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Exercise Training Reduces Liver Fat and Increases Rates of VLDL Clearance, but not VLDL Production in NAFLD Shojaee-Moradie, F., Cuthbertson, D.J., Barrett, M., Jackson, N.C., Herring, R, Thomas, E.L., Bell, J.D., Kemp, G.J., Wright, J. and Umpleby, A.M.

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1	Exercise training reduces liver fat and increases rates of VLDL clearance, but not VLDL
2	production in NAFLD
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22	
23	
24	

25 Abstract

26

- 27 Context Randomised controlled trials in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) have shown that
 28 regular exercise, even without calorie restriction, reduces liver steatosis. A previous study has shown
 29 that 16 weeks supervised exercise training in NAFLD did not affect total VLDL kinetics.
- 30 **Objective** To determine the effect of exercise training on intrahepatocellular fat (IHCL) and the 31 kinetics of large triglyceride-(TG)-rich VLDL₁ and smaller denser VLDL₂ which has a lower TG 32 content.
- 33 **Design** A 16 week randomised controlled trial.

34 **Patients** 27 sedentary patients with NAFLD.

35 Intervention Supervised exercise with moderate-intensity aerobic exercise or conventional lifestyle
 36 advice (control).

- Main outcome Very low density lipoprotein1 (VLDL₁) and VLDL₂-TG and apolipoproteinB (apoB)
 kinetics investigated using stable isotopes before and after the intervention.
- 39 Results In the exercise group VO_{2max} increased by 31±6% (mean±SEM) and IHCL decreased from 40 19.6% (14.8, 30.0) to 8.9% (5.4, 17.3) (median (IQR)) with no significant change in VO_{2max} or IHCL 41 in the control group (change between groups p<0.001 and p=0.02, respectively). Exercise training 42 increased VLDL₁-TG and apoB fractional catabolic rates, a measure of clearance, (change between 43 groups p=0.02 and p=0.01, respectively), and VLDL₁-apoB production rate (change between groups 44 p=0.006), with no change in VLDL₁-TG production rate. Plasma TG did not change in either group. 45 Conclusion An increased clearance of VLDL₁ may contribute to the significant decrease in liver fat 46 following 16 weeks of exercise in NAFLD. A longer duration or higher intensity exercise 47 interventions may be needed to lower plasma TG and VLDL production rate.

49 Introduction

50 NAFLD, the most prevalent liver disease in the developed world (1), increases the risk of chronic 51 liver disease, hepatocellular carcinoma and cardiovascular disease, and is associated with increased 52 visceral fat, hypertriglyceridaemia and insulin resistance (2).

Hepatic steatosis is the result of an imbalance between triglyceride (TG) synthesis and TG export. TGs stored and secreted by the liver are synthesised from fatty acids generated from three main sources: hepatic de novo lipogenesis; circulating non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), originating from adipose tissue; and fatty acids derived from the remnants of the TG rich lipoproteins, VLDL and chylomicrons (3) which are generated when these lipoproteins are cleared from the circulation by the lipolytic action of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and hepatic lipase (4).

59 VLDL secreted by the liver can be separated into large TG-rich VLDL₁ and smaller denser VLDL₂ 60 which has a lower TG content. There is evidence that these two VLDL species are independently 61 regulated (5). VLDL is initially assembled as a primordial particle (pre-VLDL) when apolipoprotein 62 B100 (apoB) is co-translationally lipidated in the endoplasmic reticulum by microsomal transfer 63 protein (MTP). Pre-VLDL can either be retained and degraded, or further lipidated to form VLDL₂. 64 This particle can then either be secreted or converted to VLDL₁ following the addition of more TG in 65 the liver. The hydrolysis of VLDL₁-TG by lipoprotein lipase (LPL) also generates VLDL₂ in the 66 circulation. Thus VLDL₂ has two sources. Insulin regulates VLDL assembly by decreasing apoB 67 mRNA translation (6), inhibiting the expression of MTP (7) and promoting apoB degradation via 68 autophagy (8). In NAFLD, with intrahepatic lipids in copious supply, increases in both VLDL-apoB 69 and VLDL-TG production rate (PR) contribute to the atherogenic lipid profile (9).

Lifestyle intervention is the first line of treatment for NAFLD. Weight loss (5-10%) through diet, with or without exercise, has been shown to reduce hepatic steatosis (10,11). A number of randomised controlled trials have also shown that regular exercise, even without calorie restriction, reduces liver steatosis (12,13). A previous study has shown that 16 weeks supervised exercise training in men and women with NAFLD did not affect total VLDL kinetics (14). In the current study we examined the effect of 16 weeks supervised exercise training in men with NAFLD on VLDL₁ and VLDL₂ kinetics, using a protocol which we have shown previously to very effective at increasing fitness (15).

77 Methods

Study design The study was approved by the English National Health Service (NHS) Ethics Committee and the University of Surrey Ethics Committee. The study was performed at one centre, in Guildford, Surrey. This study is part of a larger collaborative study investigating the metabolic impact of exercise supervision in patients with NAFLD (16). Informed consent was obtained from the study participants prior to inclusion into the study.

83 Study participants Twenty nine sedentary male patients, confirmed to have NAFLD were recruited 84 through the English NHS primary and secondary care providers in the local area. There were two 85 dropouts, one in each group. Twenty seven patients completed the study (Table 1) The diagnosis of 86 NAFLD was made in patients who had been referred for investigation of raised serum transaminases, 87 indication of hepatic steatosis on ultrasound or by liver biopsy (n=4, two in each group; none of these 88 patients had non-alcoholic steatohepatitis). It was not possible to exclude NASH from subjects who 89 were not recruited by biopsy. Patients were excluded if the diagnosis of NAFLD was secondary to 90 drug treatments, if there was evidence of viral hepatitis, autoimmune hepatitis or primary biliary 91 cirrhosis, or metabolic disorders, if they had a history of type 2 diabetes mellitus, ischaemic heart 92 disease or had any contraindications to exercise, clinical hyperlipidaemia (fasting plasma TG >3.0 93 mmol/l or total cholesterol levels > 7.0 mmol/l), if they were current smokers, had a history of 94 excessive alcohol intake (weekly consumption of >21 units), had MRI contraindications (cardiac 95 pacemakers, metal implants), or were taking any fibrates or beta blockers.

96 Participants were asked to complete a Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire to identify those not 97 suitable for physical activity. Motivation was assessed through questions relating to willingness to 98 increase exercise levels and confidence in complying with exercising four times per week. Suitable 99 participants were randomised to one of two groups using a list generated by computer randomisation, 100 (Statistical Analysis System v 9.1, PROC PLAN software). One group received a structured 101 supervised exercise programme with an exercise physiologist. The other group received standard 102 lifestyle advice (control group) with no further communication from the exercise physiologist. Both 103 groups were asked to continue their usual diet.

105 *Study measurements* Prior to and following the 16 week intervention period measurements of 106 physical fitness (VO_{2max}) were made and a 7 day diet diary was completed. On a separate visit, 107 measurements of fasting VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-apoB and TG kinetics and arterial stiffness (by pulse 108 wave velocity) were made. Body composition (total, subcutaneous and visceral fat volumes) was 109 measured by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and IHCL, intramyocellular (IMCL) and pancreatic 110 lipid content was measured by magnetic resonance spectroscopy (¹H-MRS).

Physical training protocol Participants allocated to the supervised group exercised at moderate intensity (40-60% heart rate reserve) for 20 minutes initially (progressing towards 1 hour as the programme developed) 4-5 times per week for 16 weeks. Types of activities were either gym based aerobic plus resistance exercise, or outdoor aerobic activities and resistance exercise as discussed with the exercise physiologist. Participants received weekly exercise supervision by the exercise physiologist usually in person, otherwise by telephone, to assess their progress.

117 *Measurement of VO*_{2max} VO_{2max} was performed within four days of the metabolic study using an 118 electronically braked bicycle ergometer (Lode; Excalibur Sport, Groningen, the Netherlands) 119 equipped with a computerised breath (oxygen $[O_2]$ /carbon dioxide $[CO_2]$) analyser system (Medical 120 Graphics, St Paul, MN, USA). An electrocardiogram (ECG) was undertaken during the exercise test 121 to monitor participants' heart rate and exclude latent ischaemic heart disease.

122 *Measurement of pulse wave velocity* is described in the Supplementary Material.

Diet diaries Quantification of dietary intake in all participants was assessed by diet diary, and
analysed by Dietplan 6 (Release 6.60b4 with Windows VistaService Pack 1. Forestfield Software Ltd,
Horsham, West Sussex, UK).

126 *Measurement of body composition and intracellular fat* Subjects fasted for 6 hours before the scans.

127 Whole body MR imaging for body fat content and ¹H MRS measurements of pancreatic fat, IHCL and

128 IMCL (tibialis anterior and soleus muscle) was measured on an Intera 1.5T Achieva multinuclear

129 system (Philips Medical Systems, Best, Holland) as previously reported (17, 18). NAFLD was defined

130 as mean IHCL > 5.5%. For more details see the Supplementary Material.

131 *Metabolic Study Protocol* Participants attended the CEDAR centre, Royal Surrey County Hospital,

132 Guildford on two occasions before (0 week) and after the intervention (16 weeks). The participants

were asked to refrain from vigorous exercise for 72h before the study, abstain from drinking alcoholic beverages for 24h, and attend after an overnight fast. A primed (1mg/kg) intravenous infusion of 1- 13 C-leucine (1 mg/kg/h) and a bolus of 2 H₅ glycerol (75µmol/kg) were administered. Blood samples were taken at regular time intervals for 9 hours.

137 *Laboratory protocols* $VLDL_1$ (Svedberg flotation rate 60–400) and $VLDL_2$ (Svedberg flotation rate 138 20–60) fractions were isolated from plasma by sequential ultracentrifugation (19). ApoB and TG were 139 isolated from $VLDL_1$ and $VLDL_2$ hydrolysed, derivatised and isotopic enrichment measured by gas 140 chromatography mass spectrometry as described in the Supplementary Material. Concentration 141 measurements are also described in the Supplementary Material.

142 *Power calculation* The primary endpoint for this study was VLDL-apoB production rate. Based on a 143 previous study in type 2 diabetes where a 6 month exercise program reduced VLDL-apoB production 144 rate by 48% (20), the study was powered to detect a 20% within-group reduction in VLDL-apoB 145 production with 80% power at the 5% level.

146 Data analysis The measurements of enrichment of free glycerol in plasma and glycerol enrichment of 147 TG in VLDL₁ and VLDL₂ particles were used to determine VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-TG fractional 148 catabolic rate (FCR) using the modelling software SAAM II (SAAM Institute, Seattle, WA) as 149 previously described (23). The model was also used to determine the kinetic parameters of $VLDL_1$ 150 and VLDL₂ apoB using plasma α KIC enrichment and 1-¹³C leucine enrichment of VLDL₁ and 151 VLDL₂-apoB. VLDL₁-TG and apoB FCR had two components, VLDL₁ FCR transfer (to VLDL₂) and 152 VLDL₁ FCR catabolism (direct removal from circulation). Production rate (PR) was calculated as the 153 product of VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-FCR and their respective pool sizes. VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-TG and apoB 154 pool sizes were calculated from VLDL1 and VLDL2-TG and apoB concentrations in 155 ultracentrifugation fractions and plasma volume as previously described (21). (For more details of the 156 models see the Supplementary Material). Total VLDL-TG and VLDL-apoB pool sizes were 157 calculated by the addition of VLDL₁ and VLDL₂.TG and apoB pool sizes respectively. Particle sizes 158 of VLDL1 and VLDL2 were calculated by dividing TG pool size by apoB pool size. Total VLDL-TG 159 PR was calculated by summation of VLDL₁-TG PR and VLDL₂-TG hepatic PR.

161 Ten-year cardiovascular risk was calculated using the 10 year Framingham Risk Score (FRS) (22).
162 Homeostatic Model Assessment (HOMA2) was used to assess whole body insulin sensitivity
163 (HOMA2-%S) (23). Adipose tissue insulin resistance (Adipo-IR) was calculated by multiplying
164 fasting plasma NEFA concentration with fasting serum insulin concentration.

Percent Change in IHCL was calculated as Pre-Post intervention/Pre x100. Changes in other
measurements were calculated as Pre-Post intervention.

167

168 Statistical analysis Statistical analysis of the data was performed using SPSS version 21.0 for 169 Window (Chicago: SPSS Inc.). IHCL is shown as median (interquartile range). All other results are 170 means \pm SEM. Non parametric data was log-transformed. Basal comparisons were performed using 171 Student's t test. Within-group changes between baseline and 16 weeks were compared using paired t 172 tests. The change between baseline and 16 weeks was compared between groups using student's t test 173 for parametric data and Mann-Whitney U test for nonparametric data. Correlations were assessed by 174 Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho correlation coefficient when the data were not 175 normally distributed. A p value <0.05 was taken as statistically significant.

177 **Results**

178 Baseline characteristics

Body weight, BMI and baseline biochemical characteristics (plasma lipid profile and liver enzyme concentrations) were not significantly different at 0 weeks between groups (Table 1). Similarly, there were no significant baseline differences in cardiorespiratory fitness (VO_{2max}), IHCL, pancreatic fat or

182 fat distribution (Table 2). IHCL in all participants (n=27) at 0 week correlated positively with fasting

183 plasma TG concentration (r=0.439, p=0.02) and abdominal visceral fat (r=0.411, p=0.03).

184

- 185 *Effects of intervention (exercise training vs. control)*
- 186 Body weight, BMI and fitness
- 187 Body weight and BMI decreased by 3.6±0.8% and 3.8±0.9% respectively after 16 weeks exercise

188 training with no change in controls (change exercise vs. change control p<0.001 and, p=0.02) (Table

189 1). In both groups, total energy intake and macronutrient composition remained unchanged after 16

190 weeks compared with baseline (Supplementary Table 1).

- 191 In the exercise group VO_{2max} increased significantly by 31±6% after 16 weeks with no change in 192 controls (change in exercise group *vs.* control, p<0.001) (Figure 1, Table 1).
- 193 Liver enzymes (Table 1)
- 194 After 16 weeks intervention there were within group decreases in the exercise group in ALT, AST and

195 GGT concentrations (p<0.01, p<0.02 and p<0.03, respectively). ALT also decreased in controls

- 196 (p<0.04) with no change in either AST or GGT.
- 197 Body composition and ectopic fat (Table 2)

After 16 weeks, there was a significant decrease in IHCL content (% decrease 52.2% (29.0, 61.8); median (IQR)) in the exercise group, with no change in controls (change exercise *vs.* change control p=0.02). There was no significant change in pancreatic fat. All measured adipose tissue depots also significantly decreased with no change in controls (Table 2). The percentage change in IHCL between 0 and 16 weeks in all patients (exercise and control group) correlated negatively with the change in 203 VO_{2max} (r=-0.45, p<0.02) and correlated positively with the change in total body fat and visceral fat (; 204 r=0.54, p=0.004; r=0.41, p=0.03).

205 Insulin sensitivity, fasting plasma insulin and glucose concentration (Table 1)

After 16 weeks exercise there was a within-group decrease in fasting plasma glucose and serum insulin concentrations in the exercise group (both p<0.01) (between groups for insulin, p=0.02). HOMA2-%S (a measure of insulin sensitivity) increased by $42.5\pm11.6\%$ in the exercise group (p=0.002) with no change in controls (between group, p=0.003).

210 Blood pressure, pulse wave velocity and Framingham risk factor scores (Table 2)

Both systolic and diastolic blood pressure measurements decreased by $5.4\pm1.8\%$ and $6.2\pm2.7\%$ in the exercise group after 16 weeks exercise (p=0.01, p=0.04) (between groups p=0.04, p=0.02 respectively). After 16 weeks, pulse wave velocity, a measure of atrial elasticity, improved in the exercise group (p=0.05) although between groups this was not significant. The Framingham risk score decreased $14\pm4\%$ (p=0.001) after exercise with no change in controls (between groups, p<0.05). The percentage change in IHCL between 0 and 16 weeks in all patients correlated positively with the change in the FRS (r=0.62, p=0.001).

218 Plasma and fraction lipids (Tables 1, 3 and 4)

219 At baseline, there were no differences in plasma or lipoprotein fraction lipids between groups. Total 220 cholesterol, TG and HDL cholesterol concentrations did not change from baseline in either group at 221 16 weeks. After 16 weeks exercise there was a significant within-group decrease (p=0.03) in plasma 222 LDL cholesterol concentration. NEFA concentration did not change in either group. However adipose 223 tissue IR decreased by $24\pm10\%$ in the exercise group (p=0.03) with no change in controls (change 224 between groups, p=0.02). After 16 weeks there was no significant change in VLDL1-TG or VLDL1 225 apoB concentration in either group. However VLDL₂ TG, cholesterol and apoB concentration were 226 reduced (p<0.01, p<0.02, p=0.04) in the exercise group with no change in controls. The particle size 227 of VLDL₁ (TG/apoB) was reduced in the exercise group (p=0.03), and was different between groups 228 (p=0.04).

- 229 $VLDL_1$ and $VLDL_2$ TG kinetics (Table 3, Figure 2)
- 230 At baseline VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-TG kinetics did not differ between groups. After 16 weeks VLDL₁-
- 231 TG FCR was increased in the exercise group (p<0.05) due to an increase in the VLDL₁-TG
- 232 catabolism FCR (p=0.05). The percent change in IHCL in all participants was negatively correlated
- with the change in VLDL₁-TG catabolism FCR (r=-0.74, p<0.001) (Fig 2) and positively correlated
- with the change in VLDL₁-TG transfer FCR (r=0.63, p=0.001). There was no change in VLDL₂-TG
- 235 FCR, VLDL₁-TG PR, VLDL₂-TG PR and total VLDL-TG PR within or between groups.
- 236 *VLDL*₁. and *VLDL*₂*ApoB kinetics* (*Table 4, Figure 2*)
- VLDL₁ and VLDL₂-apoB kinetics were not different at baseline between groups. VLDL₁-apoB FCR was increased at 16 weeks in the exercise group (p=0.02) with no change in controls (between groups, p=0.01). This was due to a increase in the catabolism FCR (p<0.01) while the transfer FCR (to VLDL2) was decreased (p=0.005). There was no change in VLDL₂-apoB FCR. VLDL₁-apoB PR and total VLDL-apoB PR increased in the exercise group (p= 0.003, p=0.004) (between groups p=0.006, p=0.02). The percent change in IHCL between 0 and 16 weeks in all participants correlated negatively with the change in VLDL₁-apoB PR (r=-0.48, p=0.01) (Fig 2).

245 **Discussion**

We have demonstrated for the first time that a 16 week supervised exercise intervention which significantly improved cardiorespiratory fitness and reduced liver fat by over 50% in men with NAFLD increased the FCR (a measure of clearance) of both VLDL₁-TG and apoB.

249 It is well documented that VLDL₁-TG and apoB FCR increases with acute exercise (24) but this effect 250 is not sustained 48h after exercise (25). In the current study subjects abstained from exercise for 72h 251 prior to the measurement of VLDL kinetics in order to measure the chronic, rather than the acute, 252 effects of exercise. NAFLD is highly associated with peripheral and hepatic insulin resistance (26,27), 253 as observed in our participants who had a fasting insulin concentration double that reported in healthy 254 subjects. There was an improvement in insulin sensitivity, as measured by HOMA %S, with exercise 255 training, as has also been demonstrated previously in type 2 diabetes mellitus and overweight subjects 256 (20,15). We have also shown in a different subset of patients with NAFLD that 4 months of exercise 257 training (with a similar-sized effect on fitness and IHCL to the current study) improved peripheral but 258 not hepatic insulin sensitivity (16). In the current study an improvement in peripheral insulin 259 sensitivity was also demonstrated with the decrease in adipose-IR. LPL activity is regulated by insulin 260 (28) and 20-weeks endurance exercise training in healthy men, which increased VO_{2max} by 13%, has 261 previously been shown to significantly increase post-heparin plasma lipoprotein lipase (29). Increased 262 LPL activity would provide a mechanism for the increase in VLDL₁-TG and apoB FCR observed in 263 the current study. Notably for VLDL₁-TG and apoB FCR it was the catabolic pathway that was 264 increased rather than the transfer of TG to VLDL₂. The increased clearance of TG from the systemic 265 circulation, while the production rate of TG was simultaneously maintained, would enable the liver to 266 export some of the stored TG for hydrolysis in skeletal muscle to sustain increased demand for fatty 267 acids during exercise.

The reduction in body weight in the exercise group is unlikely to have mediated the increase in VLDL₁-TG and apoB clearance since previous studies have shown weight loss in obese men, following a low calorie diet, reduces VLDL-apoB production rate with no effect on VLDL-apoB FCR (30). Similarly in obese women, a hypocaloric diet has been shown to have no effect on either VLDLTG or VLDL-apoB FCR (31).

273 The failure of exercise training to lower VLDL₁-apoB and TG production rate and to increase 274 VLDL₁-apoB production rate was unexpected. This differs from a study in patients with type 2 275 diabetes where exercise training for 6 months, resulting in a 16% increase in VO_{2max}, reduced VLDL-276 apoB production rate (20). Liver fat was not measured in the latter study, patients were on oral 277 hypoglycemic treatment (metformin and sulphonylureas) and some of the participants were African-278 Caribbean, a group known to have a lower propensity for NAFLD (32). The increase in VLDL₁-apoB 279 production rate following exercise training in the current study may be explained by the marked 280 decrease in fasting insulin concentration in response to the improved peripheral insulin sensitivity, 281 while at the same time hepatic insulin resistance was maintained. Insulin regulates VLDL assembly 282 (6,7,8), thus a lowering of insulin will increase apoB secretion. It has also been shown in mice that 283 triglycerides can rescue apoB from posttranslational degradation (33). The up-regulation of VLDL₁-284 apoB production rate in response to exercise training could increase TG export and therefore assist in 285 the reduction of liver fat. This could also explain the maintenance of plasma TG levels despite a 286 decrease in liver fat.

287 The findings of this study differ from a previous study of patients with NAFLD where 16 weeks 288 exercise training at an exercise intensity comparable to the current study had no effect on VLDL-TG 289 and apoB kinetics (14). The discordant findings most likely reflect a greater improvement in both 290 cardiorespiratory fitness and thus a greater reduction in IHCL in our study participants. VO_{2max} 291 increased by 31% in the current study compared to only a 9% increase in the previous study (14). An 292 alternative or additional explanation is that total VLDL-TG and apoB (sf 20-400) were measured in 293 the previous study, rather than $VLDL_1$ and $VLDL_2$ as in the current study. There is evidence that 294 $VLDL_1$ and $VLDL_2$ are independently regulated (5) and that exercise primarily affects $VLDL_1$ 295 kinetics (34), and so the effect of exercise on $VLDL_1$ may not be revealed by measurements on total 296 VLDL. VLDL₁ carries more TG compared to VLDL₂ per particle and LPL has been shown to have a 297 preference for TG-rich particles (35).

In NAFLD, CV events are the most common cause of mortality (36). Both the FRS, which has been shown to accurately predict the actual 10-year CV disease risk in patients with NAFLD (37), and arterial stiffness, an indicator of CVD and independent predictor of the corresponding risk and LDL cholesterol were decreased following exercise training. The reduced LDL cholesterol may be related to the small weight loss (38). These measures demonstrate that 16 weeks exercise training can reduce CVD risk in NAFLD.

304 The correlation between liver fat and cardiorespiratory fitness suggests the latter is the main driver for 305 reduced IHCL in the exercise group. However the small weight loss in the exercise group will have 306 contributed to the reduction in IHCL (11). Both endurance and resistance exercise with and without 307 weight loss have been shown to reduce liver fat (39). The decrease in IHCL following exercise was 308 not accompanied by any change in IMCL. This has also been reported in a previous exercise study in 309 obese subjects (13). A recent meta-analysis of 33 studies examining the effect of lifestyle 310 interventions on ectopic fat deposition in overweight and obese adults showed only a non-significant 311 trend toward reductions in IMCL (40). Although the meta-analysis suggested pancreatic fat reduced 312 with exercise, this was not found in the current study. There have been few studies specifically 313 addressing effects of exercise intervention on pancreatic fat.

In conclusion, with an exercise intervention in non-diabetic men with NAFLD that significantly improved fitness and cardio-metabolic health, and produced a significant reduction in IHCL, the liver continued to export excessive amounts of TG in VLDL. This may reflect the failure to normalise IHCL and restore hepatic insulin sensitivity. A longer duration or higher intensity exercise intervention, or a combined approach with calorie restriction, may be required to achieve this and to lower plasma TG and VLDL production rate.

320

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324	apolipoprotein B models.
325	
326	
327	Contribution statement
328	AMU, DJC, FSM and GJK designed the study, FSM. JW and RH performed the clinical studies. MB
329	supervised the exercise intervention. FSM and NCJ performed the laboratory work, supervised by
330	AMU. JB and ELT performed the MRI and MRS measurements, AMU was the lead writer. All
331	authors reviewed the manuscript. AMU is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to
332	all the data and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.
333	
334	Figure legends
335	Figure 1: VO _{2max} at 0 and 16 weeks in a) Exercise group and b) Control group
336	Figure 2. a) VLDL ₁ (V1) apoB FCR, b) VLDL1-TG FCR c) VLDL ₁ -apoB production rate and d)
337	VLDL1-TG production rate, at 0 weeks (solid bar) and 16 weeks (hatched bar) in the exercise and
338	control groups, e) relationship between percent change in IHCL and the change in $VLDL_1$ -apoB
339	production rate and f) relationship between percent change in IHCL and the change in VLDL ₁ -TG
340	catabolism FCR. Black circles: exercise group; open circles: control group.
341	

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	D E	D 4 E	XX7:41.	Dere	D	XX7:41	D - 4
	n=15	n=15	group p value	Control n=12	Post Control n=12	within group p value	group p value
Age yr	52.4	±.2.2	-	52.8	±3.0		NS
Body weight kg	101.3±2.64	97.3±12.2	<0.001	102.3±6.1	102.9±6.4	NS	<0.001
BMI kg/m ²	31.6±0.8	30.5±1.0	<0.001	31.7±1.0	31.6±1.2	NS	0.02
Waist circumference cm	109.3±1.9	105.0±2.5	0.005	110.0±3.9	109.6±4.3	NS	0.03
VO_{2max} ml kg ⁻¹ min ⁻¹	25.5±1.1	33.0±1.5	<0.001	23.3±1.0	23.8±1.3	NS	<0.001
Fasting glucose mmol/l	6.0±0.2	5.8±0.2	0.005	5.9±0.2	5.6±0.1	0.02	NS
Fasting insulin pmol/l	183±17	138±16	0.007	164±17	170±17	NS	0.02
HOMA2 %S	32.5±2.9	45.6±4.9	0.002	36.1±3.7	34.5±3.2	NS	0.003
Adipose tissue-IR	79.8±8.0	58.2±8.8	0.03	75.9±9.4	86.6±15.7	NS	0.02
NEFA mmol/l	0.45±0.03	0.41 ± 0.04	NS	0.48 ± 0.05	0.50 ± 0.05	NS	NS
Total Cholesterol mmol/l	5.0±0.2	4.7±0.2	NS	5.1±0.2	5.1±0.2	NS	NS
TG mmol/l	2.0±0.2	1.8±0.2	NS	1.6±0.2	1.9±0.2	NS	NS
LDL-Cholesterol mmol/l	3.8±0.1	3.3±0.2	0.03	3.6±0.2	3.2±0.2	0.07	NS
HDL-Cholesterol (mmol/l	1.01±0.06	1.03±0.06	NS	1.09±0.09	1.09±0.08	NS	NS
Alanine transaminase U/l	51.1±5.3	36.8±5.2	0.01	40.9±6.2	31.1±4.7	0.04	NS
Aspartate transaminase U/l	36.9±3.2	29.4±3.5	0.02	29.0±2.5	26.3±1.84	NS	NS

0.03

 37.0 ± 4.5

 33.8 ± 4.9

 36.3 ± 7.5

Table 1 Subject characteristics and biochemistry

Gamma glutamyl transaminase U/l

53.5±10.2

NS

NS

	Pre Ex n=15	Post Ex n=15	Within group p value	Pre Control n=12	Post Control n=12	Withi n group p value	Betwee n group p value
IHCL %	19.6(14.8,30.0)	8.9(5.4,17.3)	<0.001	12.5(6.9,32.9)	12.6(9.2,26.1)	NS	0.02
IMCL (Sol)	21.7 ± 3.8	19.0 ± 3.5	0.09	19.2±1.8	20.5 ± 2.6	NS	0.07
IMCL (Tib)	8.8 ± 1.0	8.8 ± 1.4	NS	13.2±5.4	8.2 ± 1.2	NS	NS
Pancreatic fat	13.7 ± 5.0	8.8 ± 1.6	NS	8.2±3.3	10.9 ± 3.5	NS	NS
Total Internal fat kg	9.5 ± 0.6	7.9 ± 0.6	<0.001	9.9 ± 0.9	9.6 ± 0.9	NS	0.03
Visceral Fat kg	5.7 ± 0.4	4.7 ± 0.4	<0.001	5.7 ± 0.55	5.4 ± 0.6	NS	0.06
Abdominal Subcut Fat kg	7.0 ± 7.2	6.3 ± 0.7	<0.001	7.8 ± 1.0	7.91 ± 1.1	NS	0.003
Total body fat kg	31.6±2.0	27.3±1.9	<0.001	34.8 ± 3.2	34.5 ± 3.5	NS	0.004
Total subcut fat kg	22.1 ± 1.7	19.5 ± 1.6	<0.001	24.9 ± 2.4	24.9 ± 2.6	NS	0.001
Systolic BP mm Hg	133.4 ± 4.2	128.8 ± 4.2	0.01	131.3 ± 4.5	134.4 ± 3.8	NS	0.04
Diastolic BP mm Hg	83.4 ± 2.3	78.2 ± 2.6	0.04	83.8 ± 3.0	86.3 ± 3.0	NS	0.02
PWV (m/s)	7.94 ± 0.26	7.67 ± 0.25	0.05	7.58 ± 0.27	7.77 ± 0.28	NS	NS
Framingham Risk scores	14.4 ± 1.4	12.4 ± 1.4	0.001	14.2 ±2 .5	13.6 ± 1.9	NS	<0.05

Intrahepatocellular fat (IHCL) presented as median (interquartile range) Sol, soleus; Tib, tibialis; visc, visceral; subcut, subcutaneous; PWV, pulse wave velocity

	Pre Ex n=15	Post Ex n=15	Within group P	Pre Control n=12	Post Control n=12	Within group P	Between group P
VLDL ₁₋ TG mmol/l	1.24 ±0.15	1.04±0.11	NS	1.00±0.12	1.05±0.15	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -TG mmol/l	0.17±0.02	0.11±0.01	<0.01	0.13±0.02	0.14±0.02	NS	0.01
VLDL-TG mmol/l	1.41±0.17	1.15±0.11	<0.01	1.13±0.15	1.19±0.16	NS	0.08
VLDL ₁ -Chol mmol/l	0.31 ±0.04	0.29±0.04	NS	0.29±0.04	0.32±0.05	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -Chol mmol/l	0.10 ±0.07	0.07±0.01	<0.02	0.09±0.03	0.09±0.02	NS	<0.01
VLDL-Chol mmol/l	0.41 ±0.04	0.36±0.04	0.02	0.38±0.06	0.40±0.06	NS	0.01
VLDL ₁ -TG FCR pools/d*	8.25±1.07	9.80±1.51	<0.05	9.09±0.80	8.62±1.02	NS	0.06
VLDL ₁ -TG catabolism FCR pools/day**	6.82±1.16	8.14±1.31	0.05	7.46±0.78	5.92±0.53	NS	0.02
VLDL ₁ -TG transfer FCR pools/day**	1.22±0.16	1.44±0.38	NS	1.63±0.48	2.71±1.35	NS	NS
VLDL ₁ -TG PR mg/kg/d*	230.9 ±20.3	232.5±12.9	NS	218.4±30.6	213.9±24.1	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -TG FCR pools/d**	10.44 ±0.70	11.62±1.48	NS	12.05±1.52	13.16±3.18	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -TG PR mg/kg/d**	40.7 ±4.6	33.9±5.1	NS	37.6±5.5	49.6±10.7	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -TG hepatic PR mg/kg/d**	5.03±0.83	4.23±0.93	NS	6.7±1.3	8.3±3.1	NS	NS
VLDL-TG PR mg/kg/d**	235.6±20.2	236.4±13.0	NS	225.1±30.4	222.3±25.5	NS	NS
VLDL ₁ to VLDL ₂ - TG transfer mg/kg/d**	35.7 ± 4.7	29.7±4.6	NS	30.9±4.8	41.3±8.5	NS	NS

Table 3. VLDL TG kinetics (mean ± SEM)

*n=13 and **n=12 in exercise group due to problems with sample analysis

	Pre Ex n=15	Post Ex n=15	Within group p value	Pre Control n=12	Post Control n=12	Within group p value	Between- group p value
VLDL ₁ apoB concentration mg/l	18.4±2.2	20.2±2.8	NS	16.7±1.5	17.3±2.3	NS	NS
VLDL ₂ -apoB concentration mg/l	12.9±1.4	9.7±1.0	0.04	11.2±1.8	11.1±1.1	NS	NS
VLDL ₁ – TG/V ₁ apoB	66.2±7.0	49.8±4.0	0.03	56.5±7.2	60.12±8.7	NS	0.04
VLDL ₂ – TG/V ₂ apoB	12.9±1.5	11.6±1.1	NS	12.1±1.4	14.8±3.5	NS	NS
VLDL ₁ -apoB FCR pools/day	7.18±0.57	10.93±1.49	0.02	10.91±1.76	8.88±1.06	NS	0.01
VLDL1-apoB catabolism FCR pools/day	5.98± <mark>0.66</mark>	10.39±1.49	<0.01	9.87±1.86	7.89±1.23	NS	0.01
VLDL1 –apoB transfer FCR pools/day	1.19±0.16	0.54±0.1	0.005	1.04±0.25	0.99±0.3	NS	0.06
VLDL ₂ –apoB FCR pools/day	12.3±1.3	11.8±1.3	NS	16.9±3.0	12.9±1.8	NS	NS
VLDL1-apoB PR mg/kg/d	3.67±0.65	5.54±0.49	0.003	4.92±0.80	3.96±0.60	NS	0.006
VLDL ₂ -apoB PR mg/kg/d	4.05±0.42	3.22±0.44	NS	4.93±1.00	3.98±0.60	NS	NS
VLDL2-apoB hepatic PR mg/kg/d	0.52±0.09	0.50±0.10	NS	0.74±0.23	0.89±0.24	NS	NS
VLDL ₁ - to VLDL ₂ transfer mg/kg/d	3.52±0.04	2.72±0.01	NS	4.19±1.09	3.09±0.69	NS	0.013
VLDL apoB PR mg/kg/d	4.19±0.66	6.04±0.50	0.004	5.66±0.95	4.85±0.49	NS	0.02



