

Leukotriene B₄ limits the effectiveness of fish oil in an animal model of asthma

D T S Z Miranda¹, A L Zanatta¹, E A Miles², P C Calder^{2,3} and A Nishiyama¹

¹Departamento de Fisiologia, Centro Politécnico, Universidade Federal do Paraná, Centro Politécnico, Jardim das Américas, CEP 81531-990, Curitiba, Brazil

²School of Human Development & Health Academic Unit, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton General Hospital, Tremona Road, Southampton SO16 6YD, United Kingdom

³NIHR Southampton Biomedical Research Centre, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust and University of Southampton, Southampton General Hospital, Tremona Road, Southampton SO16 6YD, United Kingdom

Corresponding author Anita Nishiyama

Address: Departamento de Fisiologia, Centro Politécnico, Universidade Federal do Paraná, Centro Politécnico, Av. Cel. Francisco H. dos Santos, Jardim das Américas, CEP 81531-990, Curitiba, Paraná, Brazil

Telephone: +55 41 999452241

e-mail: anita.ufpr@gmail.com

Highlights

- Unraveling the action of fish oil in the lungs of asthmatic rats.
- Fish oil modifies inflammatory pathways with enzymatic specificity.
- Leukotriene B₄ remains unchanged with fish oil supplementation in asthmatic rats.

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to evaluate the levels of eicosanoids derived from arachidonic acid (ARA) in the lungs of asthmatic rats supplemented with fish oil. The present data gives insight into the action of fish oil in asthma, related to its inability to modify the contractile capacity of tracheal smooth muscle reported previously in a model of asthma in rats. Male Wistar rats were supplemented daily with 1 g of fish oil/kg of body weight for 21 days. They were exposed to ovalbumin (OVA) after previous sensitization with OVA to induce asthma. Pulmonary levels of five eicosanoids were measured using immunoassay kits: PGE₂, TXB₂, LTB₄, LXA₄, and 8-iso PGF_{2α}. In asthmatic rats, supplementation with fish oil resulted in lower concentrations of lung eicosanoids produced by cyclooxygenase-2 and 15-lipoxygenase: PGE₂, TXB₂, and LXA₄, respectively. Fish oil supplementation also decreased the non-enzymatically produced eicosanoid 8-iso PGF_{2α}. Fish oil supplementation did not affect LTB₄, a metabolite of 5-lipoxygenase. The limited efficacy of fish oil supplementation in asthmatic rats is associated with a lack of action in reducing the levels of LTB₄ in the lungs. Thus, fish oil differentially modulates the concentrations of eicosanoids derived from ARA via specific pathways in an animal model of asthma.

Keywords: fish oil, asthma, eicosanoid, leukotriene

Introduction

In allergic asthma, exposure to an allergen triggers immediate acute airway inflammation and bronchoconstriction. This condition involves the release of eicosanoids derived from the n-6 fatty acid arachidonic acid (ARA), and their actions affect the functional response of bronchial smooth muscles [1,2]. In the pulmonary microenvironment, these bioactive molecules lead to the main feature of asthma: bronchial hyper-reactivity [3,4,5,6]. Among the various eicosanoids, the presence of 4-series leukotrienes (LTs) has a remarkable effect: they are considered the central mediators of airway hyper-responsiveness and asthmatic bronchoconstriction [7,8,9,10]. The formation of LTB₄ from ARA is via the 5-lipoxygenase (5-LOX) pathway in the lungs [5,7,11]. There is significant literature on the role of LTB₄ in triggering contractile processes in the smooth muscles of the airways [7,12,13,14,15]. LTB₄ activates specific receptors of the airway smooth muscle [16], and it is likely related to airway hyper-responsiveness in animal models of asthma [11]. Increased levels of LTB₄ promote asthma exacerbation, edema, and mucus secretion, which also contribute to airway obstruction [11,12,13].

Other eicosanoids produced from ARA by different pathways also initiate the process of contraction of airway smooth muscle [1,17,18,19]. For example, the cyclooxygenase (COX)-derived eicosanoids thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂), prostaglandin (PG) D₂ (PGD₂) and PGF₂ [19], and F₂ isoprostanes derived by non-enzymatic oxidation of ARA (e.g., 8-isoPGF_{2α}) [20] are all involved. However, these molecules are less potent bronchoconstrictors than the LTs [15,17]. Another eicosanoid involved is lipoxin A₄ (LXA₄) [21], a product of the 15-LOX pathway. This molecule acts to suppress inflammation and activate resolution and recovery processes [22,23]. LXA₄ works

by regulating inflammatory responses in association with resolvins and maresins produced by n-3 fatty acids [6].

The production of LTs is relatively resistant to corticosteroids [14,24], which are considered the first-line drugs of asthma treatment [25,26,27,28]. Thus, the study of treatments with a potential effect on the production of the different eicosanoids could provide an alternative for asthma control [6]. Fish oil is a source of n-3 fatty acids, and when used as a supplement it can reduce the production of some ARA-derived eicosanoids and decrease leukocyte chemotaxis in asthmatics [29,30,31,32,33,34]. Still, the efficacy of fish oil supplementation in asthma remains inconsistent [35,36], and clinical data on the effect of fish oil supplements in asthma have been equivocal [37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43]. Fish oil has a limited impact on airway smooth muscle function in asthmatic rats [43]. This lack of fish oil efficacy may be related to a limited effect on the lung production of inflammatory mediators that actively participate in the smooth muscle hyper-responsiveness of the airways. Thus, this study aimed to evaluate the effects of fish oil supplementation on eicosanoids derived from ARA in the lungs of asthmatic rats to elucidate a possible mechanism for the limited impact of fish oil in airway hyper-responsiveness in these animals. The study hypothesizes that the inconsistent efficacy of fish oil is related to LT levels in asthmatic rat lungs.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Male Wistar rats aged 8 wk and weighing 220 ± 30 g were purchased from the animal house of Universidade Federal do Paraná, Curitiba, Brazil. Rats were randomly divided into four experimental groups: non-asthmatic control (C, n=16), non-asthmatic supplemented with fish oil (FO, n=16), asthmatic (A, n=16), and asthmatic supplemented with fish oil (AFO, n=16). Rats were allowed free access to water and food (52% by weight of carbohydrates, 21% by weight of proteins, and 4% by weight of total lipids; Nuvilab CR1, Nuvital Nutrientes Ltda, Curitiba, Paraná, Brazil). Rats were maintained at a room temperature of approximately 23°C with 55% relative humidity and a 12 h inverted light/dark cycle. The Institutional Animal Ethics Committee, which acts according to the Brazilian College on Animal Experimentation (COBEA) guidelines, approved all procedures (protocol number 468).

Supplementation and asthma induction

Fish oil (Herbarium®, Colombo, Paraná, Brazil) was administered daily into the mouth of rats in the FO and AFO groups using a micropipette at a dose of 1 g/kg of body weight for 21 days. For the allergic sensitization, rats from groups A and AFO received a subcutaneous injection of ovalbumin (OVA): the solution contained 1 mg/mL OVA (Grade II, Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) complexed with 20 mg of the adjuvant Al(OH)₃ (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). The solution was administered five days after starting fish oil supplementation and was repeated seven days later. C and FO rats received only the adjuvant in PBS. Rats were exposed to an aerosol of 5% OVA diluted in sterile PBS for 30 min on three consecutive days before the end of supplementation, using an ultrasonic nebulizer (Ultraneb) as a pulmonary challenge (43).

Lung collection

Twenty-four hours after the final OVA challenge, rats received an intraperitoneal injection of thiopental (20 mg/kg) (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and were euthanized by an injection of potassium chloride (2 mmol/kg) (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA). After thoracotomy, the lower left lobe of the lungs was removed, washed in PBS and frozen in liquid nitrogen before storage at -80°C for later determination of eicosanoid concentrations.

Determination of eicosanoid concentrations

PGE₂, TXB₂, LTB₄, and 8-iso PGF_{2α} concentrations were determined using enzyme immunoassay kits from Cayman (Cayman Chemical Co., MI, USA). LXA₄ concentration was determined using an EIA kit from Oxford Biomedical Research (Oxford, UK). Lung tissue was homogenized (micro-homogenizer IKA T10 basic, Ultra Turrax) at a concentration of 25 mg/mL in homogenization buffer (0.1 M phosphate, pH 7.4, containing 1 mM EDTA and 10 μM indomethacin for PGE₂, TXB₂, LTB₄ and LXA₄ assays; 0.1 M phosphate, pH 7.4, containing 1 mM EDTA and 0.005% butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) for 8-iso PGF_{2α} assay), and centrifuged for 10 min at 9,500 r.p.m. The dilutions of the supernatants were 1:50 for PGE₂, LTB₄, and 8-iso PGF_{2α}, 1:500 for TXB₂, and 1:5 for LXA₄. In the next step, the supernatant, the conjugated eicosanoid-acetylcholinesterase complex, and the specific antiserum were mixed for incubation. The 96-well plates were pre-coated with mouse anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G antibodies. After the incubation period (60 min or 18 h or overnight) at the temperature (room temperature or 4°C) recommended for each kit, the enzyme-substrate was added and incubated for 30 to 120 min in the dark at room temperature. Plates were read on a microplate reader (Multiskan EX, Thermo Labsystems) at 650 nm for PGE₂, TXB₂, LTB₄, and 8-iso PGF_{2α} or 405 nm for LXA₄. Eicosanoid concentrations were calculated from a standard curve, according to the kit protocol, and corrected for mg of lung tissue.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA was used to analyse the data with post hoc comparisons between groups using Tukey's test. Analyses were conducted using Prism 8.4.2 software (GraphPad, San Diego, CA, USA). In all cases, differences were considered significant for p<0.05.

RESULTS

Lung eicosanoid concentrations are shown in Table 1. Asthma significantly increased the lung concentration of all five ARA-derived eicosanoids measured (A versus C; p < 0.05). Fish oil supplementation significantly decreased lung concentrations of TXB₂ and 8-iso PGF_{2α} in non-asthmatic rats (FO versus C; p < 0.05). Fish oil supplementation resulted in significantly lower lung concentrations of PGE₂, TXB₂, 8-iso PGF_{2α}, and LXA₄ in asthmatic rats (AFO versus A; p < 0.05). However, fish oil did not significantly alter lung LTB₄ concentration in asthmatic (AFO versus A) or non-asthmatic (FO versus C) rats.

TABLE

Table 1. Lung eicosanoid concentrations (pg/mg) from asthmatic and non-asthmatic rats supplemented or not with fish oil.

	C	FO	A	AFO
Eicosanoid				
PGE ₂	189.9±23.8 (n=11)	155.7±11.8 ^b (n=13)	265.8±13.6 ^{a c} (n=12)	182.0±7.1 ^b (n=15)
TXB ₂	1207.0±89.0 (n=15)	642.7±85.9 ^{a b} (n=15)	1619.0±114.1 ^{a c} (n=15)	1031.0±81.2 ^{b c} (n=15)
LTB ₄	39.8±5.4 (n=15)	47.5±5.9 (n=13)	73.6±7.5 ^a (n=15)	62.6±5.3 (n=15)
8-iso PGF _{2α}	45.3±3.8 (n=12)	31.4±2.6 ^{a b} (n=13)	56.7±2.1 ^a (n=12)	33.9±1.3 ^{a b} (n=14)
LXA ₄	0.032±0.001 (n=12)	0.026±0.003 (n=13)	0.122±0.015 ^a (n=10)	0.031±0.002 ^b (n=15)

^a p<0.05 vs. C; ^b p<0.05 vs. A; ^c p<0.05 vs. FO.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study was designed to elucidate the effect of fish oil on the production of ARA-derived eicosanoids in the lungs of OVA-induced asthmatic rats in order to understand why fish oil did not modify the contractile capacity of tracheal smooth muscle in this model of asthma reported previously [43]. Fish oil is known to exert anti-inflammatory actions [44, 45, 46] and the assumed mechanism is the modification of the pattern of eicosanoids being produced from ARA, including LTB₄ [46]. In the present work, fish oil supplementation decreased PGE₂ and TXB₂ in lungs obtained from asthmatic rats. These two mediators are derived from ARA via the COX pathway. Likewise, the fish oil group had decreased levels of 8-iso PGF_{2α} and LXA₄ in the lungs from asthmatic rats. These

metabolites are produced by non-enzymatic oxidation of ARA and via the 15-LOX pathway, respectively. The reduction in the levels of these four eicosanoids is most likely related to the incorporation of the biologically active n-3 fatty acids present in fish oil: eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) are incorporated into inflammatory cell membranes decreasing the relative content of ARA [47,48]. We previously reported that fish oil supplementation results in increased EPA and DHA and decreased ARA in lung tissue from these rats [49]. Thus, there is less substrate available (i.e. ARA) to produce the eicosanoids measured in the current study. Furthermore, the altered balance between the ARA and the n-3 fatty acids creates a competition for different enzymes involved in eicosanoid synthesis such as COX-2 [44,45,50,51,52]. These effects likely explain why PGE₂, TXB₂, LXA₄ and 8-iso PGF_{2α} concentrations are lower in the rats receiving fish oil.

Our findings demonstrate an increase in lung 8-iso PGF_{2α} in asthmatic animals not receiving fish oil. This bioactive molecule is closely related to oxidative stress observed in asthma [20,49]. With fish oil supplementation, 8-iso PGF_{2α} decreased in parallel with the before mentioned PGE₂, TXB₂, and LXA₄. The results are in accordance with the study of Yin et al. [16], which found lower levels of 8-iso PGF_{2α} in the lungs obtained from OVA-induced asthmatic animals with fish oil supplementation. The 2-series thromboxanes and isoprostanes have relevant roles in asthmatic inflammation [20] and they were significantly reduced in this study after fish oil supplementation. These mediators increase leukocyte chemotaxis, mucus secretion, and bronchial hyper-responsiveness to various stimuli and contribute to the obstruction of the airways seen in asthma [16,17,19,20]. However, the hyper-responsiveness of airway smooth muscle depends not only on these mediators but on the levels of other potent bronchoconstrictors particularly LTB₄.

PGE₂ induces the production of LXA₄ [1,6,19]. Thus, the observed decrease in the concentration of PGE₂ may also be relevant to the lower concentration of LXA₄ [53]. In other words, lower LXA₄ may not only relate to reduced ARA availability but to the lower PGE₂ production. The reduction in LXA₄ may be undesirable in the context of hyperinflammation, since it is anti-inflammatory and inflammation resolving. This points to a complex interplay between the eicosanoid mediators in determining the ultimate physiological and clinical outcome.

Increased synthesis of 4-series LTs is an essential factor in the acute inflammatory response observed in asthma. As already stated, LTs are the major eicosanoids participating in airway hyper-responsiveness and bronchoconstriction [9,10,11,12]. In the current study, fish oil did not reduce the concentration of LTB₄ in lungs of asthmatic rats. LTB₄ is the most potent eicosanoid involved in pulmonary smooth muscle contractile function. These observations suggest that the synthesis of LTs in asthma depends not only on the availability of the substrate ARA, which is diminished with fish oil administration, but also on other factors. For example, there may be other components of fish oil that affect COX and 15-LOX but not 5-LOX activity and/or expression.

In vitro and in vivo studies have shown that inhibition of the COX pathway could enhance the generation of LTs by increasing the substrate supply for 5-LOX [52,54] and can boost 5-LOX/COX ARA metabolite ratios [52]. In addition, PGE₂ inhibits 5-LOX [55,56,57] and so, once again, the effect of fish oil on PGE₂ production may have permitted continued production of LTB₄, again highlighting the complex interplay between these metabolites. This finding is important because it may explain the lack of effectiveness of fish oil in this model previously demonstrated [43]. This effect could limit the clinical application of fish oil in people with asthma.

In conclusion, fish oil decreased the concentration of several inflammatory eicosanoids derived from ARA via COX and non-enzymatic pathways in the lung of asthmatic rats and reduced the concentration of the pro-resolving mediator LXA₄. However, the concentration of LTB₄, also derived from ARA by the 5-LOX pathway, was not changed. Thus, fish oil differentially modulates the concentrations of eicosanoids derived from ARA via specific pathways in an animal model of asthma.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks to Fundação Herbarium and CAPES.

REFERENCES

1. K. Lee, S. H. Lee, T. H. Kim. The Biology of Prostaglandins and Their Role as a Target for Allergic Airway Disease Therapy, *Int J Mol Sci*, 21: 1851 (2020). doi:10.3390/ijms21051851
2. J. Kolmert, C. Gómez, D. Balgoma, M. et al. Urinary Leukotriene E4 and Prostaglandin D2 Metabolites Increase in Adult and Childhood Severe Asthma Characterized by Type 2 Inflammation. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*, 203: 1 (2021) 37–53. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201909-1869OC
3. P. B. Noble, T. K. Ansell, A. L. James, P. K. McFawn, H. W. Mitchell, Airway smooth muscle dynamics and hyperresponsiveness: In and outside the clinic, *J Allergy (Cairo 2012)* (2012) 157047. doi: 10.1155/2012/157047
4. C. D. Pascoe, L. Wang, H. T. Sytyong, P. D. Paré, A brief history of airway smooth muscle's role in airway hyperresponsiveness. *J Allergy (Cairo 2012)* (2012) 768982. doi: 10.1155/2012/768982
5. N. Debeuf and B. N. Lambrecht, Eicosanoid Control Over Antigen Presenting Cells in Asthma, *Front. Immunol* 9: 2006 (2018) 1-12. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2018.02006
6. O. Kytikova, T. Novgorodtseva, Y. Denisenko, M. Antonyuk, T. Gvozdenko, Pro-Resolving Lipid Mediators in the Pathophysiology of Asthma, *Medicina* 55: 284; (2019) doi:10.3390/medicina55060284
7. P. Sirois, Leukotrienes: One step in our understanding of asthma, *Respiratory Investigation*, 57:2 (2019), 97-110. doi: 10.1016/j.resinv.2018.12.003
8. H. R. Foster, E. Fuerst, T. H. Lee, D. J. Cousins, G. Woszczek, Characterization of P2Y₁₂ receptor responsiveness to cysteinyl leukotrienes, *PLoS ONE* 8(3) (2013) e58305. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0058305
9. K. Pyasi, E. Tufvesson, S. Moitra, Evaluating the role of leukotriene-modifying drugs in asthma management: Are their benefits ‘losing in translation’? *Pulmonary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 41 (2016) 52-59. doi: 10.1016/j.pupt.2016.09.006
10. C. Cai, X. Bian, M. Xue, X. Liu, H. Hu, J. Wang, S. G. Zheng, B. Sun, J. Wu.

- Eicosanoids metabolized through LOX distinguish asthma–COPD overlap from COPD by metabolomics study, *International Journal of Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease* 2019:14 (2019) 1769-1778. doi: 10.2147/COPD.S207023
11. T. S. Hallstrand, W. R. Henderson Jr, An update on the role of leukotrienes in asthma, *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol* 10(1) (2010) 60–66. doi: 10.1097/ACI.0b013e32833489c3
 12. P. Montuschi, M. L. Peters-Golden, Leukotriene modifiers for asthma treatment, *Clin Exp Allergy* 40(12) (2010) 1732-1741. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2222.2010.03630.x
 13. K. Okunishi, M. L. Peters-Golden, Leukotrienes and airway inflammation, *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1810 (2011) 1096–1102. doi: 10.1016/j.bbagen.2011.02.005.
 14. P. J. Barnes, Biochemical basis of asthma therapy, *J Biol Chem* 286(38) (2011) 32899-32905. doi: 10.1074/jbc.R110.206466
 15. S. Watanabe, A. Yamasaki, K. Hashimoto et al, Expression of functional leukotriene B4 receptors on human airway smooth muscle cells, *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 124 (2009) 59–65. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2009.03.024
 16. H. Yin, W. Liu, K. Goleniewska, N. A. Porter, J. D Morrow, R. S. Peebles Jr, Dietary supplementation of omega-3 fatty acid-containing fish oil suppresses F2-isoprostanes but enhances inflammatory cytokine response in a mouse model of ovalbumin-induced allergic lung inflammation, *Free Radic Biol Med* 47 (2009) 622-628. doi: 10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2009.05.033
 17. J. M. Cyphert, I. C. Allen, R. J. Church et al, Allergic inflammation induces a persistent mechanistic switch in thromboxane-mediated airway constriction in the mouse, *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol* 302(1) (2012) L140–L151. doi: 10.1152/ajplung.00152.2011
 18. S. T. Holgate, Innate and adaptive immune responses in asthma, *Nature medicine* 18(5) (2012) 673-683. doi: 10.1038/nm.2731
 19. M. Takemura, A. Niimi, H. Matsumoto, T. Ueda, M. Yamaguchi, H. Matsuoka, M. Jinnai, K. F. Chung, M. Mishima. Imbalance of endogenous prostanoids in moderate-to-severe asthma. *Allergy International*, 66: 1 (2017), 83-88. doi: 10.1016/j.alit.2016.05.013
 20. J. A. Voynow, A. Kummarapurugu, Isoprostanes and asthma, *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1810 (2011) 1091–1095. doi: 10.1016/j.bbagen.2011.04.016
 21. J. A. Chandrasekharan; N. Sharma-Walia. Lipoxins: nature’s way to resolve inflammation. *Journal of Inflammation Research* 2015:8 (2015) 181–192. doi: 10.2147/JIR.S90380
 22. E. Ono, S. Dutilleul, S. Kazani, M. E. Wechsler, J. Yang, B. D. Hammock, et al. Lipoxin Generation Is Related to Soluble Epoxide Hydrolase Activity in Severe Asthma. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine* 190:8 (2014). doi: 10.1164/rccm.201403-0544OC
 23. D. B. R. Insuela, M. R. Ferrero, D. S. Coutinho, M. A. Martins, V. F. Carvalho, Could Arachidonic Acid-Derived Pro-Resolving Mediators Be a New Therapeutic Strategy for

- Asthma Therapy? *Front Immunol* 11:580598. (2020). doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2020.580598
24. P. Gyllfors, S.E. Dahlen, M. Kumlin, K. Larsson, B. Dahlén, Bronchial responsiveness to leukotriene D4 is resistant to inhaled fluticasone propionate, *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 118 (2006) 78–83. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2006.03.040
 25. P. Chanez, S. E. Wenzel, G. P. Anderson et al, Severe asthma in adults: what are the important questions?, *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 119(6) (2007) 1337-1348. doi: 10.1016/j.jaci.2006.11.702
 26. M. Lommatzsch, C. J. Virchow, Severe Asthma: Definition, Diagnosis and Treatment, *Dtsch Arztebl Int* 111 (2014) 847–55. doi: 10.3238/arztebl.2014.0847
 27. G. W. Choby, S. Lee. Pharmacotherapy for the treatment of asthma: current treatment options and future directions. *Int Forum Allergy Rhinol*, 2015 Sep;5 Suppl 1:S35-40.doi: 10.1002/alr.21592. doi: 10.1002/alr.21592
 28. J. R. Castillo, S. P. Peters, W. W. Busse, Asthma Exacerbations: Pathogenesis, Prevention, and Treatment, *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* 2017:5 (2017) 918-927). doi: 10.1016/j.jaip.2017.05.001
 29. J. P. Arm, C. E. Horton, J. M. Mencia-Huerta et al, Effect of dietary supplementation with fish oil lipids on mild asthma, *Thorax* 43 (1988) 84-92. doi: 10.1136/thx.43.2.84
 30. T. D. Mickleborough, M. R. Lindley, A. A. Ionescu, A.D. Fly, Protective effect of fish oil supplementation on exercise-induced bronchoconstriction in asthma, *Chest* 129 (2006) 39-49. doi: 10.1378/chest.129.1.39
 31. J. Miyata, M. Arita. Role of omega-3 fatty acids and their metabolites in asthma and allergic diseases, *Allergol Int* 64:1 (2015) 27-34. doi: 10.1016/j.alit.2014.08.003. ISI:000349583300006. PMID: 25572556.
 32. J. A. Hall, J. Hartman, M. M. Skinner, A. R. Schwindt, K. A. Fischer, W. R. Vorachek, et al, Dietary Enrichment with 20% Fish Oil Decreases Mucus Production and the Inflammatory Response in Mice with Ovalbumin-Induced Allergic Lung Inflammation, *PLoS ONE* 11 (9): e0163819 (2016) doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0163819
 33. A. Kumar, S. S. Mastana, M. R. Lindley, n-3 Fatty acids and asthma, *Nutr Res Rev* 2016 29(1) (2016) 1-16. doi: 10.1017/S0954422415000116
 34. P. C. Calder, Omega-3 fatty acids and inflammatory processes: From molecules to man, *Biochem Soc Trans* 45, (2017) 1105–1115. doi: 10.1042/BST20160474
 35. P. C. Calder, The relationship between the fatty acid composition of immune cells and their function, *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids* 79 (3-5) (2008) 101-108. doi: 10.1016/j.plefa.2008.09.016. Epub 2008 Oct 23.
 36. G. U. Schuster, J. M. Bratt , X. Jiang, T. L. Pedersen , D. Grapov , Y. Adkins , D. S. Kelley, J. W. Newman, N. J. Kenyon, C. B. Stephensen, Dietary Long-Chain Omega-3 Fatty Acids Do Not Diminish Eosinophilic Pulmonary Inflammation in Mice, *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* Vol 50: 3 (2014) 626–636. doi: 10.1165/rcmb.2013-0136OC
 37. F. C. K. Thien, R. Woods, S. De Luca, M. J. Abramson, Dietary marine fatty acids (fish

- oil) for asthma in adults and children, *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2 (2002) CD001283. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD001283.
38. S. Mahrshahi, J. K. Peat, K. Webb, W. Oddy, G. B. Marks, C. M. Mellis. Effect of omega-3 fatty acid concentrations in plasma on symptoms of asthma at 18 months of age. *Pediatr Allergy Immunol* 15 (2004) 517–522. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-3038.2004.00187.x
 39. J. Reisman, H. M. Schachter, R. E. Dales, K. Tran, K. Kourad, et al., Treating asthma with omega-3 fatty acids: where is the evidence? A systematic review. *BMC Complement Altern Med* 6:26 (2006). doi: 10.1186/1472-6882-6-26
 40. C. Anandan, U. Nurmatov, A. Sheikh, Omega 3 and 6 oils for primary prevention of allergic disease: systematic review and meta-analysis, *Allergy* 64 (2009) 840–848. doi: 10.1111/j.1398-9995.2009.02042.x
 41. S. Raviv, L. J. Smith, Diet and asthma, *Curr Opin Pulm Med* 16 (2010) 71–76. doi: 10.1097/MCP.0b013e3283323b73
 42. C. M. Klemens, D. R. Berman, E. L. Mozurkewich, The effect of perinatal omega-3 fatty acid supplementation on inflammatory markers and allergic diseases: a systematic review, *BJOG* 2011:118 (2011) 916–925. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-0528.2010.02846.x
 43. D.T.S.Z. Miranda, A. L. Zanatta, B. C. L. Dias et al, The effectiveness of fish oil supplementation in asthmatic rats is limited by an inefficient action on ASM function, *Lipids* 48(9) (2013) 889-897. doi: 10.1007/s11745-013-3804-4
 44. M. Wada, C. J. Delong, Y. H. Hong et al, Enzymes and receptors of prostaglandin pathways with arachidonic acid-derived versus eicosapentaenoic acid-derived substrates and products, *J Biol Chem* 282(31) (2007) 22254-22266. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M703169200
 45. C. Galli, P. C. Calder, Effects of fat and fatty acid intake on inflammatory and immune responses: a critical review, *Ann Nutr Metab* 55 (2009) 123-139. doi: 10.1159/000228999
 46. N. Krishnamoorthy, P. R. Burkett, J. Dalli, R. E. E. Abdunour, R. Colas, S. Ramon, et al, Cutting edge: Maresin-1 engages regulatory T cells to limit type 2 innate lymphoid cell activation and promote resolution of lung inflammation, *J Immunol* 194(3): 2015 863-867. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1402534
 47. E. A. Miles, P. C. Calder, Influence of marine n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids on immune function and a systematic review of their effects on clinical outcomes in rheumatoid arthritis, *Br J Nutr* 107 (2) (2012) S171-S184. doi: 10.1017/S0007114512001560
 48. D. Fussbroich, R. A. Colas, O. Eickmeier, J. Trischler, S. P. Jerkic, et al., A combination of LCPUFA ameliorates airway inflammation in asthmatic mice by promoting pro-resolving effects and reducing adverse effects of EPA. *Mucosal Immunology* 13 (2020) 481–492, doi: 10.1038/s41385-019-0245-2
 49. A. L. Zanatta, D. T. S. Z. Miranda, B. C. L. Dias, R. M. Campos, M. C. Massaro, P. V. Michelotto, A. L. West, E. A. Miles, P. C. Calder, A. Nishiyama. Fish Oil Supplementation Decreases Oxidative Stress but Does Not Affect Platelet-Activating Factor Bioactivity in Lungs of Asthmatic Rats. *Lipids* 2014. doi: 10.1007/s11745-014-3914-7

50. T. Obata, T. Nagakura, T. Masaki, K. Maekawa, K. Yamashita, Eicosapentaenoic acid inhibits prostaglandin D2 generation by inhibiting cyclooxygenase in cultured human mast cells, *Clin Exp Allergy* 29 (1999) 1129–1135. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2222.1999.00604.x
51. P. C. Calder, Fatty acids and inflammation – from the membrane to the nucleus and from the laboratory bench to the clinic, *Clin Nutr* 29 (2010) 5–12. doi: 10.1016/j.clnu.2009.11.003
52. P. C. Norris, E. A. Dennis, Omega-3 fatty acids cause dramatic changes in TLR4 and purinergic eicosanoid signaling, *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109(22) (2012) 8517–8522. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1200189109
53. P. C. Calder, N-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, inflammation, and inflammatory diseases, *Am J Clin Nutr* 83 (2006) 1505S–15119S. DOI: 10.1093/ajcn/83.6.1505S
54. A. M. Hamad, A. M. Sutcliffe, A. J. Knox, Aspirin-induced asthma: clinical aspects, pathogenesis and management, *Drugs* 64 (2004) 2417–2432. doi: 10.2165/00003495-200464210-00004
55. P. C. Calder, Polyunsaturated fatty acids and inflammation, Prostaglandins. *Leukot. Essent. Fat. Acids.*2006;75:197–202. doi: 10.1016/j.plefa.2006.05.012.
56. P. C. Calder, Polyunsaturated fatty acids and inflammatory processes: New twists in an old tale, *Biochimie*, 91: 6 (2009), 791-795. doi:10.1016/j.biochi.2009.01.008
57. L. Machado-Carvalho, J. Roca-Ferrer, C. Picado, Prostaglandin E2 receptors in asthma and in chronic rhinosinusitis/nasal polyps with and without aspirin hypersensitivity, *Respir Res* 15:100 (2014). doi:10.1186/s12931-014-0100-7