Subjective food hypersensitivity:
Studies on enterochromaffin cell secretion products
and effects of seal oil therapy

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*Don’t cry because it’s over. Smile because it happened – Dr. Seuss*

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Abstract

**Background:** Perceived food hypersensitivity is a prevalent condition which often remains medically unexplained. The etiology of this subjective condition is not fully understood, mainly because of a lack of specific diagnostic methods, together with limited knowledge about underlying pathogenetic mechanisms. Thus, the management of such patients is challenging.

**Aim:** The objective of the present thesis was to assess the potential beneficial effects of seal oil on symptoms, and to develop a novel sample protocol to investigate the putative role of enteroendocrine secretorial compounds in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.

**Results:** In study I, a single dose of duodenal administered seal oil significantly influenced neither gastric accommodation, as examined by two dimensional (2D) ultrasonographic scanning, nor meal-induced gastrointestinal symptoms, as assessed by visual analogue scales (VAS).

After 10 days’ treatment, duodenal administered seal oil, as compared to soy oil, significantly reduced meal-induced gastrointestinal symptoms. However, the symptomatic improvement was not associated with improvements in gastric accommodation.

In study II, patients with subjective food hypersensitivity received a 10-day open treatment with duodenal administered seal oil. Before and after treatment, and 1 month post-treatment, the patients filled in the Subjective Health Complaints (SHC) Inventory for non-gastrointestinal symptoms, the short form of the Nepean Dyspepsia Index (SF-NDI) for evaluation of quality of life (QoL), and the Ulcer Esophagitis Subjective Symptoms Scale (UESS) score and the Gastrointestinal Symptom Rating Scale (GSRS) for assessment of gastrointestinal symptoms. Both intestinal and extra-intestinal complaints were significantly improved from baseline, both at 10 and 30 days post-treatment.

In study III, a novel method for direct determination of serotonin (5-HT) in gut lavage fluid using liquid chromatography mass spectrometry was achieved. This method was applied in study IV.
In study IV, analyses of chromogranin A (CgA) in serum and 5-HT in gut lavage fluid were performed. Serum levels of CgA were significantly lower in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity as compared to healthy controls. No significant differences in gut lavage 5-HT levels were detected between patients with subjective food hypersensitivity, patients with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) and healthy controls.

**Conclusion:** The present thesis suggests a beneficial effect of duodenal administered seal oil on both intestinal and extra-intestinal complaints in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity. Impaired gastric accommodation seems to play a limited role in the pathophysiology, as the positive effect of seal oil was not associated with improvements in gastric accommodation. The mechanism of action may involve the anti-inflammatory and immune-modulating properties of the long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), and further studies addressing this aspect are needed.

Decreased systemic CgA levels suggest a role for enteroendocrine alterations in the pathophysiology of subjective food hypersensitivity, such as impaired enterochromaffin (EC) cell function, and the potential of using granins as biomarkers for functional gastrointestinal disorders should be explored in future studies.

Taken together, the hypothesis-generating studies of the present thesis encourage further investigations to elucidate causal relationships between the patients’ unexplained symptoms and possible pathophysiological mechanisms.
List of publications

The thesis is based on the following papers, which will be referred to in the text by their Roman numerals:

   “Effects of seal oil on meal-induced symptoms and gastric accommodation in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity: a pilot study.”
   *Clinical medicine: Gastroenterology* 1 (33-41).

    “Duodenal administered seal oil for patients with subjective food hypersensitivity: an explorative open pilot study.”

    ”Direct determination of serotonin in gut lavage by liquid chromatographic ion trap tandem mass spectrometry.”
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    “Subjective food hypersensitivity: assessment of enterochromaffin cell markers in blood and gut lavage fluid.”
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Abbreviations

2D: Two-dimensional
5-CH$_3$O-HT: 5-methoxytryptamine
5-HT: 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin)
AA: Arachidonic acid (20:4n-6)
ALA: Alpha-linolenic acid (18:3n-3)
CgA: Chromogranin A
COX: Cyclooxygenase
DBPCFC: Double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge
DHA: Docosahexaneoic acid (22:6n-3)
DPA: Docosapentaenoic acid (22:5n-3)
EC: Enterochromaffin
EPA: Eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3)
FGID: Functional gastrointestinal disorder
IBS: Irritable bowel syndrome
IBD: Inflammatory bowel disease
IS: Internal standard
LA: Linoleic acid (18:2n-6)
LCMS: Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry
LCPUFA: Long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid
LOX: Lipooxygenase
PEG: Isotonic polyethylene glycol
PGE$_2$: Prostaglandin E$_2$
PUFA: Polyunsaturated fatty acid
RF: Response factor
SERT: Serotonin-selective reuptake transporter
SHC: Subjective health complaints
TAG: Triacylglycerol
VAS: Visual analogue scale
QoL: Quality of life
1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The incidence of food hypersensitivity is increasing worldwide. For instance, in Western countries, as many as approximately 35 % of the general population report adverse reactions to food, but only 1-3 % are medically diagnosed with food allergy [1,2,3]. The observed high discrepancy between subjective and medically confirmed food hypersensitivity, is mainly due to limited knowledge of the underlying mechanisms of the pathogenesis, and, hence, a lack of specific diagnostic methods.

The present thesis examines different aspects of subjective food hypersensitivity, such as potential beneficial effects of seal oil on the symptomatology, with emphasis on gastrointestinal and systemic symptoms, the potential of assessing enteroendocrine secretorial compounds for evaluating gastrointestinal pathologies and exploration of a novel sample protocol.

1.2 Definition of food hypersensitivity

In 2003 the Nomenclature Review Committee of the World Allergy Organization proposed an updated report [4] on the revised nomenclature for allergy published in 2001 by the European Academy of Allergological and Clinical Immunology (EAACI) [5]. The EAACI stated that the nomenclature can be used independently of target organ and patient age group, and the nomenclature proposed is based on the mechanism initiating the reaction and causing the symptoms and signs of an allergic disease. Considering the EAACI’s definition, the word “allergy” has previously been faulty used to describe all kinds of unexpected reactions in the skin and mucosal surfaces, including reactions to food additives, side-effects of drugs, psychological reactions, pharmacological factors, behavioural disorders and others. As proposed by the EAACI, hypersensitivity should be used as a collective term to cover all kind of adverse reactions, including food allergy and non-allergic food hypersensitivity. The definition of the term hypersensitivity should be as follows: Hypersensitivity causes objectively reproducible symptoms or signs, initiated by exposure to a defined stimulus at a dose tolerated by normal subjects [5]. Classical responses to infection, autoimmunity and toxic reactions do not accommodate this definition. An important condition for the hypersensitivity reaction is that the reproducibility of the symptoms or signs can be confirmed.
Food hypersensitivity can be divided into two main groups; food allergy and non-allergic food hypersensitivity. Based on the immunological mechanism involved, food allergy can be further classified into three groups, namely IgE-mediated food allergy, mixed IgE- and non-IgE-mediated and non-IgE-mediated food allergy (Figure 1) [1,6].

Figure 1. Nomenclature of food hypersensitivity. Illustration by Gülen Arslan Lied.

The diagnostic work-up of suspected food hypersensitivity is based on detailed medical history, including familial atopic background and comprehensive physical examination. It is important to obtain an accurate history to elucidate the relationship between ingestion of specific foods and onset of symptoms, and also to assess the time interval between ingestion and appearance of symptoms, the amount of ingested food and to inspect whether same foodstuffs reproduce symptoms. The standard clinical or laboratory tests include skin prick testing (SPT) and in vitro testing for food specific IgE-antibodies [7,8], the atopy patch test (APT) [9], and double-blind placebo-controlled food challenge (DBPCFC) [10,11,12,13]; the latter representing the gold standard in the diagnostic work-up. The diagnostic accuracy of the APT is somewhat controversial, but it is considered a useful tool in diagnosing delayed food allergy in children with atopic dermatitis [9,14].

IgE-mediated food allergy

IgE-mediated food allergy is a typical well-known immediate reaction (type I) resulting in classical clinical presentation, such as anaphylactic reactions. The most common food allergic
disorders put on by IgE-mediated mechanisms are immediate gastrointestinal hypersensitivity, oral allergy syndrome, acute urticaria, angiodema, acute bronchospasm and allergic rhinitis. Positive SPT and detection of serum food specific IgE are strong indicators for IgE-mediated food allergy. The immune system may respond to a foreign protein by producing IgE antibodies, thus sensitizing the individual, resulting in positive IgE tests. But this is by no means identical with a clinical relevant IgE-mediated allergy. Therefore, in cases of positive SPT and \textit{in vitro} specific IgE, oral food challenges are mandatory before establishing a diagnosis of IgE-mediated food allergy. Skin irritations after oral food challenge may be IgE mediated, but may also be caused by acids contained in the foods (e.g. citrus fruits). In such cases, avoidance is only necessary for the patients’ convenience.

\textit{Non-IgE-mediated food allergy}

Non-IgE mediated food allergy initiate immune responses to foods in the absence of specific IgE to the causal food protein, at least as verified by routine tests. Non-IgE-mediated food allergic reactions has a slower onset (type III-IV reactions) compared to IgE-mediated reactions, ranging from a few hours to 48 hours after ingestion of the causative agent [15]. The delayed onset of symptoms often makes it difficult to detect the clinical association between offending food and clinical symptoms. Elimination diets and DBPCFC are the primary mode of diagnosis, and strict avoidance of the culprit food is often sufficient for the patient to manage such food allergies. Eosinophils and T cells seems to play a major role in the immune response [16,17]. Gastrointestinal disorders, including allergic eosinophilic gastroenteritis, dietary protein-induced enterocolitis and celiac disease, have been associated with non-IgE mediated food allergy [15].

\textit{Mixed IgE- and non-IgE-mediated food allergy}

Allergic eosinophilic esophagitis, gastritis and gastroenterocolitis are characterised by various infiltrations with eosinophils in the mucosal, muscular or serosal layer. Eosinophilic infiltration and degranulation mediate inflammatory effects by releasing various cytotoxic proteins and other lipid mediators together with the release of cytokines. It has been shown that peripheral blood T cells in these patients secrete excessive interleukin (IL)-4 and IL-5 compared to controls [18], but the immunopathogenesis of these disorders is poorly understood. Elevated serum total IgE or food specific IgE levels are common especially in eosinophilic gastritis and gastroenterocolitis [15]. The increased IgE production in these
conditions is most likely regulated by cytokines secreted by T cells; especially IL-4 and IL-13 is known to induce IgE production in humans [19].

Non-allergic food hypersensitivity
Non-allergic food hypersensitivity, previously called food intolerance, refers to non-immune mediated food hypersensitivity reactions, at least, immune mechanisms not verified by current available techniques. Typical symptoms are flushing, headaches, wheezing, altered bowel habits, abdominal pains, bloating, among others. Triggering factors can be divided into intrinsic or extrinsic causes; intrinsic causes being enzyme deficiency (e.g. lactase deficiency and phenylketonuria), malignancies and psychological factors. Examples of extrinsic causes are infections (bacteria, virus, parasites), food additives (glutamate, aspartame, sulphites, nitrates, dyes) and pharmacological factors (alcohol, caffeine, histamine, tyramine, serotonin and metal contaminants) [5,20]. Patients with non-allergic food hypersensitivity showed reproducible symptoms in an oral food challenge, despite negative food specific IgE and SPT [21].

The above mentioned classification of food hypersensitivity is widely applied in clinical practice, but the diagnostic work-up can be challenging and time-consuming. In fact, perceived food hypersensitivity most often remains unexplained, despite comprehensive medical examination. In the present thesis, the studied patients is referred to as having ‘subjective food hypersensitivity’, considering the difficulty in allocating them to any of the specific diagnosis outlined in Figure 1.

1.3 Symptomatology
The fact that subjective food hypersensitivity often remains unexplained constitutes great concern and challenge for both patients and doctors. The patients with subjective food hypersensitivity may appear heterogeneous, but today no meaningful diagnostic approach exists to detect possible subgroups. The frequency and severity of diverse complaints can vary considerably between patients, who typically present diffuse and unspecific symptoms, and multiple organ systems are often affected.
A major part of the symptomatology in subjective food hypersensitivity is related to the gastrointestinal tract, with abdominal pain and discomfort, bloating, nausea, and defecation disturbances being predominant. The clinical features of the gastrointestinal complaints typify
other gastrointestinal disorders, such as irritable bowel syndrome (IBS). In fact, the gastrointestinal complaints in unexplained subjective food hypersensitivity usually comply with the Rome II criteria for IBS. Also, many IBS patients associate the generation of symptoms to food ingestion [22]. Whether the similarity of symptoms in subjective food hypersensitivity and IBS is purely coincidental or it is part of a causal relationship has not yet been fully established. In our studies, at least 90% of the patients with subjective food hypersensitivity have been classified as IBS. Commonly, perceived food hypersensitivity is found in around 70% of patients with IBS [23]. Hence, work up and treatment of IBS is central in the caring of our patients. In spite of high prevalence of atopic diseases among patients with IBS, classical IgE-mediated food allergy appears of minor importance in these patients. On the other hand, the concept “atopic bowel” has been introduced to designate a subgroup of patients characterized by atopic diseases and possibly also a high level of serum total IgE [24] and a high number of mast cells in the intestinal mucosa that may be related to visceral hypersensitivity. Another important subgroup of IBS patients is those with post-infectious IBS, which comprises around 30% of the total IBS population. Patients with persistent complaints following the Giardia lamblia epidemic in Bergen in 2004 are a typical example [25].

Our patients with subjective food hypersensitivity have considerably reduced QoL [26] and they reported more SHC compared with the general population [27,28]. SHC are defined as symptoms or complaints that, despite thorough examination, cannot be fully explained. The most frequently reported SHC are musculoskeletal, gastrointestinal and systemic complaints [27]. Lillestøl and colleagues found high prevalence of anxiety and depression in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity, as compared to the general population [29]. Whether mental illness is a consequence or the cause of the gastrointestinal and somatic complaints of the patients is not clear. Continuous worry and chronic bodily complaints, may over time lead to worsen mental illness [30]. On the other hand, psychological stress may modulate visceral responses like gut motility and mucosal function through the release of hormones and peptides [31,32]. Coexistence of unexplained gastrointestinal and non-gastrointestinal complaints suggests multifactorial pathogenic mechanisms, and both gut sensorimotor dysfunction and psychological factors may be involved. However, a recent study found that psychological factors were not major predictors of symptom severity in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [33].
1.4 Pathophysiological aspects

1.4.1 Role of nutrition

Nutrition is a critical environmental factor for maintaining a good health, thus the diet play an important role in prevention and treatment of different diseases. The evolutionary aspects of diet indicate enormous nutritional changes, and the modern diet is characterised by more processed and synthetic food, and less fish, fruits and vegetables. One change that has been identified in particular is the type and amount of fat consumed. Intake of omega-6 fatty (n-6) acids have increased, with major contribution from linoleic acid (LA; 18:2n-6) due to extensive use of soybean oil in food production, while the intake of omega-3 (n-3) fatty acids, especially the marine derived long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LCPUFA) eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA; 20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA; 22:6n-3), have declined. The diet of most westernized societies has been estimated to be deficient in n-3 fatty acids with ratios of n-6 to n-3 of 15 to 20:1, whereas optimal ratios have been postulated to be 1 to 2:1 [34]. Alpha-linolenic acid (ALA; 18:3n-3) and LA are essential fatty acids for humans and precursors for the endogenously synthesized EPA and arachidonic acid (AA; 20:4n-6), respectively. However, the capacity in humans to convert ALA to EPA is somewhat disputed [35]. It is therefore important to have a sufficient intake of preformed EPA and DHA to maintain or increase the concentration of these fatty acids in tissues.

LCPUFAs are involved in inflammation, and the link is the metabolites of AA (also known as eicosanoids), which are mediators and regulators of inflammatory processes. Eicosanoids are synthesized from 20-carbon PUFAs and AA is usually the major substrate due to its high content in cell membrane phospholipids. EPA is a metabolic antagonist that inhibits the metabolism of AA and serves as an alternate substrate for cyclooxygenase (COX) and lipooxygenase (LOX). Whereas AA is converted by COX to the pro-inflammatory prostaglandin E$_2$ (PGE$_2$), EPA is converted to the homologue PGE$_3$, which is considered far less immunologically active. The n-6 derived compounds synthesized in the LOX pathway are also more potent triggers of immunological reactions compared to the n-3 derived compounds [36]. Selective COX-2 inhibitors are effective drugs in inflammation and pain management, but their use has been linked to increased risk of cardiovascular events, like heart-attack, thrombosis and stroke [37]. The selective COX-2 inhibitors have been proposed for IBD patients due to sparing of the mucosal protective properties of COX-1, while retaining the anti-inflammatory effect. However, conflicting clinical observations have been reported, and the use of selective COX-2 inhibitors in gastrointestinal disorders should be used with same
caution as for conventional non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) [38,39,40]. EPA and DHA also inhibit COX-2 activity induced during inflammation [41]. The typical aspects of inflammation or mucosal distortion associated with inflammatory disorders of the gut, like IBD, are not present in IBS [42]. However, increased attention has been directed towards the role of low-grade inflammation in the intestinal mucosa in patients with IBS [43]. Intestinal inflammation may affect the visceral sensory system, leading to intestinal motor abnormalities, pain and discomfort, which are typical complaints of patients with IBS.

The role of food in the pathophysiology of IBS is unclear, but it is obvious that food by virtue of its components is a potent stimulus for gastrointestinal functions like motility and secretion. A general dietary advice for IBS patients has been to increase the intake of fiber, which are incompletely or indigestible in the small intestine, but partly or totally fermentable in the large bowel [44]. Gastrointestinal fermentation may play a role in IBS, thus avoidance of fermentable, poorly absorbed carbohydrates is more and more advocated. A recent study by Valeur and colleagues indicate that indigestible but fermentable carbohydrates are poorly tolerated by patients with IBS and subjective food hypersensitivity [45]. Gibson’s group in Australia has introduced the FODMAP (Fermentable Oligo-, Di-, and Monosaccharides and Polyols) concept, which, when avoided, has proved to be an effective approach to the management of patients with adverse gastrointestinal complaints [46]. FODMAPs are widespread in the diet. They are characterized by being poorly absorbed, rapidly fermented by colonic flora, osmotically active, and they induce distention and discomfort of the gut. A low FODMAP diet can be challenging to maintain, due to the range of FODMAPs in the diet, but global restriction is recommended [46]. A dietician with good knowledge about the low FODMAP diet is therefore required, and should be involved in the treatment and follow-up of the patients. Some of the most frequently reported foods to cause gastrointestinal complaints in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity are fruits, vegetables and cereal products, which all have a high content of FODMAPs. To improve the compliance of the FODMAP strategy, further studies are needed to systematically examine the content of FODMAPs in foods, and to define cut-off values.

Probiotics have also been tried extensively as treatment in IBS. Probiotics are live organisms that, when ingested in adequate amounts, exert a health benefit on the host [47]. Probiotics are believed to modify the gut microbiota by changing its composition and metabolic activity, and to protect against pathogens and stimulate the immune system [48]. A possible role of the gut
microbiota in IBS has been suggested, particularly in post-infectious IBS (PI-IBS). Studies have demonstrated reduction in abdominal pain and bloating, and an overall better gut function in IBS after treatment with specific strains of *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacteria* [49,50]. O’Mahony et al. also investigated the immune-modulating effect of probiotics, and detected an improvement in the IL-10/IL-12 ratio [49]. However, because the impact of probiotics might be species specific, the functioning of different species needs to be further investigated, both clinically and mechanistically, in placebo-controlled studies and in well-defined sub-groups of IBS.

The complex pathophysiology of IBS and subjective food hypersensitivity requires a careful approach when it comes to treatment, one of which may be through the diet. Although diet alone is most likely not sufficient, there are indications that dietary modifications can reduce the patients’ complaints. However, due to heterogeneity, a general dietary advice may not work for all. Other triggering factors from the diet that potentially can create gastrointestinal complaints are food additives, like glutamate, aspartame, and sulphite, and there are also pharmacological factors, like alcohol, caffeine, histamine, and serotonin that can affect the gut [5,20].

### 1.4.2 Role of gastric accommodation

The stomach can be divided into two parts when it comes to motor function; the proximal (fundus and corpus) and the distal (antrum) region. During the interdigestive phase, the proximal stomach muscle tone is high, whereas the distal stomach has a recurrent contraction pattern, known as the migrating motor complex. Upon food intake, the muscle tone decreases and the proximal stomach relaxes, providing a temporarily reservoir of the ingested food. This relaxation, called the accommodation reflex, enables the stomach to accommodate the extra volume of ingested food, without accompanying rise in the intragastric pressure. Postprandially, a tonic contraction of the proximal stomach pushes the food distally, where it is mixed and grinded by peristaltic, 3 per minute, contractions (“fed state”), before controlled release into the duodenum. The accommodation reflex, which consists of a vagovagal reflex pathway, is an important mechanism of normal gastric physiology, and under physiological conditions, this adaptive relaxation is not perceived. Impaired gastric accommodation of the proximal stomach has been reported in functional dyspepsia (FD) [51,52]. The symptoms in FD are related to ingestion of food (especially fat-
rich food), and they are mainly of gastrointestinal character such as epigastric pain/discomfort, nausea, bloating and early satiety. The relationship between impaired gastric function and symptoms in FD is not clear, but impaired gastric accommodation has been found to be significantly associated to early satiety [53]. The barostat procedure is considered as the gold standard in assessing gastric accommodation, but the invasive nature of the barostat procedure has limited its application to research facilities. Ultrasound, which is non-invasive, patient-friendly and a largely available method, is found to be very useful for examination of the gastric accommodation response [54,55]. The cause to impaired gastric accommodation has not been fully established, but disorders in the sensory apparatus, the vagovagal pathway or intrinsic inhibitory innervations are probably involved [56]. Psychological factors, especially anxiety and neuroticism, have also been showed to affect the accommodation response [57].

Visceral hypersensitivity is believed to play an important role in the pathogenesis of functional gastrointestinal disorders (FGID), and, indeed, increased sensitivity to visceral distension has been reported in patients with IBS and FD [58,59,60]. However, a potential role of impaired gastric accommodation in IBS needs to be further investigated.

1.4.3 Role of enterochromaffin cells

The name enterochromaffin (EC) cells was introduced by Ciaccio in 1907 to designate the cell’s location in the intestinal epithelium and their affinity for chromium salts [61]. The endocrine nature of the EC cells was first suggested by Masson in 1914. EC cells constitute the largest population of neuroendocrine cells in the gastrointestinal tract. They are distributed from the stomach through the colon, and play an important role in several aspects of gut function including secretion, motility and sensation. [62,63,64]. The EC cell population includes several different sub-populations with morphological differences in shape, cytoplasmatic extensions and secretory granules. The main secretory product of EC cells is serotonin (5-HT). Over 95% of the body’s total 5-HT is located within the gut, and 90% of that is present in the EC cell, which express the enzymatic machinery, including the rate limiting enzyme, tryptophan hydroxylase (Tph), to synthesize 5-HT. The EC cells extend from the basal lamina of the crypt epithelium to the lumen of the crypt. Apical cytoplasmic extensions with microvilli border protrude into the lumen, and respond to chemical and physical alteration of the gut. Hence, the EC cells have been referred to as “taste buds of the gut”. Secretory granules are concentrated at the base of the EC cell cytoplasm, and secretion
occur mainly basally into the lamina propria, but the cells are bipolar and able to secrete also from the apical end, into the gut lumen [62,63,64]. Cytoplasmic extensions with serotonin containing granules have also been found basally, often with terminal buttons with accumulation of 5-HT [65]. Due to constant turnover of the enteric epithelium including its EC cells, nerves cannot form morphological recognizable junctions with EC cells. The secretion rate is therefore constitutively high, and even higher upon stimulation.

Altered 5-HT signalling between EC cells and sensory afferent fibres has been suggested as possible mechanisms for alterations in gastrointestinal functions as motility, secretion and visceral sensation, characteristic of IBS. Changes in key elements in 5-HT signalling, such as EC cell count, 5-HT content, TpH message levels, serum 5-HT levels and expression of serotonin-selective reuptake transporter (SERT), have been reported in IBS. Despite an improved understanding of the enteric nerve system and its involvement in gastrointestinal function, further knowledge is essential to understand the pathophysiology of gastrointestinal disorders like IBS.

**Serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine; 5-HT)**

Serotonin (5-HT) is a monoamine primarily found in blood platelets, the central nervous system and in the digestive tract. As mentioned above, 95 % is located in the digestive tract, of which 90 % in the EC cells, where it is synthesized and stored in secretory granules at the basal border [66]. The remaining 5 % is located within neurons of the enteric nerve system. The pathway for 5-HT synthesis is initiated by conversion of dietary L-tryptophan to 5-hydroxytryptophan by tryptophan hydroxylase, which is the rate limiting enzyme. Subsequently, 5-hydroxytryptophan is decarboxylated into 5-HT by the action of 5-hydroxytryptophan decarboxylase. Newly synthesised 5-HT is packed into secretory granules by the vesicular monoamine transporter 1 (VMAT1), which is specific for 5-HT- producing EC cells [67]. Released 5-HT can interact with neurons, both intrinsic and extrinsic sensory afferent terminals, immune cells, intestinal enterocytes, mucus cells, and smooth muscle receptors to regulate secretion, motility and visceral pain perception [64,68]. Because of the constant migration and turnover of the EC cells, and thus no close contact with nerve endings or immune cells, a high secretion rate of 5-HT is necessary, and the specificity of responses to this paracrine signal is dependent on the receptors reached by the transmitter [69]. The 5-HT receptor family comprises fourteen different receptor sub-types, which are grouped in seven families. Except for the 5-HT₃ receptor, which belongs to the ligand-gated ion channel family, all the receptors are G-protein coupled neurotransmitter receptors [70]. The 5-HT₃ and 5-HT₄
receptors are both therapeutic targets; 5-HT\textsubscript{3} antagonists alleviate nausea and emesis associated with cancer chemotherapy [71,72], and 5-HT\textsubscript{4} agonists have shown to be effective in treatment of constipation-predominant IBS [73,74].

An important aspect of efficient intercellular signalling is the termination of the signal. The action of 5-HT in the gastrointestinal tract is terminated by uptake mediated by SERT, which is expressed by most epithelial cells [75]. Inflammation of the intestinal mucosa is associated with decrease in the expression of SERT [76,77], which impairs the inactivation of 5-HT. The accumulation of synaptic 5-HT will excessively potentiate the actions of 5-HT, affecting secretory, motility and sensory functions, which can cause abdominal discomfort, pain, bloating, nausea, diarrhoea or constipation; effects that are similar to the abnormalities of gastrointestinal function and sensation observed in IBS.

**Chromogranin A (CgA)**

Chromogranin A (CgA) is a member of the granin family of secretory glycoproteins that are found within secretory cells of the enteric endocrine and immune systems. The granins are proposed to play several roles in the secretory process, from targeting peptide hormones and neurotransmitters in granules intracellularly, to regulate hormone secretion extracellularly. CgA is a precursor to a range of peptides with possible regulatory functions [78]. Clinically, measurement of serum and tissue content of CgA has become a valuable tool in the diagnosis of a variety of neuroendocrine tumors (NETs). Carcinoid tumors, which arise from EC cells, represent the most common gastrointestinal NETs, and are characterised by increased release of CgA and 5-HT into systemic circulation [79].

Circulating CgA levels have recently been studied in patients with IBS, and both elevated and reduced levels of CgA have been reported [80,81]. The inconsistency in the results may suggest varied CgA levels in subgroups of IBS, but possible pathophysiological role or clinical implication is yet to be elucidated.

### 1.5 Methodology for the analysis of 5-HT

Traditionally, determination of 5-HT is carried out by enzyme immunoassays, which are considered inexpensive and simple to perform. However, their main disadvantages are the lack of specificity for complex biological samples, potential cross-reactivity and consequently the liability to overestimate the levels of a determined analyte, especially in cases where multiple metabolically related products are present. High performance liquid chromatography
and LCMS (single or tandem) have been successfully used in the determination of 5-HT in a wide variety of biological samples such as diverse tissues [82], brain [83], whole blood [84], serum [85], plasma [86], urine [87], and intestine [88]. It has been suggested that the use of LCMS/MS in the analysis of 5-HT offers advantages in terms of specificity and linear range, while permitting simultaneous determination of 5-HT metabolic related products [84]. The internal standard (IS) technique is the preferred approach to achieve rapid sample analysis efficiency at a minimum cost, as opposed to external standard calibration (a technique also used in immunological assays). The ideal IS is a compound that resembles the analyte of interest. Unfortunately in the majority of prior studies there is no description regarding the strategies behind the selection of an optimal amount of IS, especially in cases where the analyte may have a wide span of concentrations. The potential applicability, in the analysis of biomedical samples, of a multivariate strategy to estimate an optimal concentration of IS and a robust response factor (RF), which does not vary with changes in the analyte and internal standard concentrations, has previously been suggested [89].
2. Aims of the Study

2.1 Overall aim

The present study was part of a project called the MAI-project (“Matallergi og Intoleranse” Norwegian translation), which started in 2001 at Haukeland University Hospital (HUH), Bergen, Norway. The MAI-project embraced patients who self-attributed their gastrointestinal complaints to food hypersensitivity in the absence of organic diseases. The patients went through an extensive examination program which involved allergologists, gastroenterologists, dieticians and psychiatrists/psychologists. The National Institute of Nutrition and Seafood Research (NIFES) collaborated with HUH in this interdisciplinary project.

The overall aim of the present thesis was to study the potential beneficial effect of seal oil in gastrointestinal and non-gastrointestinal complaints and to investigate the possible role of EC cell markers in subjective food hypersensitivity.

2.2 Aims of the papers

Paper I: To compare the effects of duodenal administration of seal oil with that of soy oil on gastric accommodation (single dose experiment) and gastrointestinal complaints (single dose and short-term experiment) in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.

Paper II: To investigate the impact of short-term duodenal administered seal oil on SHC, QoL and gastrointestinal complaints in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.

Paper III: To develop a method for analysing 5-HT in gut lavage fluid by LCMS/MS, by using a multivariable approach in modelling the relationship 5-HT/IS to select an optimal amount of IS. The selected approach was a multivariable model, to investigate how simultaneous changes of 5-HT and IS concentrations could affect the response factor (RF), and how the mathematical modelling can contribute to select an optimal amount of IS.

Paper IV: To investigate the possible role of the EC cell markers 5-HT and CgA in gut lavage fluid and blood, respectively, in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.
3. Material and Methods

3.1 Patients

The patients were referred from general practitioners and specialists to HUH because of gastrointestinal complaints suspected to be due to food allergy. The patients underwent a standardized clinical examination program by an allergologist, a dietician and a gastroenterologist. The extensive examination included detailed medical history, physical examination, routine laboratory tests in addition to SPT, measurements of serum total- and food-specific IgE levels, and DBPCFC performed by a dietician when indicated. The gastroenterological investigations included a gastroscopy with gastric and duodenal biopsy taking to exclude *Helicobacter pylori* infection and celiac disease, respectively, and analysis of intestinal permeability and levels of calprotectin in gut lavage fluid to exclude IBD. In addition, stool samples were investigated to rule out parasitic infections. Patients with organic gastrointestinal disease, which could explain their symptoms, and pregnant or lactating women, were not included. Also patients who reported anaphylactic reactions or very strong atopic reactions combined with high IgE levels were also excluded from the study. All the patients that attended this study were part of the MAI-project.

In paper I, in the single dose experiment, ten female patients with subjective food hypersensitivity were included (range 28-82 years, mean age 49 years). Twenty-four patients (22 females and 2 males, range 24-80 years, mean age 43 years) were included in the short-term experiment, and they were randomly allocated to treatment with either seal oil (*n* = 12; 11 females and 1 male, mean age 45 years) or soy oil (*n* = 12; 11 females and 1 male, mean age 41 years).

In paper II, 34 patients with subjective food hypersensitivity were included in the study, but only 26 patients completed the seal oil treatment and filled in all four questionnaires (Subjective Health Complaints Inventory, short form of the Nepean Dyspepsia Index, Gastrointestinal Symptom Rating Scale and Ulcer Esophagitis Subjective Symptoms Scale). Of the remaining 26 patients, 23 were female and 3 were male (range 26-88 years, mean age 47 years).
In paper III, six patient samples were randomly chosen from the MAI-material for the purpose of method development for determination of 5-HT in gut lavage fluid using liquid chromatography ion-trap tandem mass spectrometry technique.

In paper IV, 69 patients with subjective food hypersensitivity were included (55 females and 14 males, mean age 39 years, range 21-83 years). Gut lavage fluid was collected in all 69 patients for determination of 5-HT, and blood samples for analysis of serum CgA were obtained from 32 out of 69 patients.

3.2 Control subjects

The healthy subjects were mainly employees at NIFES and students at the University of Bergen. Inquiry and study information were sent by e-mail. Participants that reported having regularly gastrointestinal complaints or suspected adverse reactions to foods were not included. However, no medical examinations of the recruited healthy subjects were performed. In paper I in the single dose experiment, the patients with self-reported food hypersensitivity were compared with ten healthy subjects (4 females and 6 males, range 23-56 years, mean age 31 years).

In paper IV, 34 healthy volunteers (24 females and 10 males, range 23-61 years, mean age 33 years) were included in the study. Twenty-seven patients admitted to the Section of Gastroenterology at HUH because of suspected IBD were also included as a control group (11 females and 16 males, range 21-65 years, mean age 35 years). 23 out of 27 patients were diagnosed with IBD (19 had Crohn’s disease and 4 had ulcerative colitis). Overview of study design, material and methods are given in table 1.
Table 1. Overview of study designs, material and methods in paper I-IV.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PAPER I</th>
<th>PAPER II</th>
<th>PAPER III</th>
<th>PAPER IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental groups</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singel dose:</strong> 10 S-FH patients</td>
<td><strong>26 S-FH patients</strong></td>
<td><strong>6 S-FH patients</strong></td>
<td><strong>69 S-FH patients</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Short-term:</strong> 12 S-FH-patients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparison groups</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singel dose:</strong> 10 healthy adults</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>34 healthy adults</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Short-term:</strong> 12 S-FH patients</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>23 IBD patients</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Experimental oils</strong></td>
<td>Seal oil and soy oil</td>
<td>Seal oil</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Daily dosage/duration of oil administration</strong></td>
<td><strong>Single dose:</strong> 10 mL</td>
<td><strong>10 mL × 3/10 days</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Short-term:</strong> 10 mL × 3/10 days</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ultrasonography</strong></td>
<td>2D ultrasound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Symptom registration</strong></td>
<td>Visual Analogue Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questionnaires</strong></td>
<td>SF-NDI, SHC, GSRS, UESS</td>
<td>5-HT (method development)</td>
<td>5-HT (sample quantification)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Intestinal lavage</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Blood samples</strong></td>
<td>CgA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

S-FH=subjective food hypersensitivity; IBD=inflammatory bowel disease; 2D=two dimensional; SF-NDI=Short Form of the Nepean Dyspepsia Index; SHC=Subjective Health Complaints; GSRS=Gastrointestinal Symptom Rating Scale; UESS=Ulcer Esophagitis Subjective Symptoms Scale

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Marine and vegetable oils

In paper I and II, refined seal oil (Rieber Skinn A/S, Bergen, Norway) was used. The seal oil was from adult harp seal (*Phagophilus groenlandicus*), and a combination of natural and synthetic tocopherols, the latter being dl-α tocopheryl acetate were added, acting as antioxidants by scavenging lipid radicals from potentially oxidised PUFAs. To further protect the seal oil against oxidation, a top layer of nitrogen was added to the bottles, and stored in a refrigerator (kept around 4 °C) during study, otherwise in −20 °C freezer. The level of dioxins in the seal oil was below the current European Union upper limits in marine oils for human consumption (2 pg WHO-TEQ/g fat).

In paper I, the effect of seal oil was compared to commercially available soybean oil (Mills DA, Oslo, Norway). The soybean oil was naturally high in linoleic acid (18:2n-6, LA). See Table 2 for an overview of fatty acids, fat soluble vitamins A and E, and lipid peroxidation (thiobarbituric acid reactive substances, TBARS) in the seal oil (paper I-II) and soy oil (paper I).
Table 2. Fatty acid profile (g/100 g), vitamins A, D and E and TBARS in experimental oils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyte</th>
<th>Seal oil</th>
<th>Soy oil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14:0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$ Saturated</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16:1n-7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:1n-11</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:1n-9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:1n-7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:1n-11</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:1n-9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:1n-11</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$ Monoenones</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:2n-6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:4n-6</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$ n-6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:3n-3</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18:4n-3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:4n-3</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20:5n-3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:5n-3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22:6n-3</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Sigma$ n-3</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-6/n-3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum vitamin A</td>
<td>.3 mg/100 g</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin D$_3$</td>
<td>n.a</td>
<td>15 μg/100 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α-tocopherol</td>
<td>4.5 mg/100 g</td>
<td>17.1 mg/100 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBARS</td>
<td>3.6 nmol/g w/w</td>
<td>n.d</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Monoenones = monounsaturated fatty acids. Sum vitamin A = sum retinol (13-, 11-, 9-cis and all-trans retinol ie, A$_1$) and 3,4 didehydroall-trans retinol (A$_3$). TBARS = thiobarbituric acid reactive substances. w/w = wet weight.

3.3.2 Mode of oil administration and oil dosage

In paper I and II, the experimental oils were administered via a nasoduodenal tube (Freka® Feeding Tube, Fresenius Kabi, GmbH, Germany). By aid of fluoroscopy and a stylet, the nasoduodenal tube was positioned with its tip to the middle part of the duodenum. The tube was secured with tape to the cheek. This mode of administration was chosen to ensure compliance considering the relatively high amount of oil self-administrated by the participants during the 10 days’ trial period. On the first trial day, health personnel at the hospital demonstrated how to administrate the oils, via the tube, using a syringe. The participants kept the nasoduodenal tube inserted during the entire trial period. Below is a fluoroscopy image of a nasojejunal feeding tube, located with its tip at the ligament of Treitz (duodenal- and jejuna junction) (Figure 2), and not in the middle or distal part of the duodenum, as in the present thesis.

The patients with subjective food hypersensitivity in paper I and II received approximately 6.1 g of EPA+DHA from the 30 mL daily dosage of seal oil. The seal oil also provided a daily dosage of approximately 1.1 g of DPA. The dose of seal oil was chosen based on previous
studies where the same mode of administration and amount of seal oil was used with promising results and no reported harmful effects [90,91].

![Fluorscopy image of an inserted nasojejunal feeding tube. With permission from Arnold Berstad.](image)

**3.3.3 Two-dimensional ultrasonography**

Ultrasonography is established as a clinical method with high applicability in diagnostic and prognostic evaluations. Ultrasound is a non-invasive, cheap, radiation-free, user- and patient-friendly method allowing repeated and prolonged examinations [92]. Transabdominal ultrasound is useful in assessing gastric emptying, size, accommodation and contractile activity, and thickness of wall and diameter of small and large bowel [54,93,94]. The method has limitations when it comes to depth penetration, especially in obesity, and the presence of intestinal gas may impair image quality [95].

**Scanning procedure**
The patients were scanned while sitting in a chair, leaning slightly backward an angle of 120° between the thighs and the spine. 2D ultrasound images were obtained using a sector scanner (System Five, GE Vingmed Ultrasound, Horten, Norway) with a built in magnetometer-based position and orientation measurement (POM) device (Flock of Birds® Model 6D FOB., Ascension Technology Corp., Burlington, VT, USA). Each standardized image was frozen before being recorded on to videotape and stored on System Five ultrasound scanner. A proximal gastric area in a sagittal section was outlined by tracing from the top margin of the fundus and 7 cm downward along the axis of the stomach. Within 7 cm along the axis of the...
outlined sagittal section of the proximal stomach, the maximal diameter was chosen as sagittal
diameter. The sagittal section of antral area was measured by tracing the outer profile of the
muscularis propria of the gastric wall. In those cases in which air pockets were present in the
selected sonographic section, the outer border of the air pocket was traced. The measures
were traced twice and the average result recorded. Three ultrasonographic measures were
calculated at each recording time: proximal gastric area, frontal diameter and antral area. To
assure compliance, all sonographic examinations and measurements were performed by Dr.
Med. Gülen A. Lied.

3.3.4 Meal-induced symptoms
In paper I, a commercial meat soup (Toro® clear meat soup, Rieber & Søn A/S, Bergen,
Norway) was applied for symptom provocation and evaluation of gastric accommodation. At
each experiment, the subjects drank during 4 min 500 mL of the soup containing 1.8 g
protein, 0.9 g bovine fat, 1.1 g carbohydrate and 0.2 g non-soluble seasoning (20 kcal totally).
The soup was boiled and then cooled to 37 ºC before ingestion. In previous studies this soup
meal induced fed state motility with approximately 3 antral contractions per min in over 85 %
of patients and controls [93].
The participants were asked to score the meal-induced symptoms (epigastric pain, nausea,
fullness, satiety and discomfort) on a 100 millimetre visual analogue scale (VAS), where zero
denotes absence of symptoms and 100 denotes excruciating symptoms. This Norwegian
version of VAS has previously been validated in terms of reliability, validity and sensitivity
[96,97].

3.3.5 Questionnaires

*Short Form Nepean Dyspepsia Index (SF-NDI)*
The SF-NDI is a 10-item questionnaire with five subscales measuring the influence of
dyspepsia on domains of health related QoL, namely tension, interference with daily
activities, altered eating/drinking habits, knowledge/control over disease symptoms and
interference with work/study, and each subscale contains two items. The scores were
determined by measuring each item by a five-point graded Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at
all or not applicable), 2 (a little), 3 (moderately), 4 (quite a lot) to 5 (extremely). The total sum
score for QoL ranges from 10 to 50, and the sum score of each of the five subscales ranges
from 2 to 10. Higher scores indicate poorer QoL. The 10-item SF-NDI has been validated in patients with functional dyspepsia [98], as well as in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [26].

**Subjective Health Complaint (SHC) Inventory**
The SHC Inventory includes 29 items concerning subjective, somatic and psychological complaints. The questionnaire contains five subscales: musculoskeletal pains (migraine, headache, arm pain, shoulder pain, neck pain, upper back pain, lower back pain and leg pain), gastrointestinal problems (gas discomfort, stomach discomfort, gastric ulcer, heartburn, diarrhoea, constipation and stomach pain), allergy (allergies, breathing difficulties, eczema and asthma), “pseudoneurology” (tiredness, sleep problems, dizziness, heat flushes, extra heartbeats, sadness/depression and anxiety) and flu (cold/flu and coughing). The scores were determined by rating each item by a four-point graded Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all), 1 (a little), 2 (quite a lot) to 3 (severely).

**Gastrointestinal Symptom Rating Scale (GSRS)**
The questionnaire includes 15 items which are grouped into five subscales: abdominal pain syndrome (abdominal pain/discomfort, sucking sensation in the epigastrium, nausea and vomiting), reflux syndrome (heartburn and acidic regurgitation), indigestion (borborygmi, abdominal distension, eructation and increased flatus), diarrhoea (increased passage of stools, loose stools and urge for defecation) and constipation (decreased passage of stools, hard stools and feeling of incomplete evacuation). The scores were determined by rating each item by a 7-point graded Likert scale, and higher scores indicate more pronounced symptoms.

**Ulcer Esophagitis Subjective Symptoms Scale (UESS)**
The UESS was developed to examine the symptoms frequently experienced by patients with peptic ulcer and esophagitis. The questionnaire includes 9 items which are grouped into four subscales: abdominal discomfort (abdominal pain, sucking sensation), reflux discomfort (acid regurgitation, heartburn), intestinal discomfort (abdominal distension, borborygmi) and sleep dysfunction (difficulty falling asleep, insomnia and rested waking up). The scores were determined by rating each item by a 100 mm VAS, and higher scores indicate more pronounced symptoms.
3.3.6 Intestinal lavage

Intestinal lavage was performed to collect gut lavage fluid (paper III and IV) (Figure 3). The method is briefly described as following: by aid of a gastroscope, a nasoduodenal tube (Freka® Feeding Tube, Fresenius Kabi, GmbH, Germany) was positioned with its tip to the distal part of the duodenum. Two litres of isotonic polyethylene glycol solution (PEG, MW 3350, Laxabon®, Tika, Sweden) was administered through the nasoduodenal tube during 40 minutes using a peristaltic pump (Watson Marlow 505S/RL, Falmouth, England). The first clear fluid passed per rectum was collected and filtered through gauze, and a 4 mL aliquot was collected on tubes containing 0.5 mL of a solution with antiseptic and antiproteolytic activity prepared by adding 1 ml of 10% sodium azide (NaN₃) to 50 ml of soybean trypsin inhibitor (Sigma, Taukirchen, Germany). The samples were stored at -80 °C prior to analysis.

![Figure 3. Illustration of the intestinal lavage procedure. Illustration by Jørgen Valeur.](image)

3.3.7 Laboratory analysis

Gut lavage fluid was collected from patients with subjective food hypersensitivity (paper III-IV), patients with IBD and healthy controls (paper IV), according to procedure previously described [99], for analysis of 5-HT. The gut lavage fluid specimens were
thawed and centrifugated at 3000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The supernatant was collected and filtered by using a hydrophilic nylon membrane syringe filter, 4 mm diameter and 0.45 μm pore size (Chromacol Ltd, Trumbull, USA). Aliquots of 50 μl of the filtered supernatants were transferred into tubes containing internal standard (5-methoxytryptamine; 5-CH₃O-HT, Cat. No. 286583, Sigma-Aldrich Co), evaporated to dryness in advance. The tubes were vortex-mixed for 1 min, transferred to an autosampler vial and submitted to LCMS/MS for analysis of 5-HT. The sample preparation is schematically outlined in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Schematic demonstration of sample preparation of gut lavage fluid. The samples were thawed and centrifugated, and the supernatant was collected and filtered by using a syringe filter, 0.45 μm pore size. Aliquots of 50 μl were added to test tubes containing IS, and after being vortexed, submitted to LCMS² analysis. Illustration by the author.

Fasting venous blood samples were collected from patients with subjective food hypersensitivity and healthy controls (paper IV) using vials with no added anticoagulants (gel vials), for the analysis of serum CgA. The blood samples were centrifugated and stored at -80 °C prior to analysis. Serum CgA was measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), following the manufacturer’s instructions (ALPCO Diagnostics, Salem, N.H., USA; cat. #43-CHRHU-EO 1.2).

The methyl ester fatty acid (FA) composition of total lipids in seal oil (paper I-II) and soy oil (paper I) were determined by gas liquid chromatography (GLC) at NIFES as described previously [100], with some modifications. In brief, total lipid content was extracted, filtered and evaporated, and thereafter the samples were saponified and the FAs were esterified in 20 % boron fluoride in methanol, and biological sample parallels were analysed. The methyl esters were separated using a gas chromatograph (Trace GC 2000),
equipped with a 50 m CP sil 88 (Chrompack) fused silicia capillary column (id: 0,32 mm), using “cold on column” injection, with a temperature programme of \(60^\circ\text{C/min} \rightarrow 160^\circ\text{C/min} \rightarrow 190^\circ\text{C/min} \rightarrow 220^\circ\text{C/5min}\) and flame ionization detector. The FA profiles were calculated using an integrator (Turbochrome Navigator, Version 6.1), connected to the GLC instrument and identification ascertained by standard mixtures of methyl esters (Nu-Chek, Elyian, USA). The nonadecanoic acid (19:0) methyl ester was used as IS for quantification of FA methyl esters. Limit of quantification (LOQ) was 10 \(\mu\)g FA/g sample (wet weight, w/w).

TBARS were analysed in both seal oil (paper I-II) and soy oil (paper I) at NIFES by a modified in vitro method, measuring mainly malondialdehyde and other aldehydes, and secondary lipid peroxidation parameters [101,102]. Briefly, fat and water-soluble components are separated, while the analytes are being extracted in a methanol:water phase. An aliquot of the extract is added thiobarbituric acid (TBA) in excess and heated to form a coloured complex between aldehydes in the sample and TBA. The absorption at 532 nm was registered and TBARS were quantified by reference to an external standard curve in a spectrophotometer. LOQ was 3,9 nmol TBARS/g sample (w/w).

Vitamin A, i.e. sum retinol (13-, 11-, 9-cis and all-trans retinol, i.e. \(A_1\)) and 3,4 didehydro-all-trans retinol (\(A_2\)), were analysed in seal oil (paper I-II) and soy oil (I) at NIFES by a modified high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) method [103,104]. In brief, the sample is saponified, while the unsaponified material is extracted, and analysed by a HPLC column (HICHROM 4,6 × 150 mm, LC-SI, 3 \(\mu\)m, Teknolab A/S) using an ultraviolet (UV)-detector (Thermo Separations products, UV1000, Intrument-teknikk AS), with reference to an external standard curve. LOQ in oils was 280 ng vitamin \(A_1\)/g sample and 460 ng vitamin \(A_2\)/g sample, both w/w.

Vitamin E was analysed in seal oil used in paper I and II. The analysis was performed at NIFES by HPLC, based on the principles reported by the European Committee for Standardization (CEN) [105]. Briefly, the sample is saponified, while the unsaponified material is extracted. Alpha-, beta-, gamma- and delta-tocopherol isomers were determined using a HPLC column (LiChroART, 4,6 × 125 mm, Purospher STAR Si, 3 \(\mu\)m, Merck) equipped with a fluorescence detector (TSP, FL3000, Spectra system) and quantified by an external standard curve. In the present study, only \(\alpha\)-tocopherol was reported. LOQ in oils was 500 ng \(\alpha\)-tocopherol/g sample (w/w).
Vitamin D was analysed in soy oil at NIFES by HPLC as described earlier. Briefly, sample material is saponified and the unsaponified material is extracted before clean-up on a preparative column (HICHROM, Kromasil silicia, 5 μm, 4.6 x 250 mm). The fractions with vitamin D$_2$ (ergocalciferol) and D$_3$ (cholecalciferol) are collected, evaporated and dissolved in methanol, before injected on an analytical reverse phase column (Ace 5 C18, 5 μm, 4.6 × 250 mm). Vitamin D$_3$ was determined by UV-detector (LaChrom, Merck HITACHI L-7420) and quantified using vitamin D$_2$ as IS. LOQ was 1 μg vitamin D$_3$/100 g sample (w/w).

### 3.3.8 Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry

A Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LCMS/MS) system was used for method development (paper III) and analysis and quantification of 5-HT in gut lavage fluid (paper IV). The LCMS/MS used in the present study was an Agilent 1100 series LC/MSD trap, SL model with an electrospray interface (ESI), a quaternary pump, degasser, autosampler, thermostatted column compartment, variable-wavelength UV detector and 25 μl injection volume. The column, a Zorbax Eclipse-C$_8$ RP 150 × 4.6 mm, 5 μm (Agilent Technologies. Palo Alto, CA, USA) is a double endcapped column 100 % water compatible which can be operated at maximum pH range of 2-9 and provides improved basic peaks of amines compounds (such as 5-HT) due to the polar groups embedded in the stationary phase. The column was kept in the column compartment at 20 °C and the solvent system in gradient mode consisted of water with formic acid 0.1 % v/v (A) and acetonitrile (B) and UV detection at 254 nm and 0.2 mL/min flow rate. The initial condition 100 % of A was ramped to 35 % of A in 20 min, returned immediately to 100 % of A in 5 min and held there for 5 min. Nitrogen was used as nebulizing and drying gas at 300 °C. The ESI source was operated in positive ion mode and the ion optics responsible for getting the ions in the ion-trap such as capillary exit, skimmer, lens and octapoles voltages were controlled by using the Smart View option with a resolution of 13000 m/z/sec (FWHM/m/z = 0.6-0.7). Complete system control, data acquisition and processing were done using the ChemStation for LC/MSD version 4.2 from Agilent. The transitions monitored were 177 → 160 m/z for 5-HT and 191 → 174 m/z for IS, 5-methoxytryptamine (IS). The magnitude of the signals was recorded in ion counts per second (icps). A representative ion chromatogram of a gut lavage fluid sample is shown in Figure 5.
Figure 5. A) Representative ion chromatogram of one of the GLF sample. B) Extracted ion chromatograms at 160 and 174 m/z obtained by fragmenting \([5\text{-HT}+H]^+\) and \([5\text{-CH}_3\text{O-HT}+H]^+\) signals 177 and 191 m/z respectively. C and D) MS/MS product ion spectra for 177 and 191 m/z, respectively. Figure processed by ChemStation for LC/MSD version 4.2, Agilent.

### 3.3.9 Selection of optimal amount of 5-CH₃O-HT

A uniform shell design proposed by Doehlert [106] was applied to model the relationship between 5-HT and 5-CH₃O-HT, in terms of linearity of the detector response (paper III). The main characteristics of this design are:

- The number of experiments is calculated by the general expression \(X^2 + X + 1\) where \(X\) represents the number of variables studied. For instance, to investigate the effect of two variables \((X = 2)\) seven experiments will be required.
• The experiments are allocated at the centre and at the vertexes of a hexagonal shape, circumscribed in a circle of radius 1, in this way the variances of the estimated responses are the same at all points on the circle centred at the origin.

• The variables are codified and equally spaced between -1 and 1 and by using basic geometric it is possible to determine the coded combination of the variables at each vertex of the hexagon. Figure 1 in paper III described how the coded levels of the variable \(x_j\) (represented by question marks) are calculated by using Pythagoras’ theorem.

• The variables are simultaneously investigated at different numbers of levels. Figure 1 in paper III shows how the coded variables \(x_1\) and \(x_2\) are studied at 3 and 5 levels (-0.866, 0, 0.866 and -1, -0.5, 0, 0.5, 1), respectively. The coded levels are then converted into \(\mu g/mL\) values.

The application of this design in the determination of the optimal amount of IS to be used in the quantitative determination of 5-HT was as follows:

Test tubes containing seven different concentration ratios of 5-HT:IS in 50 μl of ethanol were prepared in triplicates (7 × 3 = 21 tubes) and evaporated to dryness under a stream of nitrogen at room temperature. A gut lavage sample with no detectable levels of 5-HT was thawed at room temperature, and prepared as described above. Aliquots of 50 μl of the filtered supernatant were added into the aforementioned 21 test tubes. The tubes were vortex-mixed for 1 min, transferred to an autosampler vial and submitted to LCMS/MS analysis. A GLF blank sample spiked with 3 μg/mL of 5-HT and 16 μg/mL of IS was prepared in triplicate to check the prediction capability of the model to be proposed. The analytical signals recorded with this additional solution along with those obtained by applying the uniform shell design, were used for modelling purposes.

3.4 Statistics

All statistical calculations and graphic designs were performed using the GraphPad Prism statistical software package (GraphPad Prism version 4.00 and 5.00 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, USA). In general, results are given as means with standard deviations or standard errors, as indicated. Differences between means were evaluated by t-tests or ANOVA, and between proportions by chi square tests. Regression analysis in paper III was
3.5 Ethics

The study trials were performed according to the Declaration of Helsinki, after approval from the Regional Committee for Medical Research Ethics and written informed consent from patients and controls. The collection of the gut lavage fluid from the patients was part of the routine examination, and the samples were stored in an approved biobank at HUH prior to analysis. When analysed, the gut lavage fluid samples were stored in an approved biobank at NIFES (paper III). The gut lavage fluid samples obtained from patients and used during method development in paper IV were approved for research. The blood samples obtained from patients and controls in paper IV were stored in an approved biobank at HUH.
4. Summary of results

4.1 Paper I

Effects of seal oil on meal-induced symptoms and gastric accommodation in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity: a pilot study

In the single dose experiment, 10 patients and 10 healthy volunteers received 10 mL duodenal administered seal oil or soy oil. The gastric accommodation of the proximal and distal stomach, examined by 2D ultrasonographic scanning, and meal-induced abdominal symptoms, assessed by VAS, were not significantly influenced by single doses of seal or soy oil.

In the short-term treatment study, 24 patients were randomly allocated to 10 days’ treatment with either 10 mL of seal or soy oil, self-administrated through a nasoduodenal feeding tube, 3 times daily. Seal oil, but not soy oil, reduced total symptom score significantly (\(p = 0.03\)). However, the symptomatic improvement was not associated with improvements in gastric accommodation.

4.2 Paper II

Seal oil in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity: An open explorative pilot study

Twenty-six patients received 10-day open treatment with seal oil, 10 mL self-administrated three times daily. Before and after treatment, and 1 month post-treatment, patients filled in the SHC Inventory for non-gastrointestinal symptoms in addition to the SF-NDI for evaluation of QoL, the UESS score and the GSRS for gastrointestinal symptoms. Total sum score of the SHC Inventory was significantly reduced between before and after 10 days’ seal oil treatment (\(p < 0.0001\)), and between before and 30 days after ended seal oil treatment (\(p = 0.0008\)). Total sum score of the SF-NDI was significantly reduced from baseline both at 10 days (\(p < 0.0001\)) and at 30 days post-treatment (\(p = 0.0008\)). The decrease from baseline for the total sum score of the GSRS and the UESS, were significant at 10 days, \(p = 0.007\) and \(p < 0.0001\), respectively, and at 30 days post-treatment, \(p = 0.02\) and \(p = 0.0006\), respectively. Thus, both non-gastrointestinal and gastrointestinal complaints were significantly improved from baseline both at 10 and 30 days post-treatment.
4.3 Paper III

Direct determination of serotonin in gut lavage fluid by liquid chromatographic ion trap tandem mass spectrometry

A new method for direct determination of serotonin in gut lavage fluid was established. The method involves addition of 5-methoxytryptamine (5-CH3O-HT) IS, centrifugation, filtration and injection of the sample supernatant in a liquid chromatographic system coupled to an ion-trap tandem mass detector. Electrospray in positive mode was used to isolate and fragment the protonated ions [5-HT+H]+ and [5-CH3O-HT+H]+ signals 177 and 191 m/z respectively. Different response factor values were estimated by using a multivariate model, suggesting that the interaction 5-HT/IS is an important factor that affects the validity of the RF and consequently the accuracy of 5-HT determination. The systematic and simultaneous experimental design applied on the entire 5-HT concentration range (2 – 12 μg/mL), resulted in a constant RF of 0.040 and a IS concentration of 2 μg/mL to perform a reliable 5-HT quantification.

4.4 Paper IV

Subjective food hypersensitivity: assessment of enterochromaffin cell markers in gut and blood

Analysis of 5-HT was performed in gut lavage fluid from patients with subjective food hypersensitivity (n = 67), patients with IBD (n = 23) and healthy controls (n = 17). Blood samples for CgA analysis were obtained from 30 patients with subjective food hypersensitivity and 34 healthy volunteers. Serum levels of CgA were significantly lower in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity compared to healthy controls (p = 0.04). No significant difference in gut lavage 5-HT was detected between patients with subjective food hypersensitivity, patients with IBD and healthy controls.
5. General discussion

5.1 Patients

The patients in the present study attributed their gastrointestinal complaints to the ingestion of food, and many believed to suffer from food allergy or non-allergic food hypersensitivity. However, immune-mediated food allergy was not detected, and only occasional cases of non-allergic food hypersensitivity could be verified. The high discrepancy between perceived food hypersensitivity and confirmed food allergy, by current available diagnostic methods, is in accordance with findings in previous studies [26,33]. Despite extensive medical work-up, the patients’ gastrointestinal complaints remained unexplained, and we therefore denoted the patients’ condition as ‘subjective food hypersensitivity’ in the present thesis. The patients’ gastrointestinal complaints complied with a FGID; in fact, as many as 90 % of the patients who participated in our studies have IBS, and some few FD, according to Rome II criteria. In addition to gastrointestinal complaints, the patients with subjective food hypersensitivity also reported multiple non-gastrointestinal complaints, like musculoskeletal complaints, fatigue and sleep disorders, and also psychological problems like anxiety and depression were frequently reported. This co-morbidity of gastrointestinal and non-gastrointestinal complaints emphasizes the complex nature of this patient group. The existence of subgroups seems very likely, but to designate the patients to defined groups will be challenging due to a comprehensive and multifactorial symptomatology.

There was a clear predominance of women in the present study (over 90 %). This gender difference is consistent with other studies on patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [26,27]. In general, the prevalence of FGID, mainly IBS, seems to be higher in women, at least of those who seek health care services [107,108]. There is evidence to support a gender-related difference in pathophysiology and management of FGID [109], however, it is unknown whether the differences are disease-specific, or more a reflection of general gender differences.

5.2 Oil administration and dosage

In the present thesis, the seal oil was administered via a nasoduodenal tube (paper I and II). Although installation is an invasive and cumbersome procedure, the treatment was remarkably well tolerated and largely without side-effects in patients with subjective food
hypersensitivity, and the mode of administration secured nearly perfect compliance (according to the patients’ verbal reports). The targeting delivery into the small intestine may also reduce potential gastroesophageal reflux, nausea and vomiting [110].

The therapeutic benefit observed following this short-term strategy suggests that a rapid booster effect may be achieved by duodenal administration of seal oil [90,91,111,112,113]. No direct comparative study of oral versus duodenal administration of marine oils for pain relief exists, but it is worth noticing that 14 days’ orally administrated seal oil showed no significant effect in patients with IBD or psoriatic arthritis [114,115]. The fact that EPA and DHA most likely represent the main bioactive component of marine oils [116], has lead to an increased use of highly purified LC n-3 PUFA capsules, e.g. free fatty acids or ethyl esters. Capsules may be a good alternative in long-term trials, especially when it comes to blinding. Interestingly, capsules containing free LC n-3 PUFA were not effective in patients with Crohn’s disease [117].

In the present study (paper I + II) natural triacylglycerol (TAG) oil was used, and the daily dosage of 30 mL provided a relative high dose of EPA + DHA (6.1 g/day), in addition to 1.1 g/day DPA. A dosage of 2.7 g/day EPA + DHA gave a moderately anti-inflammatory effect in long-term treatment of rheumatoid arthritis [118]. Thus, 6.1 g/day of n-3 LCPUFAs was considered to be a proper dose in the present study. Duodenal lipid infusion has been reported to exacerbate symptoms in patients with FGID, like FD [119,120], but the duodenal infused seal oil in the present study did not reproduce or worsen the patients’ symptoms. On the contrary, the patients experienced attenuation of their symptoms.

5.3 Effect of seal oil on gastrointestinal complaints

Gastrointestinal complaints constitute a large part of the symptomatology in subjective food hypersensitivity. The patients’ gastrointestinal complaints usually manifest after ingestion of a meal, with emphasis on abdominal pain/discomfort, nausea, diarrhea and sensation of being bloated and full. Following a 10-day intraduodenal administration of seal oil in the present study, gastrointestinal complaints were significantly attenuated (paper I and paper II). The mechanisms of action may be due to the anti-inflammatory and immune-modulating properties of the long chain n-3 PUFAs. The anti-inflammatory effect is supposed to be brought about by modulation of the amount and types of eicosanoids produced via the COX and LOX enzyme pathways. Consistently, plasma levels of pro-inflammatory PGE$_2$ was reduced in response to 10 days’ treatment with duodenal administered seal oil in patients with
IBD-related joint pain [112]. Unfortunately, the present study did not include analysis of PGE$_2$, due to logistical problems on the lab. However, we conducted a small trial where four patients with subjective food hypersensitivity ingested 20 mL seal oil per day for four weeks, and PGE$_2$ analysis by LCMS/MS was performed (results not published, Figure 6). The protocol applied for the analysis of PGE$_2$ was developed at NIFES [121]. Interestingly, we found that PGE$_2$ level in plasma decreased following four week per-oral seal oil treatment (Figure 6). Although this result is based on only 4 patient samples, it indicates that an effect is measurable after short-term seal oil treatment. Placebo effects are considered to be strong in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [122,123], but taken together with the findings noted above [112], it is reasonable to say that the positive effects of short-term seal oil treatment reported in the present thesis cannot solely be ascribed a placebo effect. The fact that 10 days’ duodenal soy oil treatment did not have any effect on meal-induced gastrointestinal symptoms (paper I), supports the possibility that the positive effect is conserved for seal oil due to its contribution of n-3 LC-PUFAs which interrupt specific receptor-mediated signaling pathways involved in pain perception. By virtue of its high content of n-6 LA, soy oil will induce PGE$_2$ production, while the n-3 LCPUFAs, especially EPA, from seal oil will act inhibitory.

Figure 6: Plasma PGE$_2$ level (ng/mL) measured in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity before and after ingestion of seal oil (20 mL/day for 4 weeks). Data are given as individual values. *P*-value = 0.09.

In general, increased levels of PGE$_2$ mediate typical aspects of inflammation, including pain, edema and fever. PGE$_2$ is found to play a direct role in pain perception through interactions with the EP1 receptor [124]. Low-grade inflammation of the intestinal mucosa has been proposed to play an important role of the etiology in IBS [43]. Spiller et al., found increased number of inflammatory cells in the colonic and ileal mucosa of IBS patients [125], and
recently, significant elevated levels of PGE$_2$ and LTB$_4$ in patients with IBS were reported [126]. These findings support a mild activation of the immune system, in at least a subset of IBS patients. It is also interesting the findings of Lillestøl and colleagues, who reported increased intestinal permeability and increased duodenal IgE-bearing mast cells, which significantly correlated with serum total IgE levels, in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [127]. In addition, Arslan Lied and colleagues, recently reported increased concentrations of B-cell activating factor (BAFF) in blood and in gut lavage fluid, and increased serum CD38 levels, which are released from monocyte-derived dendritic cells [128]. Hence, all findings regarding increased number of “IgE-armed” mast cells, BAFF and dendritic cells support the notion of immune activation in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [129].

The visceral sensory system may be sensitized by inflammation, leading to lowered threshold to stimuli, which may lead to intestinal motor abnormalities and abdominal pain and discomfort, which are reported by a large proportion of patients with IBS. Especially, there are indications that patients with PI-IBS are good candidates for developing low grade mucosal inflammation [130]. Even though the clinical relevance needs to be further explored, these interesting findings indicate an up-regulated COX and LOX activity, and also that the fatty acid profile may be critical to the symptom generation in IBS. NSAIDs are known effective drugs in inflammation and pain management, but the analgesic agents are associated with troublesome side-effects. The n-3 LCPUFA found in seal oil, and also fish oil and fatty fish, act as natural inhibitors and modulators of both the COX and LOX pathways, thus they have the potential to modify pathology in diverse inflammatory conditions, free of adverse side-effects [118].

Visceral hypersensitivity is considered a hallmark of the pathogenesis of FGID, and the term refers to an increased sensation of stimuli originating from the abdomen, and both central and peripheral sensitization may be important factors. Central sensitization is believed to be due to an increase in the excitability of central neurons, so that normal sensory input from the bowel is manifested as abnormal peripheral responses. Such change in central processing has been suggested to be involved in IBS [108]. The mechanisms of visceral hypersensitivity are not fully understood, but both stress and inflammation are believed to be implicated in the triggering of pain and discomfort observed in FGID, like IBS, possibly through vagal afferent nerve activity. PGE$_2$, a potent mediator during inflammatory response, is believed to act as a sensitizer especially in pain sensation. The vagus nerve is an important communicator of the
brain-gut interaction, and is increasingly recognised to be involved in control of immune responses. Dietary fat can affect the vagus nerve by inducing release of cholecystokinin (CCK) that binds to CCK-receptors located centrally or on peripheral vagal afferents. Activation of CCK-receptors triggers vagal efferents which lead to an increase of acetylcholine, which by binding to appropriate receptors, inhibit release of pro-inflammatory cytokines like TNF-α and IL-6 from immune activated macrophages. Based on these findings, high fat enteral nutrition has been suggested as potentially therapeutic in various inflammatory disorders [131].

In the present thesis, the patients reported discomfort in response to ingestion of 500 mL of dilute meat soup, suggesting visceral hypersensitivity to be part of the pathophysiology in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity (paper I). It may also indicate that the patients’ perception of being food hypersensitive might be less specific for particular food items than often self-reported. Impaired gastric accommodation has been suspected to cause sensation of gastric pain, fullness and early satiety in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity. Considering the bolus dosage of 10 mL duodenal administered seal oil in the present study, we anticipated that the symptom improvement reported by the patients would be associated with improvements in gastric accommodation, due to the effect of LC-PUFAs, through increased CCK secretion, on gastric tone. On the contrary, no such improvements in either proximal or distal (antral) gastric accommodation, assessed by 2D ultrasonographic scanning, were observed. Thus, impaired gastric accommodation most likely plays a limited role of the aetiology in subjective food hypersensitivity. The gastrointestinal discomfort reported by the patients following the test meal, and the consecutive symptom attenuation after short-term treatment with seal oil (paper I) may suggest visceral chemosensitivity rather than visceral hypersensitivity to mechanical distension, which is characteristic in FD. In a study using a post-inflammatoty mouse model, altered chemosensitive responses was found, suggesting vagal chemosensitive afferents to play a central role in post-inflammatoty visceral hypersensitivity, like PI-IBS [132]. Whether visceral chemosensitivity mechanisms are present in subjective food hypersensitivity, at least in a subset of the patients, warrants further investigation.

In paper II, we found that baseline, or customary, gastrointestinal complaints were significantly improved following 10 days’ seal oil administration, as assessed by the GSRS and the UESS questionnaires. Interestingly, the patients consistently reported improvement of gastrointestinal complaints at 30 days post-treatment compared to baseline as well. A major
limitation of this pilot study is the lack of control, and the possibility of placebo effect is highly present. However, as seal oil previously improved gastrointestinal complaints in this patient group compared to soy oil (paper I), we wanted to first perform an open pilot study to examine if positive effects in non-gastrointestinal complaints could be anticipated (discussed below). The apparent beneficial effect of short-term duodenal seal oil administration on gastrointestinal complaints reported by the patients in paper I and paper II, may be brought about by the n-3 LC-PUFAs inhibitory effects of the COX and LOX systems. Especially considering the findings reported by Lillestøl et al. [127] and Arslan Lied et al. [133] which indicate immune activation in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity, it is likely that inhibition of COX activity and subsequently reduction in PGE$_2$ can attenuate pain sensation.

Another effect of the n-3 fatty acids may be via increased release of CCK, which may reduce immune response via actions on peripheral vagal afferents. Indeed, LC fatty acids have been found to be a more potent stimulus to CCK secretion, compared to medium-chain fatty acids [119]. The fact that the attenuation of the patients’ complaints was maintained 30 days post-treatment, could indicate that the effect cannot be assigned exclusively to a placebo effect. But further controlled studies are highly warranted for confirmation of results.

Functional alterations of the gut flora, so-called dysbiosis, has recently been suggested as a key pathogenetic mechanism of several conditions, both extra-intestinal, such as metabolic syndrome, allergy and autism, and intestinal, like IBD and IBS [134,135]. Early life stress results in an altered brain-gut axis, as shown in a mouse model, suggesting this as a valuable model for investigating stress-related disorders including depression and IBS [136]. In man, enteric infections, antibiotic usage, and stress may disturb the indigenous gut flora and predispose to IBS [137]. Bloating and perception of increased gas production are indeed common in subjective food hypersensitivity and IBS, and the complaints most often arises after eating. Small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (SIBO) may explain the pronounced bloating, due to increased hydrogen excretion. In addition to bloating and distension, visceral hypersensitivity, motility disturbances, autonomic dysfunctions and immune activation are frequently observed in IBS, and may be understood as a consequence of the host response to SIBO [138]. Indeed, Pimentel et al., showed that eradication of bacterial overgrowth considerably reduced IBS symptoms [139]. Elimination of the hydrogen produced during bacterial fermentation depends primarily on methanogenic and sulphate-reducing bacteria that convert hydrogen to methane or hydrogen sulphide [140]. Intriguingly, EPA capsules for seven days have been found to reduce total breath hydrogen excretion after challenge with
lactitol, another unabsorbable but fermentable carbohydrate [141]. EPA contains five double bonds which potentially can be saturated during bacteria metabolism, and thus offer a salvage route for excess hydrogen [141]. Whether tube-administered seal oil, rich in EPA, could influence microbial metabolism is yet not known. The n-3 PUFA has been found to promote adhesion of gut bacteria to mucosal surface, which is pivotal for the beneficial effects of probiotics. Indeed, administration of PUFAs increased the number of *Lactobacillus paracasei* adhering to jejunal mucosa [142]. Also, a recently study found lower content of lactobacillus in n-3 depleted mice compared to mice given an n-3 rich diet [143]. Thus, PUFAs have been suggested to enhance the effectiveness of probiotics.

In SIBO, colonic bacteria will arise in the small intestine and exert its actions there. In contrast to methanogenesis, which produce non-toxic CH₄, dissimilatory sulphate reduction produces highly toxic H₂S. SRB utilize several fermentation products, butyrate being one of the main substrates. Butyrate is also a major factor to maintain a healthy and functioning epithelium barrier, protecting the intestinal mucosa against inflammation and cancer [144]. Indeed, the mucosa itself contains highly sulphated mucins that serve as substrate for SRB. These actions of SRB may compromise intestinal barrier function, and increase intestinal permeability which may cause hypersensitive responses to foods, and also to bacterial endotoxins, like lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Interestingly, increased intestinal permeability has been reported in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [127], but this needs to be further investigated to elucidate possible pathogenic mechanisms.

In the present study, the bolus dosage of 10 mL duodenal administered seal oil, may act as a protective layer floating on-top of the mucosa, in the same way as hydrophobic phospholipids. This shielding effect is considered an important mechanism in mucosal defence [145].

The role of dietary constituents in FGID is unclear, and a causal relationship between onset of symptoms and ingestion of particular food items is often not unambiguously confirmed. But considering the high proportion of patients who attribute their complaints to foods, dietary factor is most likely implicated in the symptomatology. Milk, bread, cereals and fruits are most often recognized as the culprits. Indeed, many patients experience relief of symptoms when excluding the suspected food item from their diet. In a recent study, Biesiekierski et al. showed that gluten can provoke IBS symptoms in subjects without celiac disease [146]. Previously, we have shown that ingestion of lactulose, an unabsorbable, but fermentable carbohydrate, may replicate the gastrointestinal symptoms in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [45], and Gibson et al., found a number of poorly absorbed short-chain
carbohydrates to trigger IBS-like symptoms [46]. Thus, a low FODMAP diet may be effective in patients with IBS. FODMAPs do not represent the underlying cause to a functional disorder, but it constitutes an opportunity for reducing symptoms. It is important to remember that ingestion of FODMAPs is normal and tolerated by most people, and that symptoms will be generated only when underlying bowel response is exaggerated or abnormal [46].

Several recent observations suggest a component of malabsorption in patients with IBS. Thus Morken et al. and Berstad et al., found increased faecal fat excretion in around one forth of patients with IBS and food hypersensitivity [147,148]. Consistently, Solakivi et al., found decreased levels of PUFA in blood in patients with IBS and suggested that intestinal malabsorption of fatty acids could be the reason [149]. An unbalance of n-3 PUFAs have been shown to modify the gut microbiota, were low level of n-3 PUFA most likely lower its metabolic activity [143]. An experimental study by Pachikian and colleagues showed that malabsorption could be related to altered microbial fermentation [143]. They even suggested that such fermentation is related to endotoxemia, a potentially very important cause of systemic symptoms in these patients. Further studies of the potential pathological role of intestinal dysfunction in IBS are highly warranted.

5.4 Effect of seal oil on non-gastrointestinal complaints

Non-gastrointestinal, systemic complaints are prevalent in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity (paper II). In the present thesis, besides high scores on gastrointestinal problems, the patients presented high scores of SHC from different organ systems, as assessed by the SHC Inventory. Musculoskeletal complaints, tiredness/fatigue, sleep problems and anxiety were the most prominent non-gastrointestinal complaints (paper II). Unexplained, gastrointestinal complaints like abdominal pain, bloating and diarrhea may be considered as more defined and ‘genuine’ complaints than the more diffuse non-gastrointestinal complaints. But based on our findings, non-gastrointestinal complaints represent a problem of high relevance, and the high proportion of patients with subjective food hypersensitivity that suffers from SHC, especially musculoskeletal complaints and tiredness/fatigue, suggests that SHC and subjective food hypersensitivity may share pathophysiological mechanisms. Thus it might be valuable to assess SHC in future studies. Patients with subjective food hypersensitivity and IBS have previously been found to have impaired QoL [150,151]. The patients in the present thesis also reported considerably impaired QoL. Unfortunately, we did
not have a control group in this explorative, open study (paper II), but the baseline total sum score of the QoL (28.0) reported in the present thesis [152] is comparable with that reported in the study of Arslan and colleagues (27.4) [26], were the QoL of patients with SHC was significantly impaired compared to controls (13.5). Considering the patients’ complex symptomatology, including both gastrointestinal and systemic symptoms, and the fact that their complaints often remain unexplained, impaired QoL was highly expected in the present thesis.

It is generally assumed that psychological factors, including anxiety, depression and stress, aggravate gastrointestinal disorders and play important roles in the pathogenesis of unexplained medical symptoms. However, Lind and colleagues have recently shown that psychological factors such as symptom-specific and general anxiety, and depression could explain only approximately 10% of the variance in the patients’ symptom severity; hence, 90% of the variance remained unexplained [33]. This also suggests psychological factors to be secondary as a consequence of long-lasting somatic complaints. Consistently, many patients experience that a psychological explanation model is put forward in absence of somatic pathology. A diagnosis of psychosomatic disorder is therefore often not well accepted, and many patients tend to seek alternative medicine when not receiving adequately medical care.

Sensitization theories, like cognitive sensitization or cognitive bias, have been suggested to account for the development of, at least in part, medically unexplained conditions, and such psychobiological mechanisms could be involved in subjective food hypersensitivity as well. The patients are often constantly worried with heightened vigilance for specific symptoms, which may unreasonably activate their cognitive sensitization networks, leading to over-reporting of somatic sensations and misattribution of bodily symptoms. Cognitive bias, which is considered as a higher form of cognitive-emotional sensitization, may be the underlying neurobiological substrate for SHC reaching the level of somatisation [153]. Concerns and modern health worries (MHW) (e.g. air pollution, additives in food, X-rays, chemicals in household products, etc.) have been associated with SHC and rise in health care use. MHW may lead to misinterpretation of everyday complaints as physiological consequences of environmental factors, and this is often exacerbated by media’s overemphasis of high-risk and disease-related stories [154]. Although, patients with food hypersensitivity report considerably more SHC than healthy controls, Lind and colleagues found that sum score on the MHW scale did not significantly differ between the patients and
controls [27]. Thus, concerns for modern living do not explain the high prevalence of SHC in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.

In the present thesis, the short-term treatment with seal oil significantly improved the patients’ non-gastrointestinal complaints from baseline, and the improvement maintained significant 30 days post-treatment. It is reasonable to believe that the beneficial effect of the seal oil treatment can be explained by the involvement of the n-3 LC-PUFAs in pain attenuation by inhibiting PGE$_2$ production. Indeed, PGE$_2$ is known to be involved in pain sensitization [155]. A possible placebo response cannot be ignored when interpreting the results from the seal oil studies (paper I+II). Still, the prolonged effect of the seal oil treatment, on both SHC and gastrointestinal complaints, is intriguing, and may indicate that the positive effect of seal oil is not alone an outcome due to placebo response. To confirm and further elucidate the findings objective measures must be included in further controlled studies.

Medical unexplained symptoms, arising from different organs, often occur together, and may have common underlying pathology. Central sensitization is believed to be responsible for generation of symptoms in fibromyalgia [129]; a condition characterised by widespread chronic pain mainly of musculoskeletal origin, and also gastrointestinal complaints. In fact, of those patients with fibromyalgia, 30 % to 70 % have concurrent IBS [156]. Interestingly, in a recently published study, Berstad and colleagues found that 71 % and 85 % of patients with IBS and subjective food hypersensitivity reported symptoms suggestive of fibromyalgia/and or chronic fatigue, respectively. Thus, it is likely to believe that these multi-symptom conditions may have a common underlying cause. Multiple unexplained symptoms are often associated with psychosomatic models. But, more likely, psychological disturbances are a consequence rather than a cause. The story of the peptic ulcer disease comes to mind here; when eliminating the microbial factor (*Helicobacter pylori*), both psychological and somatic complaints disappeared [157].

### 5.5 The role of enterochromaffin cells

The secretory EC cells play an important role of the enteric neuroendocrine system in maintaining normal gut function. CgA and 5-HT are major secretory products which may reflect activation of the neuroendocrine system. Due to inconsistent and limited data, the association between CgA and gastrointestinal pathophysiology, and the relevance of CgA as a biomarker for disease activity in IBS is still unclear. Elevated serum levels of CgA have been
reported in patients with PI-IBS [80]. However, the density of CgA+ cells in duodenal and colonic mucosa has been decreased in IBS patients [158].

In the present study (paper IV), serum CgA was significantly lower in the patients with subjective food hypersensitivity compared to the healthy controls, which corroborates with our previous results [81]. Sidhu et al., have reported abnormally elevated levels of serum CgA in a small proportion of their included patients with diarrhea predominant IBS [80]. However, they did not include healthy controls and in many of the patients with elevated CgA, the levels declined with time, which the authors explained with short-lived EC cell hyperplasia, as previously reported by Dunlop et al. [159]. Thus, it would be interesting to perform repeated measurements over time of both CgA and 5-HT in future studies.

CgA serves as a pro-hormone for shorter peptide fragments with regulatory properties [160]. Fragments of CgA exert anti-microbial effects and may modulate gastrointestinal motility, sensitivity and barrier function [161,162]. The low levels of CgA demonstrated in the present study could be a consequence of alterations in the gut microbial flora in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity [163,164]. Intriguingly, Dlugoz et al., have recently demonstrated *Chlamydia trachomatis* antigens in enteroendocrine cells and macrophages of the small bowel in patients with IBS [165]. Although the clinical significance is yet unknown, this is an exciting finding that together with the present finding of low serum levels of CgA could imply an impairment of EC cell function in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity and IBS. El-Salhy and colleagues demonstrated decreased CgA-positive cells in biopsies from patients with IBS [158]. Thus, a decrease in number of CgA secretory cells could be a reasonable explanation for the low serum CgA found in the present study. This should be looked into in future studies.

Interestingly, increased levels of plasma somatostatin have been reported in IBS [166]. Also, infusion of somatostatin analogues has been found to decrease plasma CgA [167]. Somatostatin suppresses the release of several gastrointestinal hormones which affects motility and intestinal secretions, among others. Hypothetically, abnormal high secretion of somatostatin could account for the decreased level of serum CgA observed in our patients. Potential role of somatostatin in subjective food hypersensitivity should be further investigated.

A recently published study by Öhman et al demonstrated increased fecal levels of CgA and secretogranins II and III (Sg II and Sg III) in patients with IBS [168]. The authors reported a negative correlation between the fecal levels of CgA, SgII and SgIII with colonic transit time, but the association between fecal granins and symptoms were weak. Also, SgII
was found to have good discriminative validity to positively identify IBS. This study adds to the body of evidence that there is a gastrointestinal component in the aetiology of IBS, but whether the granins represent a cause of the pathophysiology or merely reflect the phenotype of IBS is still unanswered. The fact that elevated levels of Cgs also have been reported in other diseases than IBS, complicate the use of Cgs alone as a biomarker of IBS. Cgs may be more eligible to reflect the activity of the enteroendocrine system, and serve as a biomarker for other bioactive secretion products, like 5-HT, that can affect the bowel function. CgA is an established biomarker for neuroendocrine tumors, and circulating CgA is assumed to reflect the neuroendocrine secretion in the body. When it comes to gastrointestinal disorders, it might be beneficial to include analysis of faeces and/or luminal fluids because this could probably better mirror the condition in the gastrointestinal tract, and thus enhance the understanding of gastrointestinal disturbances. With this respect, it should be clarified whether circulating CgA corresponds to luminal secretion of CgA.

One of the signaling molecules with an unambiguous physiological role in the enteric nervous system (ENS) is 5-HT, involved in several aspects of gut function, including secretion, motility and sensation. Release or leakage of 5-HT into the gut lumen has been demonstrated previously [169,170], but whether luminal 5-HT has any physiological function or is just an overflow phenomena is not clear. High systemic levels of 5-HT may cause symptoms resembling hypersensitivity reactions to food, such as diarrhea [171,172], nausea [173], or flushing and heart palpitations [174]. 5-HT has been implicated in several gastrointestinal disorders, including IBS [169], IBD [175] and food hypersensitivity [176]. 5-HT is commonly measured in blood platelets or in plasma, the latter being a poor matrix due to rapid degradation of 5-HT into 5-hydroxyindolacetic acid (5-HIAA). More than 95 % of plasma 5-HT is present in platelets, and studies assessing platelet 5-HT content in IBS patients are somewhat conflicting [177,178,179]. Alterations of 5-HT secretion within the gut are not necessarily reflected in the systemic circulation, and assessing 5-HT in gut tissue samples is therefore often considered as more accurate. However, considering the large surface of the gastrointestinal tract, biopsies can only give information from a small fragment of this huge area. Indeed, EC cell counts seem to vary a lot in different studies [180,181]. In the present thesis we propose a simple and less invasive sampling procedure in conjunction with a rapid technique for determination of 5-HT in gut lavage fluid (paper III). EC cells release 5-HT mainly from granules at the basal border, but studies have shown that EC cells are bipolar and that they are able to secrete 5-HT both basally, into the systemic circulation,
and apically, into the gut lumen [62,63,64]. Our method enabled quantification of luminal EC cell secretion of 5-HT along the entire length of the small and large bowel. In the present study (paper IV), gut lavage 5-HT were found to be unaltered in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity, as compared to healthy controls. Patients with IBD had slightly higher mean level of 5-HT, but the difference was not significant.

The high degree of variance in the 5-HT data may be due to high individual differences as well as a consequence of the pre-analytical sampling procedure. The use of gut lavage fluid for analytical purpose is quite unique. Based on our previous experience with the procedure [99,182], the first clear fluid passed per rectum was chosen because it was desirable with as little particles as possible to avoid analytical problems, but we acknowledge that the time point of sampling is not necessarily the same for each participant, as transit time may vary a lot. Also, the 5-HT release with time may differ between subjects, thus, one measurement in time may not be the optimal method. These aspects should be considered in further studies using the gut lavage procedure. The PEG solution used in the lavage procedure is a potent laxative that may act as a stimulant and induce secretion of 5-HT from the EC cells. But because the PEG-load was equal in all participants, it is unlikely that PEG-stimulated secretion of 5-HT has affected the outcome in a way that has masked possible differences in detected 5-HT content.

To check if the high degree of variance in the 5-HT measurements could be due to analytical errors, we performed multiple runs of gut lavage fluid samples spiked with known 5-HT concentration, and multiple runs of both patient and control samples. The results showed good reproducibility, and we concluded that the variance observed in the analyzed material could not be ascribed to the preparation of the samples nor the analytical technique. The high variability observed in the present study, may be a factor of the number of participants, at least to a certain degree. An increase in number of patients and controls would most likely lower the variability of the data.

ELISA is a widely used technique, due to numerous available commercial kits applicable for a variety of biological samples and its ability to detect low levels of the targeted analyte.

We wanted to compare our reported LCMS method to the ELISA technique. The 5-HT level in gut lavage fluid was measured using an enzyme immunoassay, following the manufacture’s intructions (Labor Diagnostica Nord GmbH & Co. KG, Nordhorn, Germany. Cat # BA 10-0900). This particular assay was designed for analyzing serum, urine, platelets, plasma and cerebrospinal fluid. To our knowledge, no immunoassay exists for analyzing gut lavage fluid.
The high degree of variability in the 5-HT data obtained from LCMS analysis, were also observed after performing the ELISA technique on the same set of samples. The graph in Figure 7 shows the dispersion of the 5-HT measurements obtained from patient with subjective food hypersensitivity (unpublished data).

![Figure 7. [5-HT] in gut lavage fluid from patients with subjective food hypersensitivity. The same set of samples was analyzed by ELISA and LCMS. Data are given as individual values with mean±SEM. Unpublished data.](image)

The level of 5-HT in gut lavage fluid, from both patients and controls, were found to be considerable elevated when performing ELISA compared to the 5-HT data obtained by using our reported LCMS method (Figure 8). This preliminary study showed that ELISA overestimated the levels of 5-HT by a factor of 4 in both the patients and the controls data when compared to LCMS. Indeed, overestimation is a well-known problem with enzyme immunoassay techniques, due to cross-reactivity. The analytical specificity is decreased when compounds similar to the target molecule are present, and in the case of 5-HT analysis compounds like tryptamine, melatonin, 5-HIAA and histidine may affect the quantitative outcome.

Although the ELISA and LCMS results were not significant at a confidence level of 95 %, it was observed an increase of 42 % and 33 % in the 5-HT level of the patients compared to the controls. The interesting findings of this unpublished preliminary study should be further investigated.

The potential applicability of our reported LCMS/MS method to analyze other biomedical samples, like plasma, serum and urine, should be explored, together with simultaneous determination of 5-HT and its metabolic related products.
Figure 8. [5-HT] in gut lavage fluid from patients with subjective food hypersensitivity and healthy controls. Data are given as mean±SEM. Unpublished data.

5.6 Determination of IS amount in quantification of 5-HT

Chromatographic techniques using the IS method have been applied in the determination of 5-HT in a wide variety of biological samples. However, in the majority of studies there is no description regarding the strategies behind the selection of an optimal amount of IS, especially in cases where the analyte may have a wide span of concentrations. The most common strategy is trial and error methods or rule of thumb technique such as targeting the IS to the lower 1/3 of the calibration curve. The validity of the IS method relies on the assumptions of linearity of the detector towards both the analyte and the IS, but this is often not acknowledged. The potential applicability of a multivariate strategy to estimate an optimal concentration and a robust RF, which do not change with changes in the analyte and IS concentrations, has been proposed by Araujo et al. [89].

Figure 9, shows that between 2 and 12 μg/mL of 5-HT, a RF that vary between 0.035 and 0.045, is obtained when the concentration of 5-CH₃O-HT is varied from 2 and 20 μg/mL. Concentrations exceeding 12 μg/mL cause a considerable variation of the RF with the concentration of IS and a remarkable lessening of the dynamic analytical range (Figure 9). The curvatures observed in Figure 9 are the result of interaction between 5-HT and 5-CH₃O-HT, which is generally ignored in analytical studies, and could affect the accuracy of the determination. The estimation of concentration regions where the RF remains constant is vital in order to conform to the criteria of linearity of the detector towards the analyte and IS.
Paper IV demonstrates that application of the Doehlert design enables estimation of the interaction 5-HT/5-CH$_3$O-HT and selection of an optimal amount of IS and a constant RF for analysing 5-HT, where the unknown levels of 5-HT are spanned over a wide range of concentrations.

![Response factor contour plot](image)

Figure 9. Response factor contour plot. The contours of constant responses were generated by simultaneously varying the concentrations of 5-HT and 5-CH$_3$O-HT between 2 and 20 $\mu$g/mL. GLF=gut lavage fluid.
6. Conclusions

The present thesis suggests that short-term duodenal seal oil administration alleviate both intestinal and extra-intestinal complaints in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity. Impaired gastric accommodation seems to play a limited role in the pathogenesis of the condition. A possible role of n-3 LCPUFA on intestinal inflammation, vago-vagal reflexes, visceral sensitivity, mucosal leakage and intestinal microbiota should be further investigated.

Patients with subjective food hypersensitivity have lower circulating CgA levels as compared to healthy controls, which may indicate the involvement of the endocrine system in subjective food hypersensitivity, but the pathophysiologic role needs to be further elucidated.

The novel method for measuring 5-HT in gut lavage fluid by LCMS/MS demonstrated to be a useful approach for a rapid, simple and efficient quantification in a wide range of concentrations. The small amount of sample, the low solvent consumption and the high sample throughput (30 samples/day) are important features that make the present approach highly attractive to clinical trials involving the analysis of 5-HT in a large number of samples. The relationship 5-HT/5-CH3O-HT is highlighted as an important factor that affects the validity of the RF and consequently the accuracy of the analysis. However, in the present study, levels of 5-HT in gut lavage fluid were unaltered in patients with subjective food hypersensitivity.

Taken together, the hypothesis-generating studies of the present thesis encourage further investigations on the respective roles of 5-HT, CgA and seal oil in the pathophysiology and therapy of subjective food hypersensitivity.
References


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