

Occurrence and biochemical characteristics of natural bioactive substances in bovine milk lipids

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Bovine milk lipids (BML) contain a number of bioactive substances with positive as well as negative properties, mainly in the class of fatty acids. Besides *trans* fatty acids (TFA), conjugated linoleic acids (CLA) are of particular interest. Apart from ruminant meat products the main source of CLA in food are BML. Although TFA as well as saturated fatty acids (12:0–16:0) are thought to be positively correlated with atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease, CLA are considered antiatherogenic. Further, CLA are reported to reduce adipose fat and to have anticarcinogenic properties. The varying CLA and TFA contents of lipids from milk and dairy products are positively correlated with one another. However, TFA are also negatively correlated with 12:0–16:0 in BML. Anticarcinogenic effects are also ascribed to butyric acid as well as to some phospholipids and ether lipids present in BML. Moreover, the essential fatty acids 18:2*n*-6 and 18:3*n*-3 are found in BML which are involved in a variety of biochemical processes and thus have numerous functions in human metabolism. Contents of the individual bioactive components of BML are summarised taking into account also seasonal variations. The total content of bioactive substances in BML is approximately 75 % but their overall impact on human health considering benefits and drawbacks is difficult to assess.

Bioactive substances: Bovine milk fat: *Trans* fatty acids: Conjugated linoleic acid

Introduction

In the industrial countries malnutrition is hardly a problem anymore, so that concern increasingly focuses on the quality rather than the quantity of food. Thus, the biological activities of food ingredients are considered to facilitate enhancement of favourable effects or enable avoidance of harmful influences by specific selection of food items. With an average daily per capita consumption of lipids from milk and dairy products of 28.2 g (women) or 33.1 g (men) in Germany (Adolf *et al.* 1994) bovine milk lipids (BML) can make an important contribution to the quality of the total diet. Bovine milk fat comprises several classes of lipids. Besides mono-, di- and triacylglycerols containing a great variety of fatty acids, there are also free fatty acids, phospholipids, glycolipids and steroids (including cholesterol esters) present in milk lipids. Minor constituents include waxes, alcohols, carotenoids, vitamins and lipoproteins. In the following sections classes that are reviewed include substances with known bioactive properties (except for fat-soluble vitamins) comprising positive as well as negative effects. With respect to bovine milk fat, saturated and *trans* fatty acids as well as conjugated linoleic acids have been widely discussed in recent years. In addition to data on the contents of bioactive milk fat components and their seasonal variation, biochemical properties are also summarized here.

Fatty acids

Free fatty acids comprise only approximately 0.1–0.4 wt % of total milk lipids (Frede *et al.* 1990). Fatty acids are mainly bound in triacylglycerols as well as in smaller amounts in diacylglycerols and monoacylglycerols which altogether make up the greatest part of milk lipids. After consumption acylglycerols are lipolyzed to monoacylglycerols and free fatty acids for absorption, with the rate of lipolysis depending on the position of the fatty acid in the triacylglycerol molecule. Although triacylglycerols are subsequently resynthesized for transport of fatty acids in the body (with the exception of fatty acids up to 10:0), the major bioactive effects are due to the actions of free fatty acids or their metabolites.

The determination of the fatty acid composition of milk fat is usually achieved by base-catalysed *trans*-esterification of the anhydrous fat into fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) followed by gas chromatographic analysis of the FAMES.

Saturated fatty acids

In physiological terms saturated fatty acids can be divided into short-chain ($\leq 4:0$), medium-chain (6:0–10:0), and long-chain ($\geq 12:0$) fatty acids, although different classifications are used in other contexts. On average, 4:0–10:0

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account for 10.6–12.8 wt % of total fatty acids in milk fat (Precht, 1990; Jensen & Newburg, 1995). These short- and medium-chain fatty acids are particularly digestible, as they are hydrolysed preferentially from the triacylglycerols and are transferred directly from the intestine to the portal circulation without resynthesis of triacylglycerols. Thus, there is only a low tendency for adipose formation. Further, short- and medium-chain fatty acids can have the effect of reducing cholesterol levels in serum and liver, as well as triacylglycerols levels (Frede *et al.* 1990). Moreover, butyric acid (4:0) is an antineoplastic agent (Parodi, 1996, 1997). Thus, 4:0 is reported to inhibit proliferation and to induce differentiation (*in vitro*) of a variety of neoplastic cells (Prasad, 1980; Chen & Breitmann, 1994) and to inhibit tumour development in mice (Pouillart *et al.* 1991). It also modulates the expression of oncogenes and suppressor genes (Rabizadeh *et al.* 1993). In milk fat 4:0 accounts for 7.5–13.0 mole % (Parodi, 1970) or 3.42 wt % related to fat (Molquentin & Precht, 1997a). There is no obvious relation between the 4:0 content in milk fat and the feeding conditions of cows (Precht *et al.* 1985).

The average content of the long-chain fatty acids 12:0–16:0 in milk fat is 42.4–44.0 wt % of total fatty acids (Precht, 1990; Jensen & Newburg, 1995). These fatty acids are reported to increase the level of total and LDL cholesterol in plasma (Keys *et al.* 1965; Mattson & Grundy, 1985; Dupont *et al.* 1991; Zöllner & Tatò, 1992; Zock, 1995). An elevated LDL-cholesterol level is considered a risk factor for atherosclerosis (see section on *trans* fatty acids). On the other hand, the long-chain stearic acid (18:0), with an average content of 9.2–12.6 wt % in milk fat (Precht, 1990; Jensen & Newburg, 1995), is reported to be neutral in its effect on lipoprotein cholesterol levels (Hegsted *et al.* 1965; Bonanome & Grundy, 1988; Grundy & Denke, 1990).

Monounsaturated fatty acids

Oleic acid is the predominant monounsaturated fatty acid in milk fat and accounts for 20.1–20.8 wt % of total fatty acids on average (Precht, 1990; Jensen & Newburg, 1995) and for 12.8–27.6 wt % under special conditions. Contents are higher during pasture feeding than during feeding of concentrates. Human diets high in oleic acid are mostly reported to decrease the level of LDL-cholesterol compared to diets containing less oleic acid, whereas HDL-cholesterol levels are not affected significantly (Mattson & Grundy, 1985; Mensink & Katan, 1989; Berry *et al.* 1991; Chan *et al.* 1991; Mata *et al.* 1992; Valsta *et al.* 1992; Katan *et al.* 1994; Zock, 1995). Thus, oleic acid can be regarded as antiatherogenic (see further section on *trans* fatty acids).

Polyunsaturated fatty acids

The polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) in milk fat mainly comprise linoleic acid (18:2*n*-6) and α -linolenic acid (18:3*n*-3) as well as smaller amounts of their positional and geometric isomers. Conjugated isomers of linoleic acid are dealt with in the next section. On average, 18:2*n*-6 and 18:3*n*-3 account for 1.2–2.0 wt % and 0.5–0.7 wt % of

total fatty acids, respectively (Precht, 1990; Jensen & Newburg, 1995; Precht & Molquentin, 1997a). These are essential fatty acids and have many and diverse functions in human metabolism. Their deficiency leads to a variety of physiological aberrations (e.g. Kinsella *et al.* 1990; Horrobin, 1997).

Moreover, 18:2*n*-6 is reported to have a LDL-cholesterol-decreasing effect but, according to some studies, may also cause a slight decrease of HDL-cholesterol levels (Mattson & Grundy, 1985; Beynen & Katan, 1989; Mensink & Katan, 1989; Grundy & Denke, 1990; Zöllner & Tatò, 1992; Katan *et al.* 1994). Overall, linoleic acid should promote an antiatherogenic effect (see further section on *trans* fatty acids). However, recent studies have proposed an atherogenic influence of PUFAs present in the triacylglycerol and cholesterol ester moieties of LDLs. Due to their ease of oxidation the PUFAs may form cytotoxic compounds in the LDLs (ox-LDLs). These ox-LDLs may then cause atherosclerotic changes in the blood vessels (Witztum & Steinberg, 1991; Holvoet & Collen, 1994; Parthasarathy & Santanam, 1994). However, compared with vegetable fats the PUFA contents in milk fat are relatively low.

The oxidation products of PUFAs are also potentially mutagenic and can lead to the development of malignant tumours (Marnett, 1994). Further, in animal studies the consumption of linoleic acid has been correlated with tumour promotion, whereas some *n*-3 PUFAs have been shown to have protecting properties (Cohen *et al.* 1986; Pariza, 1988; Reddy, 1994). However, this topic remains controversial (Ip, 1997). Finally, PUFAs are known to exhibit immunomodulating activities and properties affecting coagulation of blood (e.g. see references in Pfeuffer, 1997).

Conjugated linoleic acids

Conjugated linoleic acids (CLA) comprise a group of conjugated dienes occurring mainly in milk fat (Chin *et al.* 1992; Precht & Molquentin, 1997a). CLA is derived from dietary linoleic acid and, according to a recent hypothesis (Precht & Molquentin, 1998), possibly also from linolenic acid by rumen bacteria. A number of positional and geometric isomers are formed with *cis*-9,*trans*-11-octadecadienoic acid (*cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2) being the predominant (90 %) isomer (Chin *et al.* 1992). As *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 is derived from linoleic acid and possibly linolenic acid, there is a tendency toward a higher level in milk fat obtained during pasture feeding in summer than in winter when cows are fed more on concentrates (Dhiman *et al.* 1996; Jahreis *et al.* 1996; Precht & Molquentin, 1997b; Stanton *et al.* 1997; Kelly *et al.* 1998; Precht & Molquentin, 1998). Therefore, an increase in the content of the favourable *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 can be easily achieved by special feeding conditions. However, this leads to a simultaneous increase in unfavourable *trans*-18:1 acids (see next section) and also to a decrease in saturated fatty acids 12:0–16:0 (Precht & Molquentin, 1997c; Precht & Molquentin, 1999). Thus, there is a high correlation between *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 and *trans*-18:1 (total) of $r = 0.98$ ($n = 100$) (Precht & Molquentin, 1997a) and between *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 and *trans*-11-18:1 of $r = 0.78$ ($n = 28$) (Jiang *et al.* 1996) or of $r = 0.98$

Table 1. Mean contents of conjugated linoleic acid *cis-9,trans-11-18:2* in milk fat reported from previous literature; *n* = number of samples

Origin (<i>n</i>)	Feeding condition	Content	mg/g of	Reference
Homog. milk (3)	–	5.06	F	Chin <i>et al.</i> 1992
Butter (4)	–	4.14	F	Chin <i>et al.</i> 1992
Butter fat (4)	–	5.43	F	Chin <i>et al.</i> 1992
Butter (31)	Average	8.5	F	Henninger & Ulberth, 1994
Milk (4)	–	4.60	F	Lin <i>et al.</i> 1995
Milk (22)	50 % concentrate*	5.04	F	Jiang <i>et al.</i> 1996
Milk (22)	65 % concentrate*	11.28	F	Jiang <i>et al.</i> 1996
Milk (19)	65 % concentrate†	6.56	F	Jiang <i>et al.</i> 1996
Butter (2)	–	10.7	FA	Fogerty <i>et al.</i> 1988
Milk (12)	Indoor/1 year	3.4	FA	Jahreis <i>et al.</i> 1996
Milk (12)	Pasture/1 year	6.1	FA	Jahreis <i>et al.</i> 1996
Milk (12)	Ecological/1 year	8.0	FA	Jahreis <i>et al.</i> 1996
Butter (927)	Barn	4.5	FA	Precht & Molkentin, 1997b
Butter (236)	Transition period	7.6	FA	Precht & Molkentin, 1997b
Butter (593)	Pasture	12.0	FA	Precht & Molkentin, 1997b
Butter (1756)	Average	7.50	FA	Precht & Molkentin, 1997b
Milk (7)	–	11.6	FAME	Fritsche & Steinhart, 1998
Butter (12)	–	9.4	FAME	Fritsche & Steinhart, 1998

F, Fat; FA, fatty acids; FAME, fatty acid methyl esters.

*Restricted amount; †unrestricted amount (ad libitum).

(*n* = 100) (Precht & Molkentin, 1997a). The contents of *cis-9,trans-11-18:2* found under common feeding conditions are shown in Table 1 and comprise between 4 and 12 mg/g fat or fatty acids. It is important to note that comparisons of CLA contents between individual dairy products can only be made when these have been derived from the same milk source.

The predominant isomer *cis-9,trans-11-18:2* is believed to be the biologically active form of CLA, as a preferred incorporation of this molecule into the phospholipids of cell membranes has been found (Ha *et al.* 1990; Ip *et al.* 1991). In contrast to other *trans* fatty acids, probably this particular CLA isomer exhibits several positive effects. However, some studies on the biological activity of CLA have not only investigated *cis-9,trans-11-18:2* but have also included *trans-9,cis-11-18:2* and further conjugated isomers. Anticarcinogenic properties have been found in animal studies (Ha *et al.* 1987, 1990; Ip *et al.* 1991, 1994) as well as in human cell culture studies (Shultz *et al.* 1992). The anticancer efficacy of CLA is already expressed at concentrations close to human consumption levels (Ip *et al.* 1994). The mode of action is possibly due to antioxidant mechanisms (Ha *et al.* 1990; Ip *et al.* 1991), inhibition of nucleotide synthesis (Shultz *et al.* 1992), reduction of proliferative activity (Ip *et al.* 1994) or other mechanisms (Belury, 1995; Jahreis, 1997; Parodi, 1997). However, a recent study failed to confirm that CLA has an effect as an antioxidant in fats and oils (Chen *et al.* 1997). Moreover, antiatherogenic (Lee *et al.* 1994; Nicolosi *et al.* 1997) and immunomodulating (Michal *et al.* 1992; Cook *et al.* 1993; Miller *et al.* 1994) properties have been reported from animal studies. Further, CLA has been shown to act as a growth factor in rats (Chin *et al.* 1994) and to reduce adipose fat (Dugan *et al.* 1997; Park *et al.* 1997).

Trans fatty acids

Trans fatty acids (TFA) in milk fat result from partial

hydrogenation of PUFAs caused by rumen bacteria. Therefore, the TFA content depends among other things on the amount of PUFAs in the fodder. Thus, an extensive supply of linoleic and linolenic acid during pasture feeding in summer leads to higher TFA contents than concentrates given in winter (e.g. Henninger & Ulberth, 1994; Wolff, 1994; Precht, 1995; Precht & Molkentin, 1997b). TFAs occurring in milk fat are mostly *trans*-octadecenoic acids (*trans-18:1*). As mentioned above, an increase of *trans-18:1* is associated strongly with a rise in CLA content (Jiang *et al.* 1996; Precht & Molkentin, 1997a, 1999). Moreover, *trans-18:1* is negatively correlated with the unfavourable saturated fatty acids 12:0–16:0 (Precht & Molkentin, 1997c, 1999).

Further, smaller amounts of *trans*-octadecadienoic acids (*trans-18:2*), with at least one *trans* double bond, and of *trans*-hexadecenoic acids (*trans-16:1*) are found. To obtain reliable data, quantitation of TFAs should be done by gas chromatography of the *trans*-FAME fraction isolated by Ag-TLC or Ag-HPLC. Moreover, application of 100-m capillary columns then enables separation of almost all positional isomers (Molkentin & Precht, 1995, 1997b; Wolff & Bayard, 1995). Table 2 summarizes the typical contents of *trans* fatty acids. Table 3 shows as an example the isomeric distribution of *trans-18:1* fatty acids typical of German milk fats (Precht & Molkentin, 1996).

In connection with the consumption of *trans* fatty acids, numerous biological effects have been described. Influences on serum cholesterol levels in the different lipoprotein classes have been reported. Thus, *trans*-octadecenoic acids are thought to increase the LDL-cholesterol level unfavourably (Mensink & Katan, 1990; Zock & Katan, 1992; Lichtenstein *et al.* 1993; Siguel & Lerman, 1993; Wood *et al.* 1993; Judd *et al.* 1994; Zock, 1995) as well as to decrease the favourable HDL-cholesterol level (Mensink & Katan, 1990; Siguel & Lerman, 1993; Judd *et al.* 1994; Zock, 1995). Thus, the LDL/HDL ratio is particularly adversely affected. Possibly

Table 2. Contents of *trans* fatty acids (TFA) in milk fat (wt% of fatty acids) mainly obtained by Ag-TLC/GC; *n* = number of samples

Mean	Minimum	Maximum	<i>n</i>	Country	TFA	Reference
6.01*	4.27*	7.61*	116	Australia	total	Parodi & Dunstan, 1971
—	4.0*	5.7*	13	Canada	total	DeMan & DeMan, 1983
5.53†	4.52†	7.3†	17	New Zealand	mono‡	Gray, 1973
3.62	1.29	6.75	1756	Germany	18:1	Precht & Molzentin, 1996
3.33	1.75	5.20	31	Austria	18:1	Henninger & Ulberth, 1994
3.80	2.46	5.10	24	France	18:1	Wolff, 1994
0.59§	0.27§	0.90§	31	Austria	18:2	Henninger & Ulberth, 1994
0.63	0.11	1.41	1756	Germany	18:2	Precht & Molzentin, 1997b
0.11	0.04	0.16	24	France	16:1	Wolff, 1994
0.13	0.05	0.25	27	Germany	16:1	Molzentin & Precht, 1997b

*obtained by IR; †obtained by Ag-TLC/densitometer; ‡*trans* monoenoic acids; §g/100 g fat; ||without *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 (CLA).

the increase in LDL-cholesterol could be attributed to a reduction in the activity of lecithin-cholesterol-acyltransferase (Koletzko, 1991) or to an increase in the activity of cholesterol transfer protein (Lagrost, 1992). Moreover, an unfavourable increase of the lipoprotein(a) level has been found (Mensink *et al.* 1992; Nestel *et al.* 1992). These changes caused by 18:1-TFA may contribute to premature atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease where intakes of TFA are particularly high (e.g. see references in Precht & Molzentin, 1995).

Furthermore, TFA have been reported to impair desaturation and chain elongation of the essential fatty acids *cis*-9,*cis*-12-18:2 and *cis*-9,*cis*-12,*cis*-15-18:3 and thus to inhibit prostaglandin synthesis (see references in Koletzko, 1992). These effects were partly related to the consumption of *trans*-9-18:1 and *trans*-9,*trans*-12-18:2. The isomer *trans*-9,*trans*-12-18:2 is also reported to cause a variety of further physiological and toxicological aberrations (Emken, 1984; Hunter & Applewhite, 1986). However, carcinogenic properties of TFA (Enig *et al.* 1978; Ip, 1997) are rather more controversial.

In contrast to *trans*-9,*trans*-12-18:2 the conjugated linoleic acid *cis*-9,*trans*-11-18:2 exclusively exhibits positive biological properties that are dealt with in the preceding section. When interpreting physiological effects, the example of *trans*-18:2 demonstrates that the total amount of TFAs in a fat probably provides less relevant information than the individual isomeric contents. This might also be concluded from epidemiological studies (Willett *et al.* 1993) and may be of particular significance for the positional isomers of *trans*-18:1 (Table 3).

Some studies regard *trans*-16:1 from milk fat as the cause of an elevated incidence of coronary heart disease (CHD). In recent investigations these findings have been questioned because of possibly incorrect gas chromatographic analyses (Molzentin & Precht, 1997b). According to this new study bovine milk fats (0.13 wt %) do not contain considerably higher amounts of *trans*-16:1 than

partially hydrogenated vegetable fats (0.04 wt %). Moreover, the correlations found in former studies between the content of *trans*-16:1 in human tissues or plasma and the incidence of CHD may be due more to an association of *trans*-16:1 with *trans*-20:1 in partially hydrogenated marine oils, which are the main source of *trans*-16:1 (1.89 wt %) in food. Thus, a negative effect of *trans*-16:1 specifically from milk fat is disputed.

Phospholipids

Phospholipids are associated with the milk fat globule membrane and account for 0.2–1.0 wt % of total milk lipids (Christie *et al.* 1987). Some phospholipids exhibit antioxidative properties in milk/milk fat products with low water content (Frede *et al.* 1990; Saito & Ishihara, 1997). Further, sphingomyelin and its metabolites ceramide and sphingosine are reported to have tumour-suppressing properties (Parodi, 1996, 1997) by influencing cell proliferation. Sphingomyelin accounts for 20–35 wt % of total milk phospholipids (Christie *et al.* 1987; Frede *et al.* 1990).

Ether lipids

Ether lipids present in milk fat include alkylacylglycerols and alkylacylphospholipids. Milk neutral lipids are reported to contain 0.01 wt % of 1-*O*-alkylacylglycerols and milk phospholipids to contain 0.16 wt % 1-*O*-alkylacylphospholipids (Hallgren *et al.* 1974). Ether lipids and their derivatives have antineoplastic effects (Parodi, 1996, 1997). The biological activities exerted on cancer cells comprise inhibition of growth, antimetastatic activity and induction of differentiation and apoptosis (Berdel, 1991; Diomedea *et al.* 1993). It is believed that ether lipids are incorporated and accumulated in cell membranes and thereby influence biochemical and biophysical processes.

Steroids

Cholesterol is the major sterol in milk comprising 0.25–0.45 wt % of total lipids. Its content depends among other things on the method of fat extraction and is believed to be near 0.4 wt % in most cases (Frede *et al.* 1990). Further, milk fat contains small amounts of lanosterol, dihydro-lanosterol and 7-dehydrocholesterol (provitamin D₃).

Table 3. Mean isomeric distribution of *trans*-18:1 fatty acids (% of total *trans*-18:1) derived from 1756 German milk fats (Precht & Molzentin, 1996)

Isomer	Δ4	Δ5	Δ6–8	Δ9	Δ10	Δ11	Δ12	Δ13/14	Δ15	Δ16
Proportion	1.6	1.5	4.7	6.9	4.7	43.2	6.3	14.2	7.9	9.8

Cholesterol is important for the resorption of fats and is a precursor in the synthesis of steroid hormones. Negative effects result from elevated plasma cholesterol levels in particular in combination with certain fatty acids with regard to atherosclerosis and coronary heart diseases (see section on fatty acids).

Conclusion

Bovine milk lipids contain a variety of bioactive substances, exhibiting positive as well as negative physiological effects. The assessment of the overall impact on human health considering benefits and drawbacks is difficult. Current efforts to increase CLA in BML should not ignore their positive correlation with TFA. However, an independent raising of CLA could further improve the physiological properties of milk fat.

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