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Effects of Age, Gender, and Menopausal status on Small Dense Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol and Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol Fractions; A Population-Based Study

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7	2	Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol and Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol
8 9	3	Fractions; A Population-Based Study
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5 6	40	All authors have participated in the research and designed the study; TI and SI
7 8	41	performed the statistics analysis; TI contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. All
8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	41 42	performed the statistics analysis; TI contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.
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43 ABSTRACT

Objectives: Small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (sdLDL-C) might be a 45 better cardiovascular disease (CVD) indicator than low-density lipoprotein cholesterol 46 (LDL-C); however, details regarding its epidemiology remain elusive. The present study 47 aimed at evaluating the effect of age, gender, and menopausal status on sdLDL-C 48 levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in the Japanese population.

- **Design:** This was a cross-sectional study.
- 52 Setting: 13 rural districts in Japan, 2010-2017

Participants: This study included 5,208 participants (2,397 men and 2,811 women), 55 who underwent the health mass screening that was conducted in accordance with the 56 medical care system for the elderly and obtained informed consent for this study.

Results: In men, the sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio increased during younger adulthood, peaked at 50–54 years, and then decreased. In women, relatively regular increasing trends of sdLDL-C level and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio until approximately 65 years, followed by a downward or pleated trend. The crossover of sdLDL-C levels for the genders occurred at 70-74 years, but the crossover of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio could not be observed. Standardized sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in 50-year old men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 26.6, 22.7, and 27.4 mg/dL and 0.24, 0.15, and 0.23, respectively. The differences between premenopausal and postmenopausal women were significant (P < 0.001).

Conclusions: SdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratios showed different distributions by 69 age, gender, and menopausal status with trends different from other lipids. A 70 subgroup-specific approach would be necessary to implement sdLDL-C for CVD 71 prevention strategies, fully considering age-related trends, gender differences, and 72 menopausal status.

- (248 words / within 300 words)

75	Strengths and limitations of this study
76	1. To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate the effects
77	of age, gender, and menopausal status on the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio.
78	2. This study is based on a large representative sample from Japanese general
79	population.
80	3. Serum lipid markers were measured by the standardized program proposed by the
81	Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.
82	4. It is unclear whether our results of sdLDL-C would be valid for other populations.
83	5. This study did not control for several confounding factors, such as diet, life activity,
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	socioeconomic status, and genetic factors.
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INTRODUCTION

Although hypercholesterolemia is one of the leading causes of cardiovascular disease (CVD), total cholesterol (TC), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), and non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (nonHDL-C) have not been good enough to predict risk stratification and the novel target is needed.¹⁻³ Small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (sdLDL-C) easily penetrates into the arterial wall, has a high susceptibility to oxidation, and may exacerbate and perpetuate atherosclerosis.⁴ In fact, patients with metabolic syndrome, which have been found as highly atherogenic conditions without hypercholesterolemia, have elevated sdLDL-C.⁵ Current studies suggest that the sdLDL-C or sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio might be the better factors for the prediction of CVD than total cholesterol (TC) or LDL-C in the general population or patients with CVD.6-9

However, almost all of the current analytical strategies might be not able to adjust accurately the interaction between age and sdLDL-C due to the association between the lipid factors and age, which might follow a curvilinear model. Few studies have evaluated how age is associated with sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio over a wide age range and distinguished the effects of menopause and gender on sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C fraction from those of aging.^{10,11}

Diet composition, which is affected by aging, is associated with blood cholesterol and the absorption, synthesis, and metabolism per se of fat and lipoproteins change with age.^{12,13} Another study showed Asian age-related trends of traditional lipid profiles displayed roughly an increasing trend, followed by a decreasing one at the middle-aged stage.^{14,15} Meanwhile, sdLDL-C has been regulated by more complex mechanisms than regulating traditional lipids and might be plateaued or increased even at the middle-aged by changed metabolic functions with aging influencing sdLDL-C synthesis.^{5,7,12,16,17} Furthermore, the detailed multiple mechanisms of metabolizing sdLDLs are unknown in the real-world, population-based setting and the age-related trend of sdLDL-C might be different from the sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. In other words, the ability to generate sdLDL-C from LDL-C might be different among each generation, gender, and menopausal status. Therefore, we evaluated the effect of age, gender, and

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119 menopausal status on sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in Japanese general 120 population.

- 121
- 123 **METHODS**

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124Population

125The Jichi Medical School (JMS)-II Cohort Study is a prospective, population-based 126 cohort study of the risk factors of atherosclerosis and CVD in the Japanese general 127 population. A total of 6,436 individuals participated in this study. Details of the methods 128 of enrollment have been reported previously.^{18,19} In brief, from April 2010 through 129December 2017, this study evaluated Japanese individuals who were residents of 13 130 rural districts in Japan, Shimotsuke, Kakara, Sue, Omori, Kamiichi, Wara, Takasu, 131 Onabi, Nakatsu, Yame, Miwa, Ueno, and Saji areas. Local government offices in each 132community issued invitations to eligible residents for the mass CVD screening, and 133 personal invitations were also sent to all potential participants by mail. All the 134 participants in the present study provided written informed consent prior to inclusion. 135The study protocol and data analysis plan were approved by the institutional review 136 board of Jichi Medical School (Tochigi, Japan, IRB No. G09-39 [G17-64 revised]).

137 We excluded individuals as follows: 1) taking lipid-lowering agents or 138 anti-hyperglycemia agents (n = 1,073); 2) the use of hormone replacement therapy (n = 139 96); and 3) the data such as age, gender status, menopausal status, and sdLDL-C were 140 not available (n = 73).

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142Measurements

143 A central committee, composed of the chief medical officers of all 13 participating 144districts, developed a detailed manual for data collection. Body weight was recorded 145with the subjects clothed. Height was measured with stockinged feet. Body mass index 146 (BMI) was calculated as weight (kg) / height (m²). Blood samples were taken after 147overnight fasting. TC was measured via a cholesterol dehydrogenase-ultraviolet 148 method. Triglycerides (TG) was measured using an enzymatic method. LDL-C and 58 149 high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) were measured by direct methods. 59

SdLDL-C level was directly and selectively measured using a commercial kit (sdLDL-EX from Denka Seiken, Tokyo, Japan). An external laboratory (SRL, Tokyo, Japan) measured the serum lipid markers. The markers were measured by the standardized program proposed by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. The nonHDL-C was calculated by subtracting HDL-C from TC. Information about medical history, lifestyle, and menopausal status were obtained with a self-reported questionnaire. Smoking status was classified as smoking, former smoking, or never-smoking.

Statistical analysis

Baseline characteristics were summarized as mean ± standard deviation (SD) for normally distributed continuous variables and numbers and percentages for categorical variables. SdLDL-C and TG were highly skewed; these data were expressed as the median and interguartile range and transformed into natural logarithms before statistical analysis.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for comparison among three groups, and differences were tested via post hoc pairwise comparison (Bonferroni). To explore the age-related trend in sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio with age, geometric means or means and 95 percent confidence intervals for each variable in 5-year age ranges were derived and plotted against age range in each of the three groups.

Among the three groups, correlations between age and each parameter were assessed using multiple linear regression analysis. The agreement between the estimated sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and measured ones was assessed by Pearson's correlation coefficient. To evaluate the effect of menopausal status on sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, using the beta value of each variable from the analysis in the premenopausal and postmenopausal group, data were standardized to a nominal 50 years of menopausal age, never smoking and zero alcohol for participants with normal weight (BMI 18.5-22.0). All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 22 (IBM, Chicago, IL, USA), and statistical significance was defined as P < 0.05.

- Patient and public involvement

Participants of this study or members of the public were not directly and personally involved with study design, data provision, analysis and publication of the study.

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182RESULTS

183 **Baseline characteristics**

184 After exclusions, 517 premenopausal women (mean age ± SD, 45.1 ± 4.2 years), 2,294 185postmenopausal women (66.5 ± 8.8 years) and 2,397 men (64.1 ± 11.2 years) were 186 analyzed. Demographic data for the three groups are shown in Table 1. Compared with 187 men, premenopausal women had higher HDL-C and postmenopausal women had 188 higher TC, LDL-C, HDL-C, and nonHDL-C. Compared with premenopausal women, 189 postmenopausal women had higher fasting glucose, TC, LDL-C, TG, nonHDL-C, 190 TC/LDL-C, sdLDL-C, and sdLDL-C/LDL-C. TC and LDL-C didn't differ between men 191 and premenopausal women.

192 193

194 Table 1 Baseline characteristics

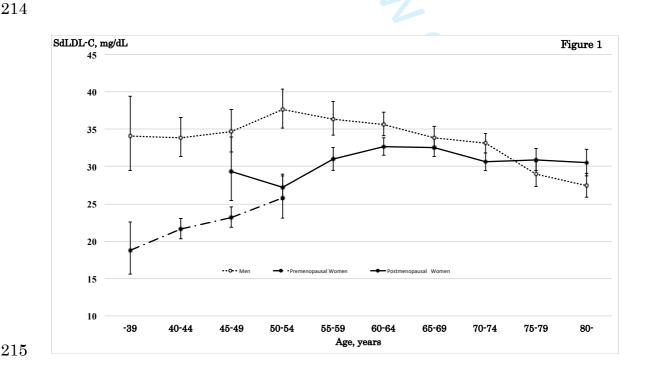
	Group 1 (G1)	Group2 (G2)	Group3 (G3)			
	Men	Premenopausal	Postmenopausal	Р	Р	P
	(n=2,397)	Women (n=517)	Women (n=2,294)	G1 vs G2	G1 vs G3	G2 vs G3
Age, years	64.1±11.2	45.1±4.2	66.5 ± 8.8	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
BMI, kg/m2	23.3±3.0	22.3 ± 3.6	22.5 ± 3.3	< 0.001	<0.001	0.631
Smoking						
Current	600 (25.1%)	40 (7.7%)	67 (2.9%)	<0.001	<0.001	0.007
EX	1204 (50.3%)	73 (14.1%)	97 (4.2%)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Drinker	1869 (78.2%)	316 (61.1%)	866 (37.8%)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Glucose, mg/dL	100.7 ± 17.8	90.9±9.4	96.3 ± 12.3	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
TC, mg/dL	198.7 ± 32.9	199.2 ± 31.2	$215.4 {\pm} 31.6$	1.000	<0.001	<0.001
LDL-C, mg/dL	115.2 ± 29.6	114.2 ± 28.5	126.7 ± 28.7	1.000	<0.001	<0.001
TGs, mg/dL	100 (71, 146)	68 (50, 94)	89 (67, 123)	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.001
HDL-C, mg/dL	56.3 ± 13.8	67.8 ± 14.7	62.8 ± 14.9	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Non HDL-C, mg/dL	142.4 ± 32.6	131.4 ± 31.2	152.5 ± 31.3	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.001
TC/HDL-C	3.7 ± 1.0	3.1 ± 0.8	$3.6 {\pm} 0.9$	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.001
SdLDL-C. mg/dL	34.1 (24.8, 46.5)	23.0 (16.8, 30.5)	31.2 (23.5, 41.8)	< 0.001	<0.001	<0.001
SdLDL-C/LDL-C	0.32 ± 0.14	$0.22 {\pm} 0.08$	0.29 ± 0.12	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001

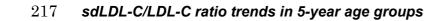
Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD), %, and median (25th percentile, 75th percentile). P-values were assessed in one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post hoc pairwise comparison (Bonferroni). BMI=body mass index; TC= total cholesterol; LDL-C= low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TGs= triglycerides; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; non HDL-C= non high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; sdLDL-C=small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol.

sdLDL-C trends in 5-year age groups

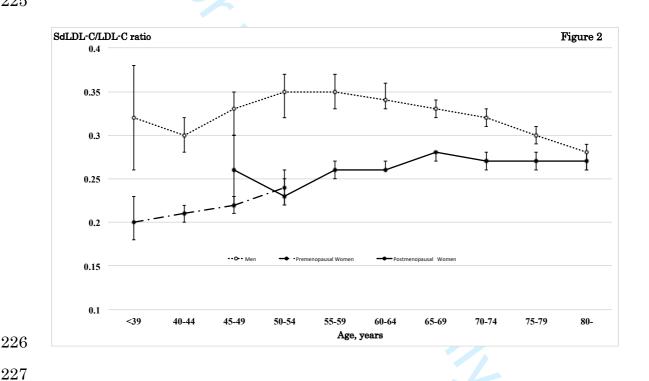
To assess the age-related trend in sdLDL-C levels, a 5-year age stratification was applied, and geometric mean sdLDL-C levels for each age groups were calculated and plotted against gender.

For men, the level of sdLDL-C increased from 34.1 mg / dL in those < 39 years to a maximum of 37.7 mg / dL in those of 50-54 years, followed by decreasing from 36.4 mg / dL in those of 55-59 years to 27.4 mg / dL in those of $80 \le$ years (Figure 1). For women, a relatively regular increasing trend of the sdLDL-C level was found up to 60-64 year-olds. After 65 years, a downward trend was fitted. The maximum of the sdLDL-C level of women was 32.7 mg / dL. Moreover, sdLDL-C levels in men were higher than those in women for all age groups younger than 70-74-year-olds but exceeded those in women after the age of 75-79 years.





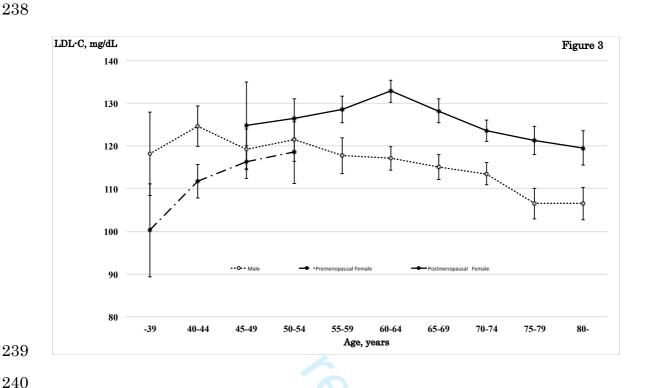
SdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men increased from 0.30 in 40-44-year-olds to a maximum of 0.35 in 50-54-year-olds, plateaued in those of 55-59 years, and then decreased from 0.34 in those of 60-64 years to 0.28 in those of 80 \leq years (Figure 2). For women, these values increased from 0.20 in those < 39 years to a maximum of 0.28 in those of 65-69 years and plateaued after 70 \leq years (with mean levels of 0.27). SdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men was higher than those in women for all age groups and the crossover of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio for the genders did not occur.



228Trends in other lipoproteins (LDL-C, total cholesterol, TG, HDL-C, and total229cholesterol/HDL-C ratio) in 5-year age groups

LDL-C level in men decreased almost linearly, while LDL-C level in women rapidly increased from 100.3 mg / dL in those aged < 39 years to a maximum of 132.8 mg / dL in 60-64-year-olds and decreased from 128.2 mg / dL in those aged 65-69 to 119.5 mg / dL in those 80≤ years (Figure 3). The level of TC, nonHDL-C, and TC/HDL-C ratio revealed a pattern similar to the trend of LDL-C levels (Supplementary Figure 1-3). The TG levels in men decreased almost linearly, while the level in women increased linearly (Supplementary Figure 4). HDL-C in both men and women decreased almost linearly

(Supplementary Figure 5).



SdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in the standardized analysis among the three groups

To standardize sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio among the three groups and validate the above-mentioned turning points, the participants were re-stratified by age ranges corresponding to increasing, plateau and decreasing phases for each marker by gender and multiple linear regression analysis was then applied.

As shown in Table 2, among men, age was positively and negatively associated with log-transformed small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LNsdLDL-C) levels in those \leq 54 years and \geq 55 years, with beta values of 0.006 and -0.010, respectively. Among premenopausal women, postmenopausal women \leq 64 years, and postmenopausal women $65 \ge$ years, beta values of age were 0.014, 0.014 and, -0.004, respectively. But the association between LNsdLDL-C and age was not significantly associated with men \leq 54 years.

- Table 2 Factors Associated with LN sdLDL-C Level in Age Groups by Gender

Variable	β	SE	Р
<u>Men</u> ≤54,	n=475; mean±SD, 46.7±4.9 y	ears, Pearson's r= 0.320 (P	<0.001)
Age	0.006	0.004	0.169
BMI	0.033	0.006	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.004	0.002	0.003
Smoker			
Current	0.018	0.054	0.747
EX	0.050	0.053	0.342
Drinker	0.144	0.059	0.015
Men	≥55, n=1,922; 68.4±7.6 years, 2	Pearson's r= 0.316 (P<0.0	01)
Age	-0.010	0.001	< 0.001
BMI	0.032	0.003	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.002	0.001	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.025	0.030	0.402
EX	0.032	0.024	0.192
Drinker	0.076	0.024	0.001
Women (Pr	remenopausal), n=517; 45.1±4.	2 years, Pearson's r=0.330	(P<0.001)
Age	0.014	0.005	0.002
BMI	0.024	0.006	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.008	0.002	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.021	0.072	0.775
EX	-0.005	0.056	0.934
Drinker	0.033	0.039	0.398
Women≤64 years	(Postmenopausal), n=978; 58	.3±4.5 years, Pearson's r=0	0.261 (P<0.001)
Age	0.014	0.003	< 0.001
BMI	0.019	0.004	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.004	0.001	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.052	0.067	0.437

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EX	0.036	0.051	0.479
Drinker	0.007	0.026	0.792
Women 65≥ y	vears (Postmenopausal), n=1,316;	72.6 ± 5.7 year olds, Pearson's r	=0.228 (P<0.001)
Age	-0.004	0.002	0.045
BMI	0.022	0.004	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.003	0.001	0.001
Smoker			
Current	-0.086	0.078	0.267
EX	0.204	0.076	0.007
Drinker	-0.007	0.024	0.760

257 β is a coefficient indicating a one-unit increase in an independent variable in 258 multivariable linear logic regression analyses. SE=standard error; LNsdLDL-C=log 259 transformed small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; BMI=body mass index. 260

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As shown in Table 3, the beta values of age for sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men \leq 54 years, 55-59 years, and 60 \geq years, were 0.003, 0.004, and -0.002, respectively. In women, the beta values of age for sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in premenopausal women, postmenopausal women \leq 69 years, and 70 \geq years were 0.001, 0.002, and 0.000, respectively. The association between sdLDL-C/LDL-C and age was not significantly associated with men 55-59 years, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women 70 \geq years.

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58 59 60 271 Table 3 Factors Associated with SdLDL-C/LDL-C Ratio in Age Groups by Gender

Variable	β	SE	Р
Men ≤54 yea	ars, n=475; mean \pm SD, 46.7 \pm 4.9 y	year olds, Pearson's r= 0.32	0 (P<0.001)
Age	0.003	0.001	0.020
BMI	0.005	0.002	0.012
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	0.010
Smoker			
Current	0.029	0.016	0.081

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EX	0.011	0.016	0.50
Drinker	0.049	0.018	0.00'
Men 55	-59 years, n=245; 57.2±1.4 yea	ars, Pearson's r= 0.222 (P<0	.001)
Age	0.004	0.007	0.589
BMI	0.003	0.003	0.38
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.001	0.28
Smoker			
Current	0.049	0.032	0.12
EX	0.062	0.030	0.042
Drinker	0.055	0.027	0.04
Men 60 <u>2</u>	≥ years, n=1,677; 70.0±6.8 ye	ars, Pearson's r= 0.272 (P<0).001)
Age	-0.002	0.000	<0.00
BMI	0.005	0.001	< 0.00
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	< 0.00
Smoker			
Current	0.029	0.009	0.001
EX	0.009	0.007	0.23
Drinker	0.055	0.007	<0.00
Women (Pr	remenopausal), n=517; 45.1 \pm 4	.2 years, Pearson's r=0.313 (F	< 0.001)
Age	0.001	0.001	0.147
BMI	0.003	0.001	0.002
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	< 0.00
Smoker			
Current	0.010	0.012	0.413
EX	0.000	0.010	0.988
Drinker	0.015	0.007	0.02'
Women≤69 years	(Postmenopausal), n=1,434; 6	51.0±5.5 years, Pearson's r=0).264 (P<0.001)
Age	0.002	0.000	<0.00
BMI	0.004	0.001	< 0.00
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	<0.00

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	Current	0.001	0.012	0.914	
	EX	0.013	0.010	0.201	
	Drinker	0.003	0.005	0.555	
	Women 70≥ years (Postmenopa	ausal), n=860; 75.6±4.6 ye	ar olds, Pearson's r=0.167 (l	?<0.001)	
	Age	0.000	0.001	0.704	
	BMI	0.004	0.001	< 0.001	
	Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	< 0.001	
	Smoker				
	Current	-0.049	0.025	0.052	
	EX	0.034	0.021	0102	
	Drinker	-0.004	0.006	0.501	
2	β is a coefficient indicating	g a one-unit increas	e in an independen	t variable in	
3	multivariable linear logic regression analyses. SE=standard error; sdLDL-C=small				
L	dense low-density lipopro	tein cholesterol;	LDL-C=low-density	lipoprotein	
5	cholesterol; BMI=body mass index.				
6					
7					
8	Considering the beta value of e	ach variable, 50-year	old standardized sdL	DL-C levels in	
)	men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 26.6 mg / dL (95 %				
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CI; 26.4-26.9 mg / dL), 22.7 mg / dL (95 % CI; 22.5-22.9 mg / dL), and 27.4 mg / dL

(95 % CI; 27.3-27.5 mg/dL), respectively. Standardized sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men,

282 premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 0.242 (95 % CI; 283 0.240-0.244), 0.154 (95 % CI; 0.153-0.156), and 0.227 (95 % CI; 0.224-0.230), 284respectively. These differences between premenopausal women and postmenopausal 285women were significant (Bonferroni analysis, P < 0.001). 286

287DISCUSSION

288To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate the effects of 289 age, gender, and menopausal status on the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. The 290 age-related sdLDL-C trends showed roughly an increasing phase, followed by a 291decreasing phase in men and a plateaued phase in middle-aged women. The 292 age-related sdLDL-C trend in men, but not in women, was similar to traditional lipid

cholesterol profiles. The reason for this gender difference might be related to the mechanism of hypertriglyceridemia in postmenopausal women, which induced small LDL particles.²⁰⁻²² There were age or gender-related differences in the ability to generate sdLDL-C from LDL-C. This ability in men was higher than that in women for all age groups or standardized groups, which is identical to the fact that atherosclerosis is more common in men than in women, considering sdLDL-C is a highly atherogenic factor.

- Our study showed three important results. First, age showed partial correlation trends with sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and non-linear trends between age and sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio were found in both men and women. Therefore, using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, the definition of CVD risk assessment and the adaption of the lipid-lowering therapy should fully consider age-related trends and gender differences.

Second, menopausal status was an additional determinant of increasing sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. Many factors such as excess adiposity, free fatty acids, apo-lipoproteins, and action of lipoprotein lipase activity and cholesterol ester transfer protein affected multiple and complex mechanisms regulating sdLDL.^{12,16,17} In postmenopausal women, the decrease of plasma estrogen levels plays a significant role in reducing the clearance of LDL particles via LDL receptor and increasing TG and the number of smaller LDL particles.²³ This hormone change was related to the process of regulating sdLDL-C but there was little evidence available on the association between menopausal status and sdLDL-C or sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in a real-world, population setting.²⁴ Our results showed that sdLDL-C in postmenopausal women was 0.8 or 3.9 mg / dL higher than men or premenopausal women in the standardized analysis.

Finally, the relationships between age-related trends in sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and gender were different from traditional lipid factors, such as LDL-C. The crossover of LDL-C for the genders occurred in middle-aged patients. On the contrary, the crossover of sdLDL-C occurred between 70-74 years and the sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio did not occur. Rather than LDL-C, the results of the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio might reflect the fact that, for all age groups, men have more susceptible to CVD than

women, even with the narrowing gap of risk for CVD in postmenopausal women.²⁵

- Our findings suggest that a subgroup-specific approach is required to develop efficient
 - CVD prevention strategies using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio.

Limitations

Our study has several limitations. First, age-related trends and levels of traditional lipid factors were almost similar to National Health and Nutrition Survey in Japan and our age-related trends of these factors were also similar to the trends of the Korean and Chinese Singaporeans population.^{14,15} But the trends of the US population or healthy Caucasian^{26,27} were not similar. Especially in healthy Caucasian patients aged \geq 70 years, the trends for TC, LDL-C, and nonHDL-C differed from our observed trends and continuously increased. Although our results could not identify the mechanism, there might be racial differences. Therefore, it is unclear whether our results of sdLDL-C would be valid for these populations. Second, compared with mean lipid levels of the Korean population from KNHANES, Japanese men showed higher mean TC, LDL-C, and HDL levels (TC 199 mg / dL; LDL-C 115 mg / dL; HDL-C 56 mg / dL) compared to Korean men (TC 183 mg / dL; LDL-C 106 mg / dL; HDL 50 mg / dL), and Japanese women also showed higher mean levels (TC 212 mg / dL; LDL-C 124 mg / dL; HDL-C 64 mg / dL) than Korean women (TC 188 mg / dL; LDL-C 111 mg / dL; HDL-C 55 mg / dL). The reason for the difference in the lipoprotein profile between Japanese and Korean populations might be due to genetics and environmental factors. It is also unknown whether these factors might affect sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio because sdLDLs are regulated through complex mechanisms. Third, we did not control for the effects of diet, life activity, socioeconomic status, and genetic factors, which might be associated with changes in lipid metabolism.^{28,29,30}

CONCLUSION

SdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio are differently distributed by age, gender, and menopausal status. Our findings suggest that a subgroup-specific approach is required

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5	356	to develop efficient CVD prevention strategies using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C
6 7	$\frac{350}{357}$	ratio.
8 9	358	
10 11	359	List of abbreviations
12	360	sdLDL-C: small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; CVD: cardiovascular disease;
13 14	361	LDL-C: low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TC: total cholesterol; LDL-C: low-density
15 16	362	lipoprotein cholesterol; TGs :triglycerides; HDL-C :high-density lipoprotein cholesterol:
17	363	nonHDL-C: non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LNsdLDL-C: log-transformed small
18 19	364	dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol: JMS: Jichi Medical School: ANOVA: analysis
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DECLARATIONS

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374 Ethics approval and consent to participate

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. All the participants included in the present study provided written informed consent prior to inclusion, and this study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Jichi Medical School (Tochigi, Japan, IRB No. G09-39 [G17-64 revised]).

28 381

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30382AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors have participated in the research and designed the study; TI and SI
 performed the statistics analysis; TI contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. All
 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

37 386

Consent for publication

388 All the participants included in the present study provided written informed consent for389 publication.

45 391 **Competing interests**

392 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest with respect to this research study393 and paper.

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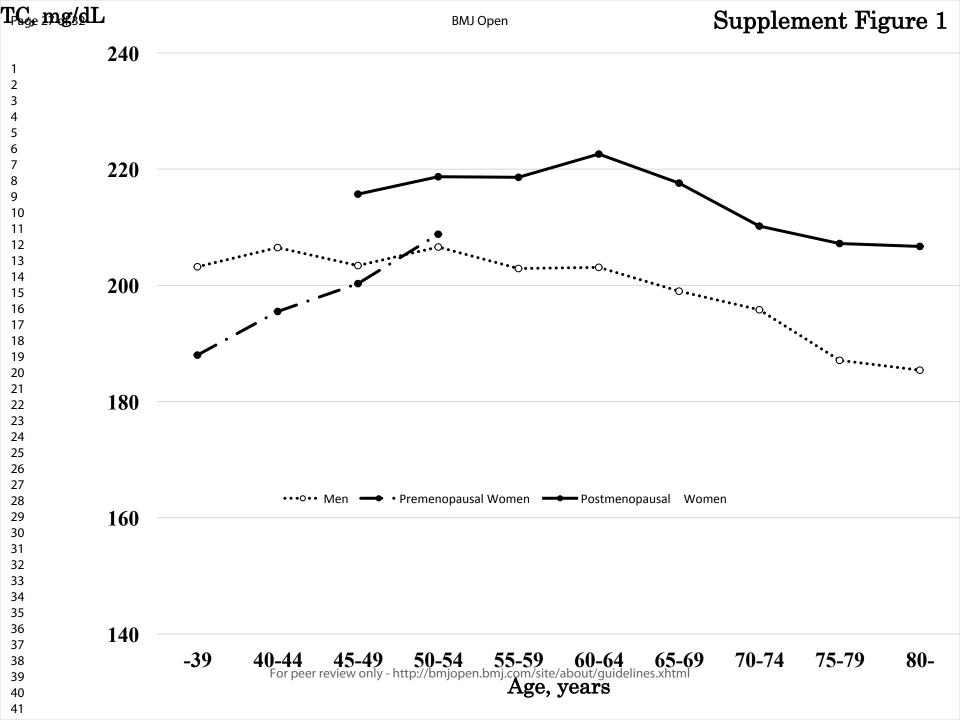
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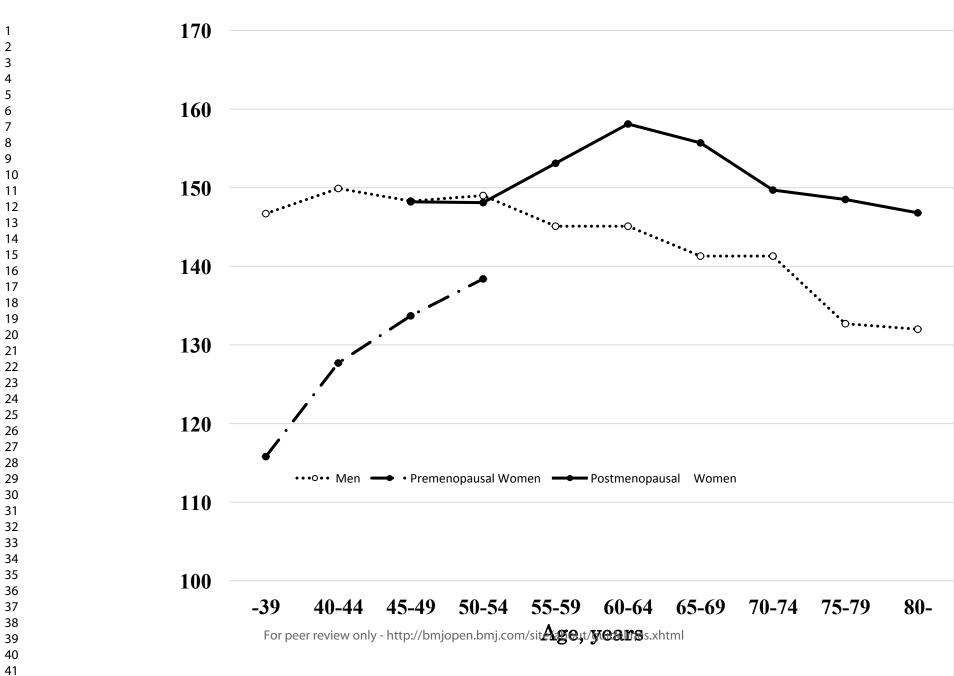
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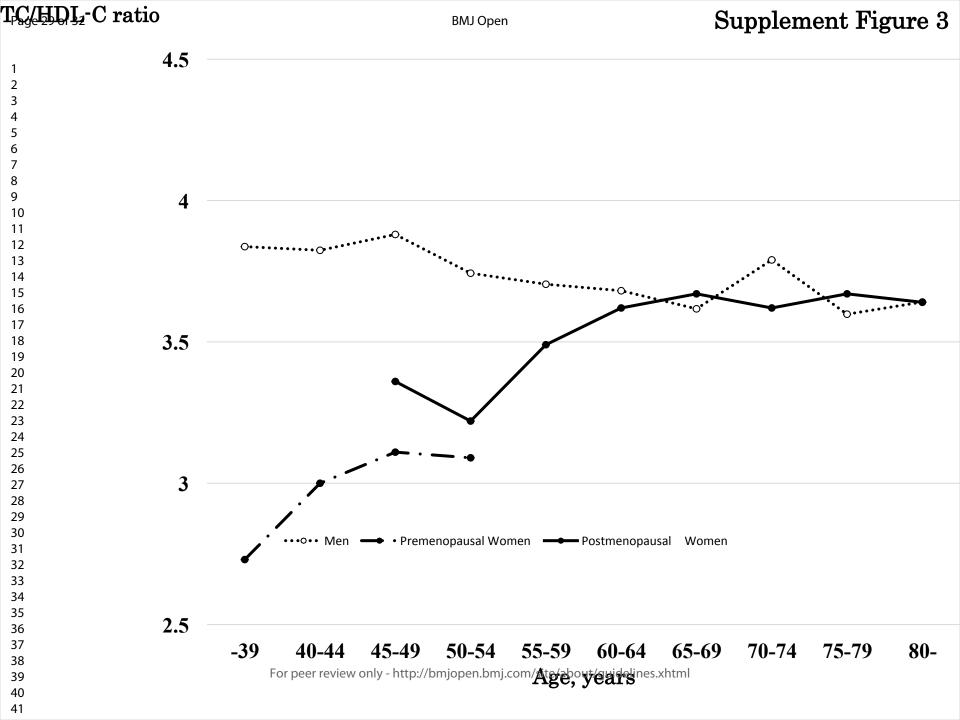
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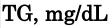
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5 6 7	508	FIGURE LEGENDS
8 9 10	509	Figure 1. Geometric mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C for age,
11 12	510	gender, and menopausal status
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15 16	512	Figure 2. Mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio for age,
17 18	513	gender, and menopausal status
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20 21	515	Figure 3. Mean and 95% confidence interval of LDL-C for age, gender, and
22	516	menopausal status
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25 26	518	Supplementary Material
27 28	519	Supplementary Figure 1. Mean of total cholesterol for age, gender, and
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32 33	522	Supplementary Figure 2. Mean of non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol for age,
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37 38	525	Supplementary Figure 3. Mean of total cholesterol / high-density lipoprotein
39 40	526	cholesterol ratio for age, gender, and menopausal status
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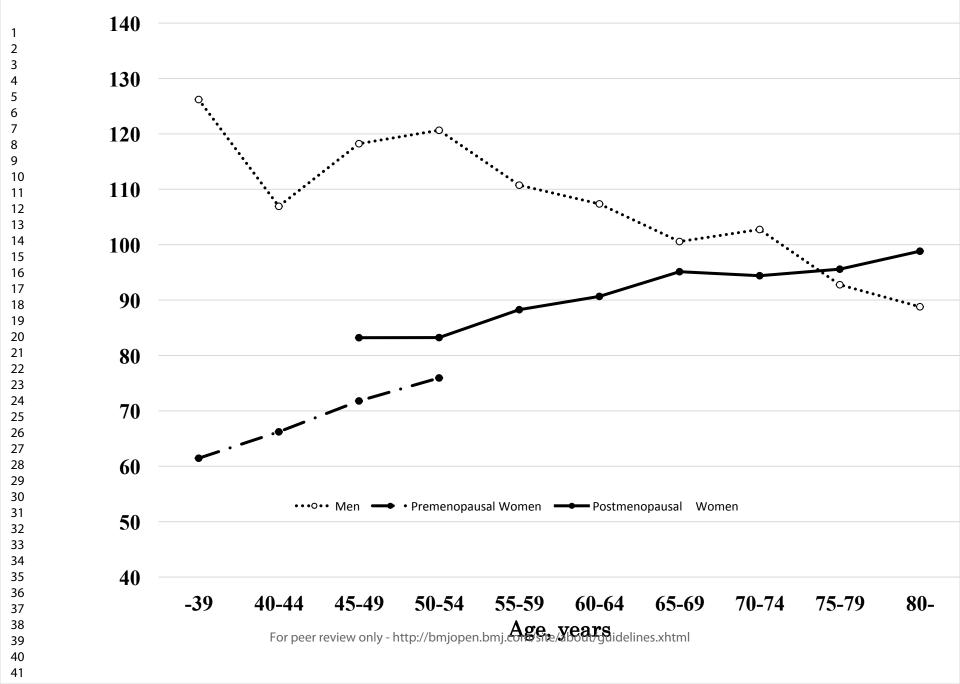


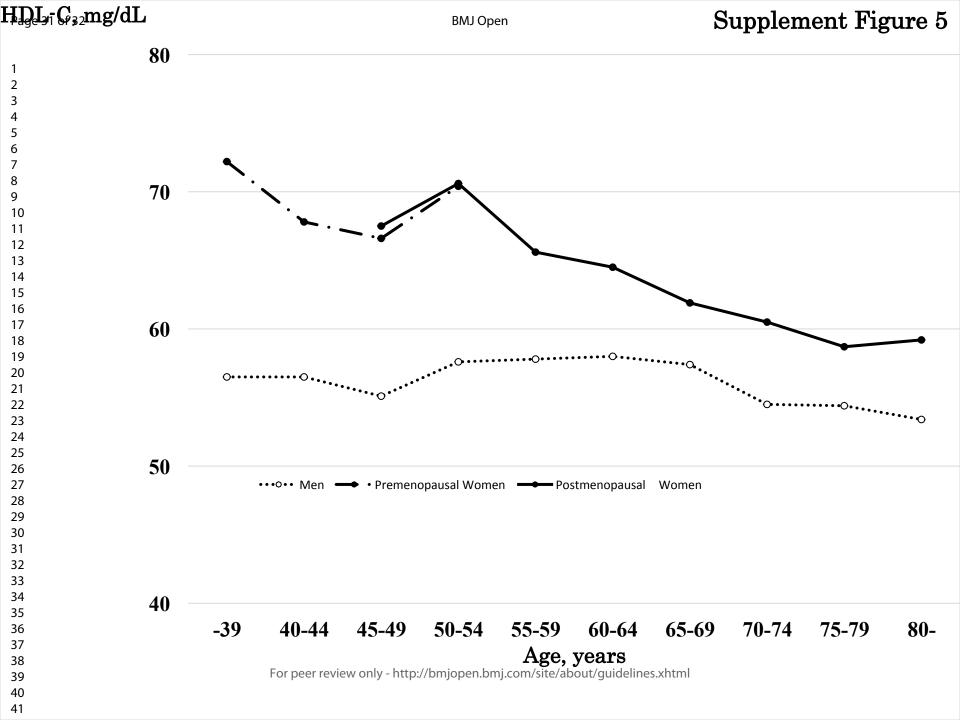
nonHDL-C, mg/dL











Section/Topic	ltem #	Recommendation	Reported on page #
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1, 3
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	3
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	5
Methods			
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	1, 3, 6
		6	
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	6
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	8
Variables	7 Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable		7
Data sources/ measurement8*For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe6, 7comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one groupcomparability of assessment methods if there is more than one groupcomparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group		6, 7	
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	7
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	6
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	7
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	7
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	7
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	6
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	-
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	-

STROBE 2007 (v4) Statement—Checklist of items that should be included in reports of cohort studies

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Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed	6, 8
		eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	-
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	-
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	8-10
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	-
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	-
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	-
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence	8-16
		interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	8-16
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	-
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9-16
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	12-16
Limitations			
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	16-18
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	18
Other information			
Funding 22 Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on which the present article is based 20-21		20-21	

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.

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The Association between Age, Gender, Menopausal Status, and Small Dense Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol; A Cross-Sectional Study

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1	[TITLE] The Association between Age, Gender, Menopausal Status, and Small
2	Dense Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol; A Cross-Sectional Study
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TI, YN, YS, and SI have participated in the research and designed the study; TI and SI
performed the statistics analysis; TI contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. YN,
YS, and SI provided feedback on the manuscript, and all authors read and approved the
final manuscript.

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43 ABSTRACT

Objectives: Small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (sdLDL-C) might be a 45 better cardiovascular disease (CVD) indicator than low-density lipoprotein cholesterol 46 (LDL-C); however, details regarding its epidemiology remain elusive. The present study 47 aimed at evaluating the association between the demographic factors, such as age, 48 gender, and menopausal status, and sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in the 49 Japanese population.

Design: This was a cross-sectional study.

53 Setting: 13 rural districts in Japan, 2010-2017

Participants: This study included 5,208 participants (2,397 men and 2,811 women),
who underwent the health mass screening that was conducted in accordance with the
medical care system for the elderly and obtained informed consent for this study.

Results: In total, 517 premenopausal women (mean age ± SD, 45.1 ± 4.2 years), 2,294 postmenopausal women (66.5 ± 8.8 years) and 2,397 men (64.1 ± 11.2 years) were analyzed. In men, the sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio increased during younger adulthood, peaked (36.4 mg/dL, 0.35) at 50-54 years, and then decreased. In women, relatively regular increasing trends of sdLDL-C level and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio until approximately 65 years (32.7 mg/dL, 0.28), followed by a downward or pleated trend. Given the beta value of age, body mass index, fasting glucose, and smoking and drinking status by multiple linear regression analysis, standardized sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in 50-year old men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 26.6, 22.7, and 27.4 mg/dL and 0.24, 0.15, and 0.23, respectively. The differences between premenopausal and postmenopausal women were significant (*P*<0.001).

Conclusions: SdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratios showed different distributions by
 age, gender, and menopausal status. A subgroup-specific approach would be
 necessary to implement sdLDL-C for CVD prevention strategies, fully considering
 age-related trends, gender differences, and menopausal status.

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77 Strengths and limitations of this study

1. To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate the
association between age, gender, and menopausal status on the sdLDL-C and
sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio.

81 2. This study is based on a large representative sample from Japanese general82 population.

- 83 3. Serum lipid markers were measured by the standardized program proposed by the
 84 Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute.
- 4. It is unclear whether our results of sdLDL-C would be valid for other populations.
- 5. This study did not control for several confounding factors, such as diet, life activity,

87 socioeconomic status, and genetic factors.

Although hypercholesterolemia is one of the leading causes of cardiovascular disease (CVD), total cholesterol (TC), low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), and non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (nonHDL-C) have not been good enough to predict risk stratification and the novel target is needed.¹⁻³ Small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (sdLDL-C) easily penetrates into the arterial wall, has a high susceptibility to oxidation, and may exacerbate and perpetuate atherosclerosis.⁴ In fact, patients with metabolic syndrome, which have been found as highly atherogenic hypercholesterolemia, conditions without have elevated sdLDL-C.⁵ The sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, reflecting the ability to generate sdLDL-C from LDL-C, might increase by the high activity of hepatic lipase, which was associated with higher risk of CVD. Current studies suggest that the sdLDL-C or sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio might be the better factors for the prediction of CVD than total cholesterol (TC) or LDL-C in the general population or patients with CVD.6-9

30 104

However, almost all of the current analytical strategies might be not able to adjust accurately the interaction between age and sdLDL-C. Few studies have evaluated how age is associated with sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio over a wide age range and distinguished the effects of menopause and gender on sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C fraction from those of aging.^{10,11}

Diet composition, which is affected by aging, is associated with blood cholesterol and the absorption, synthesis, and metabolism per se of fat and lipoproteins change with age.^{12,13} Another study showed Asian age-related trends of traditional lipid profiles displayed roughly an increasing trend, followed by a decreasing one at the middle-aged stage.^{14,15} Meanwhile, sdLDL-C has been regulated by more complex mechanisms than regulating traditional lipids and might be plateaued or increased even at the middle-aged by changed metabolic functions with aging influencing sdLDL-C synthesis.^{5,7,12,16,17} Furthermore, the detailed multiple mechanisms of metabolizing sdLDLs are unknown in the real-world, population-based setting and the age-related trend of sdLDL-C might be different from the sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. In other words, the ability to generate sdLDL-C from LDL-C might be different among each generation,

gender, and menopausal status. Therefore, we evaluated the association between the demographic factors, such as age, gender, and menopausal status, and sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in Japanese general population.

METHODS

Population

The present cross-sectional study was conducted as part of the Jichi Medical School (JMS)-II Cohort Study, a population-based cohort study of the risk factors of atherosclerosis and CVD in the Japanese general population. A total of 6,436 individuals participated in this study. Details of the methods of enrollment have been reported previously.^{18,19} In brief, from April 2010 through December 2017, this study evaluated Japanese individuals who were residents of 13 rural districts in Japan, Shimotsuke, Kakara, Sue, Omori, Kamiichi, Wara, Takasu, Onabi, Nakatsu, Yame, Miwa, Ueno, and Saji areas. Local government offices in each community issued invitations to eligible residents for the mass CVD screening, and personal invitations were also sent to all potential participants by mail. All the participants in the present study provided written informed consent prior to inclusion. The study protocol and data analysis plan were approved by the institutional review board of Jichi Medical School (Tochigi, Japan, IRB No. G09-39 [G17-64 revised]).

lipid-lowering We excluded individuals as follows: 1) taking agents or anti-hyperglycemia agents (n = 1,073); 2) the use of hormone replacement therapy (n =96); and 3) the data such as age, gender status, menopausal status, and sdLDL-C were not available (n = 73).

Measurements

A central committee, composed of the chief medical officers of all 13 participating districts, developed a detailed manual for data collection. Body weight was recorded with the subjects clothed. Height was measured with stockinged feet. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight (kg) / height (m²). Blood samples were taken after overnight fasting. TC was measured via a cholesterol dehydrogenase-ultraviolet

method. Triglycerides (TG) was measured using an enzymatic method. LDL-C and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) were measured by direct methods using a commercial kit (Cholestest from Sekisui Medical, Tokyo, Japan). SdLDL-C level was directly and selectively measured using a commercial kit (sdLDL-EX from Denka Seiken, Tokyo, Japan). An external laboratory (SRL, Tokyo, Japan) measured the serum lipid markers. The markers were measured by the standardized program proposed by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. The nonHDL-C was calculated by subtracting HDL-C from TC. Information about medical history, lifestyle, and menopausal status were obtained with a self-reported questionnaire. Smoking status was classified as smoking, former smoking, or never-smoking.

164 Statistical analysis

Baseline characteristics were summarized as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) for normally distributed continuous variables and numbers and percentages for categorical variables. SdLDL-C and TG were highly skewed; these data were expressed as the median and interquartile range and transformed into natural logarithms before statistical analysis. The participants were divided into three groups (men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women) according to gender and menopausal status.

The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for comparison among three groups, and differences were tested via post hoc pairwise comparison (Bonferroni). To explore the age-related trend in sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio with age, geometric means or means and 95 percent confidence intervals for each variable in 5-year age ranges were derived and plotted against age range in each of the three groups.

5176Among the three groups, correlations between age and each parameter were assessed67177using multiple linear regression analysis. Considering the beta value of age, body mass<math>178index, fasting glucose, and smoking and drinking status, we calculated the estimated

179 sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. The agreement between the estimated sdLDL-C

180 and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and measured ones was assessed by Pearson's correlation

181 coefficient. To evaluate the effect of menopausal status on sdLDL-C and

sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, using the beta value of each variable from the analysis in the

premenopausal and postmenopausal group, data were standardized to a nominal 50

⁵⁸ ⁵⁹ 184 years of menopausal age, never smoking and zero alcohol for participants with normal

4 5	105	weight (DMI 40 C						
6 7	185	•	-22.0). All statistica	•	•		on 22	
8 9	186	(IBIVI, Chicago, IL	., USA), and statisti	ical significance wa	as defined as $P < 0$	0.05.		
9 10	187							
11 12	188	Patient and pub	lic involvement					
13 14	189	Participants of th	is study or memb	ers of the public v	were not directly a	and pers	onally	
15	190	involved with stud	dy design, data pro	vision, analysis and	d publication of the	study.		
16 17 18	191	RESULTS						
19 20	192	Baseline charac	teristics					
21 22	193	After exclusions,	517 premenopausa	al women (mean ag	ge ± SD, 45.1 ± 4.2	2 years),	2,294	
23 24	194	postmenopausal	women (66.5 ± 8.8	8 years) and 2,39	7 men (64.1 ± 11.	2 years)) were	
25	195	analyzed. Demog	raphic data for the	three groups are s	shown in Table 1. C	Compare	d with	
26 27	196	men, premenopa	usal women had	higher HDL-C an	d postmenopausa	l wome	n had	
28 29	197	higher TC, LDL-	C, HDL-C, and no	nHDL-C. Compare	ed with premenop	ausal w	omen,	
30	198	postmenopausal	women had high	er fasting glucose	e, TC, LDL-C, TO	G, nonH	DL-C,	
31 32	199	TC/LDL-C, sdLD	L-C, and sdLDL-C	/LDL-C. TC and L	DL-C didn't differ	betweer	n men	
33 34	200	and premenopau	sal women.					
35	201							
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38 39	203	Table 1 Baseline	characteristics					
40			Group 1 (G1)	Group2 (G2)	Group3 (G3)			
41 42			Men	Premenopausal	Postmenopausal	Р	Р	Р
43 44			(n=2,397)	Women (n=517)	Women (n=2,294)	G1 vs	G1 vs	G2 vs
45						G2	G3	G3
46 47								
48 49		Age, years	64.1 ± 11.2	45.1 ± 4.2	$66.5{\pm}8.8$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
50								
51 52 53		BMI, kg/m2	23.3 ± 3.0	22.3 ± 3.6	22.5 ± 3.3	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.631
54 55 56 57 58		Smoking						

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6	Current	600 (25.1%)	40 (7.7%)	67 (2.9%)	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.007
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9	EX	1204 (50.3%)	73 (14.1%)	97 (4.2%)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
10							
11							
12	Drinker	1869 (78.2%)	316 (61.1%)	866 (37.8%)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
13	DIIIKI	1000 (10.270)	010 (01.170)	000 (01.070)	-0.001	-0.001	-0.001
14							
15	Glucose, mg/dL	100.7 ± 17.9	$90.9 {\pm} 9.4$	96.3 ± 12.3	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
16	Glucose, mg/aL	100.7 ± 17.8	90.9 ± 9.4	96.3 ± 12.3	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
17							
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19	TC, mg/dL	198.7 ± 32.9	199.2 ± 31.2	215.4 ± 31.6	1.000	< 0.001	< 0.001
20							
21							
22	LDL-C, mg/dL	$115.2 {\pm} 29.6$	114.2 ± 28.5	126.7 ± 28.7	1.000	< 0.001	< 0.001
23							
23							
25	TGs, mg/dL	100 (71, 146)	68(50, 94)	89 (67, 123)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
25							
20							
27 28	HDL-C, mg/dL	56.3 ± 13.8	67.8 ± 14.7	$62.8 {\pm} 14.9$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
28 29	IIDE 0, ing/ul		0110-1111	0=10 - 1110	0.001	0.001	-0.001
30	Non HDL-C, mg/dL	142.4 ± 32.6	131.4 ± 31.2	152.5 ± 31.3	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
31	Non HDL C, mg/uL	142.4 ± 52.0	131.4 ± 31.2	102.0 ± 01.0	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
32							
33		0 - 1 0	0.1.1.0.0		.0.001	.0.001	.0.001
34	TC/HDL-C	3.7 ± 1.0	3.1 ± 0.8	$3.6 {\pm} 0.9$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
35							
36		,		,			
37	SdLDL-C. mg/dL	34.1 (24.8, 46.5)	23.0 (16.8, 30.5)	31.2 (23.5, 41.8)	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
38							
39							
40	SdLDL-C/LDL-C	$0.32 {\pm} 0.14$	$0.22 {\pm} 0.08$	$0.29 {\pm} 0.12$	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
41							
42							

Data are expressed as mean±standard deviation (SD), %, and median (25th percentile, 75th percentile). P-values were assessed in one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post hoc pairwise comparison (Bonferroni). BMI=body mass index; TC= total cholesterol; LDL-C= low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TGs= triglycerides; HDL-C=high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; non HDL-C= non high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; sdLDL-C=small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol.

sdLDL-C trends in 5-year age groups

To assess the age-related trend in sdLDL-C levels, a 5-year age stratification was applied, and geometric mean sdLDL-C levels for each age groups were calculated and

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214 plotted against gender.

15For men, the level of sdLDL-C increased from 34.1 mg / dL in those < 39 years to a 16 maximum of 37.7 mg / dL in those of 50-54 years, followed by decreasing from 36.4 17mg / dL in those of 55-59 years to 27.4 mg / dL in those of 80 ≤ years (Figure 1). For 18 women, a relatively regular increasing trend of the sdLDL-C level was found up to 60-64 19 year-olds. After 65 years, a downward trend was fitted. The maximum of the sdLDL-C 20level of women was 32.7 mg / dL. Moreover, sdLDL-C levels in men were higher than 21those in women for all age groups younger than 70-74-year-olds but exceeded those in 22women after the age of 75-79 years.

226 sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio trends in 5-year age groups

SdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men increased from 0.30 in 40-44-year-olds to a maximum of 0.35 in 50-54-year-olds, plateaued in those of 55-59 years, and then decreased from 0.34 in those of 60-64 years to 0.28 in those of 80 \leq years (Figure 2). For women, these values increased from 0.20 in those < 39 years to a maximum of 0.28 in those of 65-69 years and plateaued after 70 \leq years (with mean levels of 0.27). SdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men was higher than those in women for all age groups and the crossover of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio for the genders did not occur.

4237Trends in other lipoproteins (LDL-C, total cholesterol, TG, HDL-C, and total5238cholesterol/HDL-C ratio) in 5-year age groups

39 LDL-C level in men decreased almost linearly, while LDL-C level in women rapidly 40 increased from 100.3 mg / dL in those aged < 39 years to a maximum of 132.8 mg / dL 41 in 60-64-year-olds and decreased from 128.2 mg / dL in those aged 65-69 to 119.5 42mg / dL in those 80≤ years (Figure 3). The level of TC, nonHDL-C, and TC/HDL-C ratio 43revealed a pattern similar to the trend of LDL-C levels (Supplementary Figure 1-3). The 44TG levels in men decreased almost linearly, while the level in women increased linearly 45(Supplementary Figure 4). HDL-C in both men and women decreased almost linearly 59 246(Supplementary Figure 5). 60

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250	SdLDL-C and sdLDL	-C/LDL-C ratio in the	standardized analys	is among the th
251	groups			
252	To standardize sdLD	L-C and sdLDL-C/LDL	-C ratio among the	e three groups
253	validate the above-me	entioned turning points,	the participants were	e re-stratified by
254	ranges corresponding	to increasing, plateau a	nd decreasing phase	s for each marke
255	gender and multiple lin	near regression analysis	was then applied.	
256	As shown in Table 2,	among men, age was	positively and negati	ively associated v
257	log-transformed small	dense low-density lipo	orotein cholesterol (L	.NsdLDL-C) level
258	those ≤ 54 years and	d ≥ 55 years. Among p	premenopausal wom	en, postmenopai
259	women ≤ 64 years, a	and postmenopausal v	vomen 65 ≥ years,	age was positiv
260	nositively and negati	ively associated with	LNsdLDL-C levels.	But the associa
200	positivery, and negati			
260 261		and age was not signific	antly associated with	men ≤ 54 years.
			antly associated with	men ≤ 54 years.
261			antly associated with	men ≤ 54 years.
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261 262 263	between LNsdLDL-C a	and age was not signific	4.	
261 262 263	between LNsdLDL-C a Table 2 Factors Assoc Variable	and age was not signific	C Level in Age Grou SE	ıps by Gender P
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261 262 263	between LNsdLDL-C a Table 2 Factors Assoc Variable Men ≤54, Age BMI Fasting glucose Smoker Current EX Drinker	and age was not signific eiated with LN sdLDL- β ,n=475; mean±SD, 46.7±4.9 x 0.006 0.033 0.004 0.018 0.050 0.144	C Level in Age Grou SE vears, Pearson's r= 0.320 (P- 0.004 0.006 0.002 0.054 0.053 0.059	ups by Gender <i>P</i> <0.001) 0.169 <0.001 0.003 0.747 0.342 0.015
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261 262 263	between LNsdLDL-C a Table 2 Factors Assoc Variable Men ≤54, Age BMI Fasting glucose Smoker Current EX Drinker Men Age	and age was not signific ciated with LN sdLDL- β ,n=475; mean±SD, 46.7±4.9 y 0.006 0.033 0.004 0.018 0.050 0.144 ≥55, n=1,922; 68.4±7.6 years, -0.010	C Level in Age Grou SE rears, Pearson's r= 0.320 (P- 0.004 0.006 0.002 0.054 0.053 0.059 Pearson's r= 0.316 (P<0.00 0.001	ups by Gender <i>P</i> <0.001) 0.169 <0.001 0.003 0.747 0.342 0.015 01) <0.001

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Current	0.025	0.030	0.402
EX	0.032	0.024	0.192
Drinker	0.076	0.024	0.001
Women (Pr	remenopausal), n=517; 45.1 \pm 4.2 ;	years, Pearson's r=0.330 (l	?<0.001)
Age	0.014	0.005	0.002
BMI	0.024	0.006	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.008	0.002	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.021	0.072	0.775
EX	-0.005	0.056	0.934
Drinker	0.033	0.039	0.398
Women≤64 years	(Postmenopausal), n=978; 58.3	± 4.5 years, Pearson's r=0	.261 (P<0.001)
Age	0.014	0.003	< 0.001
BMI	0.019	0.004	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.004	0.001	< 0.001
Smoker			
Shloker			
Current	0.052	0.067	0.437
	0.052 0.036	0.067	0.437 0.479
Current EX			
Current EX Drinker	0.036	0.051 0.026	0.479 0.792
Current EX Drinker Women 65≥ years (F	0.036 0.007	0.051 0.026	0.479 0.792
Current EX Drinker Women 65≥ years (F Age	0.036 0.007 Postmenopausal), n=1,316; 72.6:	0.051 0.026 ± 5.7 year olds, Pearson's 1	0.479 0.792 =0.228 (P<0.001)
Current EX Drinker	0.036 0.007 Postmenopausal), n=1,316; 72.6: -0.004	0.051 0.026 ±5.7 year olds, Pearson's n 0.002	0.479 0.792 =0.228 (P<0.001) 0.045
Current EX Drinker Women 65≥ years (F Age BMI	0.036 0.007 Postmenopausal), n=1,316; 72.6: -0.004 0.022	0.051 0.026 ±5.7 year olds, Pearson's n 0.002 0.004	0.479 0.792 =0.228 (P<0.001) 0.045 <0.001
Current EX Drinker Women 65≥ years (F Age BMI Fasting glucose	0.036 0.007 Postmenopausal), n=1,316; 72.6: -0.004 0.022	0.051 0.026 ±5.7 year olds, Pearson's n 0.002 0.004	0.479 0.792 =0.228 (P<0.001) 0.045 <0.001
Current EX Drinker Women 65≥ years (F Age BMI Fasting glucose Smoker	0.036 0.007 Postmenopausal), n=1,316; 72.6 -0.004 0.022 0.003	0.051 0.026 ±5.7 year olds, Pearson's r 0.002 0.004 0.001	0.479 0.792 =0.228 (P<0.001) 0.045 <0.001 0.001

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270	As shown in Table 3, age in men \leq 54 years, 55-59 years, and 60 \geq years, was
271	positively, positively, and negatively associated with sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. In women,
272	age in premenopausal women, postmenopausal women \leq 69 years was positively
273	associated with sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, whereas age in postmenopausal women 70 \geq
274	years was not significantly associated sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. The association between
275	sdLDL-C/LDL-C and age was not significantly associated with men 55-59 years,
276	premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women 70 \geq years.

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279 Table 3 Factors Associated with SdLDL-C/LDL-C Ratio in Age Groups by Gender

Variable	β	SE	Р
Men ≤54 years	s, n=475; mean±SD, 46.7±4.9	9 year olds, Pearson's r= 0.32	20 (P<0.001)
Age	0.003	0.001	0.020
BMI	0.005	0.002	0.012
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	0.010
Smoker			
Current	0.029	0.016	0.081
EX	0.011	0.016	0.501
Drinker	0.049	0.018	0.007
Men 55-	59 years, n=245; 57.2±1.4 yea	ars, Pearson's r= 0.222 (P<	0.001)
Age	0.004	0.007	0.589
BMI	0.003	0.003	0.385
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.001	0.285
Smoker			
Current	0.049	0.032	0.125
EX	0.062	0.030	0.042
Drinker	0.055	0.027	0.041
Men 60≥	years, n=1,677; 70.0±6.8 ye	ears, Pearson's r= 0.272 (P<	:0.001)
	-0.002	0.000	< 0.001
Age			
Age BMI	0.005	0.001	< 0.001

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Current	0.029	0.009	0.001
EX	0.009	0.007	0.235
Drinker	0.055	0.007	< 0.001
Women (Pren	nenopausal), n=517; 45.1±4.2 ye	ars, Pearson's r=0.313 (I	?<0.001)
Age	0.001	0.001	0.147
BMI	0.003	0.001	0.002
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.010	0.012	0.413
EX	0.000	0.010	0.988
Drinker	0.015	0.007	0.027
Women≤69 years (Pe	ostmenopausal), n=1,434; 61.0=	±5.5 years, Pearson's r=0).264 (P<0.001)
Age	0.002	0.000	< 0.001
BMI	0.004	0.001	< 0.001
Fasting glucose	0.001	0.000	< 0.001
Smoker			
Current	0.001	0.012	0.914
EX	0.013	0.010	0.201
	0.003	0.005	0.555
Drinker			
	stmenopausal), n=860; 75.6±4	.6 year olds, Pearson's r=	=0.167 (P<0.001)
	stmenopausal), n=860; 75.6±4 0.000	6 year olds, Pearson's r - 0.001	=0.167 (P<0.001) 0.704
Women 70≥ years (Po			
Women 70≥ years (Po Age	0.000	0.001	0.704
Women 70≥ years (Po Age BMI	0.000 0.004	0.001 0.001	0.704 <0.001
Women 70≥ years (Po Age BMI Fasting glucose	0.000 0.004	0.001 0.001	0.704 <0.001
Women 70≥ years (Po Age BMI Fasting glucose Smoker	0.000 0.004 0.001	0.001 0.001 0.000	0.704 <0.001 <0.001

283cholesterol; BMI=body mass index.

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Considering the beta value of each variable, 50-year old standardized sdLDL-C levels in men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 26.6 mg / dL (95 % CI; 26.4-26.9 mg / dL), 22.7 mg / dL (95 % CI; 22.5-22.9 mg / dL), and 27.4 mg / dL (95 % CI; 27.3-27.5 mg/dL), respectively. Standardized sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men, premenopausal women, and postmenopausal women were 0.24 (95 % CI; 0.24-0.24), 0.15 (95 % CI; 0.15-0.16), and 0.23 (95 % CI; 0.22-0.23), respectively. These differences between premenopausal women and postmenopausal women were significant (Bonferroni analysis, P < 0.001).

295 DISCUSSION

To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate the association between age, gender, menopausal status, and sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. The age-related sdLDL-C trends showed roughly an increasing phase, followed by a decreasing phase in men and a plateaued phase in middle-aged women. The age-related sdLDL-C trend in men, but not in women, was similar to traditional lipid cholesterol profiles. The reason for this gender difference might be related to the mechanism of hypertriglyceridemia in postmenopausal women, which induced small LDL particles.²⁰⁻²² There were age or gender-related differences in sdLDL-C / LDL-C ratio, reflecting the ability to generate sdLDL-C from LDL-C. This ability in men was higher than that in women for all age groups or standardized groups, which is identical to the fact that atherosclerosis is more common in men than in women, considering sdLDL-C is a highly atherogenic factor.

Our study showed three important results. First, age showed partial correlation trends with sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and non-linear trends between age and sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio were found in both men and women. Therefore, using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio, the definition of CVD risk assessment and the adaption of the lipid-lowering therapy should fully consider age-related trends and gender differences.

Second, menopausal status was an additional determinant of increasing sdLDL-C and
 sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio. Many factors such as excess adiposity, free fatty acids,

apo-lipoproteins, and action of lipoprotein lipase activity and cholesterol ester transfer protein affected multiple and complex mechanisms regulating sdLDL.^{12,16,17} In postmenopausal women, the decrease of plasma estrogen levels plays a significant role in reducing the clearance of LDL particles via LDL receptor and increasing TG and the number of smaller LDL particles.²³ This hormone change was related to the process of regulating sdLDL-C but there was little evidence available on the association between menopausal status and sdLDL-C or sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in a real-world, population setting.²⁴ Our results showed that sdLDL-C in postmenopausal women was 0.8 or 3.9 mg / dL higher than men or premenopausal women in the standardized analysis.

Finally, the relationships between age-related trends in sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio and gender were different from traditional lipid factors, such as LDL-C. The crossover of LDL-C for the genders occurred in middle-aged patients. On the contrary, the crossover of sdLDL-C occurred between 70-74 years and the sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio did not occur. Rather than LDL-C, the results of the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio might reflect the fact that, for all age groups, men have more susceptible to CVD than women, even with the narrowing gap of risk for CVD in postmenopausal women.²⁵

Our findings suggest that a subgroup-specific approach is required to develop efficient
 CVD prevention strategies using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio.

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339 Limitations

Our study has several limitations. First, age-related trends and levels of traditional lipid factors were almost similar to National Health and Nutrition Survey in Japan and our age-related trends of these factors were also similar to the trends of the Korean and Chinese Singaporeans population.^{14,15} But the trends of the US population or healthy Caucasian^{26,27} were not similar. Especially in healthy Caucasian patients aged \geq 70 years, the trends for TC, LDL-C, and nonHDL-C differed from our observed trends and continuously increased. Although our results could not identify the mechanism, there might be racial differences. Therefore, it is unclear whether our results of sdLDL-C would be valid for these populations. Second, compared with mean lipid levels of the

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Korean population from KNHANES, Japanese men showed higher mean TC, LDL-C, and HDL levels (TC 199 mg / dL; LDL-C 115 mg / dL; HDL-C 56 mg / dL) compared to Korean men (TC 183 mg/dL; LDL-C 106 mg/dL; HDL 50 mg/dL), and Japanese women also showed higher mean levels (TC 212 mg / dL; LDL-C 124 mg / dL; HDL-C 64 mg / dL) than Korean women (TC 188 mg / dL; LDL-C 111 mg / dL; HDL-C 55 mg / dL). The reason for the difference in the lipoprotein profile between Japanese and Korean populations might be due to genetics and environmental factors. It is also unknown whether these factors might affect sdLDL-C levels and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio because sdLDLs are regulated through complex mechanisms. Third, we did not control for the effects of diet, life activity, socioeconomic status, and genetic factors, which might be associated with changes in lipid metabolism.^{28,29,30} Fourth, there might be several biases. Selection bias might from potential come non-representativeness of the study population, which was rural dwelling. There might be information bias and data misclassification due to error in measurement of the lipid parameters. Fifth, as shown in the supplementary figure 6 and 7, the results regarding the association between demographic factors and sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio remained the same in 6,282 participants including patients taking lipid-lowering therapy. SdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio in men including patients taking lipid-lowering therapy was higher than in men excluding these patients (0.45 vs 0.35). Our assessment was limited in terms of this difference, because data regarding type and dose of medications for dyslipidemia were not available. We need to validate the association in patients taking lipid-lowering therapy in another cohort. Finally, our study could not evaluate the association between the demographic factors and other lipid markers, such as Lp(a) and oxidized LDL-C. Lp(a) was a significant risk factor for cardiovascular disorders and to be in the spotlight due to a novel therapy using antisense oligonucleotides. These lipid markers should be discussed in further study.³¹

CONCLUSION

SdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio are differently distributed by age, gender, and menopausal status. Our findings suggest that a subgroup-specific approach is required

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5 6	381	to develop efficient CVD prevention strategies using the sdLDL-C and sdLDL-C/LDL-C
7 8	382	ratio.
9	383	
10 11	384	List of abbreviations
12 13	385	sdLDL-C: small dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; CVD: cardiovascular disease;
14	386	LDL-C: low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TC: total cholesterol; LDL-C: low-density
15 16	387	lipoprotein cholesterol; TGs :triglycerides; HDL-C :high-density lipoprotein cholesterol:
17 18	388	nonHDL-C: non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LNsdLDL-C: log-transformed small
19	389	dense low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; JMS: Jichi Medical School; ANOVA; analysis
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13 14	398	
15 16	399	Ethics approval and consent to participate
17	400	All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance
18 19	401	with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and
20 21	402	with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical
22	403	standards. All the participants included in the present study provided written informed
23 24	404	consent prior to inclusion, and this study was approved by the Institutional Review
25 26	405	Board of Jichi Medical School (Tochigi, Japan, IRB No. G09-39 [G17-64 revised]).
27 28	406	
29	407	Data sharing statement
30 31		
32 33	408	Data are available upon reasonable request.
34	409	
35 36	410	Author contributions
37 38	411	TI, YN, YS, and SI have participated in the research and designed the study; TI and SI
39	412	performed the statistics analysis; TI contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. YN,
40 41	413	YS, and SI provided feedback on the manuscript, and all authors read and approved the
42 43	414	final manuscript.
44	415	
45 46	416	Consent for publication
47 48	417	All the participants included in the present study provided written informed consent for
49 50	418	publication.
51	419	
52 53	420	Competing interests
54	421	The authors declare they have no conflict of interest with respect to this research study
55 56	422	and paper.
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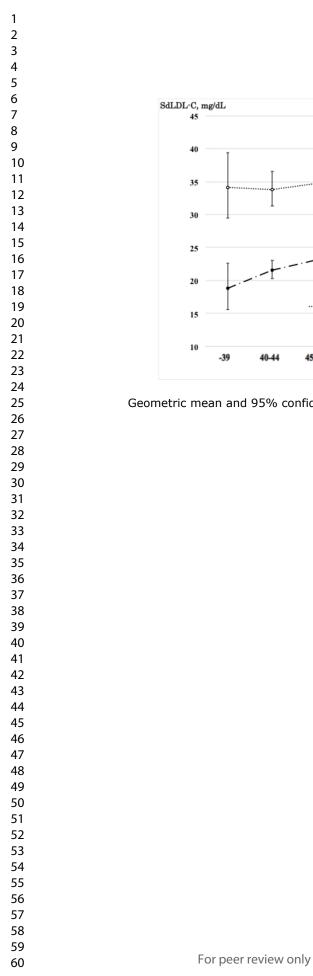
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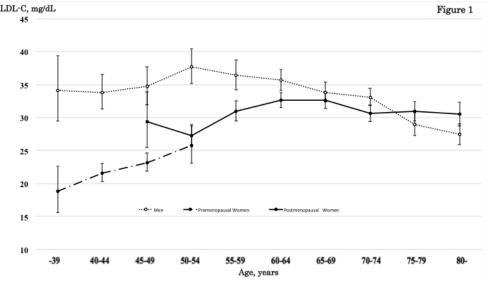
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6 7	541	FIGURE LEGENDS
8 9 10	542	Figure 1. Geometric mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C for age,
11 12	543	gender, and menopausal status
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15 16	545	Figure 2. Mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio for age,
17 18	546	gender, and menopausal status
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20 21	548	Figure 3. Mean and 95% confidence interval of LDL-C for age, gender, and
22 23	549	menopausal status
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25 26	551	Supplementary Material
27 28	552	Supplementary Figure 1. Mean of total cholesterol for age, gender, and
29	553	menopausal status
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32 33	555	Supplementary Figure 2. Mean of non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol for age,
34	556	gender, and menopausal status
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37 38	558	Supplementary Figure 3. Mean of total cholesterol / high-density lipoprotein
39	559	cholesterol ratio for age, gender, and menopausal status
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44	562	Supplementary Figure 4. Geometric mean of triglycerides for age, gender, and
45 46	563	menopausal status
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49	565	Supplementary Figure 5. Mean of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol for age,
50 51	566	gender, and menopausal status
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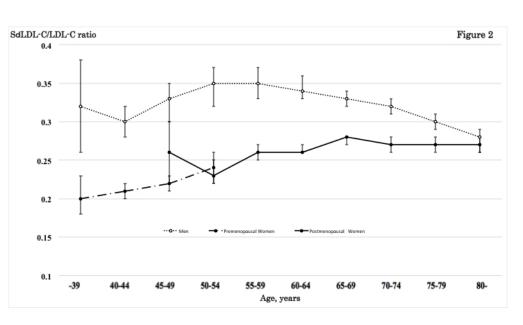
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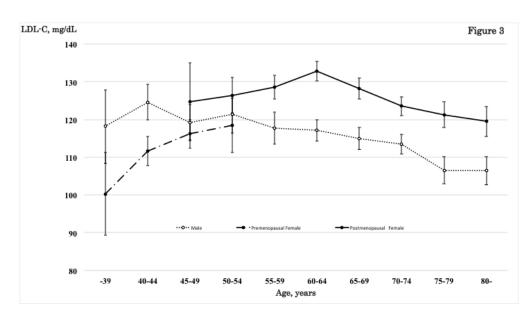
Geometric mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C for age, gender, and menopausal status

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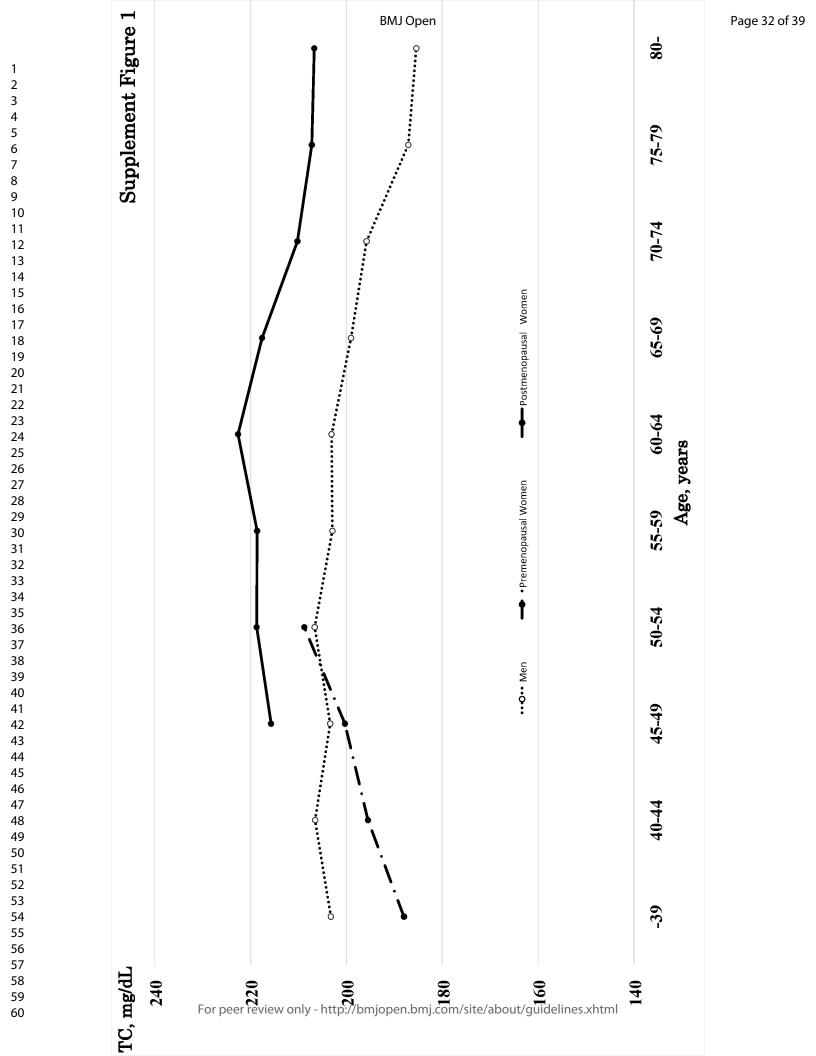
Mean and 95% confidence interval of sdLDL-C/LDL-C ratio for age, gender, and menopausal status

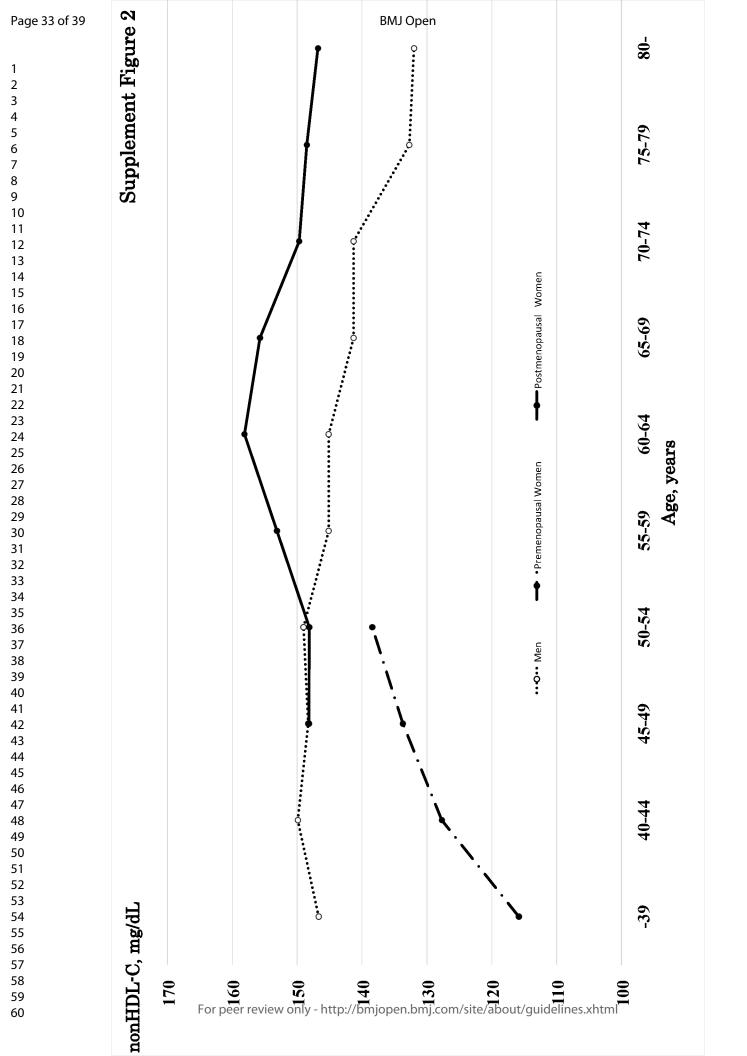
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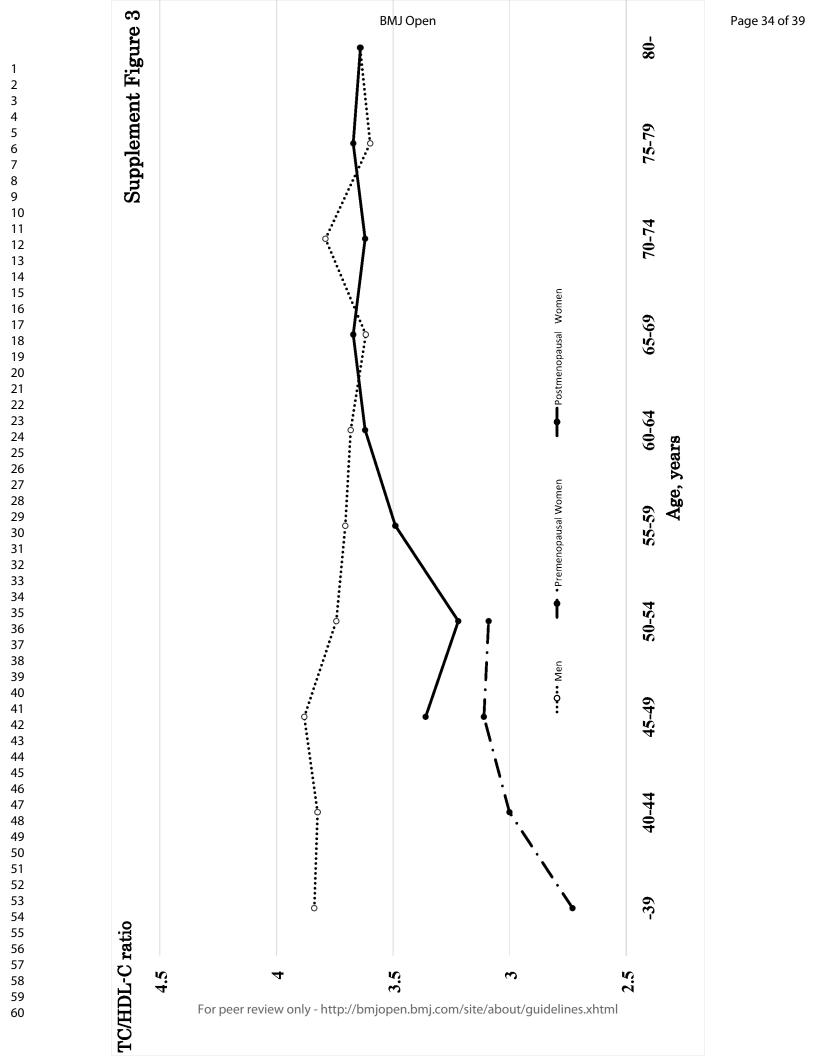


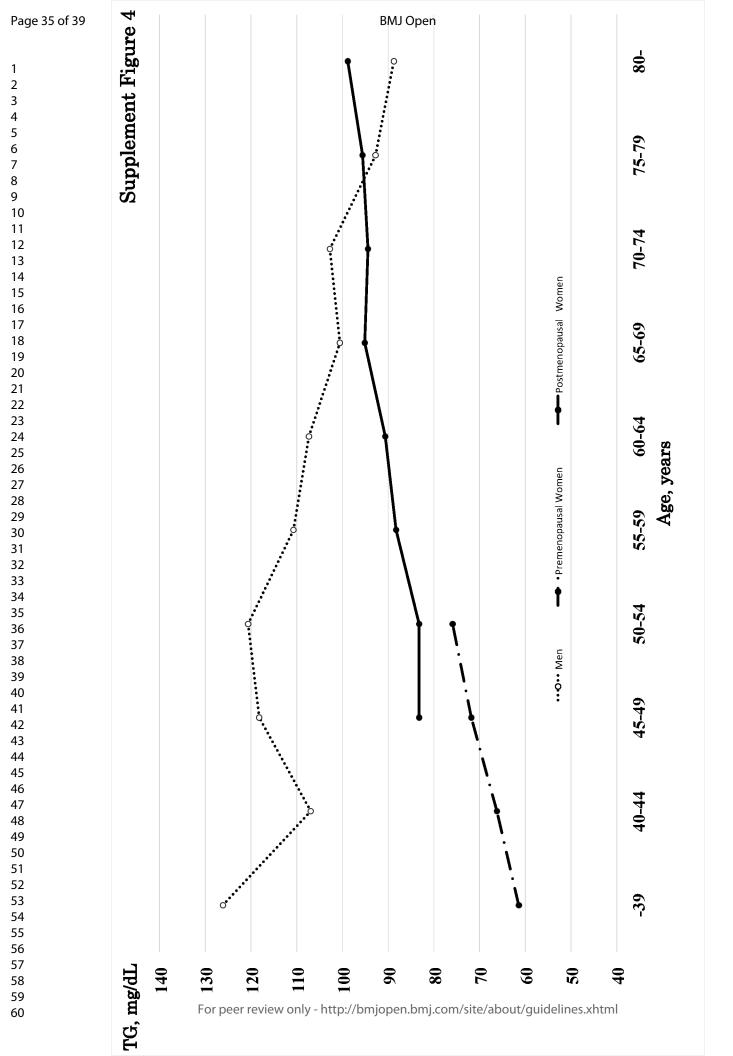
Mean and 95% confidence interval of LDL-C for age, gender, and menopausal status

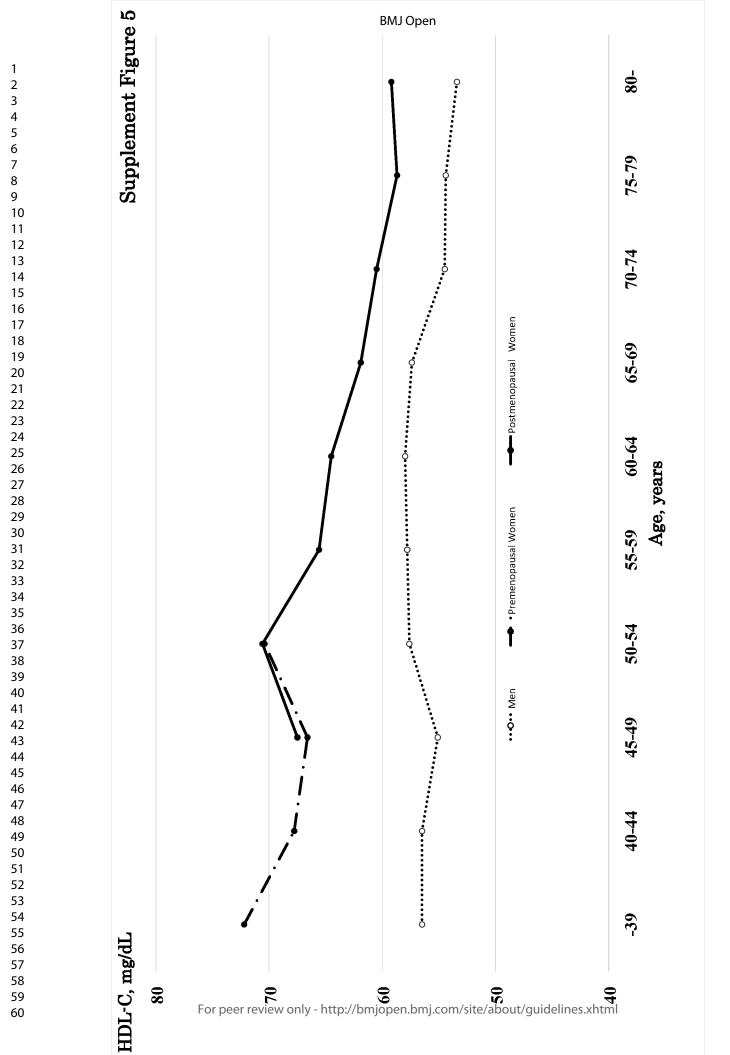
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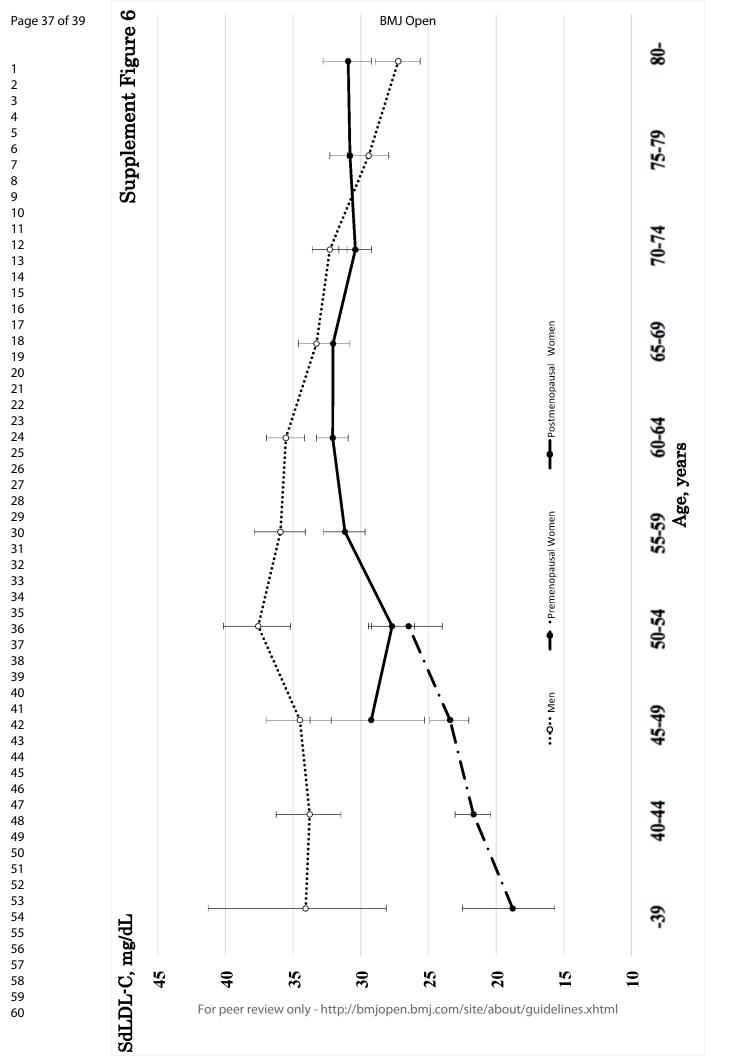


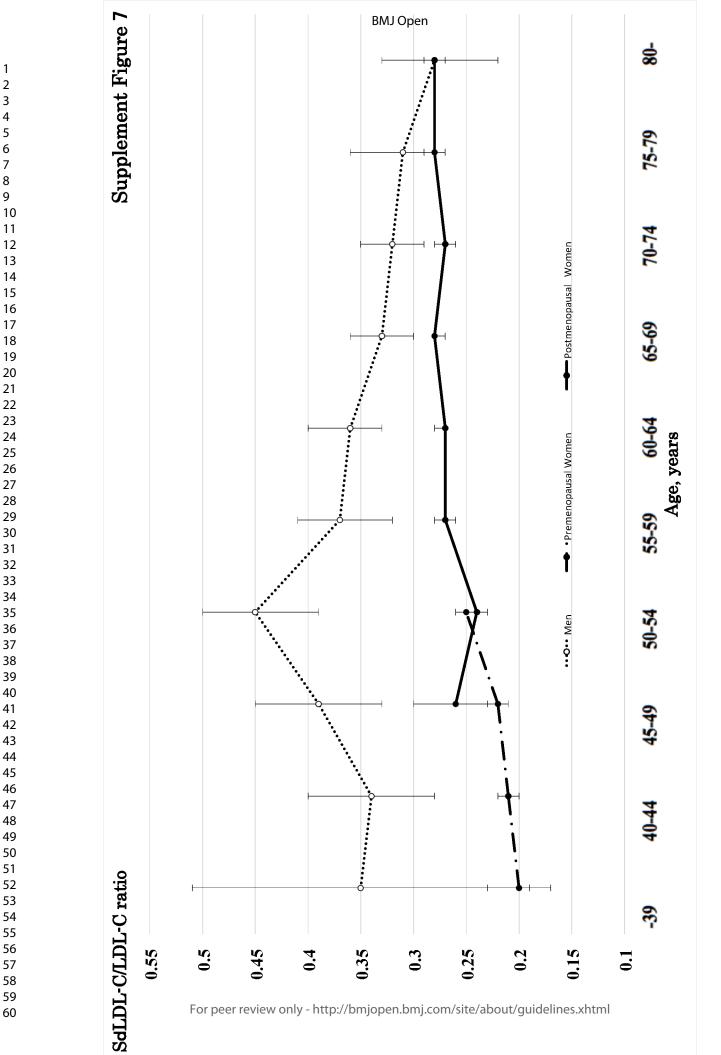






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Section/Topic	ltem #	Recommendation	Reported on page
Title and abstract	1	(a) Indicate the study's design with a commonly used term in the title or the abstract	1, 3
		(b) Provide in the abstract an informative and balanced summary of what was done and what was found	3
Introduction			
Background/rationale	2	Explain the scientific background and rationale for the investigation being reported	5
Objectives	3	State specific objectives, including any prespecified hypotheses	5
Methods		6	
Study design	4	Present key elements of study design early in the paper	1, 3, 6
Setting	5	Describe the setting, locations, and relevant dates, including periods of recruitment, exposure, follow-up, and data collection	6
Participants	6	(a) Give the eligibility criteria, and the sources and methods of selection of participants. Describe methods of follow-up	6
		(b) For matched studies, give matching criteria and number of exposed and unexposed	8
Variables	7	Clearly define all outcomes, exposures, predictors, potential confounders, and effect modifiers. Give diagnostic criteria, if applicable	7
Data sources/ measurement	8*	For each variable of interest, give sources of data and details of methods of assessment (measurement). Describe comparability of assessment methods if there is more than one group	6, 7
Bias	9	Describe any efforts to address potential sources of bias	7
Study size	10	Explain how the study size was arrived at	6
Quantitative variables	11	Explain how quantitative variables were handled in the analyses. If applicable, describe which groupings were chosen and why	7
Statistical methods	12	(a) Describe all statistical methods, including those used to control for confounding	7
		(b) Describe any methods used to examine subgroups and interactions	7
		(c) Explain how missing data were addressed	6
		(d) If applicable, explain how loss to follow-up was addressed	-
		(e) Describe any sensitivity analyses	-

Participants	13*	(a) Report numbers of individuals at each stage of study—eg numbers potentially eligible, examined for eligibility, confirmed	6, 8
		eligible, included in the study, completing follow-up, and analysed	
		(b) Give reasons for non-participation at each stage	-
		(c) Consider use of a flow diagram	-
Descriptive data	14*	(a) Give characteristics of study participants (eg demographic, clinical, social) and information on exposures and potential confounders	8-10
		(b) Indicate number of participants with missing data for each variable of interest	-
		(c) Summarise follow-up time (eg, average and total amount)	-
Outcome data	15*	Report numbers of outcome events or summary measures over time	-
Main results	16	(a) Give unadjusted estimates and, if applicable, confounder-adjusted estimates and their precision (eg, 95% confidence	8-16
		interval). Make clear which confounders were adjusted for and why they were included	
		(b) Report category boundaries when continuous variables were categorized	8-16
		(c) If relevant, consider translating estimates of relative risk into absolute risk for a meaningful time period	-
Other analyses	17	Report other analyses done—eg analyses of subgroups and interactions, and sensitivity analyses	9-16
Discussion			
Key results	18	Summarise key results with reference to study objectives	12-16
Limitations			
Interpretation	20	Give a cautious overall interpretation of results considering objectives, limitations, multiplicity of analyses, results from similar studies, and other relevant evidence	16-18
Generalisability	21	Discuss the generalisability (external validity) of the study results	18
Other information			
Funding	22	Give the source of funding and the role of the funders for the present study and, if applicable, for the original study on	20-21
		which the present article is based	

*Give information separately for cases and controls in case-control studies and, if applicable, for exposed and unexposed groups in cohort and cross-sectional studies.

Note: An Explanation and Elaboration article discusses each checklist item and gives methodological background and published examples of transparent reporting. The STROBE checklist is best used in conjunction with this article (freely available on the Web sites of PLoS Medicine at http://www.plosmedicine.org/, Annals of Internal Medicine at http://www.annals.org/, and Epidemiology at http://www.epidem.com/). Information on the STROBE Initiative is available at www.strobe-statement.org.