

## Research Article

# Resistin as Marker of Metabolic and Cardiovascular Abnormalities in OSA Patients

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## Keywords

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## Abstract

**Background:** Resistin is a novel adipokine that has been reported as an independent predictor for hypertension and a marker for insulin resistance in the general population. Its role in patients with obstructive sleep apnea, has not been investigated yet.

**Aim:** To explore the role of resistin as a marker of insulin resistance and nighttime blood pressure abnormalities in obstructive sleep apnea patients.

**Materials and methods:** A total of 77 hypertensive patients with newly diagnosed obstructive sleep apnea have been investigated. Patients were divided into three groups in regards to their glucose tolerance and the association between resistin and markers of insulin resistance was analysed. In non-diabetic OSA patients ABPM was additionally performed. The relation between resistin and nocturnal hypertension was analysed.

**Results:** Resistin plasma levels were higher in patients with diabetes ( $6.12 \pm 5.93$  ng/ml), compared to those with IGT ( $3.85 \pm 2.81$  ng/ml,  $p=0.021$ ) and NGM ( $3.97 \pm 2.98$ ,  $p^{***}=0.038$ ). Resistin did not differ between patients with IGT and NGM ( $p=0.843$ ). In OSA patients with BMI > 40 resistin plasma levels did not correlate to the clinical parameters, associated with adiposity. They were higher in subjects with nocturnal hypertension in comparison to those with normal blood pressure - ( $7.81 \pm 4.43$  vs.  $4.90 \pm 2.92$  ng/mL).

**Conclusions:** Resistin plasma levels in OSA patients with BMI > 40 may be used in a multipanel of markers to discern patients with diabetes from those with IGT. Hyperresistinemia could contribute to the pathogenesis of nocturnal hypertension in non-diabetic obstructive sleep apnea patients.

## BACKGROUND

Resistin is a polypeptide that was originally described as providing a link between obesity and insulin resistance [1]. In contrast to rodents, in humans the putative involvement of resistin in obesity and insulin resistance, is largely debated [2,3]. Human resistin is expressed not only by adipose tissue peripheral monocytes/macrophages, but also by peripheral one [4,5]. Recent studies have shown the causative association between resistin and systemic inflammation [6], especially in endothelium [7]. It is already known that resistin increases proportionally to the inflammatory mediator levels and is assumed as a predictor for the severity of coronary atherosclerosis [8]. Resistin up regulates

endothelin-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule and intracellular adhesion molecule expression on human endothelial cells. This helps the 'rolling' and attachment of leukocytes, causing vascular injury [9,10]. Several cross sectional studies have reported that resistin is an independent predictor of both systolic (SBP) and diastolic BP (DBP) in patients with diabetes, even after adjustment for body mass index (BMI) [11]. Moreover resistin plasma levels are higher in "healthy" individuals with prehypertension compared to healthy individuals with normotension [12]. Similar are the findings when subjects with masked hypertension and normotensives have been investigated [13].

In OSA hypertensives the role of resistin has not been

studied, neither from the view point of an adipokine responsible for insulin resistance and adiposity, nor from the view point of an inflammatory marker. Insulin resistance and adipose tissue dysfunction are major triggers for arterial hypertension in OSA. In the general population resistin is an adipokine that has been associated to each of them. Thus its investigation may be of importance.

We designed our study in order to explore: 1) whether resistin could predict nocturnal hypertension in OSA patients; 2) whether its plasma levels are more closely associated with markers of obesity (BMI, waist circumference) and/or insulin resistance (IRI, HOMA-I, HbA1C)

## PATIENTS AND METHODS

Our study included 77 patients treated for hypertension that had newly diagnosed obstructive sleep apnea. The study was conducted between January /December 2011 at the Clinic of Internal Medicine, Division of Pulmonology, University Hospital "Alexandrovska". It was approved by the local Ethics Committee. Each participant was adequately informed about the aim of the present study before he/she accepted to be enrolled. All participants signed an informed consent.

Subjects with heart failure, coronary artery disease, previous cerebrovascular insult, atrial fibrillation, congenital heart disease, valvular heart disease, neoplastic disease, cirrhosis of the liver, kidney failure, respiratory failure, renovascular and renal parenchymal disease or endocrine disorders (Cushing's, Conn's syndrome, and pheochromocytoma) were excluded from the study. Patients who reported that their sleep was severely disturbed when wearing the ambulatory blood pressure monitoring (ABPM) were also excluded.

Exclusion criteria included also: 1) age > 80 years; 2) current prescription of anti-inflammatory drugs, statins, steroids; 3) the presence of any of the following medical conditions: chronic kidney diseases, chronic respiratory failure, primary heart diseases, endocrine disorders or neoplasia.

The anthropometric measures (height, weight) and laboratory analyses (level of fasting glucose, total cholesterol, low and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, triglycerides) were taken from all the subjects included in the study. Impaired glucose tolerance was established by an oral glucose tolerance test according to the established criteria [14]. Dyslipidemia was defined by a total cholesterol level >240 mg/dl or taking lipid-lowering agents. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight (kg)/height (m)<sup>2</sup>.

## LABORATORY ASSAYS

### Clinical blood tests

Routine blood examinations included: peripheral blood cell counts; hormones - TSH, FT3, FT4, morning and night cortisol; basic biochemistry - fasting plasma glucose, fasting serum insulin, creatinine, liver enzymes, fasting serum triglyceride, low density, very low density and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol. Insulin resistance was calculated using the HOMA index: plasma glucose (mmol/l) x serum insulin (mU/l)/22.5 [15].

An oral glucose tolerant test was performed to define the patients with impairments in glucose metabolism. The test was performed as described by WHO [15] - subjects were fasting for at least 10 hours. After the sampling of fasting glucose they were loaded with 75g glucose. Blood glucose and IRI were measured within 2 hours. Impaired fasting glucose was defined as fasting glucose - 6.1-7mmol/l; impaired glucose tolerance - as blood glucose in the range 7.8-11.1mmol/l two hours after the glucose burden; diabetes - fasting blood glucose >7mmol/l at least twice or random blood glucose >11.1mmol/l. All laboratory tests were performed in the Central Clinical Laboratory, University Hospital

### Resistin plasma level measurements

Blood samples were centrifuged immediately after collection and isolated plasma was stored in vials at -80 °C until assayed. Resistin was determined by an ELISA kit following the producer's protocol (RayBio\_ Human Resistin, Cat#: ELH-Resistin-001) The intra- and interassay coefficients of variation in this assay kit ranged from 10 to 12%. Plasma resistin levels were measured in ng/ml.

### Respiratory measurements

Full polysomnography was performed in all the patients (Compumedics, E-series, Australia). Continuous recordings were taken with electrode positions C3/A2-C4/A1-Cz/01 of the international 10-20 Electrode Placement System. Eye movements, chin electromyogram and ECG modified V2 lead. Sleep was scored manually according to standard criteria [16]. Airflow was measured using nasal pressure associated with the sum of buccal and nasal thermistor signals. Respiratory efforts were monitored with abdominal and thoracic bands. Arterial oxygen saturation (SaO<sub>2</sub>) was measured using a pulse oximeter (Medair, Hudiksvall, Sweden). An apnoea was defined as a complete cessation of airflow for > 10s, and a hypopnoea as a > 50% reduction in the nasal pressure signal or a 30-50% decrease, associated with either oxygen desaturation of > 3% or an arousal both lasting for > 10 s [17]. Apnoeas were classified as obstructive, central or mixed according to the presence or absence of respiratory efforts. The classification of hypopnoeas as obstructive or central was based upon the shape of the inspiratory part of the nasal pressure curve. In our study, diagnosis of OSA was retained if AHI >15 h-1.

### 24-h Ambulatory BP Monitoring (ABPM)

Non-invasive 24-h ABPM was performed on the non-dominant arm using BOSO TM2420/TM 2480 Profilemanager (Bosch & Sohns, Germany). The device was programmed to obtain BP readings at 20-min intervals during the day (07.00-22.00 hours) and at 30-min intervals during the night (22.00-07.00 hours). The ABPM was always performed during a working day. The recording was then analysed to obtain 24-h daytime and nighttime average SBP, DBP, mean arterial pressure and heart rates. When the readings exceeded at least 80% of the total readings programmed for the testing period, the recording was considered as valid and satisfactory [18]. The nocturnal dipping was defined as a reduction in average SBP and DBP at night, which was >10% and <20%, respectively, compared with average daytime values; non-dippers had a nocturnal reduction

<10%. Nocturnal hypertension was defined as SBP>120mmHg and/or DBP>70mmHg [18].

## Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS (version14.0; SPSS) A  $p < 0.05$  was considered of statistical significance. Data were presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) or the number of subjects and their percentages. Groups were compared using the Independent-Samples t-test or the Mann-Whitney U test. Kolmogorov-Smirnov was used to find if normal distribution existed. Comparison between the three groups was made using one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) Categorical variables were compared using the  $\chi^2$  or the Fisher exact test. The relationships between dependent variables were evaluated with bivariate correlation analysis. (Pearson or Spearman's rank, whichever is appropriate).

## RESULTS

### Resistin as a marker of nocturnal hypertension

A total of 86 subjects were recruited in the study and 77 of them met the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The role of resistin as a marker of nocturnal hypertension was investigated only in non-diabetic OSA patients – 54 patients. According to the ABPM profiles they were divided into 25 with normal nocturnal BP values and 29 with nocturnal hypertension. The characteristics of the subjects are presented in Table 1. There were no significant differences between the groups regarding age, gender or smoking status. BMI, waist and neck circumference however differed substantially Table 1. The hypnogram was nearly similar in the two groups. Patients were predominantly with severe apnea (approximately 60% in both groups). Important discrepancies, however could be detected when analysis of parameters, characterising sleep disturbances, is performed. The arousal index and AHI were higher in patients with nocturnal hypertension, but not of statistical value. Significant discrepancies are observed regarding the duration of sleep at  $\text{SaO}_2 < 90\%$  – Table 2.

Glucometabolic parameters varied substantially. Insulin resistance presented by HOMA-land immunoreactive insulin were significantly higher in patients with nocturnal hypertension – Table 3. The same is established when HbA1c levels are analysed.

Table 4 presents the correlation analysis between resistin and the analysed parameters. No associations could be observed between resistin plasma levels and the investigated parameters.

### Resistin as a marker of insulin resistance

The role of resistin as a marker of insulin resistance was studied in all the patients. According to their glucose metabolism they were divided into three groups – patients with already known diabetes – 23; patients with impaired glucose tolerance – 27; patients with normal glucose metabolism – 27. Anthropometric, glucometabolic, sleep study and biological characteristics of the three groups are presented in Table 5. No large discrepancies existed in regards to anthropometric and sleep study characteristics. The lipid profiles did not differ also. The analysis of the indicators related to the glucose metabolism

**Table 1:** General characteristic of non-diabetic OSA patients with nocturnal hypertension.

	Nocturnal normotensive (25)	Nocturnal hypertensive (29)
<b>General</b>		
Age, y	48.21 $\pm$ 7.93	49.81 $\pm$ 9.98 p-0.171
M:F	24:1	27:2
<b>Anthropometrics</b>		
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	32.69 $\pm$ 8.77	37.81 $\pm$ 5.91 p-0.008
Waist circumference, cm	113.5 $\pm$ 17.01	128 $\pm$ 19.12 p-0.01
Neck circumference, cm	44.41 $\pm$ 2.38	47.30 $\pm$ 3.11 p-0.028
<b>Haemodynamic characteristics</b>		
<b>Daytime BP profiles</b>		
Average Systolic BP, mmHg	140.53 $\pm$ 12.11	127.81 $\pm$ 13.19
Average Diastolic BP, mmHg	77.9 $\pm$ 7.62	78.61 $\pm$ 8.99
<b>Nighttime BP profiles</b>		
Average Systolic BP, mmHg	115.63 $\pm$ 12.14	127.73 $\pm$ 15.79
Average Diastolic BP, mmHg	67.26 $\pm$ 7.41	76.43 $\pm$ 10.09
<b>Office BP profiles</b>		
Average Systolic BP, mmHg	128.53 $\pm$ 8.14	131.32 $\pm$ 6.87
Average Diastolic BP, mmHg	83.12 $\pm$ 7.21	85.31 $\pm$ 7.14
<b>Cardiovascular risk factors</b>		
BMI>30kg/m <sup>2</sup> , %	84	87
Current smoking, %	80	84
Dyslipidaemia, %	21	27
<b>Biomarkers</b>		
Resistin, ng/ml	4.90 $\pm$ 2.92	7.81 $\pm$ 8.43 p-0.42

**Table 2:** Sleep study characteristics in non-diabetic OSA patients with nocturnal hypertension.

Sleep study characteristics	Nocturnal normotensive (25)	Nocturnal hypertensive (29)
Mild-moderate OSA	8/25 (32%)	9/29 (31%)
Severe OSA	17/25 (68%)	20/29 (69%)
AHI, e/h	34.65 $\pm$ 24.04	57.76 $\pm$ 26.24 p-0.028
Time spent at $\text{SatO}_2 < 90\%$ , %	25.43 $\pm$ 8.72	61.74 $\pm$ 26.28 p-0.000
Arousal Index, e/h	35.76 $\pm$ 20.58	45.75 $\pm$ 25.22 p-0.341

showed a statistically significant difference in the plasma levels of the immunoreactive insulin. In comparison to those with diabetes patients with IGT had higher levels (31.06 $\pm$ 28.05 vs. 18.92 $\pm$ 16.57;  $p = 0.006$ ). HOMA-index did not differ much between the groups. The glycated haemoglobin however was statistically higher in patients with IGT in comparison to those with normal one (6.41 $\pm$ 1.06 vs. 5.42 $\pm$ 0.38,  $p^{***} = 0.027$ ). The same trend could be found when diabetics and patients with normal

**Table 3:** Glucometabolic parameters of non-diabetic OSA patients with nocturnal hypertension.

	Nocturnal normotensive (25)	Nocturnal hypertensive (29)
<b>Glucometabolic parameters</b>		
IRI, mU/l	12.77±4.00	19.74±10.15 p-0.012
HbA1C	5.58±0.35	6.08±0.82 p-0.067
HOMA-I	2.72±0.93	4.97±2.72 p-0.002

**Table 4:** Correlation analyses of resistin and markers of adiposity, insulin resistance and respiratory disturbances in non-diabetic OSA patients.

	Correlation Coefficient	p-value
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.41	0.83
Waist circumference, cm	0.76	0.17
Neck circumference, cm	0.27	0.24
IRI, mU/l	0.13	0.20
Glucose, mmol/l	0.23	0.45
HbA1C	0.14	0.33
HOMA-I	0.21	0.15
AHI, e/h	0.21	0.98
Average Desat Index, %	0.12	0.67
Sleep Duration, min	0.01	0.98
Time spent at SatO <sub>2</sub> <90%, %	0.11	0.45
Arousal Index, e/h	0.02	0.83

**Table 5:** General characteristic of the studied OSA patients.

	Diabetic (23)	Impaired Glucose Metabolism (27)	Normal Glucose metabolism (27)
Age, y	56.95±10.38	49.76±9.04	48.31±8.12 p-0.751
M:F	17/6	23/4	25/2
<b>Anthropometrics</b>			
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	42.86±7.29	36±9.37	39.91±7.9 p-0.945
Waist circumference, cm	133.2±20.84	130.12±15.96	134.48±13.84 p-0.349
<b>Sleep study characteristics</b>			
Mild-moderate OSA	2/23 (9%)	11/27 (40%)	4/27 (15%)
Severe OSA	21/23 (91%)	16/27 (60%)	23/27 (85%)
AHI, e/h	58.79±34.25	53.00±35.33	60.73±28.41 p-0.731
Time spent at SatO <sub>2</sub> <90%, %	70.85±25.99	56.03±33.44	50.14±29.3 p-0.324
<b>Glucometabolic parameters</b>			
IRI, mU/l	18.92±16.57 p*-0.006	31.06±28.05 p**-0.349	21.94±16.14 p***-0.192
HbA1C	6.69±1.11 p*-0.253	6.41±1.06 p**-0.027	5.42±0.38 p***-0.000
HOMA-I	4.86±4.46	7.48±7.66	5.31±3.12 p***-0.184
<b>Biomarkers</b>			
Resistin, ng/ml	6.12±5.93 p*-0.021	3.85±2.81 p**-0.843	3.97±2.98 p***-0.038

p- Kruskal -Wallis comparison between three groups; p\*- Mann -Whitney comparison diabetics vs IGT; p\*\*- Mann -Whitney comparison IGT vs NGM; p\*\*\*- Mann -Whitney comparison diabetics vs NGM.

**Table 6:** Correlation analyses of resistin and markers of adiposity, insulin resistance and respiratory disturbances.

	Correlation Coefficient	p-value
Age	0.64	0.62
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	0.87	0.902
Waist circumference, cm	0.83	0.376
IRI, mU/l	0.54	0.583
Glucose, mmol/l	0.18	0.762
HbA1C	0.74	0.849
HOMA-I	0.93	0.694
AHI, e/h	0.78	0.619
Sleep Duration, min	0.41	0.988
Time spent at SatO <sub>2</sub> <90%, %	0.65	0.284

glucose metabolism were compared (6,69±1,11 vs5.42±0.38, p\*\*\*-0.000). Resistin plasma levels were significantly higher in patients with diabetes - 6.12±5.93 in comparison to those with normal glucose metabolism -3.97±2.98, p\*\*\*-0.042. Similar are the results when diabetics and patients with impaired glucose metabolism are compared- p -0.021. The significant difference stays even after adjustment for age, BMI and HOMA-I.

The analysis of the relationship between resistin plasma levels and anthropometric, clinical, biological and sleep apnea parameters is shown in Table 6. Resistin plasma levels did not correlate to any of the clinical parameters.

## DISCUSSION

Adipose tissue is now assumed as an endocrine organ whose dysfunction is responsible for much of the cardiovascular and metabolic disorders in the general population [6]. Its major role in OSA is attributed to the fact that intermittent hypoxia (oxidative stress), accompanying the apneas/hypopneas, aggravates local hypoxia that otherwise exists in the adipose tissue of overweight patients [19]. This leads to an imbalanced secretion of adipokines whose plasma levels are associated with BP control and metabolic derangements [2,7,13].

Resistin is a 12-kDa polypeptide that was initially linked to insulin resistance in animal models. Early reports suggested that resistin is associated with obesity and insulin resistance in rodents. In humans, however, data is rather controversial. A number of studies have examined resistin plasma levels or resistin adipose tissue expression, and have found variable associations with insulin resistance [20,21]. The Framingham offspring cohort study found a significant relationship between insulin resistance and resistin. This relationship however was weaker than the relationship with adiponectin, and was lost after adjustment for BMI [22].

According to our results there is not a significant difference between resistin plasma levels in patients with impaired and normal glucose tolerance. The two groups were comparable regarding the age, BMI, waist circumference and the severity of OSA. The duration of sleep, the average desaturation index and the time spent under SpO<sub>2</sub> <90% did not differ much between groups. The analysis of resistin plasma levels showed correlation neither to the anthropometric (age, BMI, waist circumference,

smoking status), nor to the sleep study or glucometabolic characteristics. Assuming this data it seems that resistin alone is not a trigger of insulin resistance in obese OSA patients, but more likely plays a secondary role in the complex adipokine signaling, accompanying adipose tissue dysfunction. Neither in patients with normal, nor in those with IGT and diabetes, any association between IRI, HOMA-I and resistin was found. This is in controversy to what is reported in the general population of obese patients (BMI-33) without diabetes [23]. It is assumable that extreme OSA per se attenuates resistin secretion.

In human adipose tissue, resistin is secreted mainly by infiltrating macrophages [4,8] and is responsible of systemic inflammation [6], especially in the vascular endothelium [7]. These observations are confirmed in OSA patients by Yamamoto and Lee. Yamamoto et al., [24] shows that resistin plasma levels increase with the severity of OSA. This correlates best with AHI and is associated to increased inflammation and higher concentrations of IL-6. Similar are the findings of Lee et al. [2]. They also demonstrate that resistin plasma levels increase with the severity of OSA and that this trend correlates best to AHI. Both studies are, however, performed in Asian population which deters the application of their findings in Caucasians. In pediatric OSA where much of the confounding factors are abolished the increase in plasma resistin levels with the severity of AHI is very persuasive [25]. In our study we demonstrate a trend for an increase of resistin with the severity of OSA, not reaching statistical significance. A reason for this can be that our patients were extremely obese – the average BMI >40.

Data is even more complicated when analyzing the association between resistin and the pathogenesis of hypertension. At experimental levels resistin upregulates IL-6 and TNF- $\alpha$ , probably *via* the NF- $\kappa$ B pathway [7]; stimulates the proliferation of human vascular smooth muscle cells [26], induces inflammation within the vascular wall and may be the reason for vascular injury remodeling and hypertension.

Human studies of the association between resistin and hypertension are rather limited and controversial. Resistin is reported as an independent marker for the occurrence of hypertension in non-diabetic women with a 14-year follow-up [27]. Similar is the data in non-diabetic patients with prehypertension [12]. These findings suggest that resistin might be associated with hypertension in the general population without diabetes and that increased resistin levels may exist before the occurrence of clinical hypertension. According to our study in OSA hypertensives resistin plasma levels are higher in patients with nocturnal hypertension. They do not correlate to any of the markers, indicative of obesity – BMI or waist circumference. This corroborates the data of a recent report from Stepien et al, [28]. Who demonstrated no association between resistin plasma levels in patients with moderate (BMI-32) or severe obesity (BMI-38). In OSA patients Yamamoto et al, [24] also did not find an association between BMI and resistin, even in a population within the lower range of adiposity (BMI-27). The lack of correspondence between resistin plasma levels and visceral obesity in non-diabetic OSA patients makes us assume that adipose tissue is not the single source of resistin and its plasma levels cannot serve as an adjunct surrogate marker for obesity. Based on our findings patients with nocturnal hypertension, though normoglycaemic

have insulin resistance (HOMA-I >2,5). All the biochemical markers, presenting an insulin resistant state are significantly higher in this patient group. None of them, however correlates to resistin plasma levels. This makes us speculate that insulin resistance is not a result of hyperresistemia. It seems that both phenomena are independent of each other and may contribute to hypertension by different pathophysiological mechanisms and pathways.

In conclusion in non-diabetic OSA patients with average BMI >30-35 and nocturnal hypertension resistin plasma levels are higher. They do not correlate to the clinical markers of obesity and insulin resistance and may be used in a multipanel of clinical markers to discern patients with diabetes from those with IGT. In OSA patients with BMI >40 resistin could discern patients with diabetes from those with NGM and is independent of insulin resistance and severity of OSA.

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