

**Effects of Endurance Exercise Training on Markers of  
Cholesterol Absorption and Synthesis**

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Short title: Exercise and Sterol Metabolism

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31 **SUMMARY**

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33 Abnormal cholesterol metabolism, including low intestinal cholesterol absorption and elevated  
34 synthesis, is prevalent in diabetes, obesity, hyperlipidemia, and the metabolic syndrome. Diet-  
35 induced weight loss improves cholesterol absorption in these populations, but it is not known if  
36 endurance exercise training also improves cholesterol homeostasis. To examine this, we  
37 measured circulating levels of campesterol, sitosterol, and lathosterol in 65 sedentary subjects  
38 (average age = 59) with at least 1 metabolic syndrome risk factor before and after 6 months of  
39 endurance exercise training. Campesterol and sitosterol are plant sterols that correlate with  
40 intestinal cholesterol absorption, while lathosterol is a marker of whole body cholesterol  
41 synthesis. Following the intervention, plant sterol levels were increased by 10% ( $p < 0.05$ ), but  
42 there was no change in plasma lathosterol. In addition, total and LDL-cholesterol were reduced  
43 by 0.16 mmol and 0.10 mmol, respectively ( $p < 0.05$ ), while HDL-C levels increased by 0.09  
44 mmol ( $p < 0.05$ ). Furthermore, the change in plant sterols was positively correlated with the  
45 change in  $VO_2\text{max}$  ( $r = 0.310$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ), independent of other metabolic syndrome risk factors.  
46 These data indicate that exercise training reduces plasma cholesterol despite increasing  
47 cholesterol absorption in subjects with metabolic syndrome risk factors.

48

49 **Keywords:** exercise, plant sterols, cholesterol metabolism

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54 **INTRODUCTION**

55 Human plasma contains small amounts of non-cholesterol sterols that provide information  
56 related to cholesterol homeostasis. For example, lathosterol, a precursor in the cholesterol  
57 synthetic pathway, is a marker for whole body cholesterol synthesis, while plant sterols,  
58 including campesterol and sitosterol, correlate with rates of cholesterol absorption(Miettinen et al  
59 1990). Furthermore, the ratio between campesterol and lathosterol is often used to indicate the  
60 ratio between cholesterol absorption and synthesis(Miettinen et al 1990).

61 Individuals with type II diabetes, hyperlipidemia, and obesity have altered cholesterol  
62 homeostasis, indicated by low cholesterol absorption and/or elevated cholesterol synthesis(Chan  
63 et al 2003, Gylling & Miettinen 1997, Miettinen et al 2004, Simonen et al 2000, Sutherland et al  
64 1992). Diet-induced weight loss improves many risk factors for the metabolic syndrome and  
65 was recently shown to increase cholesterol absorption in obese diabetics(Simonen et al 2000).  
66 Furthermore, in this study the increase in cholesterol absorption was correlated with  
67 improvements in insulin resistance, leading to the suggestion that low cholesterol absorption  
68 should be considered a component of the metabolic syndrome(Simonen et al 2000).

69 Endurance exercise training also improves traditional metabolic syndrome risk factors, but  
70 little is known about the effects of exercise training on cholesterol absorption or synthesis. Two  
71 recent studies by Varady et al. showed that 8 weeks of endurance exercise training had little  
72 mixed effects on markers of cholesterol absorption and synthesis(Varady et al 2004, Varady et al  
73 2007). However, the relatively short exercise interventions used in these studies may have been  
74 insufficient to provide the metabolic adaptations necessary to promote significant changes in  
75 cholesterol homeostasis. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of long-term  
76 endurance exercise training on cholesterol absorption and synthesis by measuring circulating

77 plant sterol and lathosterol levels before and after a 6-month endurance exercise training  
78 intervention in individuals at risk for developing metabolic syndrome.

79

## 80 **METHODS**

81 *Subjects.* Sixty-five subjects (31 men, 34 women) between the ages of 50-70 years were included  
82 in this study. Eligibility requirements included the following: sedentary (defined as  
83 participating in < 40 minutes/week of aerobic activity for the 6 months prior to the study); non-  
84 smoking, free of CVD, non-diabetic, body mass index less than 37, not on lipid or glucose-  
85 lowering medications; no history of ulcers or other bleeding disorders, and no other medical  
86 conditions that would preclude subjects from participating in a vigorous exercise training  
87 program. In addition, all subjects had at least one plasma lipoprotein-lipid abnormality (TG >  
88 200mg/dl (2.2 mmol), LDL-C > 120 mg/dl (3.12 mmol), or HDL-C < 40 mg/dl (1.04 mmol) for  
89 men, or < 45 mg/dl (1.17 mmol) for women, pre-hypertension, or Stage 1 hypertension.  
90 Furthermore, all women were postmenopausal and were required to maintain their current  
91 hormone replacement regimen (on or not on) for the duration of the study. The experimental  
92 protocol was approved by the University of Maryland – College Park Institutional Review  
93 Board, and all subjects provided their written informed consent prior to starting the study.

94

95 *Dietary Control.* All subjects meeting the preliminary requirements for the study began a 6-week  
96 dietary instruction class to stabilize them on an American Heart Association (AHA) step 1 diet  
97 prior to baseline testing. Compliance was monitored by the completion of 7-day food records  
98 before and after the exercise intervention period. A computerized nutrient analysis using  
99 Nutritionist IV software (N-Squared computing, San Bruno, CA), was performed on food

100 records from a subset of the subjects (n = 30) to determine whether dietary patterns that may  
101 affect body composition or lipid metabolism (i.e., cholesterol intake, total caloric intake, and the  
102 percentage of calories from total fat, saturated fat, protein, and carbohydrate) differed at baseline  
103 or final testing. In addition, subjects were instructed to maintain their caloric intake throughout  
104 the intervention period to prevent excessive weight loss. Subject's who lost more than 1-2 lbs  
105 per month (the expected weight loss based on caloric expenditure from the exercise) were  
106 instructed to increase their caloric intake to ensure that the changes in physiological variables  
107 were due to changes in physical activity, and not diet-induced weight loss.

108

109 *VO<sub>2</sub>max Testing.* After subjects were stabilized on the AHA step I diet, all subjects had their  
110 VO<sub>2</sub>max determined during graded treadmill walking or jogging using a modified protocol with  
111 the grade adjusted 2% to 3% every 2 minutes during the test so that the total exercise time before  
112 the subject reached subjective exhaustion would be 8-12 minutes(Seals et al 1984). Blood  
113 pressure, heart rate, and electrocardiogram were monitored before, during, and after all tests.

114

115 *Body composition.* Total body fat, lean body mass, and regional body fat were assessed by dual  
116 energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) (model DPX-L; Lunar Corp., Madison, WI), as described  
117 elsewhere(Mazess et al 1990). Intra-abdominal (IA) fat (visceral and subcutaneous [SC] adipose  
118 tissue areas) was assessed by computed tomography (CT) scan midway between L4 and L5 using  
119 a GE HiLight CT scanner (Phillips Medical Systems Philadelphia, PA)(Nicklas et al 1996)

120

121 *Plasma Lipids.* Venous blood samples were drawn after a 12-hour fast for analysis of major  
122 plasma lipid concentrations. Baseline samples were drawn at the end of the dietary stabilization  
123 program. Plasma was collected by centrifugation and frozen at -80°C until analyzed.

124 Plasma sterols were measured by gas-liquid chromatography (GLC), using an automated  
125 6890N chromatograph from Agilent Technologies carrying an HP 5MS column, as  
126 described(Wilund et al 2004). Cholesterol and plasma non-cholesterol sterol concentrations  
127 were calculated by using calibration curves prepared from known standards. By  
128 convention(Miettinen et al 1990), circulating levels of each of these sterols are normalized to  
129 plasma cholesterol levels for data presentation.

130

131 *Fasting Glucose and Insulin.* Fasting plasma glucose and insulin levels were analyzed using the  
132 glucose oxidase method (model 2300 Stat Plus; YSI Inc., Yellow Springs, OH) and a  
133 radioimmunoassay (kit HI-14K; Linco Research Inc., St. Charles, MO), respectively. The  
134 insulin assay was only run on plasma samples from 30 of the 65 subjects analyzed in this study  
135 due to limited sample availability.

136

137 *Exercise Training Protocol.* Following baseline testing, all subjects began a 6 month exercise  
138 training program that consisted of exercising 3-times per week for 6 months on stairstepping  
139 machines, treadmills, or stationary bicycles in the presence of study personnel. Details of the  
140 training protocol are described elsewhere(Wilund et al 2002).

141

142 *Final Testing.* After training, all subjects completed the same plasma lipid, body composition,  
143 and VO<sub>2</sub>max assessments as prior to training. The blood samples were drawn 24-36 hours after  
144 each subjects' prior exercise training session.

145

146 *Statistics.* All data are presented as the mean  $\pm$  SEM, and  $p < 0.05$  was accepted as statistically  
147 significant. Normality of distribution was assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-  
148 Wilks' tests. Changes in our primary outcome variables were similar between genders, so data  
149 from all subjects were pooled for analysis. Paired sample t-tests were conducted to examine  
150 training related effects on all variables. Pearson correlation analysis was used to examine  
151 bivariate relationship between outcomes of interest. Factors related to the change in non-  
152 cholesterol sterols (lathosterol or plant sterols) were determined by multiple linear regression in  
153 models containing the change in VO<sub>2</sub>max (ml/kg/min) and metabolic syndrome risk factors,  
154 including blood pressure, and plasma HDL-C, TG, and glucose as independent variables ( $p_{in} =$   
155  $0.05, p_{out} = 1.0$ ). All data were analyzed using SPSS v.15.0 (SPSS, Inc).

156

## 157 **RESULTS**

158 Values for our major outcome variables at baseline and final testing are shown in Table 1.  
159 VO<sub>2</sub>max increased by ~15% following the exercise training intervention ( $p < 0.001$ ), and there  
160 was a modest (1.2 kg) reduction in total body weight ( $p < 0.001$ ). There was a small (1.3%)  
161 increase in lean body mass (LBM) ( $p = 0.005$ ), and % body fat and intra-abdominal fat mass  
162 were reduced by 4% ( $p < 0.001$ ) and 7% ( $p = 0.002$ ), respectively; however, there was no  
163 significant change in subcutaneous fat mass ( $p = 0.10$ ). Plasma lipids improved in response to  
164 the exercise intervention, as TG, TC and LDL-C were each significantly reduced, while HDL-C

165 increased after the intervention ( $p < 0.05$  for each). In addition, fasting plasma insulin levels  
166 were reduced by 14%, though plasma glucose levels paradoxically increased by ~ 10% ( $p < 0.05$   
167 for each).

168 There was no significant difference in plasma sitosterol or lathosterol levels between baseline  
169 and final testing ( $p = 0.22$  and  $p = 0.67$ , respectively). However, plasma campesterol increased  
170 by 13% ( $p = 0.01$ ), total plant sterols (sitosterol + campesterol) increased by 11% ( $p = 0.03$ ) and  
171 the ratio of campesterol to lathosterol increased by 13% ( $p = 0.02$ ) following the intervention.  
172 These data indicate that exercise training has no effect on cholesterol synthesis, but increases  
173 cholesterol absorption and the ratio between cholesterol absorption and synthesis.

174 Table 2 shows the correlation coefficients between plasma non-cholesterol sterols and  
175 metabolic syndrome risk factors at baseline and final testing. At baseline, campesterol was  
176 inversely related to plasma TG ( $p = 0.04$ ), and sitosterol and total plant sterols were inversely  
177 correlated with fasting insulin levels ( $p = 0.04$  and  $p = 0.02$ , respectively). At final testing,  
178 lathosterol was positively correlated with TG ( $p = 0.02$ ), and inversely correlated with HDL-C ( $p$   
179  $= 0.04$ ). Furthermore, total plant sterols was inversely correlated with % body fat ( $p = 0.04$ ),  
180 while campesterol, sitosterol, and total plant sterols were positively correlated with  $VO_2$ max  
181 whether expressed in absolute terms (L/min) ( $p < 0.05$  for each) or relative to body weight  
182 (ml/kg/min) ( $p < 0.01$  for each).

183 The change in total plant sterol levels was inversely correlated with the change in body  
184 weight ( $r = -0.271$ ;  $p = 0.025$ ) (Figure 1), and positively correlated with the change in  $VO_2$ max  
185 expressed in L/min ( $r = 0.261$ ,  $p = 0.036$ ). When  $VO_2$  was expressed relative to body weight  
186 (ml/kg/min) the correlation between the change in  $VO_2$ max and plant sterols increased ( $r =$



187 0.350,  $p = 0.004$ ) (Figure 2), and was independent of changes in other metabolic syndrome risk  
188 factors in a stepwise multiple regression model (Table 3).

189 Diet records analyzed from a subset of subjects ( $n = 30$ ) showed that there was no difference  
190 in total cholesterol intake, total calories, or the percentage of calories from fat, protein, or  
191 carbohydrates at baseline and final testing ( $p < 0.05$  for each). Furthermore, there was no  
192 correlation between changes in these dietary factors and changes in measures of body  
193 composition, plasma lipids or sterols ( $p < 0.05$  for each).

194

## 195 **DISCUSSION**

196 The primary findings from this study include the following: 1) 6 months of endurance  
197 exercise training increased plasma levels of campesterol, total plant sterols (campesterol +  
198 sitosterol) and the ratio of campesterol to lathosterol; and 2) the change in total plant sterol level  
199 was positively correlated with the change in  $VO_2\text{max}$ , independent of the change in other  
200 metabolic syndrome risk factors. Campesterol and sitosterol are markers of cholesterol  
201 absorption, while lathosterol is a marker of cholesterol synthesis (Miettinen et al 1990), so these  
202 data suggests that exercise training increases cholesterol absorption and the ratio of cholesterol  
203 absorption to synthesis, whereas there was no significant change in cholesterol synthesis with  
204 training. Despite the increase in markers of cholesterol absorption, the plasma lipoprotein profile  
205 improved, as total and LDL-C levels were reduced, and HDL-C levels increased.

206 To our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate that long-term exercise training is  
207 associated with changes in these markers of cholesterol metabolism. Recently, Varady et al.  
208 showed that a shorter 8 week endurance exercise program increased plasma lathosterol, but not  
209 plant sterol levels (Varady et al 2004), and a follow-up study by the same group found that same  
210 8 wks of endurance exercise training had no effect on either cholesterol absorption or synthesis

211 measured by the single stable isotope tracer method(Varady et al 2007). There were several  
212 differences between our study and the studies by Varady et al. that may account for these  
213 discrepant findings. First, the length of the exercise intervention was significantly shorter in the  
214 studies by Varady et al. (8 weeks) compared to our study (24 weeks). It is possible that the  
215 adaptations that promote significant changes in cholesterol metabolism may not manifest  
216 themselves until after several months of exercise training. A second primary difference between  
217 these studies was the dietary control. In our study, all subjects were stabilized on an AHA step I  
218 diet prior to beginning the exercise intervention, while in the studies by Varady et al. subjects  
219 were only asked to maintain their current dietary regimens. It is possible that significant diet  
220 variations between subjects may have masked the effects of the exercise intervention on plant  
221 sterol levels or cholesterol absorption in their studies.

222 Another significant finding in our study was the correlations between plasma markers of  
223 cholesterol absorption with factors associated with the metabolic syndrome. At baseline, there  
224 was an inverse correlation between total plant sterol levels and fasting plasma insulin levels, and  
225 a trend for a correlation between these variables at final testing ( $p = 0.08$ ). Furthermore, we  
226 found an inverse correlation between campesterol and TG levels at baseline, and an inverse  
227 correlation between % body fat and total plant sterols after the exercise training intervention.  
228 This is similar to data from Simonen et al.(Simonen et al 2000) who found a positive correlation  
229 between plant sterol levels and serum sex hormone binding globulin (SBHG), a marker of insulin  
230 sensitivity(Haffner 1996), and an inverse correlation between campesterol and TG levels after  
231 diet-induced weight loss. Several other studies also have noted inverse correlations between  
232 markers of cholesterol absorption and various metabolic syndrome risk factors (Gylling et al  
233 2004, Pihlajamaki et al 2004), leading to speculation that low cholesterol absorption may be a

234 component of the metabolic syndrome(Simonen et al 2000). We believe our data provide  
235 additional support for this hypothesis.

236 Simonen et al. also found that the diet-induced change in plant sterols was inversely  
237 correlated to the change in body weight(Simonen et al 2000). In our study, the change in plant  
238 sterol levels also was inversely correlated with the change in body weight, but positively  
239 correlated with the change in VO<sub>2</sub>max expressed in L/min. Furthermore, these variables  
240 contributed equally to the variation in plant sterol levels in a multiple regression model (data not  
241 shown). However, when VO<sub>2</sub> was expressed relative to body weight (ml/kg/min), the correlation  
242 between the change in plant sterols and VO<sub>2</sub>max increased, and this correlation was independent  
243 of changes in other metabolic syndrome risk factors in a multiple regression analysis (Table 3).  
244 Many of the beneficial effects of exercise on risk factors for chronic disease are often attributed  
245 to weight loss induced by the increase in physical activity; our data indicate that both weight loss  
246 and increases in cardiorespiratory fitness may have independent effects on cholesterol  
247 absorption.

248 The mechanisms responsible for the changes in markers of cholesterol absorption found in  
249 this study are uncertain. Simonen et al. hypothesized that increasing insulin resistance and  
250 obesity may change the intestinal cholesterol pool or the absorption mechanism of the intestinal  
251 mucosa(Simonen et al 2000), so exercise could exert its effects on intestinal cholesterol  
252 absorption by improving insulin sensitivity. However, while insulin sensitivity was not  
253 measured in this study, we did not find a correlation between changes in plasma sterol levels and  
254 fasting insulin or glucose levels.

255 Another possibility is that changes in cholesterol metabolism could be due to alterations in  
256 the expression of genes involved in intestinal cholesterol transport. Cholesterol absorption is

257 regulated by multiple genes expressed by enterocytes, including Niemann-Pick C1-like1  
258 (NPC1L1), which induces the influx of dietary cholesterol and plant sterols from the intestinal  
259 lumen into the enterocyte(Davis et al 2004), and the ATP binding cassette transporters (ABC)  
260 G5 and G8, which limit sterol absorption by selectively pumping them back into the intestinal  
261 lumen(Yu et al 2004). Several studies have shown that genetic polymorphisms in the ABCG5,  
262 ABCG8, and NPC1L1 genes affect cholesterol absorption in humans(Cohen et al 2006, Gylling  
263 et al 2004), and the variable expression of these genes may explain the differences in rates of  
264 cholesterol absorption between inbred strains of mice(Duan et al 2006, Duan et al 2004).  
265 Consequently, one way in which exercise may affect cholesterol absorption is by directly altering  
266 the intestinal expression of the ABCG5, ABCG8 or NPC-1L1 genes. In mice, we have shown  
267 that 3 months of endurance exercise training (treadmill running) reduced the expression of  
268 ABCG5, ABCG8, and NPC1L1 by ~ 60% (Wilund et al 2008). However, we are uncertain if  
269 exercise training modifies the expression of these genes in a similar manner in humans.

270 A positive correlation between cholesterol absorption and LDL-C levels has been seen in  
271 population studies(Kesaniemi & Miettinen 1987), suggesting that *reducing* cholesterol  
272 absorption may have therapeutic benefits. Furthermore, ezetemibe, bile acid sequestrants and  
273 dietary plant sterol intake are commonly used as therapies for reducing cholesterol absorption  
274 and lowering LDL-C levels. However, Simonen et al. showed that diet induced weight loss  
275 *increases* cholesterol absorption, without increasing LDL-C levels(Simonen et al 2000), and our  
276 data presented here indicates that exercise training with modest weight loss also increases  
277 markers of cholesterol absorption, while decreasing LDL-C levels. This apparent paradox may  
278 be explained by data from earlier animal studies showing that endurance exercise training may  
279 increase the catabolism of cholesterol into bile acids(Hebbelinck & Casier 1966, Malinow et al

280 1968) and the excretion of cholesterol and bile acids in the feces(Fukuda et al 1979, Ostlund &  
281 Reaban 1989). As a result, increases in cholesterol absorption may be offset by increased  
282 catabolism and excretion of cholesterol, resulting in no change or the modest reductions in LDL-  
283 C seen in many exercise training studies.

284 There are several limitations to this study. The first is the absence of a non-exercising  
285 control group. The subjects analyzed here were part of a larger trial in which subjects with  
286 polymorphic variations at specific gene loci served as the comparison groups, so a sedentary  
287 control group was not included. Second, we did not measure plasma variables prior to beginning  
288 the 6 week dietary stabilization period, so we cannot exclude the possibility that the changes in  
289 plasma sterols were influenced by the change in diet prior to beginning the exercise intervention.  
290 However, we believe that the 6 week lead in period for the dietary changes makes this unlikely.  
291 Future studies using randomized controlled trial designs should be conducted to confirm the  
292 results presented here. A third limitation of this study was that we estimated cholesterol  
293 absorption and synthesis using plasma markers (plant sterols and lathosterol, respectively), as  
294 opposed to using stable isotope methods to directly measure cholesterol metabolism. Though not  
295 as precise as measuring isotope kinetics, estimating cholesterol absorption and synthesis by  
296 measuring plasma sterol measurements represent a less expensive and much simpler method of  
297 estimating these variables that has been used extensively in recent epidemiological studies.

298 In conclusion, we found that endurance exercise training increased markers of cholesterol  
299 absorption, but did not affect markers of cholesterol synthesis, in elderly individuals with at least  
300 1 metabolic syndrome risk factor. Despite this, the lipoprotein-lipid profile was improved, as  
301 there was a reduction in TG, TC, and LDL-C, and an increase in HDL-C following the  
302 intervention. This exercise-induced increase in cholesterol absorption may indicate a correction

303 in cholesterol metabolism in this population and highlights the complex relationship between  
304 chronic physical activity and cholesterol homeostasis.

305

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382 Table 1. Subject Characteristics Before and After  
 383 6 Months of Endurance Exercise Training.

Measure	Baseline	Final
VO <sub>2</sub> max (ml/kg/min)	25.0±0.6	28.7±0.69*
Weight (kg)	81.6±2.1	80.4±2.0*
Body Fat (%)	36.3±1.1	34.9±1.1*
IA fat (cm <sup>2</sup> )	137±7.4	128±6.6*
SC fat (cm <sup>2</sup> )	308±14.6	298±13.3
LBM (kg)	48.5±1.5	49.1±1.5*
Systolic BP (mmHg)	130.1±2.2	133.0±2.0
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	86.1±1.3	83.8±1.4
Fasting glucose (mmol/L)	5.08±0.09	5.28±0.09*
Fasting insulin (pmol/L)	76.4±4.7	66.7±3.6*
TG (mmol/L)	1.58±0.09	1.41±0.08*
TC (mmol/L)	5.36±0.10	5.20±0.10*
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.19±0.04	1.28±0.04*
LDL-C mmol/L)	3.35±0.08	3.25±0.08*
Lathosterol/cholesterol x 10 <sup>3</sup>	2.70±0.17	2.63±0.15
Campesterol/cholesterol x 10 <sup>3</sup>	2.42±0.10	2.74±0.13*
Sitosterol/cholesterol x 10 <sup>3</sup>	1.72±0.13	1.85±0.14
Total plant sterols/cholesterol x 10 <sup>3</sup>	4.14±0.20	4.58±0.24*
Campesterol/Lathosterol	1.06±0.08	1.20±0.08*

384 Data presented are Means ± SEM. \*p<0.05 compared to baseline

385



386 Table 2 – Correlation Coefficients (r) Between Plasma Sterols, VO<sub>2</sub>max, and Metabolic  
 387 Syndrome Risk Factors at Baseline and Final Testing.

	Lathosterol	Campesterol	Sitosterol	Total Plant Sterols
VO <sub>2</sub> max (l/min):				
Baseline	-.078	.105	.076	.101
Final	.049	.431*	.413*	.458*
VO <sub>2</sub> max (ml/kg/min):				
Baseline	.014	.100	.097	.113
Final	.114	.300*	.248*	.296*
BMI:				
Baseline	.211	.092	.069	.090
Final	.171	-.104	-.113	-.118
% body fat:				
Baseline:	.030	-.029	-.062	-.054
Final	.012	-.227	-.233	-.250*
TG:				
Baseline	.015	-.251*	-.149	-.222
Final	.285*	.015	.015	.016
HDL-C:				
Baseline	-.228	-.007	-.154	-.101
Final	-.250*	.003	-.029	-.015
SBP:				
Baseline	.043	.032	.177	.128
Final	.237	.158	.124	.152
DBP:				
Baseline	-.014	-.040	.182	.098
Final	.074	.184	.095	.149
Glucose:				
Baseline	.034	-.144	.011	-.063
Final	-.057	-.086	-.030	-.062
Insulin:				
Baseline	.032	-.274	-.382*	-.432*
Final	.229	-.287	-.302	-.330

\* p<0.05

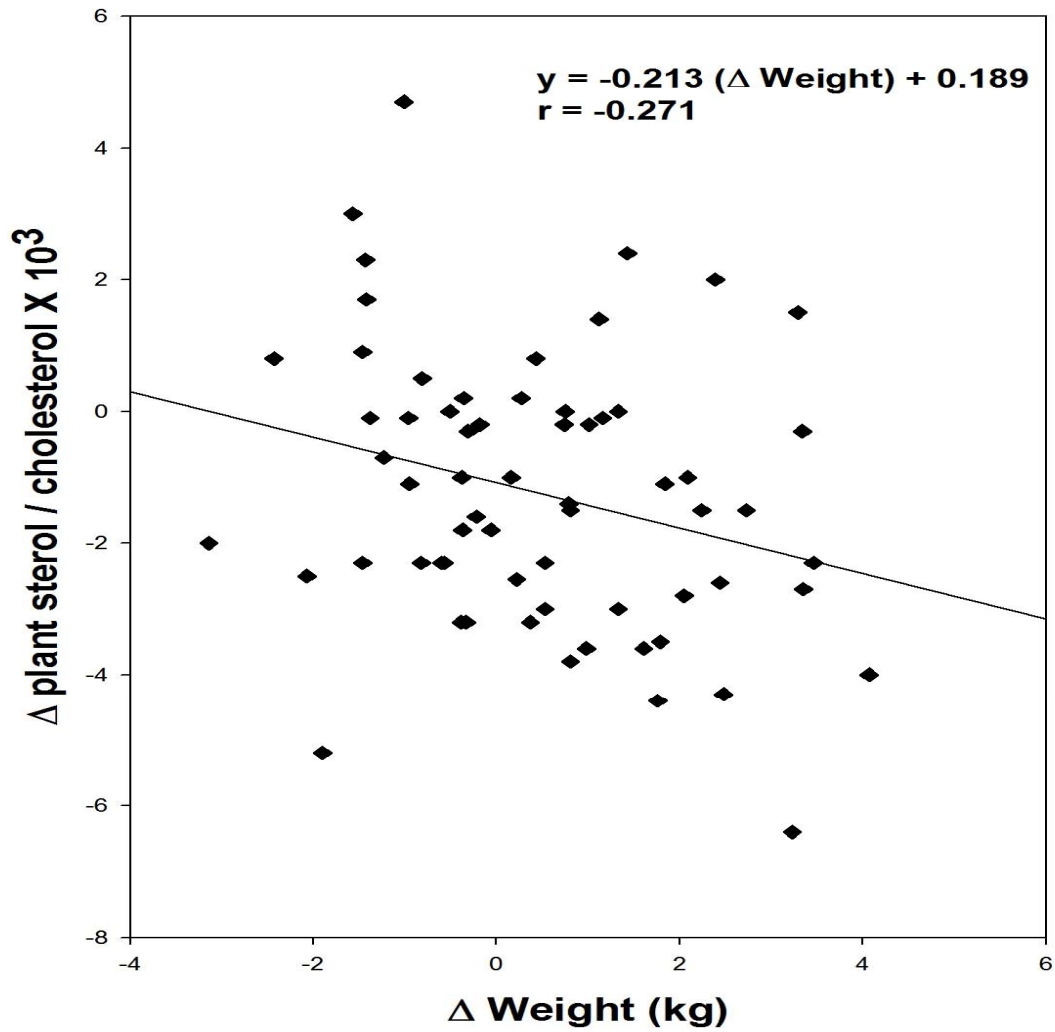
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394 Table 3. Results of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Plant Sterol Levels as a Function of  
 395 VO<sub>2</sub>max (ml/kg/min) and Metabolic Syndrome Risk Factors.

Independent Variable	B	SE B	B
Δ VO <sub>2</sub> (ml/kg/min)	.205	.076	.346*
Δ glucose	.028	.026	.188
Δ SBP	.004	.016	.037
ΔDBP	.013	.023	.075
Δ HDL-C	.001	.035	.005
Δ TG	-.002	.006	-.039

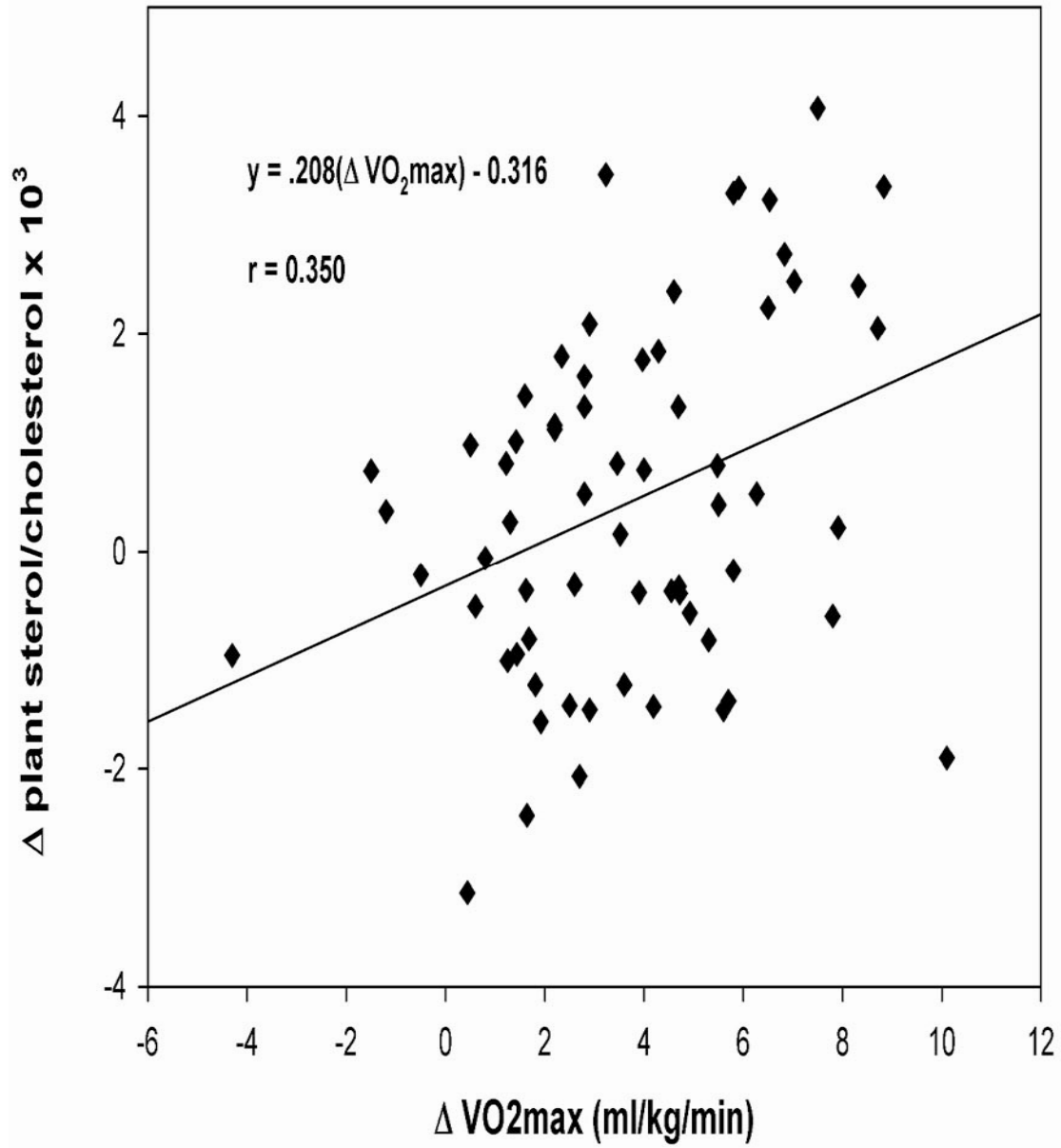
396 \* p < 0.05

397 **Figure 1.** Correlation Between the Change in Plasma Total Plant Sterols and Body Weight (kg)  
398 After Six Months of Endurance Exercise Training.



399  
400

401 **Figure 2.** Correlation Between the Change in Plasma Total Plant Sterols and VO<sub>2</sub>max  
402 (ml/kg/min) After Six Months of Endurance Exercise Training.



403