



# Butyrate: implications for intestinal function

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## Purpose of review

Butyrate is physiologically produced by the microbial fermentation of dietary fibers and plays a plurifunctional role in intestinal cells. This review examines the recent findings regarding the role and mechanisms by which butyrate regulates intestinal metabolism and discusses how these findings could improve the treatment of several gastrointestinal disorders.

## Recent findings

Butyrate is more than a primary nutrient that provides energy to colonocytes and acts as a cellular mediator in those cells through several mechanisms. One remarkable property of butyrate is its ability to inhibit histone deacetylases, which is associated with the direct effects of butyrate and results in gene regulation, immune modulation, cancer suppression, cell differentiation, intestinal barrier regulation, oxidative stress reduction, diarrhea control, visceral sensitivity and intestinal motility modulation. All of these actions make butyrate an important factor for the maintenance of gut health.

## Summary

From studies published over 30 years, there is no doubt of the important role that butyrate plays in maintaining intestinal homeostasis. However, despite these effects, clinical studies are still required to validate the routine use of butyrate in clinical practice and, specifically, in the treatment of intestinal diseases.

## Keywords

butyrate, cancer, colon, inflammation, intestine, prebiotic, short-chain fatty acid

## INTRODUCTION

Butyrate, a four-carbon short-chain fatty acid (SCFA), is the most interesting bacterial fermentation product in the human colon. Although butyrate can be absorbed within the gastrointestinal tract and into colonic epithelial cells, butyrate is transported mainly by specific carrier-mediated transport systems, including the electroneutral H<sup>+</sup>-coupled monocarboxylate co-transporter 1 (i.e., MCT1 and SLC16A1) [1]. Once absorbed, colonocytes rapidly oxidize 95% of the butyrate into ketone bodies for ATP synthesis. Consequently, very little butyrate reaches the portal system [2<sup>•</sup>].

The importance of butyrate for colon health is reinforced by the studies that show that colonocytes of patients with colon inflammatory diseases present with an impaired capacity to oxidize butyrate during the acute phase, which suggests that butyrate metabolic defects can be involved in the pathogenesis or severity of these diseases [3,4<sup>••</sup>]. In addition to its trophic effects, butyrate can also exert other important actions related to cellular homeostasis, such as anti-inflammatory [5<sup>••</sup>,6–8], antioxidant [9] and anticarcinogenic functions [10,11]. Most of the butyrate effects are related to

its action as a histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor [12<sup>••</sup>]; the inhibitory function of butyrate keeps histones in a more acetylated state, which consequently affects the chromatin organization and leads to the activation of genes involved in cell differentiation, apoptosis and cell cycle arrest in malignant cells as well as the downregulation of inflammatory cytokine expression in intestinal mucosal cells [2<sup>•</sup>]. Although butyrate affects several organs and extraintestinal tissues [12<sup>••</sup>,13<sup>•</sup>,14], this review will present the most studied functions and potential clinical uses of this fatty acid in the gastrointestinal tract.

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## KEY POINTS

- In addition to the trophic effects in the colon mucosa, butyrate can also exert other important actions related to cellular homeostasis, such as anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, anticarcinogenic and intestinal barrier functions.
- Most of the butyrate effects are related to its action as a HDAC inhibitor, which affects chromatin organization and leads to the activation of several genes.
- The paradoxical effect of butyrate in normal and malignant cells occurs because of the fact that almost all of the butyrate is oxidized to produce ATP, while in tumor cells it is inefficiently oxidized and reaches the nucleus, where several genes are regulated via butyrate-mediated HDAC inhibition.
- The mechanism of butyrate's anti-inflammatory action is related to the inhibition of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B), which controls the expression of genes that encode for proinflammatory cytokines, inflammation-inducing enzymes, adhesion molecules, growth factors, heat shock proteins and immune receptors.
- Butyrate effects go beyond cancer and inflammatory colon disorders, showing positive results reducing visceral sensitivity, mucositis secondary to chemotherapy and diarrhea following short bowel syndrome or dysbiosis.

## ANTIDIARRHEAL FUNCTION

As a result of its absorption, butyrate promotes the absorption of sodium, potassium and water, which is responsible for its antidiarrheal properties. Butyrate or butyrate-producing prebiotics and probiotics can restore water absorption in patients who are affected by infectious diarrhea as well as congenital chloride diarrhea with a reduction in stool volume and a more rapid recovery following oral rehydration therapy [13<sup>■</sup>,15]. Moreover, in patients with short bowel syndrome that progresses with a significant loss of water and sodium, butyrate administration improved diarrhea management by reducing the requirement for intravenous electrolyte replacement [16].

Diarrhea is also a well recognized complication in critically ill patients. Dysbiosis, which is one of the primary causes of diarrhea, is caused by an antibiotic disturbance of the microbiota that suppresses fermentation and reduces butyrate production [17<sup>■</sup>]. In patients receiving fiber-supplemented enteral, fiber supplementation increased the amount of fecal butyrate and specific butyrate-producing bacteria [18,19<sup>■</sup>], with the resolution of diarrhea in 75% of the patients [19<sup>■</sup>].

## BUTYRATE AND COLON CANCER

Although some studies have not confirmed the beneficial effects of butyrate on colon cancer prevention [20,21<sup>■</sup>,22], several studies reported the beneficial effects of butyrate on the control of cancer colon [10,11,23–27]. The main action of butyrate in cancer colon cells is the induction of cellular apoptosis and cell cycle arrest as a consequence of cell proliferation inhibition [6,11]. Several of the anti-cancer mechanisms directly result from either butyrate action or its HDAC inhibitor activity [12<sup>■</sup>]. There is vast literature concerning the cancer-protecting mechanisms of butyrate, including the upregulation of p21, WAF1 downregulation of apoptotic regulator Neuropilin-1 (NRP-1), the upregulation of BAK and downregulation of Bcl-xL and cyclin D1, the upregulation of death receptor pathway inhibition of DNA methylation and the modulation of canonical Wnt signaling, a pathway constitutively activated in the majority of colorectal cancers [13<sup>■</sup>,23,24,27–29]. Moreover, butyrate transcriptionally upregulates detoxifying enzymes that protect cells from genotoxic carcinogens [11].

This effect is the opposite of that observed in the colonocytes from a normal inflamed colon, in which butyrate increases cell metabolism and proliferation. This paradoxical effect can be explained by the metabolic characteristics of these cells. In a normal colonocyte, almost all of the butyrate is used to produce ATP by the synthetic pathways, which results in cell proliferation. However, in tumor cells with a predominantly anaerobic metabolism, butyrate is inefficiently oxidized and reaches the nucleus, where several genes are regulated via butyrate-mediated HDAC inhibition [30,31<sup>■</sup>].

## BUTYRATE AND INFLAMMATION

Butyrate may exert anti-inflammatory activity by several mechanisms. Among these mechanisms are the reduction of proinflammatory IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, IL-8, induction of IL-10 and TGF- $\beta$  expression and signaling, the induction of nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and metalloproteinases and the reduction of lymphocyte proliferation and activation [2<sup>■</sup>,6,8,23,29,32,33<sup>■</sup>].

The most studied mechanism of butyrate anti-inflammatory action is the inhibition of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) [7,8,32], which controls the expression of genes that encode for proinflammatory cytokines, inflammation-inducing enzymes, adhesion molecules, growth factors, heat shock proteins and immune receptors [8]. Butyrate activity, which modulates NF- $\kappa$ B in different cell types, including cancer cell lines, cells from colon lamina propria, macrophages, neutrophils and

monocytes [8,34], is associated with its potential to inhibit HDACs [7].

Cell adhesion is also influenced by butyrate because butyrate reduces the expression of adhesion molecules, such as ICAM-1, V-CAM and E-selectin, in human umbilical endothelial cells [34–37]. Additionally, the inhibition of proinflammatory mediators released by mast cells and neutrophils was also observed following butyrate treatment [8,36,37].

## INFLAMMATORY BOWEL DISEASE

Several studies have reported the association of impaired butyrate metabolism with mucosal damage and inflammation in patients with acute inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), mainly ulcerative colitis [4<sup>22</sup>,5<sup>22</sup>,38,39,40<sup>22</sup>,41]. Defective colonic epithelial oxidation of butyrate in ulcerative colitis has been implicated in its pathogenesis. The mitochondrial enzyme acetoacetyl CoA thiolase, which is responsible for butyrate oxidation as well as 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA synthase 2 (mHMGCS2), an enzyme that regulates butyrate ketogenesis is reduced in the colons of ulcerative colitis patients [42<sup>22</sup>].

Decreased mucosal sulfide detoxification related to impaired butyrate oxidation [43] as well as reduced absorption caused by MCT1 transporter downregulation [4<sup>22</sup>,38] have been described in ulcerative colitis patients. In those patients, a concomitant glucose transporter GLUT1 induction suggests that inflammation could induce a metabolic switch from butyrate to glucose oxidation [38].

Although butyrate or prebiotic intakes clearly show a positive effect in experimental studies of IBD, mainly ulcerative colitis, [3,33<sup>22</sup>,44], clinical studies show conflicting results [45<sup>22</sup>]. Biopsies from IBD patients show an improvement in inflammation symptoms following butyrate irrigation. However, high concentrations of butyrate are required in IBD patients to inhibit the release of the proinflammatory cytokines. Moreover, rectal butyrate enemas have only minor effects on inflammatory and oxidative stress parameters in ulcerative colitis patients in remission that present with low-grade oxidative stress and inflammation [3]. Ulcerative colitis treatment results concerning the association of butyrate and conventional drugs, such as mesalazine, have presented conflicting results, and until now, there is no formal indication for such an association [46].

## EFFECTS ON THE SMALL INTESTINE

The effects of butyrate in the gastrointestinal tract extend beyond the colon by influencing the

integrity and immune defenses of the small intestine. Experimental studies indicate that oral butyrate administration improves the structural and functional indexes of adaptation in short bowel syndrome [16]. Moreover, butyrate potentiates the effect of anticancer drug therapy, such as ARA-C, vincristine, celecoxib, cisplatin and etoposide [31<sup>22</sup>,47,48,49<sup>22</sup>,50]. All of these data indicate that butyrate is an important agent to maintain or accelerate small bowel repair and regeneration.

The mechanistic action of butyrate on intestinal cells is not completely understood but can include anti-inflammatory and antioxidant actions, which are similar to those observed in the colon. Moreover, unlike colon fermentation, the oral administration of butyrate exposes the stomach and small intestinal mucosa to this fatty acid before it reaches the colon, thereby promoting higher concentrations in the liver [14]. In the liver, butyrate can be metabolized into glutamate, glutamine and acetoacetate, which are important fuels for enterocytes. Butyrate also increases pancreatic secretion and jejunal brush-border enzymatic activity [51], which increases nutrient availability that is necessary for enterocyte regeneration and stimulates GLP-2 that enhances bowel digestive and absorptive capacity [52].

## ANTIOXIDANT EFFECT

Butyrate may also reduce oxidative stress induced by colon inflammation that is related to the disruption of the intestinal barrier and cancer induction. Butyrate can control oxidative stress by several mechanisms [2<sup>22</sup>,8,13<sup>22</sup>,45<sup>22</sup>]. A study conducted in the colon biopsies of healthy volunteers after a rectal butyrate infusion showed a higher concentration of the antioxidant glutathione (GSH) and a decreased uric acid production compared to the placebo treatment [9]. Physiological concentrations of butyrate reduced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced DNA damage, increased the expression of catalase and reduced the expression of cyclooxygenase-2 in human colonocytes [53].

## EFFECTS ON INTESTINAL BARRIER

Butyrate plays an important role in the maintenance of the barrier function [10,32]. The mucus layer is a major factor in the protection of the intestinal epithelium and mainly consists of mucin glycoproteins (primarily MUC2 in the colon), trefoil factor 3 (TFF3) and secretory IgA. Experimental studies show that butyrate stimulates MUC2 synthesis [10,32] and also increases the expression of tff3, the gene responsible for synthesis of trefoils factors, peptides which are also constituents of mucus [54]. However, a clinical study found no differences in the colonic

MUC2 and TFF3 expression levels after butyrate irrigation [3].

The effect of butyrate on the intestinal barrier has been demonstrated in the Caco-2 cell monolayer model and occurs, at least in part, by facilitating the assembly of tight junctions. Specifically, butyrate accelerates the relocation of ZO-1 and occludin to the tight junctions during calcium switch-induced tight junction assembly, which enhances the barrier function. This dynamic process is mediated by AMPK activation [55].

Butyrate also reduces bacterial translocation in animal models of inflammatory disease [39] associated with the decreased expression of steA, which is a virulence effector associated with *Salmonella enterica* translocation [56].

### EFFECTS ON THE ENTERIC NERVOUS SYSTEM

The effects of butyrate on the enteric nervous system (ENS) were studied in the colons of rats given an intracecal perfusion of SCFAs and in primary ENS cultures [57]. These results suggest that butyrate increased the proportion of acetyltransferase-immunoreactive myenteric neurons and colonic motility and contractile response induced by electrical stimulation by the cholinergic pathways. Induction of a cholinergic phenotype by butyrate involved monocarboxylate co-transporter-2, which was specifically detected in enteric neurons. This effect of butyrate on acetyltransferase expression is involved in the Src-kinase signaling pathway and the acetylation of histone H3 lysine 9, which suggests that butyrate could play an important role in controlling neuromediator gene expression in the enteric nervous system and, consequently, on intestinal motility.

A study in which volunteers underwent daily self-administered butyrate rectal enemas reported that this treatment resulted in a dose-dependent reduction in pain, urges and discomfort after a rectal barostat, which suggests that butyrate decreases visceral sensitivity in healthy humans [58]. This reduction in visceral perception could be caused by directly modulating 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT or serotonin) release and activating transient receptor potential vanilloid 1 (TRPV1) receptors in the colonic mucosa, which in turn may indirectly lead to the release of 5-HT in the gut to alter the perception of pain and alternatively attenuate visceral perception via HDAC inhibition [59<sup>\*\*\*</sup>].

A recent animal study demonstrated that chronic feeding with a diet that contained 4% enzyme-treated rice fiber enhanced the expression of stress-induced visceral analgesia, thereby

reducing the number of animals that displayed stress-induced colonic microscopic alterations by 2.2-fold [60<sup>\*\*\*</sup>].

### ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES FOR BUTYRATE DELIVERY IN THE GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT

Many of the effects of butyrate have been defined in cell culture systems or indirectly by the ingestion of probiotics and prebiotics that produce butyrate. Despite its positive effects, the clinical use of butyrate is still limited by its short half-life, its fast metabolism and excretion and the side-effects observed with its oral use, such as headache, nausea and anorexia. Rectal enemas and irrigation are the most common methods, but they impose low acceptability and require several daily applications [61–63]. Alternatives for increasing the amount of butyrate that reaches the colon environment are being studied. Coated tablets and microparticles and nanoparticles that contain butyrate or butyrate-producing prebiotics and probiotics have been tested in IBDs and have shown promising results [11,49<sup>\*\*\*</sup>,64,65].

Tributylin is an oily (liquid) triglyceride that contains three butyrate moieties esterified with glycerol. Tributyrin can be delivered orally and releases butyrate when metabolized by intestinal enzymes. Tributyrin is a component of a variety of foodstuffs that contain dairy products, especially butter. One gram of tributyrin produces 10 mmol of butyrate [66<sup>\*</sup>]. Because butyrate is proven to be effective when used for the treatment and prevention of intestinal diseases, the oral supplementation of tributyrin in the dietary routine of susceptible patients is a promising alternative [49<sup>\*\*\*</sup>,63,66<sup>\*</sup>]. In animal models, oral administration of tributyrin (1.0 g/kg) resulted in substantial concentrations of butyrate in the portal vein (i.e., 2.4 mM at 1 h and 0.7 mM at 2.5 h) [66<sup>\*</sup>]. In a clinical study, 20 patients with advanced solid tumors were treated with tributyrin at doses that ranged from 150 to 200 mg/kg three times daily. The results did not show dose-limiting toxicity, and a median butyrate concentration of 52  $\mu$ M was obtained [67]; this value is at the lower end of the range of effects (50–100  $\mu$ M) related to butyrate on differentiation and apoptosis. Although more studies are needed, these results demonstrate that oral administration of tributyrin is well tolerated and has similar effects compared with butyrate administration.

### CONCLUSION

From these recent studies and several others published during the past 30 years, there is no doubt

concerning the important role that butyrate plays on intestinal homeostasis. However, despite these effects, clinical studies are still required to confirm the routine use of butyrate in clinical practice and, specifically, in the treatment of intestinal diseases.

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#### Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

## REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READING

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- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

Additional references related to this topic can also be found in the Current World Literature section in this issue (pp. 517–518).

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