumably follow similar absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion. Generally  
164 humans absorb approximately 60% of ingested alkylresorcinols by the small intestine via the  
165 lymphatic pathway (Linko et al., 2007; Ross et al., 2003a). However, about one-third of  
166 alkylresorcinols can be absorbed through the portal vein and metabolized to DHBA and  
167 DHPPA by the liver before entering circulation (Marklund et al., 2014). Alkylresorcinols are  
168 absorbed and transported in chylomicrons through the lymphatic system, bypassing the liver,  
169 and enter circulation intact where they are incorporated into erythrocytes or present in  
170 lipoproteins (Linko & Adlercreutz, 2007). They are then circulated to the liver where they  
171 either undergo phase I or phase II metabolism or are repackaged into lipoproteins with higher  
172 proportions found in HDL and VLDL compared to LDL (Linko-Parvinen, Landberg,  
173 Tikkanen, Adlercreutz, & Peñalvo, 2007; Marklund et al., 2014). From circulation they can  
174 also be stored in adipose tissue with longer chain derivatives having a higher affinity to  
175 adipose cells compared to their shorter chain homologues (Jansson et al., 2010). In the liver,  
176 metabolism of fatty acids similar to alkylresorcinols are initiated by cytochrome P450  
177 dependant  $\omega$ -oxidation. The two-step oxidation converts the hydroxyl group to a carboxylic  
178 acid thereby shortening the alkyl chain through several  $\beta$ -oxidation rounds producing  
179 hydrophilic DHPPA and DHBA as phase I metabolites which can further be conjugated  
180 through phase II metabolism (Marklund, McKeown, Blumberg, & Chen, 2013). From the  
181 liver, these metabolites are either secreted via bile to the intestine, where they are either  
182 reabsorbed or excreted through feces, or secreted into plasma and eliminated via kidneys to  
183 urine (Marklund et al., 2014).

### 184 3.3 Bioactivity of Alkylresorcinols (ARs)

185 ARs are well known for their bioactivity such as antimicrobial, antibacterial, antifungal, and  
186 antitumor (Kozubek & Tyman, 1999). Their presence in biological membranes and  
187 lipoproteins may provide antioxidant protection by anchoring the alkyl chain into the lipid  
188 bilayer and stabilizing their free radical ; incorporating themselves directly in the membrane  
189 (Ross, Kamal-Eldin, & Åman, 2004). Phospholipids in membranes have an alkyl chain ~18  
190 carbons (Gropper, Smith, & Groff, 2005).

191 The fat-soluble nature and structure of phenolic lipids enable them potentially to cross the  
192 blood brain barrier. There has yet to be a study proving this concept but multiple *in vitro*  
193 studies have shown their potential beneficial effects on pathologies of the nervous system.  
194 In a study (Rania et. al., (2016), mice fed a high fat (HF) diet supplemented with 0.5% AR  
195 and 0.5% triticale bran extract showed a significantly improved antioxidant status ( $p < 0.05$ ) in  
196 liver and heart tissues compared to control mice fed a non-supplemented HF diets. Moreover,  
197 the level of reduced glutathione (GSH) content increased and the ratio of oxidized glutathione  
198 to reduced glutathione (GSSG/GSH- a significant marker of oxidative stress) decreased in  
199 heart and liver tissues of mice fed the HF- AR supplemented diet as shown in Figure 2. These  
200 results are significant since high fat diet causes oxidative stress through increased levels of  
201 reactive oxygen species. The improved antioxidant status with AR supplementation indicates  
202 AR's ability to provide protection against oxidative stress in various body tissues. Further  
203 studies are required to establish the mechanism of action responsible for this added protection.

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205 Ross et al. (2004a) reported elevated  $\gamma$ -tocopherol levels in the liver and lungs of rats fed  
206 purified rye ARs at concentrations reflecting levels similar to whole-grain rye (1g/kg) and rye  
207 bran (4g/kg). Rats fed the highest concentration had 47% less liver cholesterol ( $P < 0.001$ ) and

208 35% less cholesterol in liver lipids ( $P < 0.05$ ) compared to the control diet. The study also  
209 showed that the effect of alkylresorcinols on  $\gamma$ -tocopherol levels may be mediated through  
210 competitive inhibition of the  $\gamma$ -tocopherol eliminating pathway.

211 In a cell line study Gliwa et al. (2011) PC-12 AC cells were treated with an extract of the  
212 outermost fraction of Hazlet rye, containing high amount of ARs (1598  $\mu\text{g/g}$ ), and MTT cell  
213 viability determined to measure mitochondrial activity and biogenesis. AAPH was added as a  
214 free radical generator to determine the cytoprotective effect of the rye extract on metabolic  
215 activity. Metabolic activity increased significantly when cells were treated with the outermost  
216 fraction of Hazlet rye extract in the presence of AAPH, returning the activity to a normal state.  
217 Furthermore, mitochondrial biogenesis increased when cells were treated with the extract. The  
218 treatment of the cells with the extract presumably increased mitochondrial efficiency by  
219 producing more ATP, fuel required for cell function, simultaneously reducing ROS, a by-  
220 product of mitochondrial activity, thus resulting in a more efficient use of oxygen.

221 A recent of Meshginfar et al. (2020) has reviewed the pathways and mechanisms associated  
222 with the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease and the modulatory effects of phenolic lipids on  
223 these pathways (Meshginfar, Tavakoli, Dornan, & Hosseinian, 2020). This study emphasizes  
224 the multi-dimensional influences of phenolic lipids roles in membrane incorporation and  
225 protection; potential in combating Alzheimer's disease. Main factor in Alzheimer's disease is  
226 the deficiency in cholinergic neurotransmission via the neurotransmitter Acetylcholine (ACh).  
227 Also the enzyme breaking down ACh extracellularly (AChE) could be integrated in to  
228 amyloid aggregates and causing to the formation of stable AChE-induced B-amyloid  
229 complexes. The most importantly AChE could be inhibited due to the hydrophobic properties  
230 of the inhibitors and their cationic nature of alkyl side chains (phenolic compounds) (Figure  
231 3).

232 Beta-amyloid plaque, known as a second major agent to initiate Alzheimer pathogenesis,  
233 accumulates outside of the neurons of the cerebrum (extracellular accumulation). Since the B-  
234 amyloid protein is originated from the excision of an extracellular integral membrane protein  
235 (APP-Amyloid Precursor Protein) (Groemer et al., 2011). As shown in Figure 4, the  
236 incorporation of phenolic lipid into the cell membranes is one of the possible inhibitory  
237 effects on formation of acetylcholin esterase-Acetyl choline complex (Meshginfar et al.,  
238 2020).

239  
240 In the study of Kurotani et al (2017), odd chain fatty acid (eg. Pentadecanoic acid C15:0) has  
241 enhanced leptin delivery to its membrane receptors (OB-Rb) as well as higher efficiency in  
242 receptor binding (Kurotani et al., 2017b). Leptin could bind to Janus kinase receptors through  
243 JAK/STAT pathway that brings an increased level of peroximose proliferator-activated  
244 receptor-c (PPARs- modulator of amyloid aggregation) (Greco, Sarkar, Johnston, &  
245 Tezapsidis, 2009). It has been reported that odd chain phenolic lipids could show a similar  
246 improvement of leptin due to their unique hydrophobic alkyl chain (Stasiuk, Kleta, &  
247 Kozubek, 2011) (Figure 4).

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251 The Table 1 summarizes all the studies carried out in our research laboratory since 2011 at  
252 Carleton University, Chemistry Department. Based on outcomes of those mentioned studies, it  
253 can be supposed that ARs may serve as a preventive measure against oxidation linked with  
254 high fat diet and obesity (Agil et al., 2016); higher AR content provides higher protection  
255 against free radical damage (Gliwa et al., 2011).

### 3.4 Studies related to bioactivity-defense mechanism

256  
257 Diet and lifestyle can be the most important factors effecting the occurrence and development of  
258 neurodegenerative diseases as reported in a recent systematic review (Solfrizzi et al., 2017).  
259 Neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson diseases, generally result  
260 from oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction causing pathological processes, including  
261 loss of dopamine neurons (Zeng et al., 2019). For instance, a recent meta-analysis showed  
262 significant association between Mediterranean diet and a reduced risk of major chronic  
263 degenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease (Sofi, Macchi, Abbate, Gensini, & Casini,  
264 2010).

265 Many studies confirm that consumption of whole grain decreases the risk of chronic diseases  
266 such as obesity, diabetes, breast cancer, and cardiovascular diseases (Pauline & Rimm, 2003;  
267 Sytar, Boško, Živčák, Brestic, & Smetanska, 2018). In addition, lower whole grain consumption  
268 has been associated with a higher risk of cognitive impairment in older aged people (Ozawa,  
269 Shipley, Kivimaki, Singh-Manoux, & Brunner, 2017).

270 Recently, wheat alkylresorcinols protected human epithelium cells (ARPE-19) from oxidative  
271 stress induced cell damage (Wang et al., 2019). This protection could be through Akt-dependent  
272 Nrf2/H)-1 signalling; induced in a dose-dependent manner.

273 As shown in the Table 2 the neuroprotective effect of AR-C17 homologue against (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)-  
274 induced apoptosis and mitochondrial dysfunction in PC-12 cells suppressed oxidative damage  
275 and mitochondria mediated apoptosis via the SIRT3/FOXO3a signalling pathway (Liu et al.,  
276 2020).

277 A hospital based case study ( $n=990$ ) (Sun et al., 2019) found an inverse relation with ischemic  
278 stroke risk and plasma metabolites of ARs (DHPPA-3-(3,5-dihydrophenyl)-1-propionic acid).  
279 This study provides further evidence to support the health benefits of whole-grain consumption.  
280 All reported studies in Table 2 support our hypothesis “OC-PL need to be essential in diet.”

#### 281        4. Key regulated pathways in fat cell metabolism

282 More than 150 diseases have been linked to lipids, such as obesity (Manninen et al., 1992), type  
283 2 diabetes (Investigators, 2003), cancer (Vlaeminck et al., 2006), neurological disorders (Reitz,  
284 Tang, Luchsinger, & Mayeux, 2004), high blood pressure and artery plaque (Miettinen, Railo,  
285 Lepäntalo, & Gylling, 2005). Many studies carried out in the fatty acid metabolism emphasis on  
286 even numbered fatty acid chains (C2 to C26), representing over 99% of human plasma total fatty  
287 acid concentrations (Hodson et al., 2008). At the same time, there is also low concentration of  
288 four odd chain fatty acids in human tissues; C15:0, C17:0, C17:1 (Çoker, de Klerk, Poll-The,  
289 Huijmans, & Duran, 1996), and C23:0 (Phillips & Dodge, 1967). Investigations of these OC-FA  
290 attract interests in the research community since they are used as internal standards in  
291 quantitative analysis; act as biomarkers for dietary intervention studies, type 2 diabetes and  
292 coronary heart diseases; and can be evidence for alternate endogenous metabolic pathways  
293 (Jenkins et al., 2015).

294 ARs have been reported to reduce or inhibit triglyceride accumulation (Andersson, Dey, Holm,  
295 & Degerman, 2011) beside their anti-inflammatory properties and antioxidant protection (Gliwa,  
296 et al., 2011). ARs addition in diet can prevent the risks of obesity and glucose intolerance (Oishi  
297 et al., 2014) and help increase insulin sensitivity and cholesterol excretion. This is one of very  
298 few studies that have investigated the physiological effects of ARs.

299 Understanding of fat cell metabolism will provide better understanding on body homeostasis and  
300 its function although information is limited on metabolic adipogenesis processes. Halama et al  
301 (2016) used metabolomics and transcriptomics approaches to determine crucial metabolic  
302 pathways related to fat cell metabolism in their study (Halama et al., 2016). They reported  
303 significantly regulated metabolites correlating with significantly regulated genes at different

304 stages of adipogenesis. Most specifically, the key identified regulated pathways were:  
305 phosphatidylcholines synthesis, even and odd chain fatty acids metabolism, and branched chain  
306 amino acids (BCAA; leucine, isoleucine and valine) catabolism. The most interesting findings  
307 were propionyl-CoA (a product of isoleucine degradation) determination as a putative substrate  
308 for OC-FA synthesis and relationship between BCCA degradation products and intermediates of  
309 the cholesterol synthesis. OC-FA and glycerophopolipids are mentioned as novel biomarkers of  
310 adipogenesis. Previously it has been reported that OC-FA cannot be metabolised in the body and  
311 only ingested by diet (Wolk, Furuheim, & Vessby, 2001), Halama et al. (2016) demonstrated that  
312 OC-FA can be produced by adipocytes. Before it was only hypothesized that leucine could be  
313 degraded into lipids and sterols (Rosenthal, Angel, & Farkas, 1974), in the study of Halama et al.  
314 (2016), it was shown that leucine degradation product 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA can play  
315 a role as a substrate for cholesterol biosynthesis.

316

## 317 **5. Conclusion**

318 In this review, it was aimed to propose-first time- OC-PL as an active dietary lipid that prevents  
319 chronic disease, potentially by providing antioxidant protection in biological membranes. Pairing  
320 with our findings from Table 1 and literature outcomes (Table 2), here we suggest OC-PL (ARs)  
321 as an active dietary fatty acid. Similarly, C15:0 (OC-FA) has already been suggested as an  
322 essential dietary lipid by a recent study (Venn-Watson et al., 2020). Further studies are needed to  
323 investigate the relationship between reduced intake of OC-FA and OC-PL containing foods and  
324 susceptibilities to chronic diseases.

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**Figure 1-** The biosynthesis of phenolic lipids (alkylresorcinols) and various polyketide (triketide, tetraketide and pentaketide) resorcylic acids, adopted from Yu et al.(Yu et al., 2012)

**Figure 2** Theoretical illustration of a hydroxyl radical (OH) scavenged by ARs incorporated in cell membrane (Agil & Hosseinian, 2012a)

521 **Figure 3** Cation-  $\pi$  interaction between phenolic lipid moiety (Eugenol) and tryptophan residue  
522 of acetylcholinesterase (Wille et al., 2010).

523 **Figure 4** Schematic pathways of Alzheimer's disease that are affected by bioactivity of phenolic  
524 lipid. Amyloid plaques are a consequence of  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  secretase on amyloid precursor protein  
525 (APP), then accumulation of the released amyloid beta (AB) pieces. Incorporation of phenolic  
526 lipid into the cell membranes is one of the possible inhibitory effects on formation of  
527 acethylcholin esterase-Acetyl choline complex (Meshginfar et al., 2020).

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