Nanoliposomal Omega-3 Fatty Acids Promote Adult Hippocampal Neurogenesis through the

BDNF/TrkB Pathway in C57BL/6 Mice

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Abstract

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are fundamental for different cellular and structural

processes, especially regarding the nervous system. However, its incorporation in food has many

bioaccessibility limitations, making it important to find new ways of its consumption. In this

work, nanoencapsulated PUFAs orally administrated to male mice for 8 weeks showed better

bioavailability when compared to administration of free acids, also improving the effects on

hippocampal neuronal survival and on the Brain derived neurotrophic factor biological pathway

in this region.

This would mean that the form of administration of the fatty acids can alter not only how much

and how preserved they reach the central nervous system, but also have a differential impact in

the diverse processes they contribute to.

Introduction

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are indispensable structural and signaling components of cellular architecture. While Saturated Fatty Acids (SFA) and Monounsaturated Fatty Acids (MUFA) serve primarily as oxidative substrates or structural anchors, scientific interest in neurobiology focuses, on omega-3 Polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 PUFAs), specifically, eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5, n-3; EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6, n-3; DHA). These molecules are far more than energy substrates; they are preferentially esterified into neuronal membrane phospholipids. Within this lipid bilayer, their high degree of unsaturation modulates critical physicochemical properties, i.e. membrane fluidity, curvature, and the spatial organization of lipid rafts, essential for neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity (McNamara & Carlson, 2006; Rahim et al., 2025).

The physiological efficacy of n-3 PUFAs is dictated by their transition from the diet to the brain parenchyma, a process restricted by the blood-brain barrier (BBB). This transport is not a matter of simple diffusion; it is a highly regulated kinetic event. Recent evidence identifies the Major Facilitator Superfamily Domain-containing protein 2a (MFSD2A) as the primary transporter for lysophosphatidylcholine-bound DHA, while the Fatty Acid-Binding Protein 5 (*Fabp5*) facilitates the uptake of non-esterified forms (Mitchell et al., 2011; Iwao et al., 2023). This transport mechanism represents the physiological bottleneck that determines the neuroprotective efficacy of lipids.

Furthermore, the modern "Western Diet" has shifted the systemic lipid profile toward a pro-inflammatory state, characterized by an excessive n-6/n-3 ratio and high SFA intake, which respectively competes with n-3 PUFAs for desaturation and elongation pathways, and promote membrane lipid remodeling that limits n-3 PUFA incorporation. (Clemente-Suárez et al., 2023). Conventional n-3 incorporation in food, however, is hindered by the extreme susceptibility of methylene-interrupted double bonds to oxidative stress. The resulting lipid peroxidation products not only diminish biological functionality but can also induce cellular toxicity. Consequently, oxidative stability indices and the atherogenic and thrombogenic indices are useful for assessing the quality of "designer" lipids (Chen & Liu, 2020).

To overcome these bioaccessibility limitations, the use of fermented dairy matrices offers a promising strategy as a carrier for omega-3 fatty acids, owing to their ability to optimize bioactive stability and functionality. This approach not only preserves the structural integrity of these fatty acids but also targets the gut-brain axis by modulating the microbiota, potentially establishing a systemic environment conducive to proliferation within the neurogenic niche (O'Mahony & Clarke, 2017). Furthermore, nanotechnology—specifically through nanoemulsions and encapsulation—has been established as a superior strategy to enhance lipid delivery

(Inapurapu et al., 2020). By protecting PUFAs from gastric degradation and optimizing intestinal

micellization, these systems significantly increase the concentration of active fatty acids in target

tissues (Yang & Ciftci, 2020).

A central objective of this research is to elucidate how this enhanced delivery impacts adult

hippocampal neurogenesis in a murine model. The administration of the bioactive compound

was based on the metabolic equivalence of the Recommended Daily Intake (RDI) of 250–500 mg

for healthy adults established by international organizations (FAO/WHO Report, 2010),

integrated into a fermented dairy matrix to ensure its bioavailability and mimic an optimized

human consumption scenario. The dentate gyrus (DG) maintains a neurogenic niche where

multipotent stem cells expressing Nestin (Nes) transition into mature, Calbindin-positive (Calb1)

functional neurons. This continuum is orchestrated by the Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor

(BDNF) pathway among other factors. While DHA is known to upregulate Bdnf (Eckert et al.,

2011; Suárez Pereira, 2015), the specific molecular mechanisms by which nanoencapsulated n-

3 PUFAs (DHA-EPA) modulate the expression of markers of neuronal differentiation during this

process remain under-investigated.

Therefore, the present study evaluates the effects of orally administered nanoencapsulated n-3

PUFAs (DHA-EPA), delivered via a fermented yogurt matrix, in male C57BL/6 mice over a chronic

period. We hypothesize that this formulation increases systemic bioavailability, BBB transport

efficiency, and metabolic incorporation compared to free fatty acids, thereby enhancing

neuronal survival in the DG and robustly activating the Bdnf signaling cascade, as evidenced by

the modulation of key neurogenic and transport markers.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Studies were performed on 51 male, C57BL/6 elite mice purchased at the Instituto de Medicina Experimental, Academia Nacional de Medicina, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Experiments on animals were conducted according to local regulations and were approved by the Institutional Ethical Committee (ResCD-2022-1246-E-UBA-DCT#FMED). Three-four week-old mice, bred in barrier-conditions to maintain an SPF status, were transported in environmentally controlled conditions to our institute's animal facility. After arrival, mice were housed in 1284L Eurostandard Type II Long (365 mm × 207 mm × 140 mm) Tecniplast microisolator cages with filter tops (five to seven animals per cage), with autoclaved aspen shavings as bedding and tissue paper as nesting material. Mice were maintained under controlled conditions, i.e., 22 ± 2°C room temperature, 40-70% relative humidity, 12–12 h light–dark cycle (lights on at 8 a.m.), pelleted food for rodents (Cooperación) and water ad libitum. Cages were changed twice a week. A period of acclimation of 2 weeks was left before the beginning of experiments, and therefore, mice were 5–6 week-old when treatments began.

Yogurt preparation and administration

Raw Materials and Starter Culture

Yogurt was manufactured using commercial pasteurized cow milk (2% w/v fat; *Mastellone Hnos. S.A., Buenos Aires, Argentina*). A lyophilized Direct Vat Set (DVS) thermophilic starter culture, YoFlex® YG-X16 (comprising Streptococcus thermophilus and Lactobacillus delbrueckii subsp. bulgaricus), was provided by Chr. Hansen (Hørsholm, Denmark). Prior to inoculation, the culture was activated by hydrating 3 g of the lyophilized powder in 1000 mL of milk at 45 °C according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Functional Ingredients and Yogurt Preparation

Omega-3 oil (MEG-3™ 2050EE) was sourced from DSM Nutritional Products. Three distinct treatments were established based on the omega-3 delivery system:

- Control: Yogurt without oil supplementation.
- Free Acids: Yogurt supplemented with bulk omega-3 oil (250 mg / 200 mL milk).
- Nano Acids: Yogurt supplemented with a nanoencapsulated omega-3/soy lecithin formulation (10% w/w load). To achieve an equivalent dose of 250 mg of active omega-3 per 200 mL, 316 mg of the nanostructure (provided by Nanotica Agro SRL via an R&D agreement with INTA) was incorporated.

In both functional formulations, bioactive compounds were homogenized into the milk-sugar base (75 g/L) prior to fermentation.

Yogurt Manufacturing

The mixtures were inoculated with the activated starter culture (2 mL/L) and aseptically

distributed into 200 g sterile polypropylene containers. Incubation was performed at 43 ± 1 °C

until a target pH of 4.5 was achieved. Samples were then cooled and stored at 4 °C for 28 days

for longitudinal analysis.

Yogurt Administration

The different kinds of yogurt were administered to mice by mixing it with a palatable cube. They

were made with 10 g of powdered yeast, 66 g of powdered milk, 36 g of sugar, and 14 g of

gelatin, for each ice tray (12 cubes) (Foltran et al., 2020). These ingredients were mixed with 2

ml of each of the three yogurts and with approximately 60 mL of tap water, forming a thick liquid

preparation, which was poured into an ice tray. The 3 cm × 3 cm × 4 cm cubes, weighing around

12 g, were kept at 4 °C and were prepared every 6 days. A yogurt containing cube was given per

cage, every day between 2 p.m. and 5 p.m. Mice voluntarily ate the cubes, immediately after

they were placed in the cages.

Experiments:

All mice were divided into 3 groups (control vs the two types of yogurt formulation) for 3

different experiments. For the first protocol, 5 mice per group were administered the yogurt

cubes for 4 weeks. At the end of the treatment, all mice were deeply anesthetized (20 mg/kg

xylazine and 200 mg/kg ketamine) and blood was obtained by intracardiac collection, from

which serum was extracted to quantify fatty acids concentrations. After death confirmation,

mice were decapitated, brains were removed, and both hippocampus (HC) were obtained,

where the left hemi-HCs were prepared for protein extraction and Western blots and the right

hemi-HCs were used for mRNA measurements by qRT-PCR.

For the second experiment, in order to study neuronal proliferation 18 mice n = 6 per group)

were administered yogurt cubes for 4 weeks. The thymidine analog 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine

(BrdU; Sigma, B9285) was administered to mice at the end of the treatment, in order to label

dividing cells. Animals received two ip injections of BrdU, 50 mg/kg each, at a 2 h interval. BrdU

was dissolved in 0.9% NaCl at 50 °C. The next day, all mice were deeply anesthetized (20 mg/kg

xylazine and 200 mg/kg ketamine) and transcardially perfused with 5 mL of 0.9% NaCl with

heparin and 50 mL of 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4)

for 15 min. Brains were recovered, post-fixed for 24 h at 4 °C, and cryoprotected with a 30%

sucrose solution. Brains were then sliced into 35 μm thick coronal sections through the

hippocampus (bregma −0.94 to −3.80) with a freezing microtome. Sections were stored at 4 °C

in 0.1 M PBS with 0.1% sodium azide if not used immediately.

For the last trial, the yogurt cubes were administered for 8 weeks to 18 mice (6 per group) to
study the survival of newborn neurons. Animals received two ip injections of BrdU, 50 mg/kg
each, at a 2 h interval for two consecutive days at the end of the 4th week of treatment. Mice
were then continued treatment for 4 more weeks, so that BrdU labeled 4 week-old neurons. At
the end of the treatment, all mice were deeply anesthetized and transcardially perfused, as
stated before.

Fatty acid profile determination

Serum fatty acid profile was determined by gas chromatography: Chromatograph: Perkin Elmer
Clarus 500; Column: Supelco SP 2560 100 m x 0.25 mm x 0.20 μm; FID detector 280 °C; Carrier
gas: helium. Previously, serum lipids were converted into methyl esters according to the Lepage
and Roy method as follows: 2 mL of methanol/toluene (4:1) were added to 200 μL of serum,
followed by 0.2 mL of acetyl chloride using a vortex mixer. The mixture was incubated at 100 °C
for one hour. Then, 5 mL of 6% potassium carbonate was added, and the samples were
centrifuged. 1 μL of the toluene layer was injected into the chromatograph. Fatty acid methyl
esters (FAMEs) were identified based on their retention times by comparison with the PUFA No.
2 (Animal Source) FAME analytical standard (SUPELCO 47015-U). The results (mean ±SD) were
expressed as the per cent (%) of total fatty acids content, with a quantification limit of 0.05%
(Lepage & Roy, 1986; Rodríguez-Palmero, 1998; Fernandez, 2021).

Western Blotting

Tissue was homogenized with 250 μl of RIPA buffer along with protease inhibitors (150 mM NaCl,
1% NP-40, 0.5% Sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 50 mM Tris) and centrifuged at 4°C for 30 min
at 13000 (r/min). The supernatants were recovered and protein levels were quantified by the
Bradford protein assay. Samples (50 μgr in 5× loading buffer) were then loaded into SDS-PAGE
gels (12 or 15%) and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using the Mini-PROTEAN® Tetra
System (BIO-RAD) for 1 h.
Membranes were incubated for 1 h with blocking solution (5% milk in TBST) and then probed
overnight at 4°C with mouse anti-BDNF (1:2000; Icosagen; 327-100 clone 3C11), rabbit anti-p75
(1:700; Alomone Labs; ANT-007), rabbit anti-TrkB (1:700; Alomone Labs; ANT-019), and rabbit
anti-proBDNF (1:2500; Genocopoeia) in TBST. Actin was used as a loading control (1:2000; Santa
Cruz). Binding of primary antibodies was visualized with anti-mouse HRP-conjugated secondary
antibody (1:20000; Invitrogen) or anti-rabbit HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (1:20000;
Invitrogen). Membranes were developed using the ECL Plus Western blotting substrate (Thermo
Fisher Scientific) for chemiluminescence with the Gene Gnome® Imager. Densitometry was

carried out using ImageJ software (Schneider et al., 2012). The signal of each protein is expressed

after subtraction of background signal and related to actin signal.

qRT-PCR

Hippocampal tissue was collected in 250 μL cold Trizol (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) and

homogenized using plastic pestles for homogenizers. RNA was isolated according to the

manufacturer's protocol. After addition of chloroform, samples were centrifuged at 11,000 ×g

for 15 min at 4 °C. The aqueous phase was transferred and RNA was precipitated with

isopropanol, washed with 75% ethanol and resuspended in 15 μL of RNase-free DEPC-treated

water. RNA concentration of the tissue was quantified with the Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (RNA

Assay BR Kit, Invitrogen). To ensure genomic DNA removal, 1 μg of total RNA was treated with

1 U/μL of DNase I (Invitrogen) for 15 min. RNA purity and absence of residual DNA were verified

by qPCR using non-reverse-transcribed RNA as a negative control. Samples were stored at −80

°C until further use.

Reverse Transcription Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR) was carried out in a

StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA), and the data were analyzed

with StepOne software v2.2. The retrotranscription and amplification reactions were performed

in a total volume of 10 μl buffer solution containing 2 μl of template RNA, 5 μl of 2× iTaq universal

SYBR® Green reaction mix (2x), 0.125 μl iScript reverse transcriptase (Applied Biosystems), 2.08

μl RNase-free DEPC-treated water and 0.4 μl of each primer (400 μM). Primers for BDNF (Brain-

Derived Neurotrophic Factor), FABP5 (Fatty Acid Binding Protein 5), CALB (Calbindin) and Nest

(Nestin) were designed using Primer Express software (Applied Biosystems) and described in

table 1.

The thermal cycling profile consisted of:

-UNG pre-incubation: 50 °C for 2 min.

-Initial denaturation: 95 °C for 1 min.

-Amplification (40 cycles): 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min.

-Melt curve analysis: 95 °C (15 s), 60 °C (1 min), and a final ramp to 95 °C at 0.6 °C/s to confirm

amplicon specificity.

To ensure the robustness of the gene expression analysis, three independent biological

replicates were processed per experimental group, following the recommendations of the MIQE

guidelines (Bustin et al., 2009). Each biological sample was analyzed in triplicate using qRT-PCR.

This balanced design allows for an accurate estimation of experimental error even with

biological sample sizes of n=3, ensuring that the observed differences possess true statistical

and biological significance.

Target gene expression was normalized against β-actin (ACTB) as the internal reference gene.

The dynamic range was established using a six-point standard curve derived from three

independent biological replicates, each processed in technical triplicate (n=9 per dilution). R2

values and amplification efficiencies were calculated based on mean Cq values, incorporating a

housekeeping gene (also analyzed in triplicate) for normalization. Relative CT (threshold cycle)

values were calculated by subtracting the CT value of the housekeeping gene ACTB (beta-actin)

from the CT values. Relative expression was calculated as E^−ΔCt, where E is the efficiency

measured for each set of primers.

Gene Symbol	Accession No.	Primer Sequence (5' →3')	E (%)	R^2	Dynamic Range
Actb	NM_007393.5	F: ACCAGTTCGCCATGGATGAC R: TGCCGGAGCCGTTGTC	97.019	0.995	$10^2 - 10^7$
Bdnf	NM_001285418.1	F: CATAGACAAAAGGCACTGGAACTC R: TAAGGGCCCGAACATACGAT	92.000	0.980	$10^2 - 10^7$
Fabp5	BC002008.1	F: CGACAGCTGATGGCAGAAAA R: CAGGCCACCGTCTTGGAA	91.788	0.993	$10^2 - 10^7$
Calb1	NM_009788.4	F: GCTCCGCGCACTCTCAA R: TGACTGCAGGTGGGATTCTG	98.828	0.940	$10^2 - 10^7$
Nes	NM_016701.3	F: GGTCACTGTCGCCGCTACTC R: AAGCGGACGTGGAGCACTA	94.788	0.989	$10^2 - 10^7$

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Table 1. Primer sequences and qPCR performance characteristics.
Accession No. refers to the NCBI GenBank database. E **(%)** represents the amplification
efficiency calculated from the slope of the standard curve (E=[10$^{(-1/slope)}$−1]×100.R^2 denotes the
coefficient of determination for the linear regression. **Dynamic Range** indicates the interval of
template concentration where linearity was maintained. All assays were performed in
technical triplicate using SYBR Green chemistry on a StepOnePlus™ Real-Time PCR System.
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Immunofluorescence

Newborn cells in the DG were revealed by immunostaining against BrdU as previously published

(Diaz et al., 2012). Free-floating sections were exposed to 2 N HCl for 1 h. Sections were then

incubated overnight at 4 °C with a mouse anti-BrdU antibody (1:1000; Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank, concentrated). Nonspecific binding was reduced by 1 h incubation in a

saturation solution containing 2 g/L gelatin (Merck) and 0.25% triton in PBS prior to primary

antibody incubation. Next day, the tissue was incubated for 2 h with an anti-mouse-A488 (1:

500; Invitrogen). All primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in the saturation solution.

Finally, sections were incubated with Hoechst (1: 10000, Invitrogen) to dye the nucleus of cells.

The number of BrdU-labeled cells was quantified with a fluorescence microscope (Olympus IX81)

with a 20× objective, on serial sections through the entire hippocampus. One out of six series

was counted (180 µm intervals, 10 sections per series). BrdU-labeled cells were counted in the

sub-granular zone of the granule-cell layer over the entire DG. Cells were considered to be BrdU$^+$

when their nuclei were completely filled with fluorescence or showed clear patches of variable

intensity (classic dilution pattern for survival assays).

Statistical Analysis

Group differences were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Assumptions of

normality and homogeneity of variances were assessed using the Shapiro–Wilk and Bartlett

tests, respectively. When variance heterogeneity was detected, statistical analyses were

performed using either Welch's one-way ANOVA or generalized least squares (GLS) models that

explicitly accounted for heteroscedasticity. For GLS analyses, models allowing different variance

structures were compared to homoscedastic models using likelihood ratio tests, and the final

model was selected by balancing goodness-of-fit and parsimony. Post hoc comparisons were

performed using Tukey's test following classical ANOVA and GLS models, whereas Games–

Howell tests were used following Welch's ANOVA. In fatty acid analyses, p-values were adjusted

for multiple testing using the Benjamini–Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) procedure, applied

separately to individual fatty acids and fatty acid classes. Body weight was analyzed using a two-

way repeated-measures ANOVA with week as a within-subject factor and treatment as a

between-subject factor. Sphericity was assessed using Mauchly's test and Geenhouse-Geisser

corrections were applied when necessary. In all analyses, $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically

significant, whereas values between 0.05 and 0.1 were considered a trend.

Results

Body weight

Mice were weighed across every week of treatment to control for potential changes due to the

different treatments. Analyses showed an interaction between treatment and number of weeks

(p = 0.030), with no difference in treatment (p = 0.145) but significant changes across weeks (p

<.001). As expected, given their age, all mice gained some weight along the experimental

protocol but no differences were revealed between experimental groups.

Fatty acids profile

Individual serum levels of the SFA lauric (C12:0), myristic (C14:0) and palmitic (C16:0) were not

altered by the treatments, whereas the SFA stearic (C18:0) and lignoceric (C24:0) showed a trend

to higher values in the group that consumed the nanoencapsulated version of omega-3 fatty

acids in yogurt compared to the control group (Table 1).

On the other side, both omega-3–fortified yogurt groups exhibited a trend to lower serum oleic

acid (C18:1 n-9) levels compared with the control group, whereas no effect was observed on

palmitoleic acid (C16:1 n-7) concentrations (Table 1).

Regarding the essential PUFAs linoleic acid (C18:2 n-6) and α-linolenic acid (C18:3 n-3), no

significant differences were observed among groups. Likewise, arachidonic acid (C20:4 n-6)

levels were not significantly affected by the treatments.

Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, C20:5 n-3) showed a trend toward higher serum concentrations in

the supplemented groups compared with the control (ANOVA p = 0.07; FDR-adjusted p = 0.1633)

(Figure 1.C; Table 1). The control group exhibited intra-group variability, whereas both omega-

3-enriched yogurt formulations resulted in more homogeneous and consistently elevated EPA

levels. Although these differences did not reach statistical significance after multiple-

comparison correction, the observed pattern suggests a potential treatment-related effect on

circulating EPA.

Docosahexaenoic acid DHA (C22:6 n-3) levels were higher in the free-fatty acid group than in the

control group, although the difference was not statistically significant (Figure 1.B). The

nanoencapsulated yogurt formulation produced a significant increase in serum DHA levels

compared with both control and free-fatty acids groups (p=0,0000755). Consequently, the group

consuming the nanoencapsulated omega-3 yogurt exhibited a higher total n-3 fatty acid content

(Figure 1.A) and a lower n-6/n-3 ratio (Figure 1.D), relative to the other groups . This finding

suggests that nanoencapsulation may protect DHA from degradation during storage and

digestion, thereby enhancing its stability and facilitating intestinal absorption, as reflected by

increased serum DHA levels.

Figure 1. Omega-3 fatty acids profile and n-6/n-3 ratio in serum. Results are expressed as the percentage (%) of total fatty acids content. (A) Total % of fatty acids from the Omega-3 family. (B-C) Individual % for DHA and EPA. (D) Ratio of Omega-6/Omega-3 content in serum. Data are expressed as mean ± SD, n =4-5/group. # $0.05 < p < 0.10$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

Serum composition	Control	Free fatty acids	Nano fatty acids	Statistics	P value (FDR)
Lauric acid	0.07 ± 0.023	0.072 ± 0.026	0.052 ± 0.004	F_2 = 2.538	0.2482
Myristic acid	0.316 ± 0.056	0.355 ± 0.066	0.304 ± 0.036	F_2 = 1.1	0.5138
Palmitic acid	18.2 ± 0.765	19.2 ± 1.39	19 ± 1.72	F_2 = 0.713	0.5962
Palmitoleic acid	3.71 ± 0.430	3.66 ± 0.512	3.37 ± 0.414	F_2 = 0.786	0.5962
Stearic acid	8.48 ± 0.287	9.61 ± 0.972	9.46 ± 0.446[#]	F_2 = 9.025	0.0697
Oleic acid	17.3 ± 1.01	14.7 ± 1.94	14.6 ± 1.39[#]	F_2 = 5.262	0.0697
Linoleic acid	20.9 ± 1.23	21.6 ± 1.97	21.5 ± 0.632	F_2 = 0.374	0.7495
Alfa-linolenic acid	0.622 ± 0.108	0.598 ± 0.045	0.684 ± 0.084	F_2 = 1.24	0.5138
Arachidonic acid	14 ± 1.72	12.3 ± 1	12.9 ± 2	F_2 = 1.166	0.5138
Lignoceric acid	0.166 ± 0.044	0.205 ± 0.031	0.284 ± 0.078[#]	F_2 = 5.692	0.0697
EPA	0.514 ± 0.195	0.738 ± 0.033[#]	0.75 ± 0.052[#]	F_2 = 3.419	0.1633
DHA	3.83 ± 0.243	4.2 ± 0.395[#]	5.14 ± 0.262[***]	F_2 = 25.39	0.00007

Table 2: Fatty acid profile in serum of mice treated with different formulations of yogurt.

Results are expressed as the percentage (%) of total fatty acids content. Data are expressed as

mean ± SD, n =4-5/group. # $0.05 < p < 0.10$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$

Adult Hippocampal Neurogenesis

In order to analyze if the fatty acid formulation differently altered the process of neurogenesis,

BrdU+ cells were quantified by immunohistochemistry in the DG of mice, both at 24 h or 4 weeks

after BrdU injection to respectively evaluate the proliferative and survival stages of the

neurogenesis process. No significant changes were found in the proliferation of new cells (p =

0.67) but it should be noted that inspection of individual data points (Fig. 2A) revealed

considerable within-group variability in all the experimental groups. Regarding survival of the

newborn cells, we found a tendency to an increase in the mice treated with the

nanoencapsulated formulation compared to control (ANOVA p = 0.0921, Post-hoc p =

0.0953941) (Fig. 2B).

Figure 2: Adult neurogenesis process. (A) Proliferation of new cells in the dentate gyrus (DG) of

mice treated with fatty acids supplementation, 24 hs post injection of BrdU. (B) Survival of

newborn cells in the DG, 4 weeks post injection of BrdU. Data are expressed as mean ± SD, n

=5−6/group. # 0.05 < p < 0.10.

RNA analysis

To have an insight into mechanisms behind fatty acid fortification effects in adult neurogenesis,

the HC of mice were recovered after the 4 weeks of treatment and RNA expression of different

key molecules involved in fatty acid transport, regulation of neurogenesis, and markers of young

and mature neurons were analyzed.

As stated before, FABP5 plays a role in the uptake, transport, and metabolism of fatty acids, in

particular, of DHA. A tendency to a higher FABP5 expression in mice treated with the

nanoencapsulated yogurt formulation was detected(ANOVA p = 0.0573, Post hoc p = 0.0993)

(Fig. 3A).

BDNF has been linked to the regulation of adult hippocampal neurogenesis under diverse

conditions, which makes it a big candidate for being involved in the modulation of fatty acids

effects in the brain. Indeed, we found a significant increase in BDNF RNA after the treatment (p

= 0.000766) (Fig. 3B). Even though the neurotrophin expression levels were enhanced in both

yogurt treated groups compared to control (Free-acids p = 0.0006111; Nano-acids p =

0.0137006), expression was higher after the free-fatty acids formulation (Free vs Nano p =

0.0287450). These results show the same trend observed for the enhancement of the

neurogenic process induced by the supplementation with DHA and EPA.

Nestin is an intermediate filament protein that identifies neuronal progenitors and young

newborn neurons, while Calbindin is a calcium binding protein which serves as a marker of

mature, differentiated neurons. As a complementary approach to the immunohistochemistry

analysis, and to study the molecular profile of the tissue, we measured RNA expression of both

proteins. We found a significant increase in Nestin and Calbindin RNA levels after both fatty acid

supplementation treatments (ANOVA Nes p = 0.000271, Calb p = 0.000575). For Nestin, the free-

fatty acid formulation showed a higher expression (p = 0.0067782) (Fig. 3C) than the

nanoencapsulated acids formulation, whereas for Calbindin levels, they were more enhanced in

the nanoencapsulated group (p = 0.0097060) (Fig. 3D). The increased expression of both

neuronal markers are in line with the proneurogenic effect of EPA-DHA chronic administration

revealed by immunohistochemistry.

Figure 3: RTqPCRs. RNA was extracted from the HC of mice from the different groups to analyze

the transcription levels of (A) FABP5, (B) BDNF, (C) Nestin and (D) Calbindin. Data are expressed

as mean ± SD, n =3/group. # 0.05 < p < 0.10; *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

BDNF Pathway

To deepen the understanding of the changes produced in the BDNF pathway, which has a very

complex regulation, protein-expression of both BDNF isoforms and their receptors was analyzed

in the HC of yogurt-treated mice. Regarding the survival pathway, a significant increase was

observed in mBDNF levels (ANOVA $p = 0.000191$) only in the animals treated with the

nanoencapsulated yogurt formulation compared to controls ($p = 0.0006301$) (Fig. 4A, F),

whereas changes in the TrkB receptor between the treated groups and the control mice were

not significant ($p = 0.4678826$) (Fig. 4B, E). On the other hand, for the apoptotic pathway, no

significant changes were found for proBDNF ($p = 0.2076$) though inspection of individual data

points revealed considerable within-group variability in the free fatty acids group (Fig. 4C, F). In

addition, a tendency towards a decrease in the p75 receptor was observed in mice treated with

the free- fatty acid yogurt (ANOVA $p = 0.0568$, Ctrl vs Free $p = 0.0969230$) (Fig. 4D, F), which

would mean less activation of the cell death mechanisms. Results show that the

nanoencapsulated formulation promotes the modulation of the neurotrophin towards the

survival pathway, which is in accordance to the other outcomes.

Figure 4: Protein expression of molecules from the BDNF signaling pathway determined by

Western Blot and representative membranes. (A)mBDNF. (B)TrkB. (C)proBDNF. (D)p75 for

yogurt treated mice after 4 weeks. (E–F) Representative membranes showing signals for TrkB,

mBDNF, pro-BDNF, and p75 in Control and fatty acids-treated mice. Data are expressed as mean

± SD, n =5−6/group. # $0.05 < p < 0.10$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

Paradigm of assay	Parameter measured	Statistical test	Comparison	Statistics	P value	Figure
Body weight	Body weight	Two-way repeated measures ANOVA	Treatment	$F_{2,48} = 2.01$	0.145	
			Week	$F_{3.12,149.77} = 620.92$	<.001	
			Treat:Week	$F_{6.24,149.77} = 2.38$	0.03	
Fatty acids profile	% of total Omega 3	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 21.43$	0.00016	**1A**
Fatty acids profile	% of DHA	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 25.39$	0.00007	**1B**
Fatty acids profile	% of DHA	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.19728	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.00007	
			Free - Nano		0.00175	
Fatty acids profile	% of EPA	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 3.419$	0.1633	**1C**
Fatty acids profile	Omega6/Omega 3 ratio	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 11.564$	0.01103	**1D**
Fatty acids profile	Omega6/Omega 3 ratio	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.214	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.019	
			Free - Nano		0.097	
Proliferation of new cells	N° of BrdU+ cells	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 0.414$	0.67	**2A**
Survival of newborn cells	N° of BrdU+ cells	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 2.807$	0.0921	**2B**
Survival of newborn cells	N° of BrdU+ cells	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.88569	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.09539	
			Free - Nano		0.21169	
qRT-PCR	Fabp5 signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 4.781$	0.0573	**3A**
qRT-PCR	Fabp5 signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.2399	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.0993	

					Free - Nano		0.2932	
qRT-PCR	BDNF signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 29.79$	0.00077	**3B**
qRT-PCR	BDNF signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.00061	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.0137	
			Free - Nano		0.02874	
qRT-PCR	Nestin signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 43.37$	0.00027	**3C**
qRT-PCR	Nestin signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.00021	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.01023	
			Free - Nano		0.00678	
qRT-PCR	Calbindin signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 33.09$	0.00057	**3D**
qRT-PCR	Calbindin signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.02599	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.00046	
			Free - Nano		0.00971	
Western blot	mBDNF signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 19$	0.00019	**4A**
Western blot	mBDNF signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.94531	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.00063	
			Free - Nano		0.00037	
Western blot	TrkB signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 5.04$	0.0258	**4B**
Western blot	TrkB signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.17166	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.46788	
			Free - Nano		0.02127	
Western blot	proBDNF signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 1.797$	0.2076	**4C**
Western blot	P75 signal relative to actin	One way ANOVA	Treatment	$F_2 = 3.678$	0.0568	**4D**
Western blot	P75 signal relative to actin	Tukey post-test	Ctrl - Free		0.09692	
			Ctrl - Nano		0.99148	
			Free - Nano		0.07893	

402   **Table 3:** P values and statistical information of all procedures performed.

Discussion

The results presented herein demonstrate that chronic administration of nanoencapsulated PUFAs to adult mice, increases the bioavailability of DHA that in turns may promote the survival of the newborn neurons in the HC by enhancing the pro-neurogenic elements of the BDNF pathway. Organoleptic characteristics of the PUFAs-enriched fish diet may prevent people from consuming it regularly. Furthermore, supplementation of fatty acids presents technical difficulties given that, due to their high unsaturation levels, they are unstable and highly susceptible to lipid peroxidation, compromising both their chemical stability and biological functionality. In our study, we took profit of nanotechnology as an alternative delivery system to increase the stability of lipophilic components. Indeed, in vitro studies have demonstrated increased digestibility and bioaccessibility of n-3 PUFAs when administered in nanoemulsions (Yang & Ciftci, 2020; Zhou et al., 2024). We first prepared the nanoformulation of PUFAs using yogurt as a matrix and then mix with other ingredients to form palatable cubes that mice ate voluntarily. Although PUFAs quantities ingested by different animals may have varied depending on the amount of cube ingested, a significant increase in plasma levels of DHA and EPA was measured in both groups administered with the PUFAs for 4 weeks compared to the control group. Remarkably, the concentration of omega-3 family was higher in mice receiving nano acids than those under free acids administration, whereas a lower n-6/n-3 ratio was observed in the group of mice receiving the nanoencapsulated acids. Positive correlations between plasma and brain levels of DHA were already described (Hashimoto 2002; Orchard et al., 2018). Therefore, we could assume that the observed higher plasmatic levels of PUFAs may have a correlate in the brain of treated mice. Indeed, since PUFA are synthesized in small quantities in the brain, the mechanisms by which these fatty acids are transported across the blood-brain barrier are crucial (see rev. in Chouinard-Watkins et al., 2018). In the present study, the FABP-5, a key regulator of DHA uptake in the brain, showed a trend to increase only in the group that received the nanoencapsulated PUFAs. As this group showed the higher plasmatic levels of DHA, this result could altogether show a better bioavailability and distribution of Omega-3 fatty acids under the new formulation. In an elegant series of studies, Pan et al. demonstrated up-regulated expression of brain microvascular FABP5 protein associated with increased brain DHA levels in adult mice fed with a DHA-enriched diet for 21 days (Pan Y, Morris ER, Scanlon MJ, Marriott PJ, Porter CJH, Nicolazzo JA. Dietary docosahexaenoic acid supplementation enhances expression of fatty acid-binding protein 5 at the blood-brain barrier and brain docosahexaenoic acid levels. J Neurochem. 2018 Jul;146(2):186-197). Later they reported that mice knock-out for the Fabp5 gene exhibited impaired performances in memory tasks, associated with a reduction in endogenous brain DHA levels (Pan Y, Short JL, Choy KHC, Zeng AX, Marriott PJ, Owada Y, Scanlon

MJ, Porter CJH, and Nicolazzo JA. Fatty Acid-Binding Protein 5 at the Blood–Brain Barrier

Regulates Endogenous Brain Docosahexaenoic Acid Levels and Cognitive Function. J Neurosci

2016; 36(46): 11755-67). These results, together with ours support the hypothesis that

increased plasmatic DHA promotes the expression of FABP-5 in the brain, facilitating in turn the

increase of DHA levels in the brain.

DHA has been inversely associated with cognitive decline in clinics (Mallick et al., 2019). Indeed,

populations with a high consumption of fatty fish or fatty acid supplements display lower

incidence of neurodegenerative diseases compared to those consuming diets poor in these

nutrients (Kalmijn et al., 2004). The process of neurogenesis offers a promising avenue in the

search for therapies for aging and neurodegenerative diseases, either by replacing lost neurons

or by enhancing brain plasticity. The generation of newborn neurons is well characterized in the

adult hippocampus, particularly in the DG, where several factors like neurotrophines, have been

shown to facilitate the proliferation and/or survival of newborn neurons (see rev in Balu & Lucki,

2009). We were not able to see changes in the proliferation rate of DG neurons in adult mice

receiving PUFAs, but mice treated with the nanoencapsulated n-3 Omega fatty acids displayed

an increase in the survival of 4-week old neurons, compared with the control group. The

enlarged neurogenesis was accompanied by a significant increase of immature and mature

markers of neuronal differentiation like Nestin and Calbindin, respectively. Expression of both

markers was also enhanced in mice receiving the free acids, revealing that, globally, the n-3

omega fatty acids appear to act at different stages of the neurogenic process, i.e, differentiation,

and survival of newborn neurons. Increased neuron survival has been already shown in a model

of strong deficit of PUFA where rats fed a fish-oil deficient diet for three generations were then,

supplemented with DHA for 7 weeks (Kawakita et al., 2006). Another report from rats fed a DHA

and EPA-enriched diet during 4 weeks revealed an increase in hippocampal levels of the BDNF

as measured by ELISA (Wu et al., 2004). Similar results were observed for BDNF mRNA and

protein levels in a transgenic mice model of Alzheimer's disease after 2 months of a DHA-

enriched diet (Che et al., 2018) and in C57BL/6 mice chronically supplemented with

lysophosphatidylcholine-DHA or -EPA (Sugasini et al., 2017; Yalagala et al., 2019). Our results

shed light on these reports describing plastic effects of PUFAs in rodents, as we were able to go

deep in the analysis of the BDNF biological pathway. The BDNF is synthesized as a pro-protein,

the 32 kDa pro-BDNF that may be cleaved to yield the 13.2-15.9 kDa mature BDNF (mBDNF).

The pro-BDNF can release mBDNF after cleavage either intra- or extra-cellularly, or be secreted

as pro-BDNF without further modifications. By binding to TrkB receptors, the mBDNF facilitates

pro-neurogenic effects, whereas the pro-BDNF may bind different receptors, being the most

known the p75, through which pro-apoptotic actions are promoted (see a rev. in Foltran & Diaz,

2016). In this study, increased levels of total BDNF mRNA were detected in both groups of mice

that received the n-3 omega fatty acids compared to the control groups. However, when the

level of proteins were analyzed, mice receiving the free fatty acids showed a sort of activation

of the BDNF pro-apoptotic cascade, with a tendency towards higher levels of the p-75 receptor

and something similar for pro-BDNF compared to the other experimental groups. In this line, a

previous study in a mice model of Alzheimer disease found that the administration of a

DHA/EPA-enriched diet for 2 months decreased the expression of pro-apoptosis factors like Bcl2,

Caspase 3 and Caspase 9 (Che et al., 2018). On the contrary, the proneurogenic elements of this

biological pathway, like mBDNF and its receptor TrkB, were significantly increased after chronic

administration of nanoencapsulated PUFAs, in synthon with the increased survival of the

newborn neurons detected in the DG.

Conclusions

In this work, nanoencapsulated PUFAs orally administrated to male mice for 4 or 8 weeks

showed better bioavailability when compared to administration of free acids, and this

potentially due to an increase of the specific transporter, the FABP-5 specifically in the HC.

Furthermore, the nanoformulation enhanced the survival of the DG newborn neurons, possibly

in response to an improved proneurogenic balance of BDNF actions. These positive effects can

be key to facilitating memory processes or also, to preventing cognitive decline that can occur

at advanced ages.

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