



Cite as: MAJCHRZAK, Mateusz, GRACZYK, Natalia, GRACZYK, Martyna, WISOKY, Wiktor, CZAPLA, Natalia, ZIÓLKOWSKA, Weronika, STRÓŻYŃSKA, Ewelina, ŁOPIŃSKA, Joanna, MAJCHRZYCKA, Marta and IGNYŚ, Piotr. Sexual Dimorphism and Aging as Determinants of Serum Lipid Profiles and Cardiovascular Risk. Journal of Education, Health and Sport. 2026;91:70887. <https://doi.org/10.12775/JEHS.2026.91.70887>

ARTICLE TIMELINE

Received: 14.04.2026 Revised: 15.05.2026

Accepted: 16.05.2026 Published: 23.05.2026

INDEXING & EVALUATION

MEiN points: 40 Unique ID: 201159

Disciplines: Physical culture sciences (Field of medical and health sciences); Health Sciences (Field of medical and health sciences).

The journal has been awarded 40 points in the parametric evaluation by the Polish Ministry of Higher Education and Science (Annex to the announcement of 05.01.2024, No. 32318). Unique Journal Identifier: 201159. Scientific disciplines: Physical culture sciences (Field of medical and health sciences); Health Sciences (Field of medical and health sciences).

Punkty Ministerialne z 2019 – aktualny rok 40 punktów. Załącznik do komunikatu Ministra Szkolnictwa Wyższego i Nauki z dnia 05.01.2024 Lp. 32318. Posiada Unikatowy Identyfikator Czasopisma: 201159. Przypisane dyscypliny naukowe: Nauki o kulturze fizycznej (Dziedzina nauk medycznych i nauk o zdrowiu); Nauki o zdrowiu (Dziedzina nauk medycznych i nauk o zdrowiu). © The Authors 2026.

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Title: Sexual Dimorphism and Aging as Determinants of Serum Lipid Profiles and Cardiovascular Risk

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Abstract

The complex variability of circulating blood lipid profiles serves as a fundamental physiological indicator for the onset and progression of numerous metabolic and chronic conditions. It is clinically well-established that dyslipidemia—a multifaceted metabolic state characterized by pathologically elevated lipid concentrations—functions as a primary driver in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis and subsequent cardiovascular disease. Given that the systematic reduction of these lipid fractions, whether through pharmacological intervention or lifestyle modification, can drastically improve a patient's long-term cardiovascular prognosis, a nuanced understanding of lipid distribution is critical for effective clinical management.

This review provides a comprehensive analysis of the various biological determinants that govern these fluctuations, with a particular emphasis on the distinct roles of sex-based hormonal profiles and age-related physiological shifts. By examining the interplay between these factors, we aim to elucidate how they independently and synergistically influence the serum concentrations of triglycerides, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol. Furthermore, the discussion explores how these demographic variables modulate the metabolic pathways responsible for both the accumulation of pro-atherogenic particles and the efficiency of reverse cholesterol transport, ultimately shaping an individual's overall cardiovascular risk profile.

Methods:

This study was conducted as a comprehensive review of existing scientific literature and clinical guidelines (including AHA, ACC, and ESC/EAS) regarding lipoprotein metabolism. We analyzed the pathophysiological mechanisms through which non-modifiable risk factors—specifically age and biological sex—influence lipid profiles. The research focused on synthesizing data from biochemical studies (e.g., enzyme activity like CYP7A1, LPL, and PCSK9), genetic expression and epidemiological observations. By integrating findings on hormonal regulation and age-related cellular changes, we aimed to provide a holistic overview of how these determinants dictate long-term cardiovascular risk and influence clinical diagnostic criteria.

Key words: Lipoprotein metabolism, Cardiovascular disease risk, Dyslipidemia, Aging, Sexual dimorphism, Estrogen and Testosterone, LDL, Adipose tissue distribution

Introduction

Lipoprotein metabolism involves a sophisticated array of biochemical processes that engage various tissues across the human organism [1]. It is well-documented that abnormal serum lipoprotein levels constitute an essential risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (CVD), which remain the leading global cause of mortality among adults [2]. Specifically, dyslipidemias characterized by elevated triglycerides (TG) and reduced high-density lipoprotein (HDL) concentrations serve as direct contributors to metabolic instability and are intrinsically interconnected with all five diagnostic criteria for metabolic syndrome [3].

Furthermore, the clinical significance of these lipids is underscored by the inclusion of high total cholesterol (TC) in Systematic Coronary Risk Estimation (SCORE) models, highlighting their role as the pathophysiological foundation of modern civilization diseases [4]. Beyond these standard metrics, lipoprotein concentrations represent the majority of biochemical markers used to assess the risk of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD) [5].

Numerous studies in the literature emphasize the profound connection between lipid profiles and individual demographic factors. Age and sex serve as the unmodifiable baselines for all comprehensive CVD risk assessments [4]. Critical transitions in lipoprotein metabolism predominantly occur at biological aging breakthrough points, suggesting that identical CVD risk factors may carry different clinical relevance depending on an individual's age and sex [6,7,8,9]. Understanding these nuances is therefore vital for tailoring preventive strategies and improving long-term patient outcomes.

Age

Aging was proven to be a principal unmodifiable risk factor in various atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases. Age is described as an independent risk factor due to its role in ASCVD development in the elderly. The aging process constitutes a liability for every group of people, regardless of the presence of other risk factors and unhealthy habits.[10] However, the modifiable risk factors can be changed by specific treatment and behavior, contradistinctively to age. Obsolescence causes a higher risk of ASCVD in the elderly affected by modifiable factors than in the healthy and unaffected. [11]

Advanced age predisposes to alterations of lipoprotein metabolism pathways, which leads to many changes in lipoprotein concentration and function.

The activity of lipoprotein lipase decreases with age. The research conducted on the soleus muscles of rats corroborates this statement.[12] The rate at which LPS enzyme activity decreases is between 55 and 60 percent, being one of the reasons for age-induced lipoprotein metabolism alterations. This process is presumably a result of age-related changes in the function of hormones that influence lipid metabolism, including leptin, epinephrine, and somatropin.[13]

Age-caused increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) affects the accumulation of hepatic cholesterol in the liver. Elevated ROS levels increase synthesis de novo of hepatic cholesterol by boosting expression of SREBP-2 protein and intensify cholesterol and glucose uptake in the hepatic cells.

It leads to a higher accumulation of cholesterol in the liver, its concentration in hepatic cells, and an overall increase of hepatic cholesterol level with age.[14]

Various studies have shown that getting older results in an increase of LDL-C despite the sex of examined subjects. Although there is not any known mechanism, scientific researches made on that topic lead to hypothetical reasons for LDL-C concentration alterations.

Intensified intestinal cholesterol absorption and lowered number of hepatic LDL receptors (LDLRr) lead to LDL-C increase up to +34mg/dL. Framingham Study shows that LDL-C rises respectively from 97.08 - 100.44mg/dL at the age of 15-19, to 132.25 - 156.91mg/dL in 75-79 aged adults of both sexes.[15] Furthermore, the rate of LDL-C clearance from the blood system is reduced during the lifetime. As a result of the reduction of hepatic LDLr number caused by the aging process.[16,17] LDLr takes part in the process of removing apo B-100 from the plasma, additionally VLDL and LDL particles from the bloodstream. Furthermore, decreased levels of LDLr is the cause of elevated concentration of LDL-C VLDL-C and apo B-100 lipoproteins in the elderly.[18]

Advanced age leads to bile acid synthesis decrease, caused directly by the deadening of Cholesterol 7 alpha-hydroxylase (CYP7AI) enzyme activity. CYP7AI is responsible for converting cholesterol to 7-alpha-hydroxycholesterol, which can result in age-related dysregulation of lipoprotein metabolism.[19] There is a significant role of aberrations in proprotein convertase subtilisin kexin-9 (PSCK9). This enzyme binds the A-domain of LDLr, which causes the LDLr degradation

process. PCSK9 is regulated by SREBP-2 and its levels seem to rise with age, which is the reason for low LDLr level and high LDL-C concentration in the elderly.[20]

HDL-C concentration is also dependent on aging.[25] HDL-C levels tend to rise in adults, until the age of 50-55, then it starts to diminish. The age-caused reduction of the atheroprotective HDL-C leads to the pathogenesis of ASCVD.[21] The rate at which HDL-C concentrations decrease per year in people aged 50-93 is a 1% average decrease in males and an 0,8% average decrease in females [22].

Age-induced changes in levels of specific lipoprotein fraction alter overall lipoprotein balance and cause changes in Total Cholesterol level. Through various studies, a particular trend has been observed. The average level of TC gets higher during the first 50 years of life, and after reaching its peak, decreases in both elderly men and women. The depletion starts between 50 and 55 years of age, and parallelly the decrease of HDL-C concentration occurs at the same age period. [23] However, a reduction in TC level is lower in women than in men. Nevertheless, a small amount of scientific research suggests an increase of TC level after 50-55 years, although these statements rely on small trials of humble representativeness [24].

Changes induced by advancing age in the lipoprotein metabolism and lipoprotein levels include an increase in the concentration of LDL-C, VLDL-C, and apo B-100 lipoprotein fractions. Additionally, a decrease in HDL-C concentration and TC levels. Getting older is also the reason for increased hepatic cholesterol accumulation. Those changes directly lead to alterations in lipoprotein fractions in the elderly, and because of that, different recommendations for lipid values are proposed for both children and adults by the American Heart Association and the American College of Cardiology. Their purpose is to minimize the risk of ASCVD and clarify the effects of abnormal lipid concentration treatment [25].

Comparison of desirable, acceptable and abnormal blood lipoprotein fraction concentration of children and adult* [mg/dl]

	children			adult		
	desirable	acceptable	abnormal	desirable	acceptable	abnormal
TC	<170	170-199	>199	<200	200-239	>239
LDL-C	<110	110-129	>129	<100	130-159	>159
HDL-C	>45	40-45	<40	>60	40-60	<40

*According to Grundy et al. 2019

Those recommendations are not included in the European Society of Cardiology and the European Atherosclerosis Society guidelines for the treatment of dyslipidaemias [3]. However, European guidelines include a recommendation for specific supervision of dyslipidaemias in people over 65 years old. The statins treatment is especially advised because it helps achieve a healthy and desired LDL-C concentration, which results in lowered ASCVD risk. The presence of individual references

for people at an advanced age in both American and European guidelines indicates the importance of age as an individual risk factor of ASCVD. The determinant is directly related to age-induced alteration of lipoprotein metabolism.

Sex

Sex hormones' levels are pivotal factors, which determine lipoprotein levels, which correlate with atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD) risk. High levels of estrogens (primarily estradiol and progesterone) induce mechanisms responsible for advantageous (in comparison to men that are generally more prone to hyperlipidemias and ASCVD [26]) differences in triglyceride, free fatty acid, and cholesterol metabolism. Additionally, statistically more women than men present healthy lifestyle behaviors, such as acknowledging the risk of being overweight and expressing a desire to lose weight or actively trying to [27]. The distribution of body fat plays a crucial role in lipoprotein, fatty acids, and triglyceride blood levels. Estrogen is responsible for the sex-bias expression of the liver genes that code lipid metabolism enzymes, which results in significant differences in serum cholesterol fraction levels and lipid metabolism. It is crucial to indicate the noteworthy decrease in sex hormones' levels after menopause hence postmenopausal women will be distinguished from women prior to menopause in this chapter. Postmenopausal women show a higher predisposition to hyperlipidemias comparable to that typical of men. Wherethrough, data shows that before the age of 75 primarily men die from ASCVD (twice as much before 65), but cardiovascular disease (CVD) accounts for a higher percentage in causes of death in women, probably because the risk increases with age [28] and women tend to live longer [29]. That ultimately results in more women dying of cardiovascular disease [30]. The impact of sex hormones' levels on lipoproteins levels and ASCVD risk is still under-researched.

Distribution of adipocytes and lipid storage

Women customarily have a higher body fat percentage than men. Moreover, there are essential differences in adipocytes and lipid distribution. Women generally store body fat in subcutaneous depots of gluteal-femoral regions, whereas men accumulate adipocytes in the visceral area [31]. This discrepancy is attributable to estrogen regulating pre-adipocytes maturation, promoting white adipogenic lineage through estrogen receptor alpha ($E\alpha$). Estrogen promotes insulin sensitivity and activates adiponectin- mediators of subcutaneous body fat distribution [32]. Additionally, ectopic body fat is stored in muscles (more typical for women) and liver (storage more prominent in men) [33]. The differences are caused by sex hormone signaling in adipocytes. Women after menopause tend to have their body fat redistributed to visceral depots, which comes with losing the favorable body fat distribution and increasing the risk of metabolic and cardiovascular diseases [34]. Both women and men with central obesity independently present an adverse CVD risk profile, enhanced insulin resistance, increased low-density lipoprotein (LDL) and triglycerides (TG), additionally a decline in size, concentration, and function of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) [35,36]. Evidence indicates that catecholamine-induced lipolysis profoundly differs between upper and lower body fat in women, simultaneously being relatively consistent in men. There are indications that oxidation of fatty acids occurs more efficiently in men than in women [37]. All of these factors are directly connected to estrogen signaling, which furthermore corroborates the hypothesis of sex hormones induced metabolic pathways, therefore specific lipid distribution.

Estrogen

Women primarily produce estrogens in ovaries, although after menopause, the hormone level significantly decreases. Inversely, the ASCVD risk abruptly increases. Therefore, it is believed that

estrogen is preventative of ASCVD by having advantageous effects on lipid liver metabolism and serum lipoprotein levels. The proposed pathway of regulation is via estrogen receptor alpha (ER α), estrogen receptor beta (ER β), or G-protein coupled estrogen receptor (GPER) [38]. There are around one thousand liver genes upregulated by sex hormones. Estrogen seems to activate genes related to favorable lipid metabolism. Differences include enhanced very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) secretion in response to fatty acid delivery that prevents liver fat accumulation [39] and further accelerated TG-rich VLDL clearance [40]. Additionally, estrogen is responsible for reducing the transcytosis of LDL in endothelial cells. Moreover, it enhances macrophage cholesterol efflux potential and mediates primary steps in reverse cholesterol transport. All of the mentioned estrogen effects will be further explicated in the following chapters.

LDL

Estrogens display antioxidant effects on LDL and the arterial wall, protecting the body from atherosclerosis. Additionally, estrogen is responsible for reducing the transcytosis of LDL in endothelial cells. It does so by impacting the SR-B1 pathway, which is activated by estrogen binding to the G protein-coupled estrogen receptor [41]. It lessens the risk of atherosclerosis for women prior to menopause in comparison with women post-menopause and men. Surprisingly, treatment of arterial endothelial cells with estrogen gave satisfactory results in men but turned out to be a failure in postmenopausal women. The basis on which the discrepancy occurs is yet to be discovered.

HDL

There are pronounced differences in HDL levels between sexes, especially in the concentration of large HDL particles [42]. The divergence of methylation profile in the liver between women's (higher average methylation in the X-chromosome) and men's (higher average methylation in autosomes) genes are believed to be the cause. On this account, females display higher expression of the KDM6A gene, silencing of which in cultured cells was associated with decreased HDL levels and apolipoprotein A1 (APOA1) production. APOA1 is a primary component of HDL particles and could have an anti-clotting effect, counteracting atheroma formation [43]. Therefore, there is a systematic distinction between medical norms of HDL levels for women (>50 mg/d) and men (>40 mg/d). Evidence shows that derivatives of estradiol, primarily 17 β -estradiol fatty acyl esters, enhance macrophage cholesterol efflux potential and mediate primary steps in reverse cholesterol transport. Scavenger receptor class B type 1 (SR-BI) and estrogen receptors are responsible for the regulation of this pathway. Consequently, HDLs ability to remove excess cholesterol from foam cells and its portage to the liver, where excretion occurs, results in lowering the risk of cardiovascular events [44]. Nonetheless, there is some research contradicting these findings and stating that there are no differences in the cholesterol efflux capacity of HDL between men and women, either pre- or postmenopause [34]. Elevated levels of HDL in women translate to intensified amount and activity of paraoxonase-1 (PON1)- an essential antioxidant enzyme of HDL, which also seems to co-active the cholesterol efflux from macrophages . Studies show that PON1 may be upregulated by estradiol, but menopause does not correlate with a relevant decrease of PON1 activity [35]. Therefore, PON1 has been associated with reducing ASCVD risk in some works [45], while being contradicted in others [46]. Obesity in women is associated with a decrease in the activity of PON1, proving that its levels correlate with anthropometric measures, including BMI and waist circumference [47]. There is evidence that HDL promotes endothelial protection and is associated with increased release of nitric oxide from endothelial cells although the biological functions of HDL are altered in patients with coronary disease or diabetes [48].

However, HDL-associated estradiol therapy stimulates endothelial NO synthase and consequently vasodilation in postmenopausal women, lessening unfavorable effects of HDL alterations [49]. Thus it might also be effective in men, but there is not enough data to corroborate this statement.

TG and VLDL

During the fasted state, triglycerides are packed into VLDL, which are more profoundly produced by women. Females present excess activity of LPL in response to VLDL particles, resulting in better clearance of TG and overall contributes to lower blood TG levels. Parallely in the fed state TGs circulate in the form of chylomicrons that women have a better clearing of than men [50]. Increased blood levels seem to correlate more strictly to increased ASCVD risk in females, but the cause remains unknown. Estrogen signaling appears to play a crucial role in preventing non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), insulin resistance, fatty liver, weight gain, and dyslipidemias. Therefore those disease entities become significantly more occurrent in postmenopausal women and gradually with age are instanced in men [51]. Estrogens act directly in the liver via hepatocyte estrogen receptor alpha in metabolizing of TGs [52]. Conducted tests advocate that loss of E_{α} in hepatocytes manifests itself by increased expression of lipid synthesis genes, additionally genes involved in the inflammatory process and collagen deposition. Hepatocyte E_{α} deprivation also results in decreased expression of genes that encode PL transfer protein and hepatic lipase- vital to cyclic liver lipid metabolism [53]. A particular mechanism of this regulation is under research, but the impact of liver X receptor α , nuclear receptor Small Heterodimer Partner (SHP), or microRNA mir-125b are suggested to participate in the process [50]. Additionally, estrogen possibly promotes fatty acid oxidation in the liver by enhancing the production of fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21) [54].

Lp A

Here is a negligible correlation between biological sex and lipoprotein(a) concentrations. [55].

Testosterone

Testosterone tends to have a different impact on ASCVD risk under specific circumstances. Generally, in men, low levels of testosterone and sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) are associated with insulin resistance and related diseases like type 2 diabetes, NAFLD, and metabolic syndrome [56]. Metabolic syndrome plays a crucial role in the hypothesized mechanism of increased ASCVD risk with testosterone deficiency because it constitutes a risk factor [57]. Reduced testosterone levels correlate with increased fasting glucose and insulin, which can be treated with the intake of testosterone, which improves muscle glucose metabolism and insulin sensitivity [58]. However, there are some studies with contradicting results, stating that there is no incontrovertible connection between testosterone levels and ASCVD risk [59]. Furthermore, some indicate that high androgens levels increase susceptibility [60]. Experiments regarding the role of the Androgen Receptor suggest that it curtails ASCVD risk and lowers glucose and lipid risk factors [61].

Conclusions

The primary objective of this review is to provide a holistic synthesis of the multifaceted influence exerted by non-modifiable determinants on specific lipoprotein concentrations. Such an analytical undertaking is imperative in the current clinical landscape, given that suboptimal lipid profiles—collectively termed dyslipidemia—remain the predominant and most pervasive risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (CVD), which continue to stand as the leading cause of global mortality. Within the complex interplay of factors contributing to lipid variability, biological aging and sexual dimorphism emerge as foundational, non-modifiable pillars that dictate a patient's long-term cardiovascular trajectory.

The most significant and well-documented impact of senescence on the lipidic landscape is the progressive elevation of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol. This phenomenon is primarily driven by a mechanistic decline in the expression and activity of hepatic LDL receptors (LDL-R), which impairs the liver's capacity to clear pro-atherogenic particles from systemic circulation. However, contemporary research is increasingly pivoting toward auxiliary but equally critical mechanisms. These include the exacerbation of systemic oxidative stress, age-dependent alterations in key enzyme activities (such as CETP or LCAT), and the pathological sequestration of cholesterol within hepatic tissues. Collectively, these physiological shifts do not merely alter blood chemistry but contribute to a cumulative and progressive escalation of cardiovascular risk over the human lifespan.

Furthermore, the sexual dimorphism observed in lipid profiles is largely mediated by the complex physiological influence of sex hormones, most notably estrogen. Estrogen plays a cardioprotective role by modulating the metabolic pathways that govern lipid synthesis and clearance. The most prominent mechanisms underlying these sex-based differences involve distinct, hormonally-driven patterns of adipocyte distribution—specifically the variance between android and gynoid fat deposition—as well as significant fluctuations in high-density lipoprotein (HDL) concentrations. By elucidating these biological nuances, this review seeks to bridge the gap between basic lipidology and personalized clinical risk assessment, emphasizing that "normal" lipid values must always be interpreted through the prism of an individual's biological age and sex.

Disclosures:

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All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Disclosure: Authors do not report any disclosures.

Funding Statement: No funding was received.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable.

Acknowledgments: Not applicable.

Conflict of Interest Statement: Authors have declared no conflict of interest.

Declaration on the use of AI: In preparing this work, the authors used Grammarly for the purpose of improving language and readability, text formatting, and verification of bibliographic styles. After using this tool, the authors have reviewed and edited the content as needed and accept full responsibility for the substantive content of the publication.

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