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Sprung, VS, Bowden Davies, KA, Norman, JA, Thompson, A, Mitchell, KL, Wilding, JPH, Kemp, GJ and Cuthbertson, DJ (2020) Metabolic syndrome is associated with reduced flow mediated dilation independent of obesity status. *European Journal of Endocrinology*, 183 (2). pp. 211-220. ISSN 0804-4643

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1530/EJE-20-0098>

Publisher: European Society of Endocrinology

Version: Accepted Version

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1 **Metabolic syndrome is associated with reduced flow mediated dilation independent of**
2 **obesity status**

3 *Short title: Metabolic health, obesity and FMD*

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23 Key words: endothelial function, flow mediated dilation (FMD), metabolic syndrome, obesity

24 Word count: 3362

25

26 **Abstract**

27 **Background:** Data suggest that metabolic health status, incorporating components of
28 metabolic syndrome (MetS), predicts cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk better than body mass
29 index (BMI). This study explored the association of MetS and obesity with endothelial
30 function, a prognostic risk factor for incident CVD.

31 **Methods:** Forty-four participants were phenotyped according to BMI as non-obese *vs.* obese
32 (<30 or >30 kg/m²) and according to the International Diabetes Federation criteria of MetS: ≤ 2
33 criteria MetS (MetS-) *vs.* ≥ 3 criteria MetS (MetS+); **i)** *non-obese MetS-* *vs.* **ii)** *non-obese MetS+*
34 **and iii)** *obese MetS-* *vs.* **iv)** *obese MetS+*. Flow-mediated dilation (FMD), body composition
35 including liver fat (magnetic resonance imaging and spectroscopy), dietary intake, intensities
36 of habitual physical activity and cardio-respiratory fitness, were determined. Variables were
37 analysed using a one-factor between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) and linear
38 regression; mean (95% CI) are presented.

39 **Results:** Individuals with MetS+ displayed lower FMD than those with MetS-. For non-obese
40 individuals mean difference between MetS+ and MetS- was 4.1% [(1.0, 7.3); $P=0.004$] and
41 obese individuals had a mean difference between MetS+ and MetS- of 6.2% [(3.1, 9.2);
42 $P<0.001$]. Although there was no association between BMI and FMD ($P=0.27$), an increased
43 number of MetS components was associated with a lower FMD ($P=0.005$), and after
44 adjustment for age and sex, 19.7% of the variance of FMD was explained by MetS whereas
45 only 1.1% was explained by BMI.

46 **Conclusions:** In this study cohort, components of MetS, rather than obesity *per se*, contribute
47 to reduced FMD, which suggests a reduced bioavailability of nitric oxide and thus increased
48 risk of CVD.

49 **Introduction**

50 Obesity is strongly linked with an adverse cardio-metabolic profile and a number of chronic
51 diseases including type 2 diabetes (T2D) and cardiovascular disease (CVD) (1, 2). Body mass
52 index (BMI) is widely used clinically to determine the risk of complications relating to an
53 excess accumulation of fat: the higher an individual's BMI, the greater their risk of obesity-
54 related complications (3). In contrast, some data suggest that adults with a higher BMI can have
55 a reduced mortality risk compared to non-obese counterparts, an puzzling finding known as the
56 'obesity paradox', shown in T2D (4) and CVD (5). Metabolic syndrome (MetS) is defined as
57 a cluster of risk factors including abdominal obesity, hypertension, dyslipidemia and insulin
58 resistance. The International Diabetes Federation (IDF) report the role of MetS in the CVD
59 epidemic, and highlight the importance of understanding the further role of vascular regulation
60 and body fat distribution (6).

61 While obesity also has mechanical and psychological implications, there is a growing
62 recognition that not all obese individuals are 'unhealthy', and not all non-obese individuals are
63 'healthy', with respect to their metabolic profiles. Some data suggest there is a lower T2D/CVD
64 risk in overweight/obese people when there is an absence of Mets components but that there is
65 a higher T2D/CVD risk in normal weight people in the presence of one/more MetS components
66 (7). This has led to the identification of sub-phenotypes within BMI (i.e. metabolically healthy
67 *vs.* unhealthy obesity and healthy *vs.* unhealthy normal weight), categories determined by the
68 presence/absence of components of the MetS. There is currently no consensus on a precise
69 definition for these terms/BMI sub-phenotypes, researchers questioning the degree of
70 cardiovascular protection conferred by being metabolically healthy and many suggesting that
71 metabolically healthy obesity represents a 'transient metabolic state' in a progressive and
72 inevitable journey towards T2D and CVD (8-11).

73 When considering cardiovascular risk in these metabolically phenotyped groups, previous
74 research has largely focused on the overall incidence of CVD (8, 9, 12-14). While this is
75 important, endothelial function, an early, prognostic and reversible marker of CVD, is much
76 less explored. The endothelium plays a pivotal role in vascular homeostasis (15), and brachial
77 artery flow-mediated dilation (FMD) is predictive of future CVD risk (16). Endothelial
78 dysfunction, characterised by decreased nitric oxide (NO) bioavailability, resulting in vascular
79 inflammation, vasoconstriction, and thrombosis (17, 18), has been mechanistically related to
80 the greater risk of cardiovascular events in people with obesity (19, 20). To put this
81 measurement into a pathophysiological perspective, a meta-analysis reports that a 1% increase
82 in FMD is associated with a pooled relative risk reduction in CVD of 0.87 (95% CI, 0.83- 0.91)
83 (21). Furthermore, there is evidence that FMD has independent prognostic value to predict
84 cardiovascular events that may better that of traditional risk factors (16). Evidence is lacking
85 on how MetS alone, or in combination with obesity, affects FMD.

86 The aim of this cross-sectional study was to explore the impact of obesity and MetS on
87 endothelial function using measurements of FMD. Careful phenotypic characterisation of
88 participants was undertaken incorporating assessments of lifestyle (including dietary records
89 and physical activity by objective monitoring), measurements of cardio-respiratory fitness
90 (CRF; by $\dot{V}O_2$), obesity and body composition (liver fat determined by MR scanning) and of
91 cardio-metabolic health (including assessment of MetS using International Diabetes Federation
92 criteria).

93 **Materials and Methods**

94 **Participants**

95 Forty-four individuals (30 male, 14 female) with a mean age of 46 ± 11 years were recruited via
96 local advertisement across hospital departments and university campuses. Exclusions included

97 cardiovascular, respiratory, kidney, liver and/or endocrine complications, smoking and >14
98 units/week of alcohol consumption; all participants were medication free. The study conformed
99 to the *Declaration of Helsinki* and was approved by the North West Research Ethics Committee
100 (14/NW/1145; 14/NW/1147; 15/NW/0550). All participants were informed of the protocol
101 verbally and in writing before providing written informed consent prior to any assessments.

102 **Study design**

103 All participants completed habitual monitoring of physical activity (PA) and dietary
104 consumption over a period of 4 days (including one weekend day), followed by two assessment
105 visits. The first assessment visit, at Aintree University Hospital, comprised anthropometry,
106 fasting biochemistry, and cardio-respiratory fitness ($\dot{V}O_2$ peak). The second assessment at the
107 University of Liverpool MRI Centre (LiMRiC) comprised flow mediated dilation (FMD) and
108 proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy ($^1\text{H-MRS}$). Prior to each study visit, participants were
109 required to fast overnight for >8 hours, abstain from alcohol and caffeine for 24 hours and from
110 exercise for 48 hours; up to 500ml of water was permitted in the morning of a visit.

111 **Brachial artery flow mediated dilation (FMD)**

112 Endothelial function was assessed by measuring FMD in response to a 5 min ischaemic
113 stimulus, induced by forearm cuff inflation placed immediately distal to the olecranon process,
114 as previously described (22). Briefly, baseline images were recorded for 1 min prior to forearm
115 cuff inflation (~ 220 mmHg) for 5 min. Artery diameter and blood flow velocity recordings
116 resumed 30 s prior to cuff deflation and continued for 3 min thereafter. Peak brachial artery
117 diameter and blood flow velocity, and the time taken to reach these peaks following cuff release
118 were recorded. Post-test analysis of brachial artery diameter was undertaken using custom-
119 designed automated edge-detection and wall-tracking software.

120 **Cardio-respiratory fitness**

121 $\dot{V}O_2$ peak was determined using the modified Bruce protocol on a treadmill (Model 770CE,
122 RAM Medisoft Group, Manchester, UK) with breath-by-breath monitoring and analysis of
123 expiratory gases and ventilation (Love Medical Cardiopulmonary Diagnostics, Manchester,
124 UK). The $\dot{V}O_2$ peak was determined by any of the following: respiratory exchange ratio >1.15,
125 heart rate >90% predicted maximum, plateau in $\dot{V}O_2$, or exhaustion, data is presented relative
126 to total body mass and lean mass determined by BIA.

127 **Biochemical measures**

128 Blood samples were collected and analysed using the Olympus AU2700 analyser (Beckman
129 Coulter, High Wycombe, UK) with standard proprietary reagents as follows: glucose with
130 hexokinase, total cholesterol and HDL-cholesterol with cholesterol esterase/oxidase and
131 triglyceride with glycerol kinase. LDL-cholesterol was calculated according to the Friedewald
132 formula.

133 **Anthropometric measures**

134 Height was measured while participants were standing upright, with their back and head
135 straight so that their Frankfurt plane was horizontal, to the nearest 0.5 cm using a stadiometer
136 (Model 220, Seca, Germany). Waist circumference measurements (at the umbilicus) and hip
137 circumference measurements (at the greater trochanter) were taken in duplicate. After 5
138 minutes rest, blood pressure was determined as an average of 3 measurements using an
139 automated monitor (Dinamap, G & E Medical, USA). Bio-impedance (BIA; Tanita, BC 420,
140 Dolby Medical Stirling, UK) was used in all participants to quantify body composition; those
141 who were safe for MR scanning had the more detailed measures outlined below.

142 **MR determination of adipose tissue and liver fat**

143 Magnetic resonance methods were performed using a 1.5 T Siemens Symphony MRI scanner
144 (Siemens Medical Solutions, Erlangen, Germany) as previously described (23-25). Volumetric
145 analysis of adipose tissue was used to quantify regional fat; proton magnetic resonance
146 spectroscopy (¹H-MRS) was used to determine intrahepatic cellular lipid (IHCL): ‘liver fat’
147 percentage relative to water.

148 **Habitual physical activity monitoring and dietary analysis**

149 *Physical activity monitoring* PA was monitored using a validated (26) SenseWear mini
150 armband (BodyMedia Inc., Pittsburgh, PA, USA). Participants were requested to wear the
151 armband at all possible times (except when bathing and swimming (27)), and wear time
152 (recorded as ~98%) was monitored using SenseWear Professional software (version 8.0). Data
153 collected from the armband included: daily average step count, total energy expenditure, active
154 energy expenditure and time spent in different intensity levels of PA including: sleep, lying
155 down, sedentary, light, moderate, vigorous and very vigorous (<1.5, >1.5-3, >3-6, >6-9, >9
156 metabolic equivalents respectively).

157 *Dietary analysis* Total energy consumption, carbohydrate, protein and fat content were
158 determined from dietary records by a registered nutritionist (KLM) using Nutritics (Nutrition
159 Analysis Software for Professionals; <https://www.nutritics.com/p/home>; accessed
160 17/07/2017).

161 **Individual phenotyping**

162 Following physiological assessment, participants were phenotyped according to obesity status
163 and presence or absence of MetS. Individuals were characterised into one of four groups based
164 on BMI (non-obese <30 vs obese ≥30 kg/m²) and the presence or absence of MetS according

165 to IDF criteria (6); we refer to these groups as i) ‘non-obese MetS-’, ii) ‘non-obese MetS+’, iii)
166 ‘obese MetS-’ and iv) ‘obese MetS+’.

167 **Sample size calculation**

168 The primary outcome variable was FMD. Based on previous data (22) and a two-sample t-test
169 (post-hoc comparison) with a 0.05 two-sided significance level, a sample size of 10 per group
170 would have 80% power to detect a difference in means of 3.5%, assuming a common standard
171 deviation of 2.5% (G*Power 3.1.5 (28)).

172 **Statistical analysis**

173 All data were explored for normality by visual inspection. Comparisons of group demographics
174 were explored using one factor between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) for continuous
175 variables and chi-squared for categorical outcomes. The main outcome variables (e.g. FMD,
176 cardio-respiratory fitness, and liver fat) were analysed using a one factor between-groups
177 ANOVA, with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. All FMD data were analysed,
178 and are presented, as covariate-controlled for baseline artery diameter measured prior to the
179 introduction of hyperaemia in each test; this approach is more accurate for scaling changes in
180 artery diameter than simple percentage change (29, 30). Regression models, adjusted for age
181 and sex, were fitted to categories of BMI and number of MetS components to explore the
182 association with FMD. Finally, we estimated the amount of variance explained in FMD by
183 BMI and number of MetS components using an incremental sums of squares approach.
184 Distribution data are presented as mean±SD and outcomes of ANOVA as mean (95% CI). The
185 alpha level of statistical significance was set at $P<0.05$. Statistical analysis was performed using
186 SPSS for Windows (Version 24.0, SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

187 **Results**

188 **Participant characteristics**

189 Gender, age and BMI for each of the groups are summarised in Table 1. The differences
190 between the mean BMI and components of MetS were in line with WHO and IDF
191 classifications, respectively. Age and gender were not significantly different between groups
192 ($P>0.05$). Overall, habitual physical activity did not differ between BMI categories of MetS;
193 however, sedentary behaviour was greater in both of the obese groups compared to non-obese
194 MetS- ($P\leq 0.028$) and light intensity PA was lower ($P\leq 0.001$). Total energy consumption,
195 carbohydrate, protein and fat did not differ significantly between groups ($P>0.05$) (Table 1).
196 Macronutrient percentages of all groups combined were $53\pm 10\%$ carbohydrate, $26\pm 9\%$ protein,
197 and $21\pm 4\%$ fat.

198 **Flow mediated dilation**

199 FMD was higher in the MetS- individuals in both the non-obese and obese groups (Figure 1A).
200 The non-obese MetS- individuals had a greater FMD than their MetS+ counterparts [4.1% (1.0,
201 7.3; $P=0.004$)] and obese MetS+ [4.3% (1.3, 7.3; $P=0.002$)], with no difference compared to
202 obese MetS-. The mean difference between the obese MetS- and obese MetS+ was 6.2% (3.1,
203 9.2; $P<0.0001$), and non-obese MetS+ was 6.0% (2.8, 9.2; $P<0.0001$). There was no significant
204 difference between the MetS+ groups. An increased number of MetS components was
205 associated with a lower FMD ($P=0.04$; Figure 2A), differences were observed from the healthy
206 reference group (0 components) for those with 3 ($P=0.005$) or ≥ 4 ($P=0.023$) components of
207 MetS. In contrast, when using a healthy BMI as a reference group ($18.5\text{-}24.9\text{ kg/m}^2$), none of
208 the categories were statistically different for FMD ($P=0.27$; Figure 2B). Furthermore, there
209 was no correlation between BMI and FMD ($r^2=0.01$; $P=0.512$; Figure 2C). The variance of
210 FMD explained, when controlling for age and sex, by BMI was 1.1% and by MetS was 19.7% .
211 There were negligible and non-statistically significant differences in baseline or peak arterial

212 diameter, shear rate or time to peak between groups ($P>0.05$). All vascular data are summarised
213 in Table 2.

214 **Cardio-respiratory fitness (CRF)**

215 $\dot{V}O_2$ peak was greatest in non-obese MetS-, similar in non-obese MetS+ and obese MetS-, and
216 lowest in obese MetS+ (Figure 1B). Obese MetS+ individuals had a significantly lower CRF
217 than non-obese MetS- by $13.9 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ (6.0, 21.7; $P<0.0001$). Differences between the
218 MetS- groups just fell short of conventional statistical significance ($P=0.056$). The between-
219 group differences are also consistent when $\dot{V}O_2$ peak is expressed relative to lean mass.
220 Interestingly, when FMD was adjusted for individual differences in CRF the difference in FMD
221 between groups remained and was of similar magnitude ($P<0.05$).

222 **MRS determination of liver fat**

223 Group differences in liver fat were non-significant ($P=0.099$), however the mean values for
224 each group suggest a trend toward greater levels of liver fat in the MetS+ groups (Figure 1C).

225 **Assessment of body composition (BIA and MRI)**

226 *BIA* Total body fat measured in percentage and mass was significantly lower in the non-obese
227 groups compared to the obese groups ($P<0.05$; Table 3), however there were no significant
228 differences between MetS- versus MetS+ within the BMI groups. Visceral fat rating was
229 significantly lower in the non-obese MetS- group ($P<0.05$) but there were no other significant
230 differences. No significant differences were observed in BIA derived fat free mass or muscle
231 mass between any of the groups.

232 *MRI* Total subcutaneous adipose tissue (SAT) and whole-body fat were significantly lower in
233 the non-obese MetS- than both obese groups ($P<0.05$). Abdominal SAT was lower in both non-
234 obese groups ($P<0.05$). Visceral adipose tissue was significantly lower in non-obese MetS-
235 when compared to obese MetS-. Of note, there were no significant differences between MetS-
236 versus MetS+ within the BMI groups but the data was not available for all participants.

237 **Discussion**

238 The aim of study was to determine to what extent MetS or obesity are associated with
239 endothelial function as a surrogate marker of cardiovascular health. The integration of
240 measures of dietary intake and domains of physical activity, biochemical and anthropometric
241 measures including characterisation of components of MetS (IDF consensus) and body
242 composition using magnetic resonance imaging and spectroscopy enabled comprehensive
243 phenotyping of individuals within age- and sex-matched groups. The major finding was that
244 individuals with MetS (i.e. *metabolically unhealthy* individuals) exhibit endothelial
245 dysfunction (lower FMD), irrespective of their obesity status. In contrast, individuals without
246 MetS (i.e. *metabolically healthy* individuals), had relatively preserved endothelial function
247 (higher FMD). Convincingly, MetS status is significantly associated with endothelial function
248 whereas BMI is not. Alarmingly, the FMD differences between the metabolic phenotypes in
249 this study (MetS+ vs. MetS-) was identified as ~4-6%, with indication towards an increased
250 risk of incident CVD. Our data highlight the association of increased CVD risk in metabolically
251 unhealthy individuals, irrespective of their obesity status, and suggest that preserved metabolic
252 health may indeed confer a degree of cardiovascular protection and attenuate (but not
253 necessarily eliminate) the risks associated with obesity.

254 Our findings support the existence of distinct phenotypes within different categories of BMI,
255 where MetS+ individuals exhibit a cluster of metabolic abnormalities (e.g. insulin resistance,
256 hypertension and dyslipidemia). The data suggests that endothelial dysfunction is not explained
257 by the absolute fat mass, but rather is determined (in part) by associated cardio-metabolic
258 dysfunction/risk factors alongside known and so far unidentified factors. Individuals with MetS
259 (non-obese and obese) have an unfavourable cardiovascular profile with a lower FMD (an early
260 marker of atherosclerotic disease), while those without MetS (non-obese and obese) have
261 comparable endothelial function. This phenomenon whereby other measures of cardiovascular

262 function differ between *metabolically healthy* versus *metabolically unhealthy* obese adults is
263 observed not only for macrovascular complications, as here and in previous investigations (31)
264 but also for microvascular function (32). Using identical phenotypic classification, we have
265 previously shown similar trends for myocardial systolic and diastolic dysfunction (measured
266 by tissue doppler imaging with transthoracic echocardiography). We observed impaired
267 myocardial performance related to poor metabolic health but not related to levels of fat mass
268 nor to differing amounts of ectopic fat stores (visceral and liver) (33). Mechanisms such as
269 inflammation, increased circulating free fatty acids and pro-inflammatory cytokines have been
270 proposed as mediators of this impact on cardiovascular risk (34).

271 The increasing interest in the study of differing metabolic phenotypes has led many to
272 investigate putative behavioural determinants (e.g. physical activity, diet), however findings
273 remain equivocal (35). We found no difference between the groups for PA (even when domains
274 of physical activity were analysed) nor in their total energy intake/macronutrient intake. We
275 note the disparity between energy intake and expenditure, ostensibly showing the participants
276 in a negative energy balance; however, we recognise that energy intake is largely under-
277 reported, particularly in obese adults. Dietary assessment was not a primary outcome variable
278 and was assessed using the best resources available. Cardiorespiratory fitness was highest in
279 the healthy reference group (non-obese MetS-) and lowest in the obese MetS+ group perhaps
280 as expected, although interestingly both groups of non-obese adults and obese MetS- had
281 comparable fitness. A higher cardiorespiratory fitness is typically associated with a better
282 metabolic profile and reduced CVD risk (36), and our data supports this. In the MetS- obese
283 group, we observed FMD ~15%, this data is somewhat striking but not abnormal. While obesity
284 has many comorbidities, the role of fitness is also recognised as an important prognostic marker
285 that differs across phenotypes (37) and some researchers suggest that recommendations to
286 reduce mortality risk should focus on increasing fitness rather than on weight loss (38).

287 Although we interpret this data with caution it is reasonable to suggest that intrinsic biological
288 mechanisms may contribute to the differences we observe in these phenotypes (such as
289 subacute inflammation, levels of oxidative stress, levels of different regulatory microRNAs
290 and adiponectin(39)).

291 Many authors suggest that cross-sectional observations of preserved metabolic health in obese
292 adults likely represent a transient phenomenon and question their clinical utility and
293 significance. Longitudinal studies are needed to address these important questions. One such
294 study found that 50% of healthy obese progressed to an unhealthy metabolic status over a 10-
295 year follow up period (40). Interpretation of such studies is hampered by the lack of an agreed
296 definition of ‘metabolically healthy’ (41); conclusions about the degree of protection against
297 CV disease and T2D will clearly depend on the criteria of metabolic health. We opted for the
298 IDF classification of MetS, as the most recent and internationally harmonised definition.
299 Furthermore, FMD is often (as here) studied in the fasted state, yet humans spend a significant
300 of their time in a post-prandial state. Examination of post-prandial endothelial function
301 between the phenotypes described in this manuscript maybe warranted and highlight more
302 profound differences. In particular, the post-prandial state following consumption of a high-fat
303 meal, may be associated with oxidative stress and inflammation, which are potentially
304 important mediators of impaired postprandial vascular function and may differ between these
305 individuals.

306 We acknowledge limitations of the current study, including a relatively small sample size, its
307 cross-sectional design. Participants were recruited via local advertisement, which limits
308 external validity as this yielded only white Europeans; defining a causal relationship with
309 validity at a global population level is therefore not possible. However, we believe the study
310 has significant merit. The study was powered to detect meaningful differences in the primary
311 outcome measure (FMD). It should be acknowledged that there are outliers (Figure 2C), but

312 that removal of these data does not alter the outcome of statistical analyses, so the decision was
313 made to include the data set in its entirety. It utilises objective monitoring of physical activity,
314 a gold standard measurement of cardio-respiratory fitness combined with assessment of body
315 composition including regional (VAT/SAT) and tissue specific (liver) fat and a novel
316 prognostic marker for cardiovascular health, that of endothelial function. Liver fat was not our
317 primary outcome and thus the study was not adequately powered for this outcome. Importantly,
318 this measure was utilised to comprehensively phenotype the individuals. Based on previous
319 work regarding fat deposition, we expected a greater propensity to deposit fat within the liver
320 in the metabolically unhealthy (MetS+) phenotypes. This propensity was observed but did not
321 reach statistical significance between groups. Whilst the present results demonstrate that
322 endothelial function is impaired in those with MetS, larger studies are required with a follow-
323 up design to determine measured cardiovascular function rather than predicted CVD. This has
324 been undertaken to a limited extent in a multi-ethnic population study but did not include the
325 classification of sub-phenotypes (42).

326 In conclusion, the current study provides evidence for impaired NO-mediated endothelial
327 function in both non-obese and obese individuals who have multiple components of MetS (with
328 comparable cardiovascular function in adults without MetS regardless of obesity status).
329 Considering the definition of obesity as a disease (WHO), that recognises the impact of
330 excessive fat accumulation on end-organ complications and the need to triage medical
331 resources to those most in need, earlier detection and more focussed interventions in
332 metabolically unhealthy individuals should be a priority rather than using a purely BMI-centric
333 approach.

334 **Declaration of interest**

335 The authors have nothing to disclose.

336 **Funding**

337 This work was supported by Diabetes UK (grant number 13/0004719), with additional
338 funding support from the MRC-Arthritis Research UK Centre for Integrated research into
339 Musculoskeletal Ageing (CIMA), Institute of Ageing and Chronic Disease, University of
340 Liverpool.

341 **Acknowledgements**

342 The authors would like to acknowledge Mr Andrew Irwin (Obesity and Endocrinology,
343 Liverpool University Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Liverpool, UK), for clinical assistance
344 and Ms Val Adams, for radiographic expertise at LiMRIC. Further to Ms Olivia Pepper, Mr
345 Daniel Watkin and Mr Rory O'Dolan, for their assistance during data collection.

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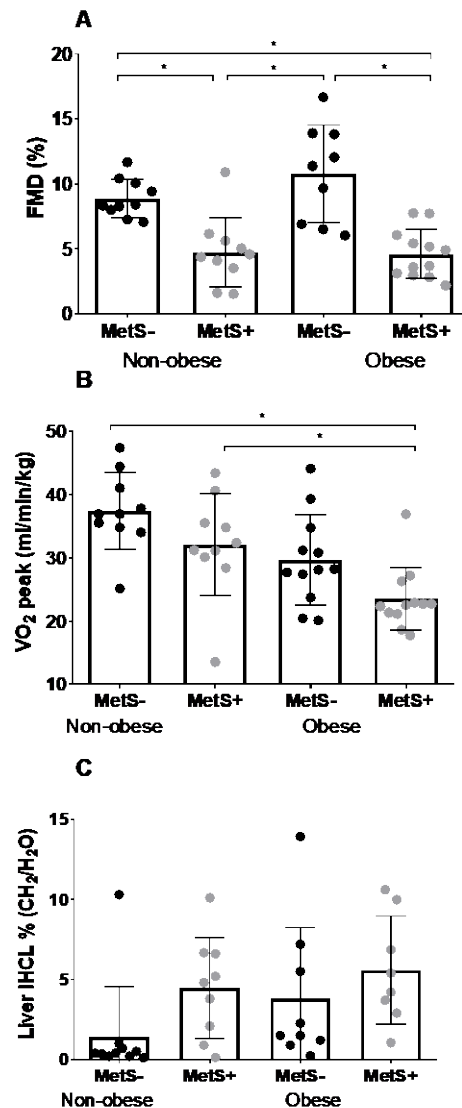
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479 **Figures**



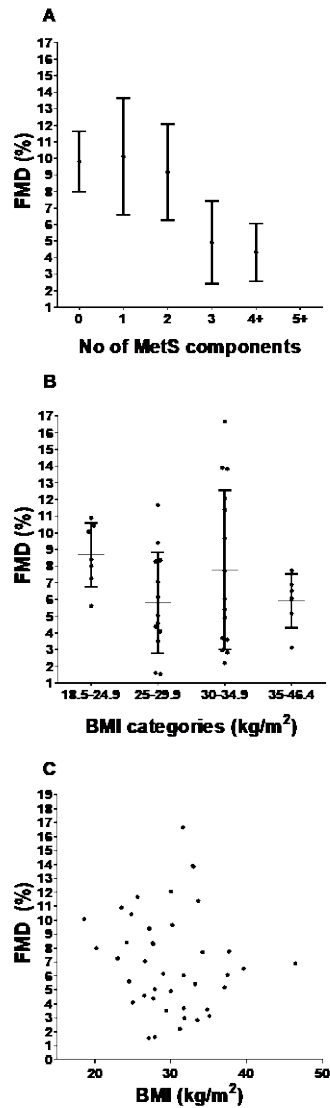
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481 **Figure 1.** Individual participant plots for A) flow mediated dilation (FMD), B) cardio-

482 respiratory fitness ($\dot{V}O_2$ peak) and, C) 'liver fat' intrahepatic cellular lipid (IHCL)

483 percentage. Black circles, MetS-; grey circles, MetS+; non-obese are grouped left and obese

484 are grouped right. Group mean \pm SD data is presented as bar. * $P < 0.05$, group difference.



485

486 **Figure 2.** Individual plots for all forty-four participants A) flow mediated dilation (FMD)
 487 categorised for number of metabolic syndrome (MetS) components, B) FMD categorised for
 488 (BMI) classifications and C) showing individual points for flow mediated dilation (FMD) and
 489 body mass index (BMI).

Table 1. Descriptive data, mean \pm SD of clinical values, physical activity and dietary data of each group categorised for obesity and subsequently MetS.

	Non-obese		Obese	
	MetS- (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS- (<i>n</i> =12)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =12)
Gender	M <i>n</i> =9; F <i>n</i> =1	M <i>n</i> =8; F <i>n</i> =2	M <i>n</i> =7; F <i>n</i> =5	M <i>n</i> =6; F <i>n</i> =6
Age (years)	43 \pm 14	48 \pm 9	43 \pm 14	36 \pm 11
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.6 \pm 3.1	26.9 \pm 2.0	33.7 \pm 4.7	33.9 \pm 2.6
Components of metabolic syndrome				
Waist circumference (cm)	89 \pm 10	97 \pm 6	105 \pm 15	111 \pm 9
Systolic BP (mmHg)	125 \pm 13	143 \pm 11	126 \pm 14	149 \pm 18
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	79 \pm 13	95 \pm 15	77 \pm 5	92 \pm 12
Fasting glucose (mmol/l)	5.0 \pm 0.4	5.4 \pm 0.3	4.9 \pm 0.4	5.5 \pm 1.1
Triglyceride (mmol/l)	1.1 \pm 0.8	1.4 \pm 0.5	1.2 \pm 0.8	1.8 \pm 1.0
HDL-cholesterol (mmol/l)	1.7 \pm 0.4	1.7 \pm 0.7	1.6 \pm 0.5	1.3 \pm 0.3
Physical activity				
Energy expenditure (kJ/day)	12143 \pm 3641	12226 \pm 1743	12079 \pm 3951	13281 \pm 3104
PA duration [>1.5 METS] (min/day)	482 \pm 117	340 \pm 137	304 \pm 160	311 \pm 179
Sedentary [<1.5 METS] (min/day)	909 \pm 113*	1027 \pm 91	1074 \pm 166	1132 \pm 125
Light [1.3 - 3 METS] (min/day)	321 \pm 73*	253 \pm 74	186 \pm 96	176 \pm 56
MVPA [>3 METS] (min/day)	165 \pm 93	117 \pm 52	121 \pm 86	109 \pm 104
Dietary analysis				
Energy intake (kJ/day)	9532 \pm 2008	8272 \pm 1441	9629 \pm 2201	8019 \pm 1217
Carbohydrate (g/day)	206 \pm 79	209 \pm 59	214 \pm 76	236 \pm 39
Protein (g/day)	95 \pm 16	91 \pm 13	130 \pm 54	85 \pm 14
Fat (g/day)	92 \pm 24	73 \pm 9	95 \pm 26	65 \pm 23

MetS, metabolic syndrome; M, male; F, female; BMI, body mass index; BP, blood pressure; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; PA, physical activity; METS, metabolic equivalents; MVPA, moderate-vigorous physical activity.

*sig different to both obese groups

Table 2. Differences in the brachial artery vascular function between groups categorised for obesity and subsequently MetS, mean \pm SD.

	Non-obese		Obese		<i>P</i> (ANOVA)
	MetS- (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS- (<i>n</i> =12)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =12)	
	M <i>n</i> =9; F <i>n</i> =1	M <i>n</i> =8; F <i>n</i> =2	M <i>n</i> =7; F <i>n</i> =5	M <i>n</i> =6; F <i>n</i> =6	
Flow-Mediated Dilation (%)	8.6 \pm 1.2	4.7 \pm 2.6	10.8 \pm 3.6	4.6 \pm 1.9	<0.001
Baseline Diameter (mm)	0.42 \pm 0.06	0.44 \pm 0.06	0.40 \pm 0.1	0.41 \pm 0.09	0.75
Peak Diameter (mm)	0.46 \pm 0.06	0.45 \pm 0.06	0.44 \pm 0.1	0.43 \pm 0.09	0.91
Shear Rate _{AUC} (s ⁻¹ x 10 ³)	15395 \pm 8421	11669 \pm 7808	13048 \pm 23067	17136 \pm 11583	0.36
Time to Peak (s)	44.4 \pm 19.6	32.7 \pm 19.2	71.9 \pm 59.1	46.9 \pm 21.4	0.32

Table 3. Body composition data, mean \pm SD derived from both bioelectrical impedance and MRI quantification presented for each group categorised for obesity and subsequently MetS.

	Non-obese		Obese	
	MetS- (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =10)	MetS- (<i>n</i> =12)	MetS+ (<i>n</i> =12)
Bioelectrical impedance quantification of:				
Fat (%)	21.5 \pm 5.6*	27.5 \pm 5.1*	39.4 \pm 7.0	39.4 \pm 7.8
Fat mass (kg)	16.4 \pm 5.5*	22.3 \pm 3.4*	38.1 \pm 10.9	39.1 \pm 8.2
Fat free mass (kg)	58.5 \pm 8.0	59.2 \pm 8.0	58.4 \pm 11.5	60.9 \pm 12.9
Muscle mass (kg)	55.5 \pm 7.7	56.2 \pm 7.6	55.4 \pm 7.7	57.9 \pm 12.2
Visceral fat rating	8 \pm 3*	10 \pm 3	13 \pm 5	14 \pm 5
MRI quantification of:				
	MetS- (<i>n</i>=10)	MetS+ (<i>n</i>=8)	MetS- (<i>n</i>=7)	MetS+ (<i>n</i>=7)
Total SAT (L)	15.3 \pm 3.8*	17.9 \pm 4.4	29.9 \pm 11.9	28.6 \pm 13.1
Abdominal SAT (L)	3.9 \pm 1.8**	5.6 \pm 1.1**	9.7 \pm 4.2	12.9 \pm 7.7
Visceral adipose tissue (L)	3.0 \pm 1.9***	4.6 \pm 1.7	6.0 \pm 2.3	5.5 \pm 2.1
Internal fat (L)	5.7 \pm 2.6	8.1 \pm 3.4	9.9 \pm 3.6	9.3 \pm 2.9
Whole-body fat (L)	21.0 \pm 5.3*	26.0 \pm 2.6*	39.7 \pm 12.7	40.7 \pm 10.4

SAT, subcutaneous adipose tissue

*sig lower than both obese groups

**sig lower than obese MetS+

***sig lower than obese MetS-