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Progress and perspectives in plant sterol and plant stanol research Peer-reviewed author version

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1. Introduction

A meeting of experts in the field of plant sterols and stanols was convened September 30 -63 October 2, 2016, in Winnipeg, Manitoba, to enable discussion of developments and controversies 64 65 in this active area of functional food science. The first day's sessions were oriented to understanding contemporary topics surrounding metabolic aspects of dietary plant sterol and 66 stanol (plant sterols/stanols) supplementation, while the second day focused on clinical aspects, 67 including disorders pertaining to plant sterols/stanols absorption and physiology. Case reports of 68 families with sitosterolemia were also discussed on the second day. Overall, most of the experts 69 considered that an important role continues to exist for plant sterols/stanols provided as 70 functional foods and supplements as effective cholesterol-lowering agents. It was also apparent 71 from the data presented that an improved understanding exists in the mechanisms through which 72 cholesterol-lowering actions of plant sterols/stanols occurs, compared with the state of the art in 73 2011¹. The purpose of the present report is to identify the high-level points arising from the 74 75 presentations and ensuing discussions that capture recent developments in the field.

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2.

Low Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol (LDL-C) Efficacy of Plant Sterols/Stanols

77 2.1 Factors that Influence the Cholesterol-lowering Efficacy of Plant Sterols/Stanols

Hundreds of studies have investigated a variety of aspects of the clinical efficacy of plant sterols and stanols for lowering LDL-C. Firstly, comparing plant sterols with plant stanols, consistent evidence demonstrates that plant sterols/stanols lower LDL-C levels by 7.5 to 12% with intakes of 1.5 to 3 g/d². At intakes of up to 3 g/d, which is the current recommended range of intake in most countries, equal LDL-C lowering effects occur between plant sterols and plant stanols. A systematic review of 14 studies showed a non-significant weighted mean difference in LDL-C lowering ³ between plant sterols and plant stanols. Moreover, compiling data from 124

studies revealed a clear dose-dependent reduction in LDL-C at plant sterol and stanol intakes up 85 to 4 g/d. In this meta-analysis, at an average plant sterol/stanol intake of 2.1 g/d, an 8.4% 86 reduction of LDL-C was observed, while with an average intake of 3.3 g/d a 12.4% reduction 87 was found ². It appeared that at 2.1 g/day intake, there was about a 2% difference in LDL-C, with 88 plant stanols achieving a more pronounced LDL-C lowering whereas at higher average intakes of 89 2.6 and 3.3 g/d comparable lowering of LDL-C was found¹. These findings persisted in the 90 results of several additional analyses ⁴. The consistency of the food format, either solid/edible or 91 liquid/drinkable, is critical to compare plant sterols/stanols. As described by Ras et al.², in the 92 dose category ≥ 2.0 dose < 2.5 g/d, average 2.1 g/d, fifteen of forty plant sterol studies used liquid 93 food formats, whereas only four of eighteen plant stanol studies used this type of food format. 94 Irrespective of the type of plant sterols/stanols used, liquid foods lowered LDL-C concentrations 95 by, on average, 6.5%, whereas solid foods lowered LDL-C concentrations by, on average, 9.2% 96 ². So, the limited sample size of studies that used the liquid food formats as plant stanol carrier 97 warrants caution in drawing sweeping conclusions. Additional research with head to head plant 98 99 sterol vs. stanol comparisons is needed.

A second factor influencing the cholesterol-lowering efficacy of plant sterols/stanols is 100 food matrix. Liquid versus solid food matrix, the fat content and fat type of the food, supplement 101 102 form (capsules or tablet), use of free or esterified plant sterols/stanols and the fatty acid used for esterification, all exist as matrix effects. In addition, frequency of administration, e.g. single vs. 103 multiple daily intakes, intake with or without a meal, as well as the time of administration during 104 the day, e.g. morning vs. later during the day, are factors contributing to the degree of plant sterol 105 or stanol efficacy. A systematic review of dietary plant sterols/stanols coming from food or 106 tablets showed a similar mean difference in LDL-C lowering⁵. However, in most tablet studies, 107

particle size and dissolution activity data were missing. Tablet characteristics represent a criticalaspect for future reported research using tablets.

Plant sterols/stanols have been examined across multiple food formats and there is no 110 apparent difference in efficacy between fat-based and low or non-fat based foods ^{6,7}. In terms of 111 type of the carrier fat, a recent study found no difference in the relative reduction in LDL-C 112 levels⁸. Higher efficacy of solid (e.g. spreads and margarines) vs liquid food formats (milk and 113 juices) was seen in two meta-analyses ^{2,7}. No differences exist between the efficacy of free vs 114 esterified plant sterols ^{7,9,10}, however, the particle size of plant sterols should be taken into 115 account. Nor does the fatty acid used for esterification have an impact on the cholesterol-116 lowering efficacy of plant sterols/stanols¹¹⁻¹³. However, data from meta-analyses show that 117 intake frequency matters and that once a day seems sub-optimal ^{2,7}. Larger LDL-C lowering 118 119 effects of 9.4% were found when a yogurt drink was consumed together with a lunch meal compared to a 6.0% lowering when consumed before breakfast ¹⁴. Another study with plant 120 stanol-enriched biscuits also found that biscuits consumed with a meal resulted in a greater 121 cholesterol-lowering effect compared to biscuits consumed between meals¹⁵. In 2000, Law 122 found that in the plant sterol and stanol intervention studies published, the absolute decrease in 123 LDL-C increased with age ¹⁶, however, relative changes were comparable across age ranges. 124 The design of clinical studies is also of interest. In the earliest published research with 125 plant sterols, 9 males consumed 5-6 g/d of beta-sitosterol showing mean serum total cholesterol 126 decreases of as great as 15 to 20% over 6 weeks ¹⁷. Another early research, in which 15 males all 127 with previous myocardial infarctions consumed 12 to 18 g/d of beta-sitosterol, also showed large 128 declines in serum total cholesterol¹⁸. Neither of these studies, however, were randomized trials 129 130 and the results focused on changes in total cholesterol. Since these initial publications, important

advances in trial design and analytical methods have occurred. Miettinen et al. conducted a land-131 mark, one year-long study of 153 subjects in a double-blind, randomized control trial and 132 observed a 14.1% decrease in circulating LDL-C with 2.6 g/d of plant stanols compared to the 133 placebo, without a decrease in high density lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C)¹⁹. 134 Overall, summarizing data from meta-analyses from 2000 through 2016, most studies 135 report an LDL-C reduction between 0.3 and 0.4 mmol/L^{2,5,6,8,16,20}. As LDL-C is recognized as an 136 important causal risk factor for coronary heart disease²¹ such a reduction in LDL-C would 137 correspond to a 25% reduction in the risk of heart disease. However, to date, direct evidence on 138 cardiovascular disease (CVD) is not available as studies exploring hard endpoints including 139 CVD events and mortality have not been conducted as they are expensive and challenging like 140

141 all dietary intervention studies to perform in light of long-term compliance.

142 2.2 Diversity of Natural Plant Sterols/Stanols

Experts agree that a minimum of 1 g of plant sterols/stanols consumed per day is necessary 143 to significantly lower circulating LDL-C levels²¹. However, plant sterols in fruits and vegetables 144 naturally range from about 38 to 439 mg/kg fresh weight and 329 to 1780 mg/kg in grains, so to 145 consume 1 g of plant sterols, one would need to eat about 2 kg fruits/vegetables or about 1 kg of 146 grains per day ²². Plant oils contain higher levels of plant sterols/stanols but one would need to 147 eat about 100 g of oil per day to reach a daily intake of 1g. Therefore, fruits/vegetables, grains 148 and plant oils are not practical sources of dietary plant sterols/stanols, so one needs to look at 149 150 other approaches. Tall oil and vegetable oil deodorizer distillates continue to be major feedstocks for plant sterols/stanols destined for functional foods, but other sources are under investigation. 151 For example, corn fiber oil and rice bran oil contain 10-15% and 2% total plant sterols, 152 respectively, but have not been used as a commercial feedstock for plant sterols/stanols²². In 153

plants, most sterols/stanols occur either in the free un-esterified form or esterified to fatty acids. 154 However, plant sterols/stanols also occur as steryl glucosides (SG) and as acylated steryl 155 glucosides (ASG) with the SG esterified to a fatty acid. Unlike sterol esters, SG can inhibit 156 157 cholesterol absorption in their intact form, without being hydrolyzed by digestive enzymes such as pancreatin^{23,24}. A future option therefore could be cloning the gene to produce SG, which may 158 be useful if future clinical studies indicate additional benefits of dietary SG, when compared to 159 common forms of free and esterified plant sterols ²⁵. Inclusion of lecithin as a food ingredient, as 160 another strategy, may contribute significant amounts of plant sterols/stanols to the diet. Lecithin 161 also has been reported to be a valuable organogelator. An organogel is defined as an organic 162 liquid entrapped within a thermo-reversible, three-dimensional gel. Some of the other main 163 organogelators include sitosterol plus oryzanol and plant waxes ^{26,27}. Hence, further research on 164 organogels is warranted. 165

166 3. Effects of Plant Sterols/Stanols Beyond Cholesterol-Lowering

167 3.1 Plant Sterols/Stanols and Immune Function

Nutrition, whether considered as whole diets, specific nutrients, or bioactive 168 phytochemicals, is a powerful modulator of the immune system, regulating defense against 169 pathogens and the chronic inflammatory response that underlies many disease states ²⁸. Previous 170 *in vitro*²⁹, animal²⁹, and human³⁰ studies suggest that plant sterols/stanols affect immune 171 response. Calpe-Berdiel et al. reported that, independent of cholesterol-lowering effects, 2% 172 dietary plant sterol supplementation in apolipoprotein E (apoE) deficient mice increased 173 secretion of the type 1 T helper cells (Th1), interleukin (IL-2) and interferon gamma (IFN) from 174 cultured spleen lymphocytes treated with turpentine ²⁹. An effective biological response to an 175 176 immune challenge involves the balance of specific patterns of pro- and anti-inflammatory

cytokines by Th1 and Th2 helper T cells, respectively ³¹. Nashed et al. demonstrated that in 177 addition to cholesterol lowering, 2% dietary plant sterol supplementation in apoE deficient mice 178 for 14 weeks decreased plasma IL-12 concentrations ³². Brull et al. previously reported evidence 179 180 that physiological concentrations of both sitosterol and sitostanol induce a Th1 shift in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells ³³. More recently, the same group addressed whether these *in* 181 *vitro* plant sterol/stanol-induced changes could be applied clinically to enhance immune function 182 in asthma patients ³⁴. In a randomized, double-blind clinical trial, asthma patients receiving plant 183 stanol enriched soy-based yogurts (4.0 g/d plant stanols) vs control demonstrated higher antibody 184 titers against hepatitis A virus vaccination and reductions in plasma total immunoglobulin E, 185 interleukin (IL)-1 β , and tumor necrosis factor- α concentrations. Changes in plant stanol 186 concentrations correlated positively with changes in antibody titers and the Th1/Th2 cytokine 187 index and negatively with changes in IL13 concentrations. Although these results are promising, 188 189 further studies designed to explore clinical benefits in immune compromised populations are required. 190

191 **3.2** Plant Sterols/Stanols and Triglyceride-Lowering

The rising global obesity epidemic is associated with a characteristic dyslipidemic 192 phenotype that includes elevated serum/plasma cholesterol and triglyceride (TG) concentrations. 193 Previous work suggests that approximately 80% of overweight and obese subjects have serum 194 TG concentrations >150 mg/dL (1.7 mmol/L). Although plant sterols/stanols have a rich history 195 as effective cholesterol-lowering compounds, their benefit in reducing hypertriglyceridemia is a 196 relatively recent discovery. Results of previous randomized controlled studies conducted in 197 normo-triglyceridemic subjects suggest that daily supplementation of plant sterols/stanols (1.6-9 198 g/d) for 1-2 months resulted in a TG-lowering response of 0.8-7%. ³⁵⁻³⁸. However, in subjects 199

with elevated serum TG concentrations (>1.7 mmol/L), randomized control trials results suggest that plant sterol/stanol supplementation (1.8-4 g/d) may lower circulating TG concentrations in the range of 11-28% $^{39.45}$.

203 Previous animal studies indicate that the TG-lowering effects of plant sterols may be related to altered intestinal fat metabolism including increased fecal fatty acid excretion in plant 204 sterol supplemented mice ⁴⁶ and reduced postprandial lymphatic transport of TG (5-7 hours 205 following a meal) in thoracic duct-cannulated Sprague-Dawley rats ⁴⁷. However, clinical studies 206 investigating postprandial fat handling in normo-triglyceridemic subjects failed to support animal 207 data suggesting that plant sterols can interfere with intestinal fat digestion/absorption ^{48,49}. 208 Studies investigating potential alterations in TG absorption or postprandial handling in response 209 to plant sterol/stanol supplementation in subjects with hypertriglyceridemia are needed. 210

Additionally, previous work implies that plant sterol supplementation may reduce hepatic *de novo* lipogenesis in Golden Syrian hamsters ⁵⁰, however, species differences have been noted ⁴⁶. In support of a TG-lowering mechanism of hepatic origin, Plat et al., reported a reduction in large and medium plasma very low density lipoprotein (VLDL) particles in dyslipidemic metabolic syndrome subjects consuming 2 g/d of plant stanols provided in a yogurt ⁴². This was also confirmed in an animal study looking at hepatic VLDL production ⁵¹.

Future research priorities with respect to plant sterols/stanols and TG metabolism include human intervention studies specifically powered to detect TG responses in hypertriglyceridemic subjects, a direct examination of fatty acid absorption, as well as whole body lipogenesis in response to plant sterol/stanol supplementation. Additionally, identification of both metabolic and genetic factors that determine the magnitude of plant sterol/stanol-induced TG reductions, needs more attention.

223 3.3 Plant Sterols/Stanols and the Central Nervous System

Consumption of plant sterol-enriched foods increases circulating plant sterol levels and may enhance accumulation of plant sterols in tissues such as aortic valves, liver, but also in the central nervous system (CNS) ⁵²⁻⁵⁵. In a study by Simonen at al consumption of plant sterols/stanols did not enhance accumulation of plant sterols/stanols in stenotic aortic values ⁵⁶ The mean duration of this intervention was 2.6 ± 0.2 months (range 0.6-5.0 months) ⁵⁶.

229 Although sterols are poorly transported across the blood brain barrier (BBB), sterols with a lower molecular side-chain complexity such as cholesterol and campesterol cross the BBB more 230 easily compared to other plant sterols possessing a more complex side chain (e.g. sitosterol and 231 stigmasterol) ⁵⁷⁻⁵⁹. The exact mechanism by which plant sterols are delivered to the endothelial 232 monolayer of the BBB remains speculative. As ATP-binding cassette sub-family G member 5 233 234 and member 8 (ABCG5/G8) transporter proteins are not expressed within the brain, or at the BBB ⁶⁰, this transporter complex would not be expected to modulate plant sterol transport at the 235 level of the BBB. An HDL-mediated plant sterol transport pathway across the BBB has been 236 suggested given that plant sterols are predominantly transported via HDL in wild type and 237 ABCG5^{-/-} mice, and scavenger receptor class B member 1 (SR-BI), the major HDL receptor, is 238 highly expressed on the apical membrane of endothelial cells of the BBB ⁶¹. Regardless of the 239 uptake mechanism, animal plant sterol feeding and depletion studies suggest that accumulation 240 of plant sterol in the CNS is virtually irreversible ⁵⁸. Although the conversion of cholesterol to 241 24(S)-hydroxycholesterol in neurons accounts for over 60% of cholesterol efflux from the CNS 242 ⁶²⁻⁶⁶, once plant sterols enter the CNS, they are not metabolized by the CYP46A1 gene into 243 24(S) hydroxysterol ^{58,67}, likely due to steric hindrance with respect to the ethyl or methyl group 244 245 at the C24 position.

Although quantitative data on spatio-temporal accumulation of plant sterols in the human 246 CNS are limited, the total content of plant sterols in the CNS of non-neurologic elderly is 247 estimated at ~75 ng/mg dry tissue, representing about 0.5% of the total amount of sterols in the 248 CNS ⁵⁴. Pyramidal cells of the cortex and Purkinje cells of the cerebellum have a cholesterol 249 turnover rate of more than $20\%/day^{63,68-70}$. The high flux of sterols in these metabolically active 250 cells allow fast incorporation of plant sterols in detergent-resistant parts of neuronal membranes, 251 thereby actively modulating CNS cholesterol metabolism ^{58,71}. A mechanistic study from Burg et 252 al. shows that cleavages of the amyloid precursor protein were beneficially modified by 253 incorporation of plant sterols in neuronal membranes ⁷². To date, it is largely unclear whether 254 accumulation of plant sterols in the CNS has functional implications. Long-term exposure to 255 increased levels of plant sterols in transgenic mice did not lead to an overt cognitive phenotype 256 with respect to memory or anxiety ⁷³. Similarly, a randomized double-blind placebo-controlled 257 258 dietary intervention study showed no negative influence of long-term plant sterol or stanol consumption on neurocognitive function or mood in hypercholesterolemic patients receiving 259 statin treatment ⁷⁴. On the other hand, previous studies found that plant extracts have anxiolytic-260 like effects after intraperitoneal administration in mice ^{75,76}. Together, data suggest that plant 261 sterols do not enhance cognition in normo-cognitive settings. However, accumulating *in vitro* 262 and *in vivo* findings support a therapeutic potential for plant sterols in a disease-related cognitive 263 impairment. 264

265 4. LDL- Responsiveness to Plant Sterols/Stanols

4.1 Increased Cholesterol Excretion as an Alternative Measure of Plant Sterols/Stanols
 Efficacy

Reduction of cholesterol absorption by plant sterols/stanols is clearly important in their 268 LDL-C lowering action, but it may not be the only mechanism. Plant sterols/stanols also may 269 affect reverse cholesterol transport and whole body cholesterol metabolism⁷⁷, which are 270 271 emerging areas of interest in cardiovascular risk analysis studies. Plant sterols/stanols exert their principal effects most likely through disruption of the intraluminal solubilization step ⁷⁸. In a 272 controlled feeding study with 20 subjects, in which dietary nutrient and plant sterols intakes were 273 274 measured and carefully controlled, fecal cholesterol excretion rose by 36% as the diet plant sterol content was increased from 59 mg/day to 459 mg/day and by a total of 74% as the plant sterol 275 dose was further increased to 2059 mg/day ⁷⁹. In contrast, LDL-C levels were reduced by 5% and 276 9%, respectively, with each stepwise increase in dose. Additionally, in many studies, plant sterol 277 consumption reduces cholesterol absorption efficiency by 30-45% ⁸⁰⁻⁸⁴, yet circulating levels are 278 279 not affected to such a large extent. Taken together, these data emphasize that the effects of plant sterols/stanols on whole body cholesterol metabolism are broad and not limited to only LDL-C 280 lowering, but that there should be additional pathways involved. More studies demonstrating 281 enhanced reverse cholesterol transport and reductions in hard cardiovascular outcomes following 282 plant sterol/stanol feeding should improve the ability to make public health recommendations. 283 To successfully achieve this goal better biomarkers to assess plant sterol/stanol consumption 284 precisely are needed. Better biomarkers are needed as measuring plasma plant sterols/stanols 285 alone does not allow a precise estimation of dietary intake because of the large between-286 287 individual variation in non-cholesterol sterol handling. Validation of biomarkers of dietary plant sterol/stanol consumption on controlled diets where plant sterol intake is precisely known 288 suggests that a better indicator is the ratio of plasma campesterol (the most avidly absorbed plant 289

sterols), to 5 α -cholestanol (an endogenous cholesterol metabolite). This ratio has been found to be significantly and directly associated with dietary plant sterol intake (R² = 0.79, P < 0.0001⁸⁵).

292 4.2 The Genetics Behind Plant Sterols/Stanols Responsiveness

293 Several clinical studies have investigated the genetics behind plant stanol responsiveness. Effects of small amounts of sitosterol, sitostanol and sitostanol esters (< 1 g/day of free sterols) 294 dissolved in rapeseed oil (RSO) were studied on serum lipids and cholesterol metabolism in 295 296 patients with primary hypercholesterolemia, but with different apolipoprotein E (apo E) phenotypes on a RSO diet. LDL-C reduction was -8% in subjects with apo E epsilon 4 allele and 297 insignificant in those with apo E3/3 phenotype⁸⁶. The relationship of genetic variation in genes 298 encoding apolipoprotein A-IV, scavenger receptor BI, HMG-CoA reductase, CETP and apo E 299 with the response of cholesterol metabolism to plant stanol ester consumption was examined by 300 Plat and Mensink⁸⁷. This group examined 112 non-hypercholesterolemic subjects, 70 of whom 301 302 consumed 3.8-4.0 g plant stanols in the form of plant stanol esters per day for 8 weeks. No significant differences between the polymorphisms and dietary responsiveness to plant stanol 303 304 consumption was found, thus indicating it is unlikely that one of the single polymorphisms analyzed in this study was a major factor in explaining the variation in serum LDL-C 305 responses⁸⁷. However, in another study in which changes in serum plant sterol concentrations 306 with ABCG5/G8 polymorphisms were investigated after consumption of plant stanol esters, 307 cholesterol-standardized serum campesterol and sitosterol concentrations were significantly 308 associated with the ABCG8 T400K genotype, as were changes in serum plant sterol 309 concentrations after consumption of plant stanols. However, despite the shifts in circulating plant 310 sterol levels, no associations with serum LDL-C levels were found⁸⁸. Gylling et al. also 311 312 determined whether common polymorphisms of ABCG5 and ABCG8 regulate the responses of

313 serum cholesterol levels and vascular function during long-term inhibition of cholesterol absorption. Here, 282 subjects completed a 1-year study consuming plant stanol or sterol esters 314 (2 g/d plant stanols or sterols) or a control spread. Neither serum cholesterol lowering, nor 315 316 absorption inhibition, were found to be associated with polymorphic sites of ABCG5 and ABCG8. However, regulation of baseline cholesterol metabolism and vascular function and 317 structure, and intima media thickness (IMT) progression during 1 y seemed to share some 318 319 common polymorphic sites of these genes, suggesting a gene-regulated interaction between cholesterol metabolism and vascular function and structure⁸⁹. Taken together, although 320 provocative data exist suggesting that genetic architecture influences the response of sterol 321 322 metabolism to plant sterols/stanols, such mechanisms need further study. Clinical trials, as shown in Figure 1, reveal that substantial inter-individual variability in 323 LDL-C lowering exists in response to plant sterols consumption ^{40,90}, with responses ranging 324 325 from better than average to non-response or even adverse-responsiveness (please include in citations: Weingärtner O, Bogeski I, Kummerow C et al. Plant sterol ester diet supplementation 326 increases serum plant sterols and markers of cholesterol synthesis, but has no effect on total 327 cholesterol levels. J. Steroid Biochem Mol Biol. 2017; 169: 219-225.)^{1,91}. Distinct inter-328 individual responses to plant sterol consumption have been shown to be reproducible in 329 individuals across repeated plant sterols interventions ⁹², indicating other potential determinants 330 of responsiveness. Factors responsible for this variability have been investigated. One 331 332 explanation has focused on individual differences in cholesterol synthesis rates as determined by the circulating lathosterol-to-cholesterol ratio. This was shown to be a biomarker predicting an 333 individual's response of cholesterol biomarkers to plant sterol intervention, as reported by 334 Mackay et al ⁹³. Response of cholesterol synthesis and plasma cholesterol levels were found 335

subsequently to be influenced by SNP rs38038607 in CYP7A1- and APOE polymorphisms ⁹⁴. In 336 particular, CYP7A1-rs3808607 and APOE isoforms were correlated with the extent of reduction 337 in circulating LDL-C levels in response to plant sterol consumption. Thus, these could serve as 338 339 potential predictive genetic markers to identify individuals who would derive maximum LDL-C lowering with plant sterol consumption ⁹⁴. Mackay's study confirmed the results of De Castro-340 Oros et al ⁹⁵, which assessed whether a common A to C substitution at position –204 of the 341 promoter of CYP7A1-rs3808607 was related to variability in plasma sterol responses to plant 342 sterol supplementation. They found that compared with carriers of the A allele, those bearing the 343 -204C variant had a significantly higher adjusted mean reductions in total cholesterol and 344 increases in lathosterol-to-cholesterol ratios 95. 345

To investigate if other evidence exists in support of genetic mechanisms explaining inter-346 individual differences in responsiveness to dietary bioactives, Abdullah et al., reviewed the 347 348 current knowledge on cholesterol-related genetic variations in association with responses of fasting circulating cholesterol levels in epidemiological and intervention studies ⁹⁶. The reviewed 349 350 studies indicate that carriers of certain genotypes within cholesterol-related genes respond better to a given dietary intervention than others, and the clinical effects of this responsiveness seem to 351 be significant for most cases reported ⁹⁶. For example, a 3.9-fold greater reduction in serum 352 LDL-C levels was observed in hypercholesterolemic men carrying the SNP rs4148217-A, but 353 not the other allele, in the ABCG8 gene when intake of plant sterols was 2.0 g/d for 4 weeks ⁹⁷. 354 These findings could represent a first step in evaluating the use of common genetic variations to 355 predict an individual's response to plant sterol/stanol intervention, which would potentially 356 enhance plant sterol/stanol efficacy in reducing CVD risk factors. Taken together, it has been 357 358 considered that a tipping point has been reached in understanding that genomic architecture plays

a role in modulating the degree of responsiveness of biomarkers to dietary intervention. A number of cholesterol-related gene-diet interactions have been identified, suggesting that such interactions may represent a further advance for meaningful conclusions that may eventually lead to genetically targeted dietary recommendations in the era of personalized nutrition ⁹⁶.

363 5. Challenges in Measuring Plant Sterols/Stanols in Biological Samples and their Use as
 364 Surrogate Markers of Cholesterol Metabolism:

365 5.1 Measuring Plant Sterols/Stanols

Plant sterols/stanols fall broadly into the category of non-cholesterol sterols (NCS), which 366 encompasses a category of biological non-cholesterol and non-steroid hormone sterols. NCS 367 share the steroid skeleton with cholesterol, and are comprised of precursors in the cholesterol 368 synthesis pathway, sterols/stanols of plant origin, and certain cholesterol derivatives ⁹⁸. Serum or 369 370 plasma concentrations of the cholesterol precursors, such as lanosterol, lathosterol, and desmosterol, are widely used as surrogate markers of endogenous cholesterol synthesis ^{99,100}. 371 Reciprocally, plant sterols, such as campesterol or situaterol and the cholesterol metabolite 5α -372 cholestanol, are used as markers of cholesterol absorption ¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³. 373

These NCS are often so similar in structure to cholesterol that enzymatic methods to 374 quantify cholesterol will actually measure the NCS species as well, artificially inflating 375 cholesterol concentrations ¹⁰⁴. Conceptually, very little in the quantitation of NCS has changed 376 since they were measured by Bhattacharyya and Connor in the first sitosterolemic children 377 identified ¹⁰⁵. The various species of sterols must be separated chromatographically, often by gas 378 or liquid chromatography and then measured, which typically either uses flame ionization 379 detection or mass spectrometry ¹⁰⁶. Even with careful chromatographic techniques it can still be 380 381 impossible to separate certain species of sterols; therefore, separation of these species must occur

during the detection using mass spectrometry with mass selective detection ¹⁰⁷. While NCS may 382 share a similar chemical structure as cholesterol, they are found in biological fluids in 383 concentrations which are profoundly different, ranging from mmol/L for cholesterol, umol/L for 384 385 plant sterols/stanols and cholesterol precursors, down to pmol/L or lower for their oxidized sterol derivatives ¹⁰⁸. The large range of concentrations in NCS renders it difficult to capture all using a 386 single analytical method, which have contributed to the numerous methods which have been 387 specifically developed for measuring NCS¹⁰⁶. These methods for NCS measurement often vary 388 in chromatographic separation techniques and detection methods ¹⁰⁷. This variability in 389 methodology used to measure NCS is a substantial challenge to their use as surrogate measures 390 of cholesterol metabolism because it hinders the ability to compare NCS values reported from 391 different laboratories. In fact, measurement methodology has been identified as the greatest 392 contributor to variability in plant sterols concentrations reported in the scientific literature ¹⁰⁹. 393 This variability has led to an attempt by researchers in the field to work towards harmonizing 394 NCS measurement and to conduct ring-trials to measure the amount of variability across various 395 laboratories ¹⁰⁶. In summary, comparing plant sterol or stanol concentrations reported from 396 different laboratories must be done with caution, realizing that methodology may be the biggest 397 single contributor to differences, rather than diet or other biological mechanisms. 398

399 5.2 Plant Sterols/stanols as Surrogate Markers of Cholesterol Metabolism

As mentioned above, circulating plant sterol/stanol levels are often used as surrogate measures of cholesterol absorption ¹⁰². Compared to direct and indirect methods of measuring whole body cholesterol absorption or synthesis, measuring NCS is faster, affordable and less invasive. However, occasions occur when using plant sterols or stanols as surrogate markers of cholesterol absorption is not appropriate and may not accurately represent intestinal sterol

absorption even in the absence of supplemental intake of plant sterols/stanols. When intakes of 405 plant sterols or stanols are changing, such as in a trial involving plant sterol/stanol 406 supplementation, use of concentrations of those compounds as surrogate measures of cholesterol 407 absorption is invalidated ¹¹⁰. When plant sterols, or other NCS, are to be used as surrogate 408 measures, they should be expressed as ratios to total cholesterol, which standardizes for 409 variations in sterol transport protein concentrations¹⁰¹ and show even stronger correlations with 410 cholesterol absorption and synthesis. Plant sterols and other NCS, as surrogates for cholesterol 411 absorption, have been associated with CVD risk ^{111,112}. NCS have also been used to differentiate 412 between different types of dyslipidemias ^{98,113,114}; predict response to statin therapy ^{115,116}; and 413 could be used to guide lipid lowering therapy ^{117,118, 190;} (please include this citation). Beyond their use 414 individually as markers of cholesterol absorption or synthesis, the ratios of cholesterol synthesis 415 416 to cholesterol absorption surrogates, such as the lathosterol to campesterol ratio, are also utilized 417 to assess the overall balance of cholesterol metabolism, with higher values representing more synthesis and lower absorption ¹¹⁹. However, due to the inherent nature of ratios, use of the ratio 418 419 of synthesis to absorption markers does not take into account the absolute values of each marker. This hypothetically means that an individual with the unlikely scenario of high concentrations of 420 421 both synthesis and absorption surrogate markers could have the same ratio as someone with very low values, which likely does not fit well with the actual impact of these different values on 422 biology. To overcome this limitation it is possible to arrange the synthesis and absorption 423 markers in a Cartesian plane and relate an outcome in a third plain as was done by Qi et al.¹²⁰. A 424 new approach of using both absorption and synthesis markers together as a method of measuring 425 cholesterol metabolism was proposed (Figure 2). By taking the length of the hypotenuse of a 426

triangle created by graphing cholesterol absorption surrogates against synthesis surrogates, a
potential overall measure of cholesterol metabolism is obtained.

Due to their ease of use, measuring plant sterol or other NCS, as surrogates of cholesterol metabolism is not likely to become less common. Improvements and standardization in the measurements of NCS and how they are used as surrogate markers of cholesterol metabolism will further improve their utility.

433 6. Plant Sterols/Stanols as Adjuncts with Diet and Drugs

434 6.1 Lipid Lowering Drugs and Plant Sterols: Ezetimibe

Ezetimibe (Zetia, Ezetrol) is a selective cholesterol absorption inhibitor that potently 435 inhibits the uptake and absorption of biliary and dietary cholesterol and non-cholesterol sterols 436 from the intestinal lumen without affecting the absorption of other nutrients. Clinically, 437 ezetimibe reduced fractional cholesterol absorption and this was accompanied by an LDL-C 438 lowering of 20.4% in 18 patients with mild hypercholesterolemia ¹²¹. Ezetimibe alone reduces 439 plasma total cholesterol and LDL-C levels by 18% in patients with primary hypercholesterolemia, 440 and when ezetimibe was added to on-going statin treatment, an additional 25% reduction in 441 LDL-C levels occurred ¹²². On the other hand, ezetimibe also blocks plant sterol absorption. In 442 clinical studies, after just two weeks of ezetimibe at 10 mg/day, plasma sitosterol and 443 campesterol were reduced 41% to 48%, respectively. Ezetimibe also reduced serum plant sterol 444 levels by about 50% in combination with statins (simvastatin and atorvastatin)¹²³. 445 446 Sitosterolemia is caused by mutations in the ATP-binding cassette (ABC) co-transporters, either ABCG5 and/or ABCG8, leading to an accumulation of plant sterols in plasma and tissues 447 which, in turn, results in accelerated cardiovascular disease, anemia, platelet defects, and other 448 449 disorders. Case studies have examined ezetimibe treatment for sitosterolemia, and in some

instances ezetimibe treatment caused xanthomas to resolve, platelet counts to increase, and
cardiovascular symptoms to improve ¹²⁴. Ezetimibe reduced the serum levels of the atherogenic
sterols campesterol and sitosterol in 37 patients with sitosterolemia ¹²⁵.

The intestinal transporter for cholesterol and plant sterols is Niemann Pick C1 Like 1 (NPC1L1) ¹²⁶. Ezetimibe works by inhibiting the NCP1L1 mediated uptake of sterols into the enterocyte and it also blocks the re-uptake of sterols from the bile back into hepatocytes in humans ¹²⁷. This blockage results in enhanced excretion of fecal neutral sterols and a reduction of both plasma and tissue cholesterol and plant sterol levels.

Pre-clinically, ezetimibe treatment or the lack of NPC1L1 in mice has been shown to 458 reduce atherosclerosis ¹²⁸. The effect of NPC1L1 mutations on human atherosclerosis was not 459 known. Sekar Kathiresan et al led a study where they exon-sequenced >22,000 individuals and 460 found 15 inactivating mutations of NPC1L1. Then they screened for these inactivating NPC1L1 461 mutations in >100,000 individuals and looked at their CVD risk and found that being 462 heterozygous for an inactivating mutation of NPC1L1 was associated with an average plasma 463 LDL-C reduction of about 12 mg/dl and a fall in the risk of coronary heart disease (CHD) by 464 53% ¹²⁹. Since these are heterozygotes, this is a lifelong 50% inhibition of NPC1L1. So, whether 465 the use of ezetimibe to inhibit NPC1L1 will cause a similar large decrease in CHD in a hard 466 outcomes trial needed to be addressed. 467

The IMPROVE-IT was an acute coronary syndrome (ACS) secondary prevention outcomes trial in over 18,000 patients ¹³⁰. The objective was to reduce LDL-C levels to either 70 mg/dl with simvastatin alone or to 55 mg/dl by adding ezetimibe, seeing if even lower than the 70 mg/dl LDL-C guideline recommendations is better with the combination. The baseline LDL-C levels were 94 mg/dl at the start of this trial. In contrast to previous data ¹³¹, there was about a

16 or 17 mg/dl difference between the treatment groups; with simvastatin alone, LDL-C levels 473 were 70 vs 53 mg/dl with the combination with ezetimibe. There was a significant reduction of 474 6.4% treatment effect on top of simvastatin with ezetimibe for the primary CVD outcome 475 endpoints in the intention to treat population ¹²⁴. In another study, the addition of plant sterols to 476 ezetimibe improved the effects of ezetimibe on whole-body cholesterol metabolism and plasma 477 LDL-C as shown by Lin et al, ¹³². Recently, Gomez et al., reported that the combination of plant 478 sterols and ezetimibe was associated with lower LDL-C levels ¹³³. In that regard, long-term use 479 of sitostanol-ester margarine as a substitute for part of normal dietary fat had a favorable effect in 480 subjects with mild hypercholesterolemia in lowering serum total cholesterol and LDL-C levels 481 ¹⁹. Therefore, this indicates that LDL-C lowering with ezetimibe is probably causing the 482 reduction in CV events. These data help emphasize the primacy of LDL-C lowering as 'a 483 strategy to prevent coronary heart disease' ¹³⁴. 484

A question still remains whether it is just LDL-C reduction with ezetimibe that lowers the CV event rates. Ezetimibe also blocks plant sterol absorption, and possibly oxysterol absorption, which may add to the anti-atherosclerotic activity of ezetimibe, but this requires further investigation.

489 6.2 Guidelines for Lowering Serum Cholesterol Levels: Is There a Place for Plant 490 Sterols/Stanols?

There has been a long-standing argument over the "statin hypothesis" - the idea that statins have a unique efficacy in atherosclerotic vascular disease not shared by other lipid-modifying agents, and that reductions in LDL-C levels are not the only basis for the beneficial effect of statins. The efficacy and safety of statin therapy treatment was explored in a prospective metaanalysis of data from over 90,000 individuals in 14 randomized trials. The study concluded that,

on average, a reduction of 1 mmol per liter (38.7 mg/dl) in LDL-C levels by statin therapy yields
a consistent 23% reduction in the risk of major coronary events over 5 years ¹³⁵.

In this regard, the recent development of PCSK9 inhibitors is also of note. These agents reduce LDL-receptor degradation, thereby enhancing LDL clearance from the circulation, and reducing LDL-C levels by as much as 60% ¹³⁶. Definitive clinical outcomes trials with these agents are ongoing. Sabatine et al found that PCSK9 inhibition with the PCSK9 inhibitor Evolocumab on a background of statin therapy reduced LDL-C levels and the risk of CVD ¹³⁷.

503 6.3 Plant Sterols and Other Dietary Agents

Like fiber, plant sterol intake appears to have contracted substantially in modern diets. It has been estimated from studies of early ancestral diets that one would have consumed ~ 1 g/d of plant sterols 4-5 million years ago when splitting genealogically from the gorillas and chimpanzees.

When this early diet was recreated and fed to healthy volunteers, major increases in fecal 508 output (1 kg/d) and marked reductions in circulating LDL-C levels of 30-35% were observed ¹³⁸. 509 This fall in cholesterol was related to increased intakes of fiber, vegetables, vegetable proteins, 510 nuts and plant sterols in the diet that was very low in saturated fat with zero cholesterol content. 511 It can be reasoned that the lack of these components in the current diet, together with the 512 consumption of significant amounts of animal products, high in saturated fat, cholesterol and 513 animal proteins, was responsible for the current elevated LDL-C levels seen in humans 514 515 consuming Western-type diets. This current intake has resulted in the need to take statin drugs instead of employing diet modification to improve cholesterol levels. 516

517 The key elements of the ancestral dishes, which were individually been approved by FDA 518 for cholesterol reduction claims, were taken to create a new diet, which required consumption of

a very large volume of plant foods. Elements included vegetable protein (soy); nuts; viscous 519 fibers (oats, barley and psyllium); and plant sterols, incorporated in standardized amounts into a 520 single diet termed the "dietary portfolio". This portfolio diet lowered LDL-C and CRP levels by 521 20-35% in hyperlipidemic participants on metabolic diets ¹³⁹. In an ad libitum study over 6 522 month on a self-selected dietary portfolio in a cross-Canada multicenter trial of 335 participants, 523 LDL-C levels were decreased by 13-14%, and by~20% on the West Coast ¹⁴⁰! It is believed that 524 525 plant sterols were a major reason for the dietary portfolio's LDL-C reducing effect, since a 10-15% reduction can be seen with 2 g/d intake and isotopic studies have shown that both plant 526 stanols and sterols reduce cholesterol absorption comparably. Plant sterols therefore appear to 527 have a very useful role in maintaining healthy cholesterol levels. 528

529 7. Plant Sterols/Stanols and Cardiovascular Disease (CVD) Risk

530 7.1 Vascular Function Effects of Plant Sterols/Stanols

The LDL-C lowering effect of plant sterols/stanols is well established ^{2,7,84}. Nevertheless, 531 direct evidence linking the intake of foods with added plant sterols/stanols and CVD risk is still 532 lacking. As mentioned earlier, CVD endpoint trials with plant sterols/stanols are prohibitively 533 expensive and challenging to perform. Depending on the length of follow-up and the annual risk 534 level, 36,000 to 636,000 subjects would be needed to have enough power to show a LDL-C 535 lowering benefit. A typical CVD endpoint study was deemed therefore not feasible for foods 536 with added plant sterols/stanols due to the large sample size required, compliance aspects and 537 538 costs. Therefore, surrogate endpoint markers will remain to serve as an alternative to study the direct effect of plant sterols/stanols on CVD risk. As atherosclerosis progression occurs from an 539 early age onwards, the function and structure of the arterial wall is influenced. Endothelial 540

function may be impaired, arteries may become stiffer, and thickness of the arterial wall mayincrease and low-grade inflammation may occur.

543

7.2 Plant Sterols/stanols and Endothelial Function

Several types of evidence support a link between LDL-C and endothelial function,
including data from patients with familial hypercholesterolemia ¹⁴¹, LDL apheresis ¹⁴² and other
LDL-C lowering treatments such as statins ^{143,144} and ezetimibe ^{145,146}. Furthermore, a significant
inverse association between flow-mediated dilation (FMD) and CVD risk seems to exist, so
people with a higher FMD possess a lower risk of CVD ¹⁴⁷.

After consumption of plant sterols their concentrations in plasma and tissues increases. 549 This raises the question of whether this may affect surrogate endpoint markers in a beneficial or 550 perhaps detrimental way. The change in plasma plant sterols after an intake of plant sterol-551 enriched foods was investigated in a meta-analysis including 41 studies ¹⁴⁸. On an absolute scale, 552 553 sitosterol and campesterol were increased modestly, on average by 2.2-5.0 µmol/L especially compared to the average change in LDL-C (-0.33 mmol/L). However, on a relative scale, 554 increases were considerable, on average 31-37%. Plasma plant sterol concentrations have been 555 linked to increased CVD risk in homozygous sitosterolemic patients ¹⁴⁹ and in some, but not all, 556 observational studies ¹⁵⁰. However, there are also controversial findings as demonstrated by the 557 results of another study in five sitosterolemic subjects. In spite of massive hypercholesterolemia 558 and high plant sterol/stanol levels, none of these individuals had symptoms of CVD or positive 559 clinical markers of atherosclerosis ¹⁵¹. It should be realized that intake of foods with added plant 560 stanols, the saturated form of plant sterols, increases plasma plant stanol concentrations despite a 561 lower absorption rate compared to plant sterols. A randomized trial with a 4-week intake of 3 g/d 562 of plant stanols showed increased plasma plant stanol concentrations by about 400% ¹⁵². On the 563

absolute scale, however, these increases were minor, being far less than those in plant sterolswhen their intake was increased.

The effects of plant sterols/stanols on endothelial function have been investigated in 566 567 several animal and human studies. In wild-type mice fed for 4 weeks extremely high doses of plant sterol esters (2%; ~100 times higher than the 2 g/d recommended dose for lowering LDL-C 568 in humans), intake of plant sterols increased plasma plant sterol concentrations and impaired 569 570 endothelial-dependent vasodilatation, as measured by vascular relaxation of aortic rings ⁵³. Furthermore, cerebral lesion size increased after plant sterol intake. However, plasma cholesterol 571 concentrations in these mice were not affected, questioning whether these wild-type mice were 572 suitable for studying the effects of plant sterols. In another animal study with an atherogenic 573 apoE-/- mouse model, plant sterol and plant stanol supplementation reduced serum cholesterol 574 and increased plant sterol and plant stanol concentrations, as expected ¹⁵³. Elevated levels of 575 plant sterols/stanols were associated with impaired endothelial function. Atherosclerotic lesion 576 retardation was more pronounced in response to plant stanol compared to plant sterol 577 supplementations, however, this effect was not significant ¹⁵³. Diet supplementation with plant 578 sterols and ezetimibe, alone and in combination reduced the atherosclerotic lesion compared to 579 control, however the reduction was significantly greater in the ezetimibe versus the plant sterol 580 fed group ⁵³. Contrary to the findings in mice studies, 6-week intake of sitosterol and 581 stigmasterol in hamsters improved aortic functioning as measured by acetylcholine induced 582 endothelium-dependent relaxation¹⁵⁴. Taken together, animal studies reporting effects of plant 583 sterol/stanol intake on endothelial function show conflicting results. 584

585 A few human studies have investigated the effect of plant sterol/stanol intake on FMD as 586 summarized by Plat et al. ¹. Despite significant reductions in LDL-C in these studies, none

showed statistically significant effects on FMD. However, when the effects seen in five of these 587 studies were combined, an indication for a modest improvement in FMD was found ^{89,131,155-157}. 588 Recently, the large randomized trial focusing on vascular function effects of plant sterols 589 590 (the INVEST study), investigated the influence of plant sterol intake on FMD as a primary outcome measure together with other vascular function markers ¹⁵⁸. The study included 240 591 subjects who consumed margarine enriched with 3 g/d of plant sterols for 3 months. The 592 593 INVEST study showed that plant sterol intake had a neutral effect on endothelial function based on a placebo-corrected change in FMD of 0.01 percentage points (95% CI: 20.73, 0.75). Also, 594 arterial stiffness as measured by pulse wave velocity and augmentation index, was not affected. 595 This neutral effect supports neither a worsened nor an improved vascular function with plant 596 sterol intake. It should be realized that the LDL-C lowering effect observed in this study was 597 only -0.26 mmol/L (95% CI: -0.46; -0.07) or -7% compared to control, which is smaller than 598 anticipated for a plant sterol intake of 3 g/d. In general, it is estimated that 3 g/d of plant sterols 599 would lower LDL-C by $\sim 12\%$. 600

In the INVEST study, plasma plant sterol concentrations were significantly increased in the plant sterol group as expected, but these increases were not related to changes in FMD (**Figure 3** permission to re-use required). On the other hand, although not very strong, a larger reduction in LDL-C was significantly correlated with an increase in FMD, suggesting that lowering LDL-C could lead to improvements in endothelial function.

Also, several plasma biomarkers of endothelial dysfunction, E-selectin, soluble vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (sVCAM-1), and soluble intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (sICAM-1), measured as well in the INVEST study, were not significantly affected by plant sterol intake compared to control ¹⁵⁹.

Taken together, plant sterols/stanols have not been shown to consistently improve 610 endothelial function, despite significant reductions in LDL-C. This could be because the plant 611 sterols/stanols doses used were below the threshold needed to trigger measurable differences in 612 613 endothelial function. Furthermore, populations used in studies so far may have been too healthy. Improvements in endothelial function may only be detectable in individuals with impaired 614 endothelial function. Furthermore, a longer intervention period is perhaps needed to detect 615 effects on the endothelium. Importantly, the evidence shows that plant sterol intake does not 616 weaken endothelial function, despite increases in plasma plant sterol concentrations. 617

618

7.3 Plant Sterols/Stanols and Other Surrogate Markers of Arterial Health

Recently a few other studies with plant sterols/stanols investigated surrogate endpoint 619 markers including arterial stiffness, intima media thickness (IMT) and inflammation. In a 620 621 randomized controlled study by Gylling et al., the effects of plant stanols on arterial stiffness were investigated 160 . The study found that lowering LDL-C by ~10% with plant stanol esters 622 reduced arterial stiffness in small arteries with some indications of a beneficial effect on that in 623 large arteries only in men. It should, however, be noted that these effects were mainly driven by 624 increases in arterial stiffness in the control group. Endothelial function, as measured by reactive 625 hyperemia index (RHI), was overall not improved with plant stanol intervention. However, 626 changes in LDL-C correlated significantly with changes in RHI in the plant stanol group, which 627 is consistent with the findings of the INVEST study. 628

In an observational study with Old Order Amish people who are prone to be heterozygous for sitosterolemia ¹⁶¹, carriers of a specific *ABCG8* variant had higher plasma sitosterol concentrations compared to non-carriers of this variant, whereas LDL-C levels did not differ between groups. Compared to non-carriers, carriers had decreased carotid intima-media wall

thickness, suggesting less plaque formation in their vessels with increased plasma plant sterolconcentrations.

Inflammation is also involved in the process of atherosclerosis. Recently, a meta-analysis
was published that summarized the effects of plant sterol/stanol intake on inflammation markers,
and particularly on C-reactive protein (CRP) ¹⁶². A beneficial effect on this marker was not seen.
Evidence regarding effects on surrogate markers of CVD risk, such as endothelial function,
is still inconclusive. Noteworthy, no worsening of endothelial function with elevated plasma
plant sterols concentrations has been shown.

641 7.4 Personalizing and Optimizing Lipid-Lowering Therapies

Statins reduce cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in primary and secondary prevention 642 trials ¹⁶³⁻¹⁶⁵. However, statin efficacy shows individual differences which can be because of the 643 cholesterol metabolism variations between individuals ^{135,166,167,168}, with some subjects 644 demonstrating a genetically determined rather high cholesterol synthesis and others a higher 645 cholesterol absorption ¹¹⁸. In subjects with high cholesterol synthesis, statins are potent 646 cholesterol lowering drugs, but in those who are high absorbers, statins are less effective than 647 cholesterol absorption inhibitors in lowering LDL-C¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷¹. However, some studies have found 648 controversial results. For instance, Lakoski et al reported that combination therapy using 649 ezetimibe and simvastatin lowered LDL-C by 15% or greater in more than 95% of participants 650 ¹⁷². Moreover, inhibition of cholesterol synthesis results in increased cholesterol absorption, 651 with increased uptake of plant sterols ¹⁷³. As a consequence, in patients with high cholesterol 652 absorption, stating have been shown to increase cardiovascular event rates ¹⁷⁴. These findings 653 suggest that individuals with low synthesis and high absorption of cholesterol should be treated 654 with combined cholesterol lowering using a statin and a cholesterol absorption inhibitor ¹⁷⁴. 655

Genetic studies have shown that life-long lower cholesterol levels are associated with 656 lower CVD risk ¹⁷⁵. In individuals with inactivating mutations of NPC1L1 a minor cholesterol 657 lowering of 12 mg/dl reduced cardiovascular risk dramatically by 53% ¹²⁹. Moreover, it has been 658 659 shown for the sterol transporter gene ABCG8 that plant sterol levels are associated with cardiovascular risk in the general population ^{112,149}. Other studies have demonstrated that high 660 cholesterol absorption is associated with coronary artery disease severity ¹⁷⁶, and high cholesterol 661 absorption is associated with higher cardiovascular mortality ¹⁷⁷. Interestingly, the ratio of 662 cholesterol absorption to cholesterol synthesis has been shown to be associated with coronary 663 artery disease severity ¹⁷⁸. These results have been verified in the Framingham-offspring-study, 664 with the ratio of cholesterol absorption to cholesterol synthesis being the best lipid parameter to 665 predict cardiovascular risk ¹⁷⁹. New studies using intravascular optical devices show the same 666 667 direction. In patients with stable and unstable angina pectoris, those with high cholesterol absorption markers and low cholesterol synthesis demonstrated thinner fibrous caps and larger 668 lipid cores ¹⁸⁰. In patients with coronary heart disease, the atorvastatin treatment effect on lesion 669 progression was assessed with intravascular ultrasound. In those patients not responding 670 adequately to statin treatment, atherosclerotic plaque progression was most pronounced ¹⁸¹. In 671 the PRECISE-IVUS trail, statin monotherapy was compared to combined lipid-lowering with a 672 statin and ezetimibe combination in patients with suspected coronary heart disease ¹⁸². After a 673 study period of 9-12 months, LDL-C lowering was greater with combined lipid-lowering than 674 675 with statin monotherapy (63 mg/dl vs. 73 mg/dl). Moreover, intravascular ultrasound demonstrated a more pronounced atherosclerotic plaque regression with combined lipid lowering. 676 The effect of an ezetimibe-statin combination on lesion regression was more pronounced than 677 the effect of a combination of a statin with a PSCK9-inhibitor in the GLAGOV study ¹⁸³. 678

In patients on dialysis, stating did not show any effect on cardiovascular mortality ^{184,185}. A 679 possible explanation for this is that patients on dialysis are characterized by high cholesterol 680 absorption and low cholesterol synthesis, with high cholesterol absorption being associated with 681 greater mortality ¹⁸⁶. This may also explain why in the study of heart and renal protection 682 (SHARP) a comparably less effective LDL-C lowering resulted in a significant reduction of 683 cardiovascular events with combined lipid-lowering¹⁸⁷. A post-hoc analysis of the AURORA 684 study (a study to evaluate the use of rosuvastatin in subjects on regular hemodialysis: an 685 assessment of survival and cardiovascular events) points in the same direction. In this analysis 686 only patients on dialysis who were known to be high cholesterol synthesizers showed a reduction 687 in cardiovascular mortality on statins ¹⁸⁸. Since the publication of the IMPROVE-IT trial 688 additional evidence has surfaced that a combined lipid-lowering in high risk patients can reduce 689 cardiovascular mortality ¹³⁰. With these risk calculations in mind, one can speculate that a 690 691 combined lipid-lowering approach – assessed on an individual basis on differences in cholesterol metabolism – can further reduce cardiovascular risk ^{189,190}. 692

693 8. Sitosterolemia: Clinical Perspective, Diagnosis, Treatment, Screening Programs

694 8.1 Microbiota Therapeutics: Perspectives on Management of Sitosterolemia

The gut microbiome is "the ecological community of commensal, symbiotic, and pathogenic microorganisms that share our body space" ¹⁹¹. Many studies have shown that nutrition can affect gut microbiota ^{192,193}. Some studies show associations between microbiome and serum lipid levels ¹⁹⁴. The composition of the microbiome was recently evaluated during early stages of sitosterolemia. Those animals that developed severe forms of the disease had an overall different composition of the microbiome compared with those that either did not develop the disease, or only a mild form of it. Furthermore, differences in the microbial population across

groups were identified ¹⁹⁵. Specifically, levels of lactobacillus were found to be down-regulated in those with severe experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) ¹⁹⁵. Lactobacillus is a big component of all of those probiotics in the market. Could one use a probiotic to treat something so specific such as sitosterolemia? Some studies show that plant sterols can affect the microbiome. As an example, dietary supplementation with 5% plant sterol esters induced alterations in the fecal microbiota of hamsters ¹⁹⁶. However, a recent study could not confirm this finding in human volunteers ¹⁹⁷.

709 For sitosterolemia management, ezetimibe is the standard treatment. Although it has been shown to reduce plasma situaterol levels by about 30-40%, this may not be sufficient to treat 710 711 severe symptoms of the disorder. Could one modify the abundance and the function of the 712 microbiome in order to treat sitosterolemia? How about using a genetically modified vector as a delivery system? Can one deliver a probiotic that proliferates in the gut, and which is able to 713 carry a gene that might actually be able to be transferred into the epithelial cells of the gut? 714 715 Bacterial vectors have been used in the past to induce protective peripheral immunity. For example, *Salmonella* has been successfully adapted for live-vector vaccine delivery ^{198,199}. This 716 shows that such delivery systems can be effective in carrying human genes and transferring them 717 into cells. How about using a genetically modified probiotic that can target the ABCG5 and 718 719 ABCG8 genes in enterocytes? Many issues require consideration including the pathogenic factors 720 of potential vectors; however, these are provocative concepts to explore as potential adjunctive 721 treatment options for sitosterolemia.

722 8.2 Clinical Perspective: When to Add Sitosterolemia to the Differential Diagnosis List

In 1974 Drs. William Connor and Ashim Bhattacharyya reported the first cases of
 sitosterolemia ¹⁰⁵. The index patients were two young adult sisters who had onset of tendon

xanthomas at the ages of 7 and 8 years, progressing at 13-14 years, which led to medical 725 evaluation. They otherwise had normal development, including "normal" plasma cholesterol 726 concentrations. The total circulating cholesterol levels in both subjects were around 200 mg/dl 727 ¹⁰⁵, which at the time was considered an oddity in the context of prominent tendon xanthomas 728 729 because the level is much lower than what one would expect to see due to a disorder such as familial hypercholesterolemia (FH). FH is an autosomal dominant disorder that affects about 1 in 730 731 250 individuals in the general population, is associated with severe hypercholesterolemia, and is 732 the most common cause of tendon xanthomas. FH is caused by defects in the LDL receptor, apolipoprotein B (apo-B), proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 (PCSK9), and 733 homozygous defects in the LDL receptor adaptor protein. Roughly one- third of patients with a 734 clinical diagnosis of FH do not have an identifiable mutation even when all of the known genes 735 are sequenced, suggesting other genes involved ²⁰⁰. At the time these sisters were evaluated, one 736 would have expected a total cholesterol concentration of 350 mg/dl to 400 mg/dl or higher in a 737 patient with FH. Furthermore, at the time, the presence of tendon xanthomas was usually 738 739 consistent with a diagnosis of FH, or rarely cerebrotendinous xanthomatosis (CTX) caused by mutations in CYP27A1 that encodes sterol 27-hydroxylase, a key enzyme in the bile acid 740 synthetic pathway ²⁰¹. However, it has been suggested that some individuals with undiagnosed 741 742 sitosterolemia may masquerade as pseudo-FH as a consequence of marked diet-induced hypercholesterolemia that may be seen in some patients with sitosterolemia in response to high 743 intake of dietary cholesterol and plant sterols ²⁰². The proportion of patients with a clinical 744 diagnosis of presumed FH who actually have sitosterolemia is unknown. 745 Sitosterolemia is caused by mutations in sterol transporter genes ABCG5 and/or ABCG8, 746

resulting in several consequences, including intestinal hyper-absorption of all dietary sterols,

impaired hepatic excretion of sterols into bile, increased tissue content of plant sterols, and thedevelopment of extensor tendon xanthomas and atherosclerosis.

An important question in relation to clinical practice relates to when a diagnosis of 750 751 sitosterolemia should be considered. It is a rare disorder, so random screening of patients is not indicated or useful, but there are several situations in which it is reasonable to consider the 752 diagnosis of sitosterolemia. In line with the clinical presentation of the index patients described 753 754 by Drs. Connor and Bhattacharyya, sitosterolemia should be considered when tendon xanthomas are present in the absence of severe hypercholesterolemia ¹⁰⁵. Another situation that may be a 755 sign of occult sitosterolemia is the development of extreme hypercholesterolemia after 756 consumption of high cholesterol/saturated fat diets. As a consequence of mutations in ABCG5 or 757 ABCG8, patients with sitosterolemia hyper-absorb dietary cholesterol and plant sterols/stanols, 758 759 resulting in exaggerated diet-induced hypercholesterolemia. One patient was identified with 760 sitosterolemia on the basis of an increase in the LDL-C concentration from 120 mg/dl to 295 mg/dl during consumption of a diet high in saturated fat and cholesterol. Other conditions that 761 may be suggestive of a diagnosis of sitosterolemia include a paradoxical hypercholesterolemia in 762 response to pharmacological treatment with plant sterols. Unlike normal individuals who may 763 achieve an 8-10% decrease in the plasma concentration of LDL-C because of plant sterol-764 mediated inhibition of micelle formation resulting in inhibition of cholesterol absorption, patients 765 with sitosterolemia will hyper-absorb the plant sterols, and may actually have a 766 767 hypercholesterolemic response. Hypo-responsiveness to the LDL-C lowering efficacy of statins is another indicator that the patient may have sitosterolemia, but this finding may be confounded 768 by noncompliance with statin treatment, gain of function mutations in PCSK9, or other factors 769

770 unrelated to sitosterolemia. Hence, the vast majority of patients who are hypo-responsive to the LDL-C lowering efficacy of statins are unlikely to have sitosterolemia. 771

A key step in the diagnosis of sitosterolemia is measurement of serum/plasma plant sterols 772 773 using gas chromatography/ mass spectrometry. Some patient groups have false positive elevations in the concentration of plasma situaterol equivalent to situaterolemia, such as babies 774 and patients with severe liver disease who are treated with soy-based parenteral nutrition high in 775 776 plant sterols. In these individuals, the sitosterolemia is found to be completely reversible after cessation of parenteral administration of plant sterols. Clinical features that may facilitate with 777 diagnosis of sitosterolemia can include extensor tendon xanthomas (rarely tuberous xanthomas), 778 normal to elevated plasma cholesterol, thrombocytopenia, chronic hemolytic anemia and 779 stomatocytosis, and occasionally elevated liver enzymes and acute liver failure, but the absence 780 of these features does not exclude the diagnosis ²⁰³. Management of sitosterolemia includes 781 782 decreasing dietary intake of plant sterols and cholesterol, as well as treatment with ezetimibe, possibly bile acid binding resins, and treatment of hypercholesterolemia with statins as indicated. 783 In summary, the diagnosis of sitosterolemia should be considered in a variety of clinical 784 settings, including hyper-responsiveness to dietary sterol intake, paradoxical responses to 785 treatment with plant sterols, the presence of tendon xanthomas in the absence of 786 hypercholesterolemia, hypo-responsiveness to statins, findings of platelet and red blood cell 787 abnormalities, as well as early onset coronary artery disease without significant 788 789 hypercholesterolemia.

790

Sterol Metabolism in Sitosterolemia 8.3

Although the clinical symptoms of sitosterolemia may vary across individuals, a 791 792 consistently important diagnosis of the disorder is highly elevated circulating levels of plant

sterols. Abnormal sterol homeostasis has been observed in individuals with sitosterolemia ²⁰⁴. It 793 is characterized by increased retention of plant sterols and cholesterol, reduced removal, and 794 expanded whole body pools which compensate for the reduced cholesterol synthesis in 795 sitosterolemia ²⁰⁴. Using *in vivo* radiolabeled isotopic techniques, Salen et al. ²⁰⁴ observed that 796 797 the turnover rates of plasma cholesterol and sitosterol in sitosterolemia patients were similar and significantly slower compared to a control subject. It has been shown that 3-hydroxy-3-798 799 methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase and synthase, and other key enzymes involved in cholesterol synthesis, are down regulated in sitosterolemia patients ²⁰⁵⁻²⁰⁷. 800 Accumulation of plant sterols may account for the low cholesterol synthesis rates observed in 801 sitosterolemia ²⁰⁸. Strategies such as feeding either the cholesterol precursor mevalonic acid, or 802 low sterol diets ²⁰⁷ failed to stimulate *de novo* cholesterol synthesis in patients with 803 804 sitosterolemia. While ezetimibe is the current standard therapy for sitosterolemia, its effect on 805 the rates of cholesterol synthesis and sterol turnover in sitosterolemic patients are undefined and need further investigation. 806

807 9. Intravenous Plant Sterols and Pediatric Intestinal Failure Associated Liver Disease

When enteral nutrition is limited due to insufficient intestinal length and/or poor function, 808 intestinal failure develops. In order to prevent dehydration and malnutrition, patients with 809 intestinal failure are prescribed parenteral nutrition (PN), or intravenous nutrition. PN serves as 810 an important source of water, electrolytes, and macro- and micronutrients. While PN is life 811 sustaining for intestinal failure patients, it can lead to intestinal-failure associated liver disease 812 (IFALD), a potentially fatal liver disorder. IFALD is defined by the presence of intestinal failure, 813 or prolonged PN use, and liver dysfunction, which includes elevated serum transaminases and/or 814 815 a conjugated hyperbilirubinemia. On liver biopsy, IFALD is characterized by cholestasis,

inflammation, and steatosis. After a short course of PN, liver fibrosis can develop. In some
patients, IFALD culminates in cirrhosis, liver failure, and death. Once liver failure develops, a
liver transplant is the only life-saving option.

IFALD and sepsis are the top two causes of mortality for children with intestinal failure ²⁰⁷. 819 For several reasons, IFALD is more common in children than adults. PN duration, gestational 820 age, birth weight, and underlying gastrointestinal disorders are important risk factors for IFALD. 821 70% percent of infants who have received greater than 60 days of PN will develop IFALD ²⁰⁹. 822 Moreover, gestational age and birth weight are inversely correlated to the incidence of IFALD. 823 Premature neonates and low birth weight neonates are at high risk for IFALD due to prolonged 824 PN courses, immature livers, feeding intolerance, and a high incidence of necrotizing 825 enterocolitis ²⁰⁷. Last, children with gastroschisis, volvulus, distal intestinal atresias, and short 826 bowel syndrome commonly develop IFALD ²⁰⁷. 827

Intravenous lipids are prescribed with PN as a source of non-protein calories and essential 828 fatty acids. In the US, the only FDA-approved intravenous lipid emulsion for children is entirely 829 soy-based (Intralipid™(Fresenius Kabi, Uppsala, Sweden). SO-based lipid emulsions have a 830 long-standing association with IFALD^{195,196,210,211}. Intravenous soybean oil contains a high 831 concentration of plant sterols (>350-400 mg/L)^{195,196,210,211}. In contrast to intravenous soybean 832 oil, a non-FDA approved fish oil-based lipid emulsion (Omegaven™, Fresenius Kabi, Bad 833 Homburg, Germany) contains a negligible amount of plant sterols. Fish oil-based lipid emulsions 834 are prescribed in the US under compassionate use protocols and serves as an important rescue 835 treatment for children with advanced IFALD ^{209,210,211,212}. Studies have demonstrated that 836 intravenous fish oil is a safe, effective treatment for IFALD; IFALD resolves in approximately 837

838 75% of children treated with fish oil and is associated with a decrease in both the incidence of
839 liver failure and need for liver transplantation ^{210,211}.

While there are several differences between soybean and fish oil lipid emulsions, the plant 840 841 sterol concentration cannot be overlooked. In comparison to healthy controls, infants with IFALD have higher circulating concentrations of various plant sterols. When IFALD infants are 842 compared to IFALD children, IFALD infants have higher plant sterol concentrations^{213,214}. 843 844 Furthermore, plasma sterol concentrations correlate with hepatic sterol concentrations and histological changes on liver biopsy ²¹⁵. Last, in IFALD children whose intravenous soybean oil 845 was replaced with intravenous fish oil, plasma sterol concentrations not only dramatically 846 decreased, but early changes in plasma stigmasterol predicted later changes in conjugated 847 bilirubin²¹⁰. This suggests that stigmasterol may serve as surrogate for disease severity and 848 treatment response. 849

Animal experiments provide mechanistic evidence that stigmasterol may be one of the main 850 culprits driving IFALD. Mice infused with PN and intravenous soybean oil have decreased 851 852 expression of hepatic nuclear transcription factors, liver X receptor (LXR) and farnesoid X receptor (FXR), and decreased mRNA expression of bilirubin, bile acid, and sterol liver 853 transporters. Also, mice exposed to PN plus intravenous soybean oil developed cholestasis and 854 elevated liver function tests, mimicking pediatric IFALD ²¹⁶. In contrast, when mice were 855 infused with PN plus intravenous fish oil, FXR, LXR, and transporter expression were similar to 856 control mice, and they were protected against IFALD ²¹⁶. However, when stigmasterol was 857 added to fish oil, FXR, LXR and transporter expression were similar to the soybean oil group 858 and the mice developed IFALD ²¹⁶. 859

From these studies, it can be concluded that the type of intravenous lipid emulsion and, more specifically, intravenous plant sterols are important players in IFALD pathogenesis. With the advent of new lipid formulations, careful attention should be paid to sterol content. It remains unknown if specific sterols are safer than others, and if there is a "safe" sterol content for lipid emulsions. Further research is needed to answer these questions.

865 10. Plant Sterols: Patients' Perspectives

866 10.1 Introductory Remarks

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) has defined a rare disease as one that affects less 867 than 200,000 people in the US population, which corresponds to 1 in 16,000 to <1 in 500,000 868 individuals. However, the prevalence of various rare diseases is quite variable, with some 869 incidences being highly infrequent. Currently, 7,000 separate diseases have been identified as 870 rare, with many of these being inherited. Multiple challenges exist with studying rare diseases, 871 including limited recruitment of patients, unknown natural history of the disorder and 872 considerable phenotypic variability in these diseases. This adds to the complications in 873 investigating not only the disease itself, but also therapeutic approaches to these diseases. Very 874 few investigators are trained specifically in rare disease research largely because of the rarity of 875 most of these disorders. Most physicians fail to recognize diseases when they encounter them 876 877 because they have never seen a case of a disease that occurs one in 100,000 incidents. So many challenges exist. The NIH well recognizes the challenges in diagnosing and treating the very 878 879 large constellation of rare diseases that exists. This is demonstrated by its establishment of a rare disease clinical research network (RDCRN) which now specifically targets 22 diseases. The 880 Sterol and Isoprenoid Research Consortium (STAIR), one of the 22 in the RDCRN network, is a 881 882 consortium that is focused on sterol metabolism disorders. The consortium itself has a number of

advantages, such as including recruitment of patients. The idea behind it is that no center will
encounter enough patients with a rare disease to be able to conduct a valid clinical study alone,
and therefore efforts should be pooled in carrying out multi-center studies on these diseases.

10.2 Sitosterolemia, Clinical and Treatment Aspects. Observations from the Manitoba

887 Cohort

The Manitoba Sitosterolemia Cohort is a kindred of Hutterite patients living mostly in 888 Manitoba. They are a religious isolate based in rural communities. A specific case was a five-889 year- old girl who died suddenly and was found at autopsy to have extensive aortic and coronary 890 atheroma²¹⁷. Her medical history was anemia and recurring abdominal pain²¹⁸. This led to 891 searching for a diagnosis and eventually a determination of sitosterolemia before the specific 892 mutation was identified ^{217,218}. Subsequent cascade screening over a period of some sixteen years 893 has built up a cohort of 21 patients all having the ABCG8 S107X mutation. All 20 survivors have 894 responded very favorably to ezetimibe therapy ^{219,220}. 895

896

11. Summary and Conclusions

The present review provides a comprehensive overview of past and recent developments 897 in the basic biology of plant sterols and stanols, largely in the context of their value as 898 therapeutic agents for dyslipidemia management in the general population. It also presents 899 guidance for the clinical management of rare disorders resulting from mutations in sterol 900 metabolism at various levels that lead to the retention in the circulation and tissues of cholesterol, 901 plant sterols and stanols, as well as other types of non-cholesterol sterols. Particularly novel in 902 the area of plant sterol/stanol physiology is the recognition that even low levels of intake of plant 903 sterols or stanols can influence cholesterol absorption efficiency and circulatory pools in both 904 905 adults and infants. Also, the reciprocity between cholesterol synthesis and absorption and how

that ratio impacts the efficacy of plant sterol/stanol action in LDL-C lowering is being 906 increasingly recognized. How polymorphisms within genes coding for enzymes active in lipid 907 pathways affect the LDL-C lowering action are now better understood. Advantages of combining 908 909 plant sterols/stanols with other dietary elements such as fiber, soy protein and nuts have been recognized. Overall importance of LDL-C lowering in CVD risk has been further established 910 from combined drug trials such as IMPROVE-IT¹³⁰, FOURIER¹³⁷. Additionally, Ference et al., 911 912 recently found a clear association between LDL and atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, from investigating numerous and multiple clinical and genetic studies ²²¹. In best approaches to 913 clinical management of sitosterolemia, ezetimibe continues to prevail as the drug of choice. The 914 disparity in degree of severity of this disorder across patients was emphasized, as well as the 915 importance of proper screening using both levels of circulatory plant sterols as well as 916 917 confirmation of the specific mutation as diagnostic criteria. It is considered important to rely on 918 these tools for correct identification of patients with sitosterolemia so as not to confuse them with FH. In summary, plant sterols and stanols continue to offer an efficacious and convenient 919 920 dietary approach to cholesterol management and serve as an important natural health product as well as functional food ingredient. Their clinical benefit through long-term studies addressing 921 CVD endpoints has however not been established. 922

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- 929 (Appendix 1).
- 930 **Declaration of Interest**
- 931 Oliver Weingärtner has received speaker honoraria from AMGEN, Berlin-Chemie
- 932 Menarini, MERCK, Sanofi and serves on advisory boards for AMGEN, MERCK and
- 933 Berlin-Chemie Menarini.

935 Appendix 1

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936	

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1604 Figures Legends

Figure 1. Percentage change in LDL-C in individuals from baseline in response to the

1606 consumption of a low-fat plant sterol enriched soy beverage (1.95 g plant sterols /d) 222 .

Figure 2. Proposed surrogate measure of cholesterol metabolism which could overcome issues

- 1608 related to using ratios of surrogate synthesis to absorption markers.
- 1609 **Figure 3.** Correlations between changes in serum LDL-C and plasma plant sterols and changes
- 1610 in flow-mediated dilation (copied from Ras et al.¹⁵⁸; permission to re-use required)