

# **REVIEW ARTICLE**



# Impact of Exercise on High-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol in Adults with Overweight and Obesity: A Narrative Review

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# **ABSTRACT**

**Background.** Sedentary lifestyles and insufficient physical activity contribute significantly to the rising global epidemic of obesity, fostering an environment where excess calories are stored as adipose tissue. Lack of regular physical activity and diminished cardiorespiratory fitness are key factors in the emergence of obesity-related illnesses, leading to cardiovascular and metabolic complications. However, the extent to which low levels of physical activity and obesity directly cause low HDL-C levels is uncertain, and the specific impact of obesity on reducing HDL-C as well as the associated risks are not well clarified. The influence of different types of exercise on HDL function is intricate and depends on various factors, including exercise intensity and individual characteristics. **Objectives.** This study aims to investigate the effect of exercise on HDL-C levels in overweight and obese adults, as well as review the mechanisms and pathways by which various exercise types influence HDL-C metabolism in this population. **Methods.** A literature search was conducted using the PubMed, Scopus, and Google Scholar databases. Studies were included if they were published in English. Results. A sequential moderate-tohigh-intensity exercise regimen resulted in sustained or gradual improvements in HDL-C levels. For increased HDL-C levels, frequent moderate-to-high-intensity, long-duration exercise at an aerobic threshold in conjunction with body mass reduction and dietary modification is observed from the reviewed studies. Conclusion. Regular exercise can improve HDL-C levels in overweight and obese individuals. A combination of moderate-to-high-intensity, long-duration exercise at an aerobic threshold with body mass reduction and dietary modification is most effective. Overweight and obese individuals should engage in regular exercise to improve their HDL-C levels and overall health.

KEYWORDS: Body Weight, Physical Activity, Aerobic Exercise, Lipid Metabolism.

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# INTRODUCTION

epidemiological Numerous prospective studies have indicated a consistent inverse correlation between concentrations of highdensity lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) in the serum and the risk of coronary heart disease (CHD) (1). However, recent evidence from genetic and clinical research has begun to challenge the longstanding belief that elevated HDL-C levels are invariably advantageous, while lower levels are consistently harmful (2). HDL-C has traditionally been recognized as "good cholesterol," playing a positive role in overall well-being and, notably, cardiovascular health (3). In obesity, the role of HDL-C is vital, since individuals with impaired lipid metabolism are very likely to develop obesity-related illness resulting in metabolic dysregulation (4, 5). In summary, abnormal HDL-C levels are associated with upregulation of glucose homeostasis and resting blood pressure promoting metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular disease among people with excessive weight (6).

A growing body of literature highlights the negative impact of obesity in altering the blood lipids (7), where certain metabolic disorders, such as raised blood pressure and decreased HDL-C (8) are the key risk factors for CVD, even though the claimed independent correlation among plasma triglycerides (TG) and CVD is more contentious (9). Notwithstanding, many studies correlate other risk factors with altered TG levels (e.g., lower HDL-C) (10). HDL-C is a proxy of CVD (11) where the risk of CVD correlates with high LDL and low HDL-C (i.e. <40 mg/dl and <50 mg/dl for men and women, respectively) levels (12). Apart from obesity, chronic inflammation and a high risk of sepsis have also been linked with lower HDL-C concentrations (13). On the other hand, physical inactivity and decreased cardiorespiratory fitness are major risks of developing obesity and CVD (14). Although the management of obesity is achievable, it demands self-perseverance and regimen compliance (15). Over the past decade, most research on obesity has highlighted the effect of several treatments, including diet, physical activity or exercise, behavioral adjustment, and pharmacological approaches in obesity management. Of most, exercise strategies have provided successful weight management and obesity prevention among the different therapeutic methods (16) and have been documented as popular trends for practitioners within the global exercise community (17). The extent of the impact of physical training on obesity should be understood due to its ample evidence of reversing the progression of certain types of CVD (16). Partaking in regular physical activity is believed to partially decrease the risk of CVD, improving blood lipid profile (18), and should be encouraged as a strategy to optimize lipid homeostasis and reduce the incidence of CVD among individuals with obesity and/or hyperlipidemia (19).

The large majority of researchers examining normolipidemic groups reported decreases in TG and rises in HDL-C following exercise. Physical exercise is one of the lifestyle factors traditionally recommended for individuals with high BMI to improve lipid metabolism, such as increasing HDL-C (20, 21). However, people with excess weight tend to present low compliance rates to various exercise interventions due to inherent obesity-related psychophysiological complications (22, 23). Strong evidence indicates dose-response associations between HDL-C and duration of exercise, with regular or even single exercise sessions positively impacting the body's cholesterol metabolism (24); however, further research is needed in this direction (25). In general, various types of exercise demonstrate beneficial alterations in the lipid profile among people with excessive weight (26-30). Research on lipids and lipoproteins response to exercise in hypercholesterolemic males showed a decrease in TC, TG, and an increase in HDL-C level (31). In this review, we aimed to analyze the mechanism responsible for changes in HDL-C metabolism and the magnitude of those changes in response to various types of exercise in overweight and obese individuals, aiming to describe the potential pathways of exercise influencing HDL-C values.

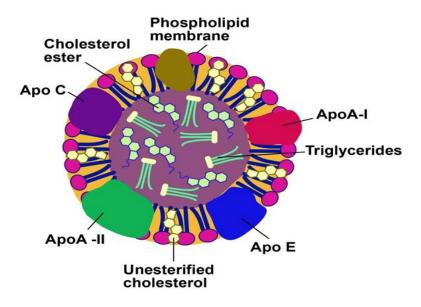
# STRUCTURE OF HDL-C

Cholesterol is a crucial part of cellular membranes and precursors of steroid hormones and other essential biomolecules. Human cholesterol is derived exogenously from ingesting animal products and endogenously from the liver and other tissues. Together with TG, apoproteins, and phospholipids, these cholesterols are synthesized into complex lipoprotein molecules. The lipoproteins, along with enzymes such as lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and lecithin-cholesterol

acyltransferase, comprise a complex mechanism that delivers fatty acid and cholesterol to peripheral tissues while also returning cholesterol to the liver for conversion to bile acids and subsequent excretion (32). There are five main classes of these lipoproteins based on their lipid content, as their lower lipid content increases the particulate density (33). They include the large TG, which are considered rich particles exerted by the intestine after meals; VLDL (very lowdensity lipoprotein) secreted by the liver and is the most responsible for TG transport; IDL (intermediate-density lipoprotein) that is a transient lipolytic product of VLDL and a source of LDL; the LDL which is the primary particle transporting cholesterol in the plasma; and HDL that has an approximately equal amount of lipid and protein with a molecular size of about 200-400 KDa and densities 1.21 to 1.6 g per cubic centimeter (34).

HDL is the smallest lipoprotein particle 5-17 nm, the densest with the largest percentage of protein to lipids. It contains mainly cholesterol I esters, and TG with its surface containing mostly free cholesterol, phospholipids, and A, C, E apo-proteins (34). Furthermore, HDL particles are sub-classified based on size and density in a high salt solution by measuring their ultra-centrifugal flotation rate and mass concentration of the lipoprotein particles (35). Together HDLs were further subclassified into "2a, 2b, 3a, 3b, and 3c" HDLs, using gel electrophoresis and apolipoprotein composite (35, 36) (Figure 1). HDL is thought

to have a role in the reverse transfer of cholesterol from the peripheral tissue to the liver (37). It originates from the liver and intestine that secrete discoid nascent HDL particles containing mostly apoprotein A-1 and phospholipids that grow into mature spherical HDL particles by incorporating free cholesterol from the peripheral tissues cell membrane and lipoproteins. These cholesterol other sequestering processes and lecithin-cholesterol acyltransferase enzymatic cholesterol conversion to cholesterol esters give rise to newly synthesized large spherical HDLs (with 4 or 3 apoprotein A-1) (37). The mechanism of transporting cholesterol esters to the liver is complex, involving unique membrane-bound receptors for the transfer to a lipoprotein containing both apoprotein B (38). HDL is the most important lipoprotein in terms of quantity, which has essential survival functions and can also influence different parts of the human body (39). On the other hand, HDL particles (HDLs) are essential to the 'reverse transfer of cholesterol,' a mechanism that transfers excess cholesterol contained in peripheral cells, such as foam cells, to the liver for the excretion into bile; such scavenged cholesterols are termed HDL-Cs. Reverse cholesterol transport (RCT) is the pathway by which excess cholesterol from peripheral tissues is transported for redistributed to the other tissues or the liver for onward gallbladder excretion; however, HDL-C is the primary lipoprotein implicated in this process (40).



**Figure 1.** HDL-C structure.

# HDL-C AS A RISK FACTOR

The biological function of HDL is to transport excess cellular cholesterol, and there is a possible causal relationship between cellular cholesterol content and immune function (41). It has been suggested that different components of HDL molecules may be implicated in the development autoimmune disease from multiple mechanisms by which HDL modulates the immune response (42) where the possibility of infectious disease is associated with HDL (43) and contributes to the profound risk of autoimmune disease (42). Among the numerous lipid fractions, HDL-C holds a distinct place, also dubbed as "good cholesterol". A major risk factor for CVD in obese persons is reduced HDL-C concentration, along with increased LDL-C concentrations, which also induces HDL-C dysfunction (44). Obesity raises CVD risk by increasing TG and LDL-C and reducing HDL-C values. In that sense, HDL-C may be a good index to classify people at risk of dyslipidemia, HBP, and metabolic syndrome (MTS) (45).

Several reports have shown low serum HDL-C concentrations, defined as <1 mmol/L (40 mg/dL) in both sexes or <1 mmol/L in males and <1.3 mmol/L (50 mg/dL) in females (46), are an independent predictor for CHD in obese people and diabetic patients (47). For instance, the Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration in a record of 302,430 people without prior vascular illness revealed low HDL-C levels to correlate with an elevated risk of CVD, irrespective of other identified risk factors (48). Studies indicated that both in obese and non-obese, decreased HDL levels are linked with an elevated risk of developing CHD (49) and CVD (50). To be specific Ashen and Blumenthal (2005) (51) stated a cut-off point of an elevated risk of CHD in individuals with low HDL-C levels to be about less than 40 mg per deciliter [1.03 mmol per liter] in men and less than 50 mg per deciliter [1.30 mmol per liter] in women. It was also observed an increased risk of post-angioplasty re-stenosis and cardiovascular death especially when diabetes was present. Cardiovascular dysfunction and poor muscle strength are also linked with total cholesterol (TC), LDL-C, and HDL-C (52). An inverse relationship between HDL-C concentrations and CVD has been identified for many decades (53). Therefore improving HDL-C level has the potential to minimize the risk of CVD, CHD morbidity, and mortality (54) and in obese, CHD risk in women is reduced by 3% and 2% in men for each 1 mg/dL increase in HDL-C (2). In addition, HDLs have some extra antiatherogenic effects apart from cholesterol homeostasis presence. It has been identified as a contributing factor in decreasing inflammation, oxidation (55), vascular thrombosis (56), enhancing endothelial activity, facilitating endothelial repair (57), and improving insulin sensitivity (58).

# AUGMENTING EFFECT OF EXERCISE ON HDL-C

The impact of various modalities of exercise on HDL function is complex and depends on many variables, including the intensity and duration of exercise. For that reason, the effects of regular exercise on these measures remain unclear (59). The molecular composition of HDL particles, especially the components of proteins and lipids, is thought to mediate the biological functions of HDL (60, 61). Kannan et al., (2014) (62) indicated that moderate to intense exercise improved LDL and HDL levels. Studies have shown that concomitant improvements in HDL-C and/or apoA-I levels have been the best predictors of exercise-induced improvement in cholesterol efflux capacity (63, 64). The improvement in cholesterol efflux potential was linked positively with improvements in the overall concentration of HDL particles and the mean size of HDL (59). In a study by Wood et al. (1985), it was shown that one year of mild EX among 84 overweight and obese men induced a reduction in the mean body fat that significantly mediated an increase in plasma levels of HDL-C compared to a hypocaloric diet (65). Moderate exercise and weight reduction are reported to mediate differently and independently increased HDL-C and showed summative effect when combined (66). The evidence that body fat reductions are easier to obtain and maintain when exercising as part of a weight-loss regimen in obese people confirms the significance of exercise in raising HDL cholesterol levels when enrolled in a restricted diet for weight loss (67). Dose-response associations between the amount of exercise and improvements in blood lipids among obese people show that exercise may change blood lipids positively at low levels of training. Still, the results will not be measurable until certain exercise thresholds are reached (around 1200-2200 kcal/wk energy expenditure) (68). It was

reported that moderate-intensity exercise at 60% of heart rate reserve for a distance of 2 miles, three days a week, induces adequate changes in the HDL profile (69). Another study reported substantial HDL-C differences among male exercisers and those in the low physical activity category (~6 mg/dl) due to exercise energy expenditures of 1500 to 3000 kcal/wk. The findings also showed increasing exercise intensity could result in additional improvement of the lipid fraction since the difference in HDL-C improved by 3.5 mg/dl in those reporting exercise of energy expenditures exceeding 3000 kcal/wk (70).

Based on the rate of stated changes in HDL-C and TG levels following the exercise program, HDL-C lipid variables are more reactive to regular EX than TC and LDL-C, with significantly increased HDL-C and reduced TG values following exercise (71). Sarzynski, et al., (2018) (59) stated that six months of exercise shows little effect on cholesterol efflux capability and exchange of HDL-apoA-I (apolipoprotein A-I), with only the greatest intensity of exercise increasing radio-labeled efflux capacity, and thus frequent sustained intense exercise enhances some but not all HDL functions. Another study found significant rises in HDL-C and reductions in TC among serum lipids in abdominally obese middle-aged women following a combined 60minute workout routine four days/week for 12 weeks (72). Similarly, large reductions in TC and substantial rises in HDL-C have been recorded in obese people after a 40-minute of aerobic exercise (4 days/week for 12 weeks) (73). Studies have also shown that the Combination Workout Regimen has effectively minimized LDL-C, TC, and TG values for 12 weeks in women with abdominal obesity and has substantially improved HDL-C levels (74). Several authors uphold that exercise can boost cardiopulmonary functions and help prevent and alleviate CVD and hyperlipidemia (75). Furthermore, the effects of 24 weeks of endurance exercise induced favorable variations in plasma lipoprotein and lipid profiles, particularly HDL particle size independent of diet and baseline or alteration in body fat (76). On the other hand, a study by Nassef et al., (2019) (77) conducted among 7797 persons, of which 3,559 males and 4,238 females aged 30-70 years, showed subjects' participation in aerobic exercise and daily badminton correlated with greater HDL-C values. In other

trials, moderate routine exercise 2 days a week did not substantially improve body composition over 12 months in obese adults, and regular exercise reduced HDL-C in overweight and obese persons after 6 and 12 months of exercise instruction (78). Similarly to other research, serum cholesterol, HDL, and LDL levels in 45 poorly trained men were not significantly impacted by a 9-week ergometer training, concluding that anaerobic threshold training has no negative effect on blood lipoprotein profiles with aerobic proven beneficial (79). Swain and Franklin (2006) (80) indicated that the change in lipid profile related to exercise relies on each workout's intensity, frequency, and duration. Moreover, contradictory findings of the impact of exercise on blood lipid profiles are limited to people with typical lipid normal values (81). For instance, a study by Gordon et al., (1998) (82) conducted acute EX among 12 women aged 18-35 years by running for 24–48 km a week over six months (35.7-9.1 km/wk) showed an immediate rise in HDL-C post-exercise when uncorrected for plasma volume shifts. However, after adjusting for changes in plasma volume, they detected a more significant HDL-C response. The HDL-C level was reported to be most increased after the 48-hour HDL-C measurement. These results highlight the necessity to adjust for plasma volume when measuring absolute HDL-C concentration changes following exercise (83) (Table 1).

The mechanism responsible for the acute rise in HDL-C following exercise is likely associated with the catabolism of lipoproteins rich in triglycerides through LPL (83). Increased activity of LPL following exercise results in hydrolysis of chylomicron and VLDL, thereby decreasing plasma triglyceride levels (71), and subsequently, surface remnants are converted into nascent HDL-C; nevertheless, following exercise, the levels of HDL-C can increase. In comparison, drops in plasma TG levels following acute activity tend to correlate with the amount of intensity and duration of exercise (84). Another study showed that prolonged strenuous exercise could induce a reduction in TG levels within 24 hours (85), while shorter workout durations will lead to only moderate decreases in plasma triglycerides in obese women (86) or no improvement at all (87). In brief, there are conflicting findings regarding the changes in lipid profile in response to exercise interventions of

different intensities and durations. In that matter. we observe studies conducted in overweight and obese individuals showing different results in HDL-C levels namely, an increase (63, 64), a decrease (88), and some other studies reporting no changes in the same variable (89). Such inconsistencies in the effect of exercise on the HDL-C levels can be explained by the discrepancies observed in the experimental design. For instance, not all the experiments were controlled for collateral changes in diet, alcohol consumption, and smoking, which could significantly modify lipoprotein profiles. Furthermore, the timing of plasma collection and processing may have a profound influence on levels of HDL-C (49).

# DYSFUNCTIONAL HDL-C AND DEPLETION MECHANISM IN OVERWEIGHT/OBESE INDIVIDUALS

The inverse association between HDL-C and obesity is well-reported (90, 91), but the degree to which obesity leads to low HDL-C is unknown. Moreover, obesity's relative contribution to reducing HDL-C and the estimated risks of reduced HDL-C due to obesity is unclear. Bora et al., (2017) (92) indicated that a significant percentage of diminished HDL-C values were observed in obese subjects and the risk to develop a decreased HDL-C is four (individuals with visceral obesity) to five times greater than nonobese counterparts. Therefore, obesity has a link to a significant percentage of the disease burden of low HDL-C dyslipidemia. The mechanism that can cause low HDL and apoA-I might involve the inflammation process because inflammation affects the expression of hepatic genes and contributes to changes in HDL's protein structure. The levels of apoAI and cholesterol ester transport protein on HDL are reduced throughout the inflammation, or in laboratory models in which bacterial endotoxin lipopolysaccharide is used (Figure 2). In contrast, the quantities of serum amyloid A and secretory phospholipase A2 acute-phase reactant proteins on HDL are significantly higher, these improvements are correlated with reduced HDL cholesterol acceptor activity (93). Some studies postulate antioxidant activity of HDL-C does not adequately exist. For instance, Sorrentino et al., (2010) (94) observed that patients with T2DM had low endothelial antioxidant function when HDL-C was isolated

from their blood plasma; besides, reduced potential for cellular cholesterol efflux was illustrated as an additional key factor in obese patients causing cardiovascular cerebral The HDL-C problems. obesity pathway demonstrated strongly elevated free fatty acids and very high LDL; in exchange, this induces excessive RCT stimulation, further accelerating the catabolism of HDL-C (95). Compared to healthy adults, cellular cholesterol efflux ability reflected by HDL-C levels is, therefore, less informative on the state of atherosclerosis (96). Also worth mentioning are cholesterol ester transport protein LCAT, liver lipid proteinase, and protein phospholipid, which are also altered in obese patients (49). Bertière et al., (1988) (97) compared the HDL levels in obese subjects aged 68, and in the control group, the cholesterol and protein ratio of HDL in the obese subjects was 50% lower. Other studies carried out between overweight, obese women and older individuals of both sexes and varying adiposity found intraabdominal fat as an independent indicator of low levels of HDL2-cholesterol than mid-thigh fat (98), BMI, or total percentage of body fat (99). Bora et al., (2017) (92) showed that 79.8% of the decline in HDL-C was observed in people with overweight or obesity, whereas 72.8% of the decline in HDL-C was due to increased waist circumference among centrally obese individuals. In the overall population, the burden of reduced HDL-C due to obesity was also moderately high: 57.1% of low HDL-C was due to obesity, while 36% of low HDL-C was due to central obesity. Furthermore, a lack of changing TG levels and elevations in HDL concentration were found in severely obese men and women following weight reduction by an exercise intervention. Decreased HDL levels in obesity have been attributed to both an enhancement in the uptake of HDL by adipocytes and an increase in the catabolism of apolipoprotein A-I on HDL particles. Additionally, there is a reduction in the conversion of the prebeta1 subfraction, the initial acceptor of cholesterol from peripheral cells to pre-beta-2 particles. Conversely, as a means of reversing the reduction in HDL levels in obesity, sustained weight loss is an effective method. Alternative mechanisms may play a role in decreasing HDL-2 in obese individuals who increase cholesteryl ester transfer protein mass and high activity levels in the obese and can potentially reduce HDL levels (49).

Table 1. The Effect of Exercise on HDL-C in Overweight and Obese Individuals

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Study	Participants (50+0)	Intervention	Result	Reference		
Effect of exercise	10 obese men / 59±8	Cycling Walking /jogging/, 3/w/=40 min for 6month	Not significant Pre VS post	(100)		
intervention	years	3/W/-40 mm for omonth	31±6 VS 32±6			
Effect of	n=22 obese women that	Endurance (60–80% HRmax)	In both groups, but especially in	(101)		
exercise	completed endurance	and combined (20 min of	women undergoing combined	(101)		
intervention	training;	strength exercises, 50–60% 1	training, a decrement in visceral			
	n=17 obese women that	RM and 25 min of endurance	adiposity index was observed			
	completed combined	training, 60–80% HRmax)	together with a decrement in plasma			
	training	training groups underwent a 3-	atherogenic index, TC, and LDL-C.			
		mo physical training program	Conversely, an HDL-C increment			
7.00	D 1 (1 11 ( 10)	D :: 1 : 1 : 2	was observed	(100)		
Effect of exercise	Basketball (n=10),	Participants trained at least 2	Immediately after a maximal effort,	(102)		
intervention	swimming (n=9), long distance (LD) running	h/day for more than 3 years	all groups (controls included) showed significant HDL-C increases			
inter vention	(n=23) and wrestling		from rest values, while LD running			
	(n=35); also a group of		showed the highest values. HDL2			
	non-athletes as controls		levels increased in LD running,			
	(n=19).		basketball and wrestling, while			
			HDL3 ones in all groups and			
			controls (p<0.001)			
Effect of	Male Army recruits	Completed a 12-WK moderate-	Moderate-intensity exercise	(103)		
exercise	(n=115, age	intensity exercise program. A	increased HDL-C and apolipoprotein			
intervention	22±0.3 years)	subset of 51 subsequently	A-I levels (6.6%, 11.6%			
		completed a 15-WKk high-intensity exercise program.	respectively), and decreased low- density lipoprotein cholesterol and			
		intensity exercise program.	apolipoprotein B levels (7.2%, 4.9%			
			respectively) (all $P$ <0.01). HDL-C			
			and apolipoprotein A-I levels further			
			increased by 8.2% ( $P < 0.001$ ) and			
			6.3% ( $P$ <0.05) after high-intensity			
			exercise.			
Effects of	Thirteen obese females.	For =14 months 4-5 times /WK	Significant increase pre-VS post	(104)		
exercise	38±5.37 years	90 mis sessions included cycling,	$0.60\pm0.08 \text{ VS } 0.85\pm0.24$			
intervention		swimming, Walking jogging, and aerobic dance				
Effects of	Thirty-one obese	Exercised for 90 minutes 55% of	1.17±0.24 VS	(105)		
exercise	females. Aged 35.4±5.1	VO2max .4-5 times /WK for 6	1.15±0.21	(103)		
intervention	years	months				
Effects of	Sixteen obese females,	Resistance training; 12wk; for 3	No significant change in HDL-C	(106)		
resistance	and the age from 30-40	times /WK Performing 3 sets, of	level after exercise intervention			
training	years	6 to 8 repetitions				
Effect of	Eleven obese Females:	Aerobic exercise for 5 WK 5	Significant different pre-VS post	(107)		
exercise	aged 37. 1±I .2 years	times /WK	1.54±0.10 VS 1.64±0.08			
intervention Effect of	Seven obese females.	Aerobic exercise for 6WK	No significant change	(108)		
Effect of exercise	Aged 21.0±0.8 years	Aerobic exercise for 6WK included	No significant change HDL-C	(108)		
tolerance	11gcu 21.0±0.0 years	Jogging, rowing cycling and	IIDE-C			
. J. C. W. L.		walking.				
		three times /WK for 50 minutes/				
		session				
Effect of	8 Obese adolescents.	Ten months of supervised	Significant increase in HDL level	(109)		
exercise	Aged 14.9±3.6 years	exercise intervention	after ten-month intervention pre-VS			
intervention	DR, HA		post			
T100 : C	m	D 1 . 1 91 11 . =0 0-01	42.13±4.04 VS 48.50±4.63	(4.4.0)		
Effect of	Twenty tow Obese men.	Daily treadmill walks at 70–85%	A decrease in HDL-C pre VS post	(110)		
exercise	Aged range 46–76 years	of HR max for 45–60 min. for Three WK	43.7 (10.4) 39.4 (10.1)			
intervention Effect of	means 62.8 years Ten obese women. Aged	Aerobic and resistance exercise	Significant increase in UDI Clavel	(111)		
entect of combined	57.20±2.57 years	for 12 WK. for the aerobic	Significant increase in HDL-C level pre VS post	(111)		
exercise	51.20-2.31 years	Running 1-6 WK HRR 40-55%	50.97±3.86 VS 55.74±2.33			
CACI CISC		7-12 WK HRR 56-75% for 3	23.57-2.00 12 22.71-2.22			
		times weekly for 40 mins.				
		times weekly for 40 mins.				

		For resistance exercise In WK 1–6, 60% of 1RM was used for 8 to 10 RP. In WK 7–12, 70% 1RM was used for 10–12 RP. Each session lasted for 30 MN 3 times a WK.		
Effect of aerobic exercise	21 obese females. Aged 45.6±1.1 years	Aerobic exercise for 12WK (5 times weekly 45 MN sessions/WK)	Significant increase in HDL-C level pre VS post 1.29±0.06 VS 1.34±0.07	(112)
Effect of Endurance Exercise Training	Fifteen moderately obese men. Aged 59±6 years	Endurance exercise intervention for 9 months. exercised included cycling, treadmills, and ski machines 3 times weekly. The duration and intensity of exercise 45 to 60 MN	Significant increase in HDL-C level pre VS post 0.85±0.16 VS 0.91±0.18	(113)
Effect of resistance exercise o	Twenty-six elderly obese females. Aged 70.92±6.60 years	Resistance exercise for 12 WK. using elastic bands, leg raise, shoulder bridge For 40- MN.	Not significant in HDL-C Pre VS post 50.08±8.55 VS 52.23±12.25	(114)
Effect of wand stretching exercise program	obese males and females. Aged 62+4 50/10	Wand stretching exercise program for 15 The exercise is performed in the standing position while holding a 770 g wand. Stretching of upper and lower body or 40 min per day, 5 days per week	Significant increase in HDL-C level pre VS post Ha 55.3±2.57 VS 59.6±2.68	(115)
Effect of low-intensity exercise program	Twenty-two obese males and females. Aged 43.4±2.3 years	low-intensity exercise for 4 MO. 2 weekly sessions of 25 MN	Significant increase in HDL-C level pre VS post 40.9 (1.6) VS 46.2 (1.9)	(116)

RP=repetitions, WK=week, MO=month, MN=minute.

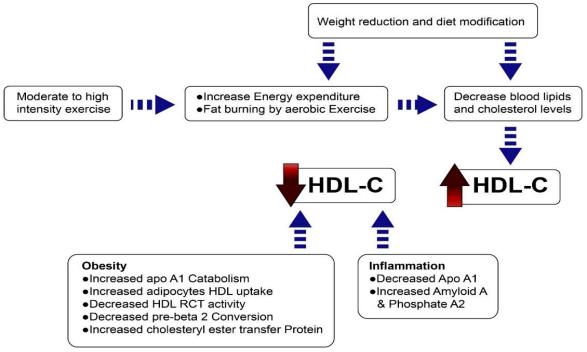


Figure 2. The influence of exercise on HDL-C in obesity and overweight.

# ROLE OF EXERCISE INTENSITY, DURATION, AND FREQUENCY ON HDL-C CONCENTRATION

Daily activity can be an exciting technique to modulate lipid profile and work as a prevention feature, preventing disease risk due to exercise's anti-inflammatory and anti-atherogenic features, or it can be used as a therapeutic intervention. In addition, the ability to monitor multiple training variables, such as mode, intensity, duration, and recovery interval, can be used to optimize the benefits of cardiovascular health promotion exercise and to increase HDL-C (117). There is also evidence that changes in HDL-C levels can be met with more efficacy when following principles of training, like individualization, specificity, progression, and loading. A study performed by Leclerc et al., (1985) (118) suggested a minimum level of habitual exercise duration with an energy expenditure of 5 to 6 METs or more as the criterion for beneficial improvements in HDL-C. Nieman et al., (2002) (119) investigated the effect of aerobic exercise for 12 weeks in 21 obese females aged 45.6±1.1 (5 days/wk, 45-min sessions) and found that a significant increase in HDL-C level pre vs. post 1.29±0.06 vs. 1.34±0.07. Mogharnasi et al., (2014) (120) revealed that engaging in both endurance and resistance exercises three days/week over an eight-week period resulted in a significant elevation of HDL-C levels. A study by Sigal et al., (2007) (121) found that a 22-week combined aerobic and resistance training program significantly increased HDL-C levels in obese patients. Azarbayjani et al., (2014) (122) examined the effect of combined aerobic and resistance training for 16 weeks among obese women, the results showed significant reductions in TC, LDL-C, and TG, while increasing HDL-C levels.

In contrast, the impact of 12 weeks of resistance exercise in 26 elderly obese females aged 70.92±6.60 using elastic bands for 40 min did not change HDL-C levels pre vs. post (50.1±8.6 vs. 52.2±12.3) (123). A recent systematic review and meta-analysis comprising 13 studies with a collective enrolment of 2,454 patients showed that the combination of aerobic exercise and diet did not lead to an elevation in HDL-C levels among obese type 2 diabetes patients (124).

It was reported that plasma HDL-C levels did not improve with endurance running in stable, middle-aged, sedentary men unless they ran at least 10 min/wk for nine months at 70%–85% of the maximum heart rate (125).

On the other hand, the exercise intensity threshold has also been implicated in influencing HDL-C levels. Volunteers who exercised at 75% of the maximum heart rate for 12 weeks had increased HDL-C levels, but no changes were reported in those who exercised at 65% of the maximum heart rate (126). A more remarkable rise in HDL-C values is reported in longer duration low-intensity exercises rather than short duration high intensity was observed when considering the relationship between exercise intensity and duration (127). In addition, the running distance was more strongly related to HDL-C than running velocity, Williams (1998) (128) indicating that exercise duration is a more significant contributor to HDL-C levels than training intensity, recorded that weekly running distance was positively related to HDL-C levels in women. Regardless of confounding variables such as food, alcohol consumption, and body weight, running time is often linked to HDL-C levels. In short, as correlated with body weight, physical exercise often tends to have an independent effect on health-related performance, indicating that sufficient fitness levels will mitigate the detrimental impact of body weight on health outcomes. Thus, to promote the adoption and maintenance of an appropriate amount of physical exercise to regulate body weight and increase the HDL-c level in obese individuals, it is essential to target exercise intervention strategies.

# **CONCLUSION**

Physical inactivity and decreased cardiorespiratory fitness led to the possibility of developing obesity and CVD. Obesity has been related to low levels of HDL-C, which is an independent risk factor for potential CVD. Lifestyle improvements, including regular exercise, should provide a systematic approach to reaching optimum HDL-C levels. Exercise protocols characterized by moderate to high intensity appear promising for sustaining or gradually elevating HDL-C levels. In particular, such protocols with a high-volume approach in conjunction with weight loss and favorable dietary modifications seem to be the optimal strategy for improving HDL-C. Nevertheless, further studies with more participants and other forms of exercise, in type and duration, are needed to better establish the impact of these interventions. In conclusion, regular exercise is a beneficial tool for people with excessive weight seeking to improve their blood lipid profile, enhance the immune system, reduce body mass, and lower cardiovascular disease risk factors. Thus, such favorable alterations can play a vital role in reducing obesity-related illness.

# **APPLICABLE REMARKS**

- Exercise protocols characterized by moderate to high intensity appear promising for sustaining or gradually elevating HDL-C levels.
- High-volume training protocols in conjunction with weight loss and favorable dietary modifications seem to be the optimal strategy for improving HDL-C.
- Further research with larger sample sizes investigating other types of exercise characterized by varied training parameters is needed to better establish the impact of exercise on HDL-C.

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Study concept and design: Sameer Badri Almhanna, Alexios Batrakoulis, Hafeez Abiola Afolabi. Acquisition of data: Sameer Badri Almhanna. Analysis and interpretation of data: Bishir Daku Abubakar, Monira I. Aldhahi. Drafting the manuscript: Sameer Badri Al-mhanna, Bishir Daku Abubakar. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Wan Syaheedah Wan Ghazali, Mahaneem Mohamed. Administrative, technical, and material support: Mehmet Gülü, Pantelis T. Nikolaidis, César Leão. Study supervision: Wan Syaheedah Wan Ghazali, Mahaneem Mohamed, Fatma Hilal Yagin, Bishir Daku Abubakar.

# CONFLICT OF INTEREST

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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