

LJMU Research Online

Bakker, EA, Lee, D-C, Sui, X, Eijsvogels, TMH, Ortega, FB, Lee, I-M, Lavie, CJ and Blair, SN

Association of Resistance Exercise With the Incidence of Hypercholesterolemia in Men.

http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/8105/

Article

Citation (please note it is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from this work)

Bakker, EA, Lee, D-C, Sui, X, Eijsvogels, TMH, Ortega, FB, Lee, I-M, Lavie, CJ and Blair, SN (2018) Association of Resistance Exercise With the Incidence of Hypercholesterolemia in Men. Mayo Clinic Proceedings. ISSN 1942-5546

LJMU has developed LJMU Research Online for users to access the research output of the University more effectively. Copyright © and Moral Rights for the papers on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. Users may download and/or print one copy of any article(s) in LJMU Research Online to facilitate their private study or for non-commercial research. You may not engage in further distribution of the material or use it for any profit-making activities or any commercial gain.

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of the record. Please see the repository URL above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information please contact researchonline@ljmu.ac.uk

http://researchonline.ljmu.ac.uk/

1	Association of Resistance Exercise with the Incidence of Hypercholesterolemia in Men
2	
3	Esmée A. Bakker, MSc ^a ; Duck-chul Lee, Ph.D ^a ; Xuemei Sui, M.D., M.P.H., Ph.D ^b ; Thijs
4	M.H. Eijsvogels, Ph.D ^c ; Francisco B. Ortega, Ph.D ^d ; I-Min Lee, M.D., ScD ^e ; Carl J. Lavie,
5	M.D. ^f ; Steven N. Blair, PED ^b
6	
7	Short title: Resistance Exercise and Hypercholesterolemia
8	
9	Affiliations:
10	^a Department of Kinesiology, Iowa State University, United States
11	^b Department of Exercise Science, University of South Carolina, United States
12	^c Department of Physiology, Radboud University Medical Center, The Netherlands; and
13	Research Institute for Sports and Exercise Sciences, Liverpool John Moores University,
14	United Kingdom
15	^d Department of Physical Education and Sports, University of Granada, Spain
16	^e Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T H Chan School of Public Health, United States; and
17	Division of Preventive Medicine, Brigham & Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School,
18	United States
19	^f Department of Cardiovascular Diseases, John Ochsner Heart and Vascular Institute, Ochsner
20	Clinical School, University of Queensland School of Medicine, United States
21	
22	Word count: 3324
23	Word count abstract: 294
24	Tables: 2
25	Figures: 3

1	Funding/Support: This study was supported by the National Institutes of Health grants
2	(AG06945, HL62508, DK088195, and HL133069). FBO research activity is supported by
3	grants from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (RYC-2011-09011) and
4	by additional funding from the University of Granada, Plan Propio de Investigación 2016,
5	Excellence actionns: Units of Excellence; Unit of Excellence on Exercise and Health
6	(UCEES). Steven N. Blair has received unrestricted research grants from The Coca-Cola
7	Company, but these grants were not used to support this manuscript.
8	
9	Role of the Funder/Sponsor: The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does
10	not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.
11	
12	Conflict of interest disclosures: No
13	
14	Author for correspondence:
15	Dr. Duck-chul Lee, Department of Kinesiology, Iowa State University, 251 Forker Building,
16	534 Wallace Road, Ames, Iowa 50011-4008. E-mail: dclee@iastate.edu. Tel. 515-294-8042.
17	Fax (515) 294-8740.
18	
19	Acknowledgements: The authors thank the Cooper Clinic physicians and technicians for
20	collecting the baseline data and staff at the Cooper Institute for data entry and data
21	management.

1 Abstract

2 **OBJECTIVES** To examine the associations of resistance exercise, independent of and 3 combined with aerobic exercise, with the risk of developing hypercholesterolemia in men. 4 **PATIENTS AND METHODS** A total of 7,317 men, aged 18-83 years (mean 46), without 5 hypercholesterolemia at baseline were included. Participants received extensive preventive 6 medical examinations at the Cooper Clinic in Dallas, Texas between January 1, 1987, and 7 December 31, 2006. Frequency (times/week) and total amount (minutes/week) of resistance 8 and aerobic exercise were determined by self-report. Hypercholesterolemia was defined as 9 total cholesterol \geq 240 mg/dL or physician-diagnosis. 10 **RESULTS** During median follow-up of 4 years (minimum, 0.1 year; maximum, 19 years), 1,430 men (20%) developed hypercholesterolemia. Individuals meeting the resistance 11 12 exercise guidelines (≥ 2 days/week) had a 13% lower risk of developing hypercholesterolemia 13 (HR, 0.87; 95% CI, 0.76- 0.99; P=.04) after adjustment for general characteristics, lifestyle 14 factors and aerobic exercise. In addition, less than 1 hour/week and 2 sessions/week of 15 resistance exercise were associated with 32% and 31% lower risks of hypercholesterolemia 16 (HR, 0.68; 95% CI, 0.54-0.86; P=.001 and HR, 0.69; 95% CI, 0.54-0.88; P=.003), 17 respectively, compared to no resistance exercise. Higher levels of resistance exercise did not 18 show benefits. Meeting both resistance and aerobic exercise (\geq 500 MET-minutes/week) 19 guidelines lowered the risk of developing hypercholesterolemia by 22% (HR, 0.78; 95% CI, 20 0.68-0.91; P=.002), compared to meeting none of the guidelines. 21 **CONCLUSIONS** Compared to no resistance exercise, less than 1 hour/week of resistance 22 exercise, independent of aerobic exercise, is associated with a significantly lower risk of 23 developing hypercholesterolemia in men. However, the lowest risk of hypercholesterolemia 24 was found at 58 minutes per week of resistance exercise. This suggests that resistance 25 exercise should be encouraged to prevent hypercholesterolemia in men. However, future

- 1 studies with a more rigorous analysis including significant potential confounders (e.g., diet,
- 2 medications) are warranted.
- 3
- 4 **KEYWORDS** Resistance exercise; hypercholesterolemia; physical activity; cardiovascular
- 5 risk factor; cholesterol
- 6

7 Abbreviations

- 8 AIC = akaike Information Criterion
- 9 BMI = body mass index
- 10 CI = confidence interval
- 11 CVD = cardiovascular disease
- 12 HR = hazard ratio
- 13 PA = physical activity

1 Introduction

2 Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of death in the United States and many other countries, especially throughout the Westernized World.¹ Hypercholesterolemia, one of 3 the most important risk factors for CVD^{2,3}, occurs in 13.1% of US adult population.⁴ 4 5 Regular physical activity (PA) is recommended for treating and preventing hypercholesterolemia.⁵ Aerobic exercise uses large muscle groups continuously and 6 rhythmically, and its benefits on serum cholesterol levels are well-documented. ⁶⁻⁸ On the 7 8 other hand, resistance exercise is based on repeated bouts of isolated muscle groups and may 9 therefore result in different physiological effects or health benefits.⁹ Evidence for the 10 different molecular pathways to reduce total cholesterol by aerobic or resistance exercise is 11 scarce. However, earlier studies showed the different effects of aerobic and resistance exercise on cardiovascular health outcomes.⁹⁻¹¹ Meta-analyses of resistance exercise training 12 on total cholesterol levels found contradictory results. ¹²⁻¹⁴ However, these trials had relatively 13 short intervention periods and a lack of statistical power. ¹¹ A cross-sectional study showed 14 15 that engagement in regular resistance exercise was associated with lower total cholesterol levels.¹⁵ However, evidence regarding the effects of resistance exercise on the development 16 17 of hypercholesterolemia from large prospective cohort studies is very limited. The aim of this 18 study is to examine the association of resistance exercise, independent of and combined with 19 aerobic exercise, with the risk of developing hypercholesterolemia in relatively healthy men. 20 We hypothesize that resistance exercise lowers the risk of developing hypercholesterolemia, 21 and participating in both resistance and aerobic exercise is superior in decreasing the risk of 22 hypercholesterolemia, when compared with each individual type of exercise alone. 23

24 Methods

25 Study Population

1 Men were included if they had baseline measurements of self-reported resistance exercise and 2 other covariates, performed comprehensive medical examinations at baseline, and participated 3 in at least one follow-up clinical examination. Among 11,601 men meeting the above 4 inclusion criteria, 848 were excluded due to a history of myocardial infarction, stroke, or 5 cancer at baseline. In addition, 3,436 men were excluded as a result of hypercholesterolemia 6 at baseline. The final sample included 7,317 men aged 18-83 years at baseline (mean age 46 7 years, SD 10). Women were excluded from the study because of a relatively small proportion 8 of women (22%) in the Aerobics Center Longitudinal Study (ACLS) and a very low number 9 of hypercholesterolemia cases in women (n<10) in several main resistance exercise 10 categories, which prevented us from running meaningful analyses due to low statistical 11 power. This study used data from the ACLS, which is a cohort examining the associations of 12 clinical and lifestyle factors including PA with the development of chronic diseases and 13 mortality. Participants received extensive preventive medical examinations at the Cooper 14 Clinic in Dallas, Texas between January 1, 1987, and December 31, 2006. The study 15 population consisted predominantly of non-Hispanic whites (>95%), well educated, and employed in, or retired from, professional or executive positions. ¹⁶ The study was annually 16 17 approved by the Cooper Institute institutional review board. Before data collection at baseline 18 and during follow-up examinations, written informed consents were acquired from each 19 participant.

20

21 Clinical examination

Comprehensive medical examinations were performed at baseline. Body mass index (BMI)
was calculated using measured weight and height squared (kg/m²). After at least 12-hour
fasting, blood was sampled by a trained phlebotomist for determination of total cholesterol
(mg/dl) using a basic lipid panel and via automated bioassays in the Cooper Clinic laboratory

in accordance with the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention Lipid Standardization
Program. Resting systolic and diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) were calculated as the
average of at least two readings after 5 minutes of seated rest using the standard auscultatory
methods. A medical history questionnaire was used to assess age, gender, smoking status,
alcohol consumption, personal history of physician-diagnosed hypercholesterolemia, cancer
and CVD, and parental history of hypercholesterolemia. More than 14 alcoholic drinks per
week were defined as heavy alcohol drinking in men. ¹¹

8

9 Assessment of resistance and aerobic exercise

10 Self-reported muscle-strengthening activities, using either free weights or weight training, were collected at baseline by a PA questionnaire. Participants were queried about the weekly 11 12 frequency and average exercise duration (minutes) in each session over the past 3 months. We 13 multiplied the frequency with the average minutes per session to calculate the total amount of 14 resistance exercise per week (minutes/week). Frequency $(0, 1, 2, 3, 4 \text{ or } \ge 5 \text{ times/week})$ and 15 total amount (0, 1-59, 60-119, 120-179 and ≥180 minutes/week) of resistance exercise, as 16 well as meeting the 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for resistance exercise (≥ 2 times per 17 week ¹⁷) were used as our main exposures. To examine whether frequency $(1-2 \text{ vs.} \ge 3)$ 18 times/week) at the same total amount of resistance exercise affects the risk of 19 hypercholesterolemia, we combined the categories of minutes per week of resistance exercise 20 with frequencies per week of resistance exercise. For instance, some individuals performed 21 resistance exercise for 1 hour in 1 or 2 sessions per week (e.g., weekend warriors), while 22 others performed the same hour of resistance exercise in 3 or more sessions per week. 23 Aerobic exercise was determined by a PA questionnaire containing self-reported leisure-time 24 or recreational activities over the past 3 months. Subsequently, aerobic exercise was divided 25 into four different categories: "inactive (0 MET-minutes/week)", "insufficient (1-499 MET-

minutes/week)", "medium (500-999 MET-minutes/week)" and "high (≥1,000 METminutes/week)" based on the 2008 US Physical Activity Guidelines. Meeting the 2008
Physical Activity Guidelines for aerobic exercise were defined as ≥500 MET-minutes/week
(equivalent to ≥150 minutes of moderate-intensity activities/week) based on the guidelines. ¹⁷

6 Definition of hypercholesterolemia

The criteria of the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III were
used to classify hypercholesterolemia. ¹⁸ Hypercholesterolemia was defined as total
cholesterol concentration of ≥240 mg/dL or physician-diagnosed hypercholesterolemia.
Participants were followed from the baseline examination to the first event or diagnosis of
hypercholesterolemia for men who developed hypercholesterolemia, or the last follow-up
examination through 2006 for men who did not develop hypercholesterolemia.

13

14 Statistical Analysis

15 We described baseline characteristics by the total weekly amount of resistance exercise 16 (minutes/week). Differences in baseline characteristics for participants across different 17 amounts of resistance exercise were evaluated using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) for 18 continuous variables and chi-squared test for categorical variables. We used Cox proportional 19 hazard regression to estimate the hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of 20 incident hypercholesterolemia across different strata of weekly amounts of resistance 21 exercise. Participants who were not engaged in resistance exercise were used as the reference 22 category. The first regression model was adjusted for age (years) and examination year 23 (years). The second model was adjusted for variables in model 1 plus BMI (kg/m²), current 24 smoking (yes/no), heavy alcohol drinking (yes/no), abnormal electrocardiography (yes/no), 25 systolic and diastolic blood pressure and parental history of hypercholesterolemia at baseline

1 (yes/no). The third model was adjusted for variables in model 2 plus aerobic exercise 2 (inactive, insufficient, medium, and high) at baseline. In order to assess the independent and 3 combined effects of resistance and aerobic exercise, we compared individuals meeting both 4 aerobic and resistance exercise guidelines, and those meeting only aerobic or resistance 5 exercise guidelines with those who met neither guideline. Further, to illustrate the nature of 6 the possible dose-response relationship between resistance exercise (minutes/week) and 7 hypercholesterolemia, we used restricted cubic spline regression. We tested 3, 4 and 5 knots 8 and calculated the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to identify the best fit model. ¹⁹ All 9 models had a similar AIC, and we chose the model with 5 knots, which is in line with the categorical analyses. The knots were placed at 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 95th percentile based on 10 men who were participating in resistance exercise. ^{19, 20} This analysis was adjusted for the 11 12 covariates of model 3. We performed a test for non-linearity, which compared models with the cubic spline terms and models with only the linear terms using the likelihood ratio test. 13 14 Significance was set at 2-tailed alpha <.05. All analyses were conducted using SAS software, 15 version 9.4.

16

17 **Results**

After a median (interquartile range) follow-up of 4 years (2 to 7), 1,432 men (20%) developed hypercholesterolemia. Among men who participated in resistance exercise, most men (62%) performed resistance exercise for less than 2 hours per week (Table 1). Compared to men with no resistance exercise, men with higher levels of resistance exercise were more likely to be younger, had a lower BMI, and were more aerobically active. In addition, participants performing resistance exercise had a slightly higher prevalence of paternal history of hypercholesterolemia and lower baseline values for total cholesterol.

25

1 Men performing any resistance exercise had a 14% lower risk of developing

2 hypercholesterolemia (HR, 0.86; 95% CI, 0.76-0.98; P=.02) after adjustment for potential 3 confounders including aerobic exercise levels (Table 2). Similar hypercholesterolemia risk 4 reduction by 13% (HR, 0.87; 95% CI, 0.76- 0.99; P=.04) was also found in men meeting the 5 resistance exercise guidelines after full adjustment. We found that only less than one hour per 6 week of resistance exercise was significantly associated with a 32% reduced risk of 7 hypercholesterolemia (HR, 0.68; 95% CI, 0.54- 0.86; P=.001) after full adjustment (model 3). 8 Also, 2 times per week of resistance exercise was beneficial in reducing 31% risk of 9 developing hypercholesterolemia (HR, 0.69; 95% CI, 0.54-0.88; P=.003), compared to no 10 resistance exercise (model 3). After further adjustment for baseline levels of total cholesterol in additional analysis, results were similar and less than one hour of weekly resistance 11 12 exercise remained significant for reducing the risk of hypercholesterolemia (HR, 0.73; 95% 13 CI, 0.58-0.93; P=0.01). When we also adjusted for a borderline hypercholesterolemia (yes or no) at baseline defined as a total cholesterol level of 200-239 mg/dl, ²¹ we also observed a 14 15 similar result (HR, 0.69; 95% CI, 0.54-0.87; P=.003). Additional subgroup analyses for 16 different age (<50 vs. \geq 50 years old) and BMI (<25 vs. \geq 25 kg/m²) groups, and men who 17 participated in resistance exercise less than one year vs. more than one year demonstrated 18 similar negative associations.

19

Figure 1 showed that the risk of hypercholesterolemia in those performing less than one hour of weekly resistance exercise in 1-2 times per week was 42% significantly lower, compared to no resistance exercise (HR, 0.58; 95% CI, 0.42-0.81; P=.001). However, we observed no significant results in other categories of resistance exercise. The combined effects of resistance and aerobic exercise are presented in Figure 2. The result demonstrates that meeting both guidelines for resistance and aerobic exercise was associated with the lowest

1 risk (22%) of developing hypercholesterolemia (HR, 0.78; 95% CI, 0.68-0.91; P=.002), 2 compared to meeting none of the guidelines. We tested effect modification by aerobic 3 exercise on the association between resistance exercise and incident hypercholesterolemia 4 using both interaction terms in the regression and by comparing risk estimates in the stratified 5 analysis by meeting the aerobic exercise guidelines. We found no significant interaction 6 (P>.05), and the associations were similar in both individuals meeting and not meeting the 7 aerobic exercise guidelines. Figure 3 displays the dose-response relationship between 8 resistance exercise (minutes/week) and the risk of hypercholesterolemia. The P-value for non-9 linearity was not statistically significant (P=.13), which suggest a linear dose-response 10 relationship. However, the lowest risk of hypercholesterolemia was found at 58 minutes per 11 week of resistance exercise (HR, 0.77; 95% CI, 0.62-0.95; P<.05). This finding is consistent 12 with the results in the categorical analyses (Table 2), suggesting the lowest risk of 13 hypercholesterolemia in 1-59 minutes/week and 2 times/week of resistance exercise.

14

15 **Discussion**

16 This study showed that less than one hour of weekly resistance exercise, even 1-2 times per 17 week, was associated with significantly lower risk of developing hypercholesterolemia, 18 compared to no resistance exercise, whereas no benefits were found at higher levels of 19 resistance exercise. In addition, meeting both resistance and aerobic exercise guidelines 20 yielded the largest benefits with a 21% lower risk in developing hypercholesterolemia, 21 compared to meeting none of the guidelines. This result suggests that adding relatively small 22 doses of resistance exercise (<1 hour/week) to aerobic exercise could provide additional 23 benefits in preventing hypercholesterolemia.

24

1 Several recent meta-analyses of controlled exercise trials found inconsistent results regarding the effect of resistance exercise training on total cholesterol levels. ¹²⁻¹⁴ The lack of 2 3 improvement in total cholesterol in several intervention studies might be due to short exercise 4 intervention periods, lack of statistical power because of small sample sizes and low total 5 cholesterol values at baseline in relatively healthy populations, which may reduce the potential effects of resistance exercise. ¹¹ However, our large prospective study with a long-6 7 term follow-up clearly demonstrates that engagement in resistance exercise is significantly 8 associated with a lower risk of incident hypercholesterolemia. This result is consistent with the findings from the earlier cross-sectional analysis by Drenowatz et al.¹⁵ However, the 9 10 current study further investigated the prospective effect of meeting the resistance exercise 11 guidelines, independent of and combined with aerobic exercise, and the dose-response 12 relationship between resistance exercise and the incidence of hypercholesterolemia.

13

14 Although the current PA guidelines suggest that more exercise and physical activity generally 15 provide greater health benefits, the dose-response relationships of different types and 16 intensities of exercise with different health outcomes are still unclear and controversial. ^{22, 23} 17 Therefore, we investigated the dose-response relationship between resistance exercise and the 18 risk of hypercholesterolemia in this study. First, in the association between exercise frequency 19 and hypercholesterolemia, we found that 2 times per week of resistance exercise was 20 associated with a lower risk of developing hypercholesterolemia. However, higher 21 frequencies of resistance exercise were not necessary to produce additional benefits to prevent 22 hypercholesterolemia (Table 2). The limitation of using frequency of exercise is that it does 23 not fully reflect the total amount of exercise, since exercise duration in each session is not 24 considered in frequency of exercise. Therefore, we also used the total volume (minutes) of 25 resistance exercise, and found a significantly lower risk of developing hypercholesterolemia

1 in less than one hour per week. However, the benefits to prevent hypercholesterolemia with 2 higher amounts of resistance exercise were not significant (P > .05), compared to no resistance 3 exercise, which again suggests no further benefits by performing more resistance exercise. In 4 fact, the associations between frequency and total amount of weekly resistance exercise and 5 hypercholesterolemia were more likely reverse J- or U-shaped with a quadratic trend rather 6 than linear trend (Table 2). When using the restricted cubic spline regression (Figure 3), the 7 P-value for non-linearity suggested a linear dose-response relationship. However, we found 8 the largest benefit at 58 minutes/week of resistance exercise (HR, 0.77; 95% CI, 0.62-0.95), 9 similar to the result from the categorical data analyses in Table 2. Further, HRs for higher 10 levels of resistance exercise were directed towards 1.00. Nevertheless, these results should be 11 interpret carefully, since the CIs are wide and sample size are smaller at higher dose of 12 resistance exercise. A recent study investigating the association between resistance exercise 13 and CVD in women also found no additional benefits in higher levels of resistance exercise. 14 However, they found a significant effect of resistance exercise in 60-119 minutes per week, which is a higher amount of resistance exercise (minutes/week) than what we found. ²⁴ An 15 16 earlier study investigating the associations between muscular strength and CVD and all-cause mortality also found no additional benefits in the highest third, compared to the middle third 17 of muscular strength in a similar population. ²⁵ Nevertheless, other studies examining CVD 18 19 risk factors such as diabetes did show a linear dose-response relationship with larger benefits by participating in more resistance exercise. ^{26, 27} The difference might be explained by 20 21 different dose-response curves of resistance exercise with hypercholesterolemia and diabetes, 22 possibly related with the improvements in insulin sensitivity noted with resistance exercise in 23 patients with marked insulin resistance, such as those with diabetes mellitus. These 24 contradicting findings suggest that further studies focussing on the dose-response relationship 25 between resistance exercise and different health outcomes are needed to identify the optimal

amount of resistance exercise and whether there exists an upper limit for various health
 outcomes.

3

4 Whether a lower frequency of resistance exercise provides health benefits is important from a public health perspective, since lack of time is a common barrier to perform exercise. ²⁸ For 5 6 example, some people may prefer 1 hour of resistance exercise in 1-2 sessions per week, 7 whereas others prefer to divide the same hour of weekly resistance exercise in more than 2 8 sessions. A recent observational study demonstrated that individuals who met the aerobic 9 activity guidelines by performing their activities in only 1-2 days per week (weekend 10 warriors) had a similar lower risk of CVD and mortality as regularly active individuals, compared to inactive individuals.²⁹ These findings align with our data, where we did not find 11 12 a difference in risk estimates for different frequencies (1-2 vs. \geq 3 sessions/week) at the same 13 amount of resistance exercise (Figure 1). This result suggests that even a small amount of 14 resistance exercise at a low frequency may provide maximal benefits to prevent 15 hypercholesterolemia. This finding could motivate more people to start participating in 16 relatively low doses of resistance exercise for health benefits and makes performing resistance 17 exercise more feasible at population levels.

18

There are some limitations in our study. We examined a large population for a relatively long follow-up period, but this cohort included primarily well-educated non-Hispanic white men from middle-to-upper socio-economic strata. This may limit the generalizability of the results to other populations. Also, the findings from this study apply only to men. However, physiological characteristics including total cholesterol value of this cohort were comparable to other representative population samples although ACLS participants were slightly more active and leaner. ¹⁶ Second, this study used self-reported data on aerobic and resistance

1 exercise, which may cause measurement errors due to over-reporting of leisure-time physical activity in general. ³⁰ Nevertheless, over-reporting generally induces an underestimation of 2 3 the true effect of resistance exercise on the incidence of hypercholesterolemia. ³¹ Also, we 4 only took baseline levels of PA into account for the analyses, therefore changes in PA patterns 5 over time were not included in the study. However, subgroup analyses for men who 6 participated in resistance exercise less than one year vs. more than one year at baseline 7 demonstrated similar negative associations with incident hypercholesterolemia. Third, we had 8 no information about lipid-lowering medication or health-promoting drugs that affect the 9 cholesterol level. However, we excluded participants with a history of CVD and 10 hypercholesterolemia at baseline. Finally, cholesterol levels could be affected by diet and 11 sedentary lifestyle, but information on diet and sedentary lifestyle was lacking in this cohort. 12 Since diet and sedentary lifestyle might be possible confounders in the association between 13 resistance exercise and hypercholesterolemia, future studies should take diet and sedentary 14 lifestyle into account to see whether the association is affected. Also, future investigations 15 should explore the type/nature (e.g., intensity, isolated, circuit, etc.) of resistance exercise on 16 hypercholesterolemia outcomes. Further, randomized controlled trials of resistance exercise 17 are necessary to examine the causality and dose-response effects of resistance exercise on 18 hypercholesterolemia in the future. Despite these limitations, this is the first study, to our 19 knowledge, that has investigated the dose-response relationship between resistance exercise 20 and incident hypercholesterolemia in a large population. In addition, we conducted more 21 comprehensive analyses using both weekly frequency and total amount of resistance exercise, 22 and the effects of meeting the current resistance exercise guidelines, independent of and 23 combined with meeting the aerobic exercise guidelines.

24

25 Conclusion

1 Compared to no resistance exercise, men performing resistance exercise less than 1 hour per 2 week, which could be easily accomplished by most adults, is significantly associated with the 3 lowest risk of hypercholesterolemia, independent of aerobic exercise. However, the lowest 4 risk of hypercholesterolemia was found at 58 minutes per week of resistance exercise based 5 on restricted cubic spline regression (Figure 3). Meeting both recommended resistance and 6 aerobic exercise guidelines provides the highest additional health benefit in the prevention of 7 hypercholesterolemia. Therefore, our results suggest that resistance exercise, combined with 8 aerobic exercise, could be encouraged in order to reduce the risk for developing 9 hypercholesterolemia and further CVD in men. This supports the current PA guidelines and 10 could have profound impact from a population and public health perspectives. However, 11 future studies with a more rigorous analysis including significant potential confounders (e.g., 12 diet, medications) are needed to produce more reliable and unbiased results.

1 **References**

Xu J, Murphy SL, Kochanek KD, Bastian BA. Deaths: Final Data for 2013. Natl Vital
 Stat Rep. 2016;64(2):1-119.

Ezzati M, Hoorn SV, Rodgers A, et al. Estimates of global and regional potential
 health gains from reducing multiple major risk factors. Lancet. 2003;362(9380):271-80.

Tzoulaki I, Elliott P, Kontis V, Ezzati M. Worldwide Exposures to Cardiovascular
 Risk Factors and Associated Health Effects: Current Knowledge and Data Gaps. Circulation.
 2016;133(23):2314-33.

9 4. Writing Group M, Mozaffarian D, Benjamin EJ, et al. Heart Disease and Stroke
10 Statistics-2016 Update: A Report From the American Heart Association. Circulation.
11 2016;133(4):e38-360.

Stone NJ, Robinson JG, Lichtenstein AH, et al. Treatment of blood cholesterol to
 reduce atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease risk in adults: synopsis of the 2013 American
 College of Cardiology/American Heart Association cholesterol guideline. Ann Intern Med.
 2014;160(5):339-43.

Kraus WE, Houmard JA, Duscha BD, et al. Effects of the amount and intensity of
exercise on plasma lipoproteins. N Engl J Med. 2002;347(19):1483-92.

7. Kelley GA, Kelley KS, Vu Tran Z. Aerobic exercise, lipids and lipoproteins in
overweight and obese adults: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. Int J Obes

20 (Lond). 2005;29(8):881-93.

8. Kujala UM, Jokelainen J, Oksa H, et al. Increase in physical activity and

22 cardiometabolic risk profile change during lifestyle intervention in primary healthcare: 1-year

follow-up study among individuals at high risk for type 2 diabetes. BMJ Open.

24 2011;1(2):e000292.

1	9. Williams MA, Haskell WL, Ades PA, et al. Resistance exercise in individuals with
2	and without cardiovascular disease: 2007 update: a scientific statement from the American
3	Heart Association Council on Clinical Cardiology and Council on Nutrition, Physical
4	Activity, and Metabolism. Circulation. 2007;116(5):572-84.
5	10. Artero EG, Lee DC, Lavie CJ, et al. Effects of muscular strength on cardiovascular
6	risk factors and prognosis. J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev. 2012;32(6):351-8.
7	11. Braith RW, Stewart KJ. Resistance exercise training: its role in the prevention of
8	cardiovascular disease. Circulation. 2006;113(22):2642-50.
9	12. Pattyn N, Cornelissen VA, Eshghi SR, Vanhees L. The effect of exercise on the
10	cardiovascular risk factors constituting the metabolic syndrome: a meta-analysis of controlled
11	trials. Sports Med. 2013;43(2):121-33.
12	13. Cornelissen VA, Fagard RH, Coeckelberghs E, Vanhees L. Impact of resistance
13	training on blood pressure and other cardiovascular risk factors: a meta-analysis of
14	randomized, controlled trials. Hypertension. 2011;58(5):950-8.
15	14. Strasser B, Siebert U, Schobersberger W. Resistance training in the treatment of the
16	metabolic syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis of the effect of resistance training
17	on metabolic clustering in patients with abnormal glucose metabolism. Sports Med.
18	2010;40(5):397-415.
19	15. Drenowatz C, Sui X, Fritz S, et al. The association between resistance exercise and
20	cardiovascular disease risk in women. J Sci Med Sport. 2015;18(6):632-6.
21	16. Blair SN, Kannel WB, Kohl HW, Goodyear N, Wilson PW. Surrogate measures of
22	physical activity and physical fitness. Evidence for sedentary traits of resting tachycardia,

23 obesity, and low vital capacity. Am J Epidemiol. 1989;129(6):1145-56.

Kemps HM, Schep G, de Vries WR, et al. Predicting effects of exercise training in
 patients with heart failure secondary to ischemic or idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy. The
 American journal of cardiology. 2008;102(8):1073-8.

18. National Cholesterol Education Program Expert Panel on Detection E, Treatment of
High Blood Cholesterol in A. Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program
(NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in
Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III) final report. Circulation. 2002;106(25):3143-421.
19. Durrleman S, Simon R. Flexible regression models with cubic splines. Stat Med.
1989;8(5):551-61.

20. Desquilbet L, Mariotti F. Dose-response analyses using restricted cubic spline
functions in public health research. Stat Med. 2010;29(9):1037-57.

12 21. Lloyd-Jones DM, Hong Y, Labarthe D, et al. Defining and setting national goals for

13 cardiovascular health promotion and disease reduction: the American Heart Association's

strategic Impact Goal through 2020 and beyond. Circulation. 2010;121(4):586-613.

15 22. Lee DC, Lavie CJ, Vedanthan R. Optimal dose of running for longevity: is more better
16 or worse? J Am Coll Cardiol. 2015;65(5):420-2.

17 23. Eijsvogels TM, Molossi S, Lee DC, Emery MS, Thompson PD. Exercise at the

18 Extremes: The Amount of Exercise to Reduce Cardiovascular Events. J Am Coll Cardiol.

19 2016;67(3):316-29.

20 24. Shiroma EJ, Cook NR, Manson JE, et al. Strength Training and the Risk of Type 2

21 Diabetes and Cardiovascular Disease. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2016.

22 25. Ruiz JR, Sui X, Lobelo F, et al. Association between muscular strength and mortality

in men: prospective cohort study. BMJ. 2008;337a439.

1	26. Gr	ontved A, Rimm EB, Willett WC, Andersen LB, Hu FB. A prospective study of
2	weight trai	ining and risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus in men. Arch Intern Med.
3	2012;172(17):1306-12.
4	27. Gr	ontved A, Pan A, Mekary RA, et al. Muscle-strengthening and conditioning
5	activities a	and risk of type 2 diabetes: a prospective study in two cohorts of US women. PLoS
6	Med. 2014	;11(1):e1001587.
7	28. Ke	lly S, Martin S, Kuhn I, et al. Barriers and Facilitators to the Uptake and
8	Maintenar	ace of Healthy Behaviours by People at Mid-Life: A Rapid Systematic Review.
9	PLoS One	. 2016;11(1):e0145074.
10	29. O'I	Donovan G, Lee IM, Hamer M, Stamatakis E. Association of "Weekend Warrior"
11	and Other	Leisure Time Physical Activity Patterns With Risks for All-Cause, Cardiovascular
12	Disease, a	nd Cancer Mortality. JAMA Intern Med. 2017;177(3):335-42.
13	30. Ad	ams SA, Matthews CE, Ebbeling CB, et al. The effect of social desirability and
14	social appr	roval on self-reports of physical activity. Am J Epidemiol. 2005;161(4):389-98.
15	31. Ce	lis-Morales CA, Perez-Bravo F, Ibanez L, et al. Objective vs. self-reported physical
16	activity an	d sedentary time: effects of measurement method on relationships with risk
17	biomarker	s. PLoS One. 2012;7(5):e36345.

Figure legends







2 Figure 2. Hazard ratios of hypercholesterolemia by meeting the 2008 US Physical Activity 3 Guidelines for resistance (≥ 2 days/week) and aerobic activities (≥ 500 MET-minutes/week). 4 The dots present hazard ratios and the bars 95% confidence intervals. The hazard ratio (95% 5 CI) was 0.89 (95% CI, 0.79-1.01) for only meeting the aerobic exercise guidelines, 0.82 (95% 6 CI, 0.62-1.09) for only meeting the resistance exercise guidelines, and 0.79 (95% CI, 0.68-7 0.91) for meeting both guidelines. The model was adjusted for age, examination year, body 8 mass index, current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, abnormal electrocardiography, systolic 9 and diastolic blood pressure, and parental history of hypercholesterolemia.

10



Figure 3. The dose-response relationship between resistance exercise (minutes/week) and the risk of hypercholesterolemia. Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals for the trend obtained from restricted cubic spline regression (5 knots at 25, 60, 90, 135 and 270 minutes/week). The model included the following covariates: age, examination year, body mass index, current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, abnormal electrocardiography, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, parental history of hypercholesterolemia, and aerobic exercise.

Characteristics	Weekly minutes of resistance exercise (min/week) P-value						
	0	1-59	60-119	120-179	≥180		
	(n=5,165)	(n=526)	(n=802)	(n=378)	(n=446)		
Age (years)	47 (10)	45 (9)	46 (9)	45 (10)	42 (10)	<.001	
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.5 (3.8)	25.7 (3.1)	25.6 (3.0)	26.1 (3.2)	25.9 (3.5)	<.001	
Current smokers	674 (13%)	52 (10%)	81 (10%)	49 (13%)	53 (12%)	.06	
Heavy alcohol drinking	490 (9%)	53 (10%)	77 (10%)	36 (10%)	32 (7%)	.56	
Aerobic exercise							
(MET-min/week)						<.001	
0	1,659 (32%)	30 (6%)	32 (4%)	24 (6%)	35 (8%)		
1-499	771 (15%)	66 (13%)	87 (11%)	52 (14%)	56 (13%)		
500-999	881 (17%)	121 (23%)	191 (24%)	72 (19%)	73 (16%)		
≥ 1000	1,854 (36%)	309 (59%)	492 (61%)	230 (61%)	282 (63%)		
Abnormal ECG	407 (8%)	42 (8%)	61 (8%)	22 (6%)	25 (6%)	.30	
Parental history of	99 (2%)	13 (2%)	32 (4%)	16 (4%)	15 (3%)	<.001	
hypercholesterolemia							
Systolic blood pressure	121 (13)	121 (13)	121 (13)	121 (12)	122 (13)	.37	
(mmHg)							
Diastolic blood pressure	81 (10)	80 (9)	80 (9)	81 (9)	81 (9)	.06	
(mmHg)							
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	194.6 (26.6)	190.1	188.5	188.4	185.1	<.001	
		(26.8)	(27.6)	(29.1)	(29.0)		
^a BMI=body mass index; ECG=electrocardiographic findings; MET=metabolic							

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of the 7,317 men by weekly minutes of resistance exercise ^{a,b}.

equivalent task.

^b Data is presented in mean (SD) unless indicated as n (%).

Table 2. Hazard ratio of hypercholesterolemia by weekly frequency and minutes of resistance

exercise.

	N (%)	No. of	Adjusted Hazard Ratio			
		cases	Model 1 ^a	Model 2 ^b	Model 3 ^c	
Weekly minutes of resistance exercise (min/week)						
0	5,165 (71%)	1,077	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	
1-59	526 (7%)	76	0.65 (0.51-0.82)	0.66 (0.52-0.83)	0.68 (0.54-0.86)	
60-119	802 (11%)	136	0.88 (0.73-1.05)	0.91 (0.76-1.08)	0.93 (0.78-1.12)	
120-179	378 (5%)	64	0.81 (0.63-1.05)	0.83 (0.65-1.07)	0.86 (0.67-1.11)	
≥180	446 (6%)	77	0.94 (0.74-1.18)	0.95 (0.75-1.20)	0.98 (0.77-1.24)	
P for linear trend			.04	.10	.28	
P for quadratic trends			.02	.04	.08	
Any resistance exercise						
No (0 min/week)	5,165 (71%)	1,077	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	
Yes (≥1	2,152 (29%)	353	0.81 (0.72-0.92)	0.83 (0.74-0.94)	0.86 (0.76-0.98)	
min/week)	min/week)					
Weekly frequency of resistance exercise (times/week)						

0	5,165 (71%)	1,077	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]
1	165 (2%)	20	0.74 (0.47-1.15)	0.75 (0.48-1.18)	0.77 (0.49-1.20)
2	529 (7%)	71	0.66 (0.51-0.83)	0.67 (0.53-0.85)	0.69 (0.54-0.88)
3	951 (13%)	171	0.89 (0.75-1.04)	0.91 (0.77-1.07)	0.93 (0.79-1.10)
4	304 (4%)	50	0.78 (0.59-1.04)	0.81 (0.61-1.08)	0.84 (0.63-1.12)
\geq 5	203 (3%)	41	0.96 (0.70-1.32)	0.99 (0.72-1.35)	1.02 (0.74-1.39)
P for linear trend			.01	.04	.13

P for quadratic treater	nds		.02	0.02	.04		
Recommended resistance exercise							
No (<2	5,330 (73%)	1,097	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]	1.00 [reference]		
days/week)							
Yes (≥2	1,987 (27%)	333	0.82 (0.73-0.93)	0.84 (0.74-0.96)	0.87 (0.76-0.99)		
days/week)							
^a A divised for age and examination year							

Adjusted for age and examination year.

^b Adjusted for model 1 plus body mass index, current smoking, heavy alcohol drinking, abnormal

electrocardiography, systolic and diastolic blood pressure, and parental history of

hypercholesterolemia.

^c Adjusted for model 2 plus aerobic exercise (inactive, insufficient, medium, and high)