

Measurement of cholesterol homeostasis health essay

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In the following sections, we will first briefly review the methods that are used to measure cholesterol homeostasis in humans. We will then review the available data pertaining to cholesterol homeostasis in metabolic syndrome, abdominal obesity and insulin resistance as well as its association with CHD risk.

2. 1. Measurement of cholesterol homeostasis

The various processes regulating cholesterol homeostasis can be measured directly with isotopes or indirectly with surrogate markers. The gold standard measurement of cholesterol homeostasis has traditionally used cholesterol labelled with radioisotope but more reliable techniques are now based on the use of stable isotopes and mass spectrometry [26]. Using radioisotopes, one can assess cholesterol absorption or synthesis by various methods including balance methods, single dose isotopic feeding, dual isotope plasma ratio, continuous isotope feeding and intestinal perfusion. Every method has its own strengths and limitations, and it is beyond the scope of this review to discuss these techniques in detail (see review by Matthan and Lichtenstein [27] and Stellaard and Kuipers [26]). It must be stressed that the use of radiolabeled isotope is no longer allowed in some countries due to ethical considerations on exposing participants to radiation. Also, radioisotopes cannot be used in older populations and children and are very costly. Stable isotope methods label cholesterol as a tracer with a stable isotope given to participants orally, intravenously or a combination of those two. Incorporation of the tracer is measured in either blood or faecal samples by gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS) to derive various measures of cholesterol homeostasis. Methods based on stable isotopes use the dual isotope plasma ratio or continuous isotope feeding approaches [26, 27]. These methods

involve labour-intensive processes to purify the cholesterol and its tracer prior to analysis. Their use may also be limited by availability of specific tracers for research. Collection of faecal samples may be a limitation in some cases. On the other hand, continuous infusion methods can assess cholesterol absorption overtime and this is a significant strength. The stable isotope techniques are also extremely precise, sensitive and safe [27, 28]. Intestinal cholesterol absorption and endogenous synthesis can also be estimated using surrogate markers in plasma such as non-cholesterol sterols, stanols and phytosterols. Recognized surrogate markers of endogenous cholesterol synthesis are plasma cholesterol, desmosterol, lathosterol and squalene concentrations [29, 30]. These molecules are sequential precursors in the cholesterol biogenesis pathway and have been validated as relatively strong correlates of isotopically measured cholesterol synthesis [29, 31]. Plasma lathosterol concentrations have been shown to correlate particularly strongly with direct measures of cholesterol endogenous synthesis [32]. Intestinal cholesterol absorption can also be assessed using surrogate markers, i. e. plasma cholesterol metabolites (cholestanol) and plant-sterols (campesterol, beta-sitosterol) [27, 29, 30]. Campesterol and beta-sitosterol are plant-derived sterols, or phytosterols, that are present in small quantity in westernized diets. Phytosterols have a higher affinity for micelles in the intestine than cholesterol and are absorbed through similar pathways in the gut. Their rate of absorption, however, is about a thousand times lower than that of cholesterol [33]. Unlike cholesterol, phytosterols are not synthesized in the human body, and therefore their plasma concentrations can be used to reflect the capacity of the body to absorb cholesterol [32].

Researchers have developed and adapted methods to measure cholesterol homeostasis surrogate markers in blood plasma by capillary gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) [29, 30, 32, 33]. A major strength of this method is that it is technically both fast and relatively simple. This is the reason why it currently represents the only method available to assess cholesterol homeostasis in large-scale clinical trials and epidemiological studies. Indirect methods based on surrogate markers are limited by the fact that they do not provide actual rates of cholesterol synthesis and absorption. Surrogate markers only reflect the balance between cholesterol synthesis and absorption in the body. Furthermore, the validity of using plasma phytosterol concentrations as surrogates of cholesterol absorption becomes questionable when there are significant variations in the intake of plant sterols by participants over time or when participants have genetic disorders like phytosterolemia [27].

2. 2. Association between cholesterol homeostasis markers and CHD risk

The study of the association between surrogate markers of cholesterol homeostasis and CHD risk is emerging and has become of great interest as preliminary data suggest that such markers may predict CHD risk independent of other traditional risk factors including plasma LDL-cholesterol concentrations. Matthan et al. [30] have shown using retrospective data from the Framingham Offspring Study Cycle-6 (N = 155 cases and 414 controls respectively) that plasma concentrations of cholesterol synthesis surrogates (desmosterol and lathosterol) and of cholesterol absorption surrogates (campesterol, beta-sitosterol and cholestanol) were significantly correlated with the risk of CHD. Specifically, a 1-SD increase in cholesterol synthesis surrogates was

associated with an approximately 40% lower odds of having CHD. In contrast, a 1-SD increase in each of the cholesterol absorption surrogates was associated with a 147%, 87% and 57% increase in the risk of CHD respectively. Surrogate markers were expressed per mole of plasma cholesterol and therefore their associations with CHD risk were to some extent independent of variations in plasma cholesterol concentration. Cases and controls were matched for age, body mass index (BMI) and systolic blood pressure and no significant difference in waist circumference was observed between cases and controls. Furthermore, associations were significant even after adjustment for medication use, diabetes and diastolic blood pressure. Results from a smaller case-control study in non-diabetic subjects (N= 66 cases and 111 controls respectively) indicated that an increased plasma lathosterol-to-cholesterol ratio and a reduced campesterol-to-cholesterol ratio both predicted lower odds ratios for CHD [34]. Taken together, these results suggest that enhanced endogenous cholesterol synthesis and reduced intestinal cholesterol absorption may be associated with a lower risk of CHD, independent of several traditional risk factors, including plasma cholesterol concentrations. These are not consistent findings, however. Escurriol et al. [33] have shown in a nested case-control study (N= 299 cases and 584 controls) that having moderately elevated plasma beta-sitosterol levels reflecting increased cholesterol absorption was associated with a reduced risk of having CHD, subjects in the highest beta-sitosterol-to-cholesterol tertile showing a 41% lower odds ratio for CHD than those in the lowest tertile. Associations were weaker for plasma campesterol. These results are consistent with the findings from the Longitudinal Aging Study Amsterdam

(LASA) by Fassbender et al. [35], who showed in a cohort of 1242 elderly Dutch subjects (> 65 years) that increased plasma beta-sitosterol concentrations were associated with a significant 22% reduction in the risk of CHD. Variations in the plasma concentration of other plant sterol and surrogate markers of endogenous cholesterol synthesis showed no significant association with CHD risk [35]. A 22-year prospective study of 232 men (mean age 60 years) at high risk of CHD suggested that lower cholesterol synthesis and higher absorption profiles were associated with lower total and CHD mortality [36]. Finally, the Coronary Risk factors for Atherosclerosis in women study (CORA) is a retrospective study of 186 cases and 231 controls with comparable plasma LDL-cholesterol concentrations that showed no association between plasma phytosterol concentrations and the risk of CHD [37]. Inconsistent associations in these studies between cholesterol homeostasis surrogates and CHD risk can be attributed to a number of factors. First and foremost, the variety in study designs (cross-sectional vs. prospective, nested case control vs. population-based) and in study outcomes (total cardiovascular vs. coronary heart disease) can explain many of the inconsistencies between studies. The age and gender of patients in these studies may also have confounded results. Another key point to emphasize pertains to the fact that various groups of subjects are compared to each other in epidemiological studies in the absence of any treatment. It is well accepted that statin treatment inhibits endogenous cholesterol synthesis, which in turn is associated with increased intestinal cholesterol absorption, and that overall this is also associated with a lower risk of CHD. That certainly does not imply that increasing

cholesterol absorption per se may be beneficial from a cardiovascular health perspective. Data suggest that assessing surrogates of endogenous cholesterol synthesis at baseline may identify patients in whom statin may not reduce the risk of recurrent coronary events. Specifically, Finnish researchers investigated how plasma cholesterol concentrations at baseline modulated the effectiveness of statin treatment in a subsample of 868 patients with coronary heart disease from the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S). The mean reduction in the risk of coronary events in 4S was 34% [38]. Sub-analyses showed that this reduction in the risk of recurrent coronary events was significant among patients in the lowest quartile of plasma cholesterol concentrations at baseline (-37% reduction in risk) but not among those in the highest quartile (+16%). These findings suggested that CHD patients with a high absorption and low synthesis of cholesterol may not benefit from statin treatment alone [39]. The Prospective Study of Pravastatin in the Elderly at Risk (PROSPER) [40], which investigated the association between plasma markers of cholesterol synthesis (desmosterol, lathosterol) and cholesterol absorption (campesterol, beta-sitosterol) at baseline and after treatment with pravastatin in elderly male and female patients at risk of CHD, came to a different conclusion. Pravastatin reduced concentrations of the cholesterol synthesis markers desmosterol (-12% in cases vs. -11% in controls) and lathosterol (-50% in cases vs. -56% in controls) and increased the concentrations of the cholesterol absorption markers campesterol (48% in cases vs. 51% in controls) and beta-sitosterol (25% in cases vs. 26% in controls). Because these changes were similar between cases and controls, it was suggested

that inter-individual variations in cholesterol homeostasis in response to treatment do not explain differences in CHD outcomes between patients treated with pravastatin [40]. Therefore, the extent to which the magnitude of the change in the cholesterol synthesis and absorption profile of any given individual with treatment predicts different CHD outcomes needs to be further investigated. It is virtually impossible based on the available data from these epidemiological studies to conclude which cholesterol homeostasis profile (high vs. low endogenous cholesterol synthesis, high vs. low cholesterol absorption) is more favourable from a cardiovascular standpoint. Other evidence from association studies may be helpful in trying to address that question. The following sections will review the emerging yet limited literature on the interrelationship between cholesterol homeostasis, metabolic syndrome, obesity and insulin resistance. We will also discuss potential clinical implications from a cardiovascular health point of having high vs. low cholesterol synthesis and absorption profiles in these states.

2. 3. Cholesterol homeostasis in metabolic syndrome

Gylling et al. [29] performed a study comparing cholesterol homeostasis surrogates among individuals with and without metabolic syndrome. Subjects with metabolic syndrome had higher plasma concentrations of cholesterol synthesis surrogates and lower concentration of absorption markers than controls. Notably, differences in the absorption markers, but not in the synthesis markers, disappeared when adjusted for differences in waist circumference between groups. Among cholesterol homeostasis surrogates, increased plasma squalene concentration (marker of synthesis) was the best predictor of the presence of metabolic syndrome. The

evidence for higher cholesterol synthesis and lower cholesterol absorption in patients with metabolic syndrome has been supported by other studies as well [41-43]. Cohen et al. [44] took these observations further. In a multivariate analysis of 674 dyslipidemic patients and 361 healthy subjects, they showed that a 1-SD increase in the sitosterol-to-cholesterol ratio (reflecting increased cholesterol absorption) was associated with reduced risk of all features of metabolic syndrome as well as with a reduction in the risk of having metabolic syndrome as a whole. Individual associations were stronger with visceral obesity and weaker with high blood pressure. These observations are concordant with the finding that patients with low plasma HDL-C concentrations vs. those with high HDL-C are characterized by relatively higher endogenous cholesterol synthesis and lower cholesterol absorption [45]. Proposed mechanisms underlying the perturbed cholesterol homeostasis in metabolic syndrome vary. Some investigators suggested that abdominal obesity may be the primary factor responsible for the perturbed cholesterol homeostasis in metabolic syndrome [46], while others have suggested insulin resistance per se may be responsible for these metabolic changes [47]. In order to shed some light on this discussion, both viewpoints will be discussed.

2. 4. Abdominal obesity and cholesterol homeostasis

Abdominal obesity is one of the key etiological features of metabolic syndrome. Waist circumference is the key variable used to characterize abdominal obesity in metabolic syndrome [48, 49]. It is well known that excess abdominal fat and predominantly visceral fat is associated with cardiometabolic features similar to the ones present in metabolic syndrome, including high plasma concentrations of triglycerides

[19]. High levels of triglycerides are the result of an increased secretion of triglyceride-rich VLDL particles from the liver and the small intestine, which in turn favours the accumulation of small dense LDL particles [50]. Together, abdominal obesity and high triglycerides predict the presence of a highly atherogenic metabolic triad comprising increased insulin and apoB concentrations and small, dense LDL particles [51]. High apoB and small dense LDL are features not always specifically associated with plasma LDL cholesterol concentrations [9, 13] and thus may reflect perturbed whole-body LDL homeostasis. Adipose tissue is no longer recognized simply as an energy storage organ, with now well established endocrine functions contributing to the release of free fatty acids and a wide range of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines [52]. Free fatty acids released by visceral fat cells enter the blood stream to be directed into the liver, thereby interfering there with lipid metabolism and stimulating the synthesis of cholesterol [17]. Peltola et al. [53] demonstrated that the degree of visceral fat (VAT) determined by computerized tomography in 109 normoglycemic subjects predicted a higher estimated cholesterol synthesis (as measured by plasma squalene concentrations). This association between VAT and cholesterol synthesis was independent of variations in subcutaneous fat, insulin sensitivity and plasma triglycerides. Estimates of cholesterol absorption correlated negatively with various indices of obesity including levels of visceral fat and positively with insulin sensitivity. Interestingly, none of the cholesterol absorption or synthesis markers was associated significantly with the amount of subcutaneous fat or with insulin secretion. Based on this, they have suggested that visceral obesity may be more important to

cholesterol homeostasis than subcutaneous fat [53]. They have also suggested that squalene synthesis in itself in fat cells may contribute to the detrimental effects of abdominal obesity on cholesterol homeostasis. The strong association with the degree of visceral abdominal obesity may explain why cholesterol synthesis is increased in metabolic syndrome. The reduced cholesterol absorption in abdominally obese subjects may simply be counterregulating the increase in cholesterol synthesis seen in these individuals to maintain wholebody cholesterol homeostasis. These observations are challenged by data having shown that increased synthesis and decreased absorption of cholesterol was dependent on liver fat content rather than on bodyweight [54]. Indeed, plasma surrogate markers of cholesterol synthesis in patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) were shown to be significantly higher while markers for cholesterol absorption were significantly lower than in non-NAFLD control subjects. These differences remained highly significant after adjustment for sex and body mass index. Patients with NAFLD also had higher visceral adipose tissue levels measured by computed tomography than controls [54]. However, and surprisingly, authors have not controlled for this important difference between patients when assessing the impact of NAFLD on surrogates of cholesterol homeostasis. Although it is tempting to conclude based on these data that liver fat, rather than obesity per se, is a key determinant of whole cholesterol balance, the specific role of visceral fat in this process through its impact on free fatty acids, triglyceride and apoB metabolism remains to be more definitely established.

2. 5. Insulin resistance and cholesterol homeostasis

The data associating abdominal

obesity and insulin resistance and the molecular as well as physiological mechanisms underlying this association are undisputable. It is beyond the scope of this paper to review this evidence (see Bergman et al. [17], Scaglione et al. [46] and Hajer et al. [55] for reviews). Researchers have suggested that insulin resistance per se may play a key role in the regulation of whole-body cholesterol homeostasis, independent of obesity. Simonen et al. [56] have shown that directly measured cholesterol absorption was lower in obese patients with type 2 diabetes than in body-weight matched controls, while cholesterol synthesis was higher. Plasma blood glucose concentrations were positively correlated to cholesterol synthetic rate in both groups. These results suggested that cholesterol homeostasis is perturbed in diabetes, and thus in insulin resistance states, independent of obesity alone since the two groups were matched for body weight. As indicated above, body weight and body mass index are not specific markers of intra-abdominal visceral fat, which was not measured in this study by Simonen et al. [56]. The extent to which insulin resistance state and type 2 diabetes would have predicted a perturbed cholesterol homeostasis independent of variations in visceral fat levels was not addressed. Hoenig et al. [57] showed that the quantitative insulin sensitivity check index (QUICKI) correlated negatively with percent LDL-C reduction in 66 high-risk vascular patients treated with atorvastatin 80 mg for 6 weeks. Insulin-resistant patients had higher levels of cholesterol synthesis markers and lower levels of absorption markers and the correlation between QUICKI and percent LDL-C response to statin was no longer significant when adjusted for variations in markers of cholesterol homeostasis. It was suggested that insulin resistant patients might have

superior LDL-C responses to statin therapy, partly due to their high baseline cholesterol synthesis. These observations are to some extent supported by a series of data from cross-sectional studies. In their study of NAFLD patients, Simonen et al. [54] have found positive associations between serum fasting insulin and cholesterol synthesis markers and negative associations with cholesterol absorption markers. However, these associations were not independent of liver fat accretion in these patients. Peltola et al. [53] reported a negative correlation between cholesterol synthesis markers and whole-body glucose uptake, hence suggesting that a higher degree of insulin sensitivity is associated with lower endogenous cholesterol synthesis. However, as indicated above, the association between visceral fat and estimated cholesterol synthesis in this study was independent of concurrent variations in insulin sensitivity [53]. Pihlajamäki et al. [58] showed that the degree of insulin resistance measured by hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamps in 72 healthy normoglycemic men was associated with increased cholesterol synthesis and to a lesser degree with decreased cholesterol absorption. Associations were significant even after adjustment for the confounding effect of BMI. However, there was a significant difference in waist circumference between insulin-sensitive and insulin-resistant groups. Paramsothy et al. [59] have shown that cholesterol absorption markers were highest in lean insulin-sensitive men and women, whereas cholesterol synthesis markers were highest in lean insulin-resistant and obese insulin-resistant patients. Although insulin-sensitive and insulin-resistant lean subjects were matched for body mass index, the latter group had high levels of intraabdominal visceral fat. Authors did not discuss

the extent to which this may have affected the association between insulin resistance and cholesterol homeostasis. Therefore, it cannot be concluded from these studies that insulin resistance affects cholesterol homeostasis independent of abdominal visceral obesity. Gylling et al. [47] investigated the link between insulin resistance and altered cholesterol homeostasis in 781 participants with various degrees of insulin resistance (normoglycemia, impaired fasting glucose, impaired glucose tolerance, and type 2 diabetes). The authors reported that peripheral insulin sensitivity evaluated by the Matsuda index was inversely related to the lathosterol/sitosterol ratio in the entire population independently of BMI, suggesting that peripheral insulin resistance may up-regulate cholesterol synthesis independent of overall obesity. However, variations in waist circumference were also an independent predictor of the plasma lathosterol/sitosterol ratio, an integrated marker of whole body cholesterol homeostasis. Again, it cannot be ruled out from these data that the association between insulin resistance and cholesterol homeostasis is fully independent of obesity, particularly abdominal obesity. Nevertheless, it has been proposed that hyperinsulinemia as seen in insulin resistance states may up-regulate the expression of SREBP-1c, a transcription factor that stimulates the synthesis of fatty acids and the production of VLDL particles [60]. On the other hand, SREBP-2, another transcription factor up-regulating de novo cholesterol synthesis, does not appear to be affected by hyperinsulinemia or hyperglycemia. Further research is therefore required to shed more light on these potential mechanisms and on how each one relates to abdominal obesity and insulin resistance respectively.