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Communication**

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Author contributions

GM and SD conducted data collection. EG provided technical expertise and assistance. JB, HJP, and SRH performed data analysis. SRH and HJP wrote and edited the manuscript. AJAM conceptualized the study and edited the manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

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Platelet bioenergetics are associated with resting metabolic rate and exercise capacity in older adult women

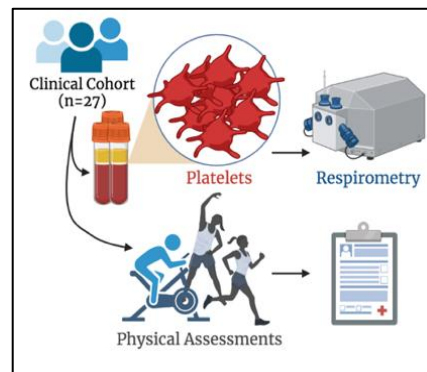
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Abstract



This study investigates relationships between platelet mitochondrial bioenergetics and resting metabolic rate (RMR), body composition, and exercise fitness in women over 60 years of age. We report positive correlations

between peak respiratory exchange ratio (RER) and RMR with five measures of platelet respiration, supporting the premise that blood cells can be utilized to report on mitochondrial function associated with physical health and fitness. Identifying mechanisms associated with physical performance among older adults supports the development of reliable biomarkers of healthy aging and can advance the development of efficacious interventions.

1. Introduction

1.1. Age-related bioenergetic decline and physical function

Mitochondrial dysfunction is a biological hallmark of aging implicated in multiple age-related diseases and disorders, including physical function decline and sarcopenia (López-Otín et al 2013; Lenaz et al 2000; Gonzalez-Freire et al 2018). Age-related skeletal muscle bioenergetic decline is marked by decreased mitochondrial density, ATP production, electron transfer (ET) capacity, and tricarboxylic acid cycle enzyme activity (Short et al 2005; Marzetti et al 2013). This decline in skeletal muscle bioenergetics is associated with decreased cardiopulmonary fitness and exercise fitness (Coen et al 2013). For example, multiple studies found that gait speed, a clinical measure of functional capacity integrating multiple systems including the nervous system and musculoskeletal system, is associated with skeletal muscle mitochondrial bioenergetics (Choi et al 2016; Tyrrell et al 2015).

1.2. Resting metabolic rate

Although physical activity comprises 15-30 % of daily energy expenditure, the major contributor to total energy expenditure is resting metabolic rate (RMR), which accounts for roughly 60 % of the body's total energy demands (Ravussin, Bogardus 1989). RMR is largely determined by metabolically active tissues including skeletal muscle, heart, brain, kidney, liver, and – in certain populations – adipose tissue (Wang 2010). Although RMR has been extensively examined in relation with age, sex, body composition, and physical activity, few studies have examined the relationship between mitochondrial function and RMR (Larsen et al 2011; McMurray et al 2014). However, RMR was recently found to be associated with *in vivo* skeletal muscle oxidative capacity, suggesting a strong link between mitochondrial function and RMR (Edwards et al 2013; Zampino et al 2020).

1.3. Blood-based bioenergetic profiling

There is mounting evidence that blood-based bioenergetic profiling can be utilized to report on systemic bioenergetic capacity, and is related to mitochondrial function measured in other tissues (Nguyen et al 2019; Mahapatra et al 2018; Sjövall et al 2014). Our group has shown that blood cell respirometry correlates with skeletal and cardiac muscle respirometry (Tyrrell et al 2016). These data suggest that respirometry of blood cells may reflect the bioenergetic status of other organ systems, including skeletal muscle. The goal of this study is to uncover whether platelet respirometry correlates with RMR, body composition, and measures of exercise fitness. In particular, platelet mitochondrial function has been reported to be correlated with skeletal muscle mitochondrial function and exhibit bioenergetic changes associated with age in humans (Braganza et al 2019).

1.4. Study goals

The study presented here examines the relationship of platelet bioenergetics with resting metabolic rate and exercise capacity in community-dwelling women over 60 years of age. While women have a longer life expectancy than men, they exhibit higher rates of frailty later in life. Moreover, men continue to exhibit higher physical performance, even later in life (Hägg, Jylhävä 2021).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Participants

Twenty-seven healthy adult women (mean age = 70.2 years) were included in this study. All participants were free from chronic medical illness, current health complaints, and abnormal physical examination (including blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg). Screening tests, including electrocardiogram, exercise echocardiogram, and spirometry, indicated no presence of heart disease. Participants who regularly undertook vigorous exercise were excluded from this study. The protocol for this study was approved by the Wake Forest School of Medicine institutional review board, and all participants provided written, informed consent.

2.2. Resting metabolic rate

RMR was measured using indirect calorimetry (MGC Diagnostics) for each participant after an overnight fast as previously described (Nicklas et al 2019).

2.3. Exercise fitness

Exercise fitness was measured by cardiopulmonary exercise testing (CPET), an integrative assessment of exercise responses particularly useful in the context of cardiovascular or pulmonary disease (Balady et al 2010). It integrates evaluation of the pulmonary, cardiovascular, haematopoietic, neuropsychological, and skeletal muscle systems, which are not adequately reflected through the measurement of individual organ system function (Albouaini et al 2007). Ventilatory and gas exchange responses were measured on a breath-by-breath basis (MGC Diagnostics, St. Paul, MN) using a treadmill ramp protocol to exhaustion as previously described (Nicklas et al 2019).

2.4. Body composition

We recorded several body composition measurements, including: BMI, lean mass, and fat mass. We recorded lean mass and fat mass values using total body dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DXA) on the Prodigy Scanner (General Electric, Madison, WI) as previously described (Nicklas et al 2019).

2.5. High-resolution respirometry

Platelet mitochondrial function was assessed by high-resolution respirometry using the Oxygraph-2k (Oroboros Instruments, Innsbruck, Austria), which provided a detailed analysis of respiratory pathway control and coupling control (Gnaiger 2020). Our protocol is depicted in Figure 1 and was comprised of the following injections: catalase (Ctl; 112,000 U/mL), ADP (D; 0.5 mM), magnesium (Mg; 0.3 mM), digitonin (Dig; 10 mg/mL), octanoylcarnitine (Oct; 0.1 mM), malate (M; 0.1 mM and 0.8 mM), cytochrome c (c; 4 mM), pyruvate (P; 2 mM),

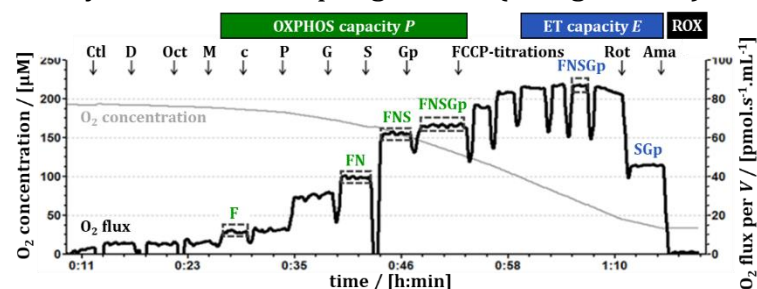


Figure 1. Representative trace of high-resolution respirometry of platelets.

glutamate (G; 2 mM), succinate (S; 1 mM), and glycerophosphate (Gp; 1 mM). After, we titrated the uncoupler FCCP in 1 μM steps until maximal respiration is reached. Finally, we added rotenone (Rot; 1 μM) and antimycin-A (Ama; 2.5 μM) to stop mitochondrial respiration (residual oxygen consumption, ROX). The platelet concentration was $2 \cdot 10^8$ cells per 2 mL chamber.

2.6. Statistical analysis

We determined Pearson correlation coefficients r and partial correlations between respirometry measures and CPET, body composition, and calorimetry measures, including adjustments for age, BMI, and fat %. Regression lines were calculated according to inverted regression analysis (Gnaiger 2021).

3. Results

3.1. Participant characteristics and platelet respiration

This study included 27 healthy older adult women (mean age 70.2 ± 1.1 years). Platelet OXPHOS capacities P [$\text{pmol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$] were for fatty acid oxidation (F_P ; 19.4 ± 1.7), F- & NADH(CI)-linked P (FN_P ; 24.8 ± 2.0), FN- & succinate-linked P (FNS_P ; 37.6 ± 3.0), FNS- & glycerophosphate-linked P ($FNSGp_P$; 45.0 ± 3.6) and the corresponding ET-capacity E ($FNSGp_E$; 76.6 ± 6.6 ; Table 1: O_2 flow per platelet). These respiratory states have previously been described as FAO, FAO+Complex I, FAO+Complex I+Complex II, Maximal Uncoupled Respiration, and Max ETS (Mahapatra 2018). We compared these measures of platelet respirometry to resting metabolic rate (RMR), as well as body composition measures, such as BMI, fat mass, and lean mass. We also examined exercise fitness tests including peak V_{O_2} , peak V_{CO_2} , and peak respiratory exchange ratio (RER).

Table 1. Participant characteristics (N=27)

		Mean (SE)
Demographics		
age [years]		70.2 (1.1)
Platelet respirometry		
F_P	[$\text{amol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}^{-1}$]	0.194 (0.017)
FN_P	[$\text{amol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}^{-1}$]	0.248 (0.020)
FNS_P	[$\text{amol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}^{-1}$]	0.376 (0.030)
$FNSGp_P$	[$\text{amol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}^{-1}$]	0.450 (0.036)
$FNSGp_E$	[$\text{amol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{x}^{-1}$]	0.766 (0.066)
Indirect calorimetry		
RMR (kcal/day)		1289.4 (31.8)
Cardiopulmonary exercise tests		
peak V_{O_2}	[$\text{mL} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$]	24.9 (1.0)
peak V_{CO_2}	[$\text{mL} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$]	27.4 (1.3)
peak RER		1.10 (0.02)
Body composition		
BMI		26.6 (0.7)
body total fat mass	[kg]	29.2 (1.4)
body total lean mass	[kg]	39.8 (9.4)
body total fat percent	[%]	40.6 (1.1)
trunk-only fat percent	[%]	38.5 (1.3)

Table 2. Correlations of platelet respirometry with RMR, fitness, and body comp.

	Platelet respiration				
	F_P	FN_P	FNS_P	$FNSGp_P$	$FNSGp_E$
Calorimetry					
resting metabolic rate (RMR)	.409*	.537**	.455*	.436*	.472*
Cardiopulmonary exercise tests					
peak V_{O_2}	.076	.146	.208	.243	.249
peak V_{CO_2}	.205	.268	.325	.351	.368
peak RER	.445*	.475*	.483*	.480*	.517**
Body composition					
BMI	-.147	-.069	-.170	-.223	-.175
body total fat mass	-.057	-.005	-.113	-.167	-.110
body total lean mass	.097	.272	.130	.078	.178
body total fat percent	-.171	-.200	-.278	-.310	-.298
trunk-only fat percent	-.155	-.185	-.242	-.274	-.239

Pearson coefficients of correlation r values. * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$.

Table 3. Adjusted correlations of platelet respirometry with RMR and peak RER

	Platelet respiration				
	F_p	FN_p	FNS_p	$FNSGp_p$	$FNSGp_E$
RMR					
unadjusted	.409*	.537**	.455*	.436*	.472*
adjusted age	.426*	.541**	.452*	.429*	.456*
adjusted BMI	.513**	.599**	.554**	.554**	.546**
adjusted body total fat percent	.431*	.556**	.482*	.464*	.488*
Peak RER					
unadjusted	.445*	.475*	.483*	.480*	.517**
adjusted age	.473*	.478*	.470*	.460*	.481*
adjusted BMI	.443*	.470*	.478*	.475*	.509**
adjusted body total fat percent	.432*	.455*	.463*	.459*	.496*

Pearson coefficients of correlation r values. * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$

3.2. Relationships between platelet bioenergetics and resting metabolic rate

We identified positive correlations between RMR and five measures of platelet respiration (Table 2; Figure 2). Controlling for age, BMI, and percent body fat, indicate that these covariates had little influence on the relationship between RMR and platelet respiration (Table 3).

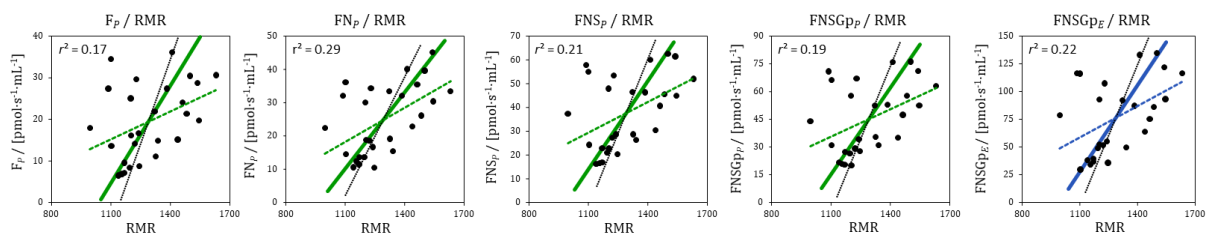


Figure 2. Correlations of platelet bioenergetics and RMR. Y/X regression lines (dashed; lowest slope using ordinary least squares), ordinate projection of X/Y abscissal regression lines (dotted), and mean regression lines (full). Coefficients of determination r^2 are independent of axis inversion. See Gnaiger (2021).

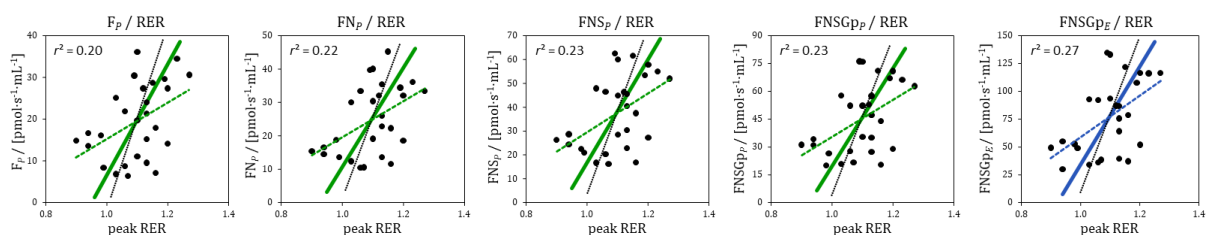


Figure 3. Correlations of platelet bioenergetics and peak RER. Regression lines are calculated as in Figure 2.

3.3. Relationships between platelet bioenergetics and measures of exercise fitness

We also identified positive correlations between peak RER and five measures of platelet respiration (Table 2; Figure 3) using Pearson correlation analyses. Peak $\dot{V}O_2$ and peak $\dot{V}CO_2$ were not correlated with measures of platelet respiration. Controlling for age, BMI, and percent body fat, indicate that these covariates had little influence on the relationship between peak RER and platelet respiration (Table 3).

3.4. Relationships between platelet bioenergetics and measures of body composition

Relationships between fat % and FNS_P ($r=-0.278$), maximum OXPHOS capacity ($FNSG_{pP}$; $r=-0.31$), and maximum ET capacity ($FNSG_{pE}$; $r=-0.298$) are reported in Table 2. Similar relationships were found between trunk fat % and FNS_P ($r=-0.242$), $FNSG_{pP}$ ($r=-0.274$) and $FNSG_{pE}$ ($r=-0.239$). While these correlations are trending, all have p -values greater than 0.05.

4. Discussion

This study examines platelet mitochondrial function in healthy women over 60 years of age. We found that peak RER and RMR are both positively correlated to all measures of platelet bioenergetic function examined, independent of body composition.

Age-related mitochondrial decline and its relationship to physical function has predominantly been studied in skeletal muscle due to the strong association between sarcopenia and physical function decline. Here, we build on prior literature by focusing on blood-based bioenergetics and the ability of blood cells to report on physical health. Our data are in line with reports that skeletal muscle bioenergetics are associated with RMR (Choi et al 2016; Tyrrell et al 2015). We also found a strong relationship between platelet bioenergetics and peak RER, which has not been previously reported (Knuiman et al 2021). Together, these new findings contribute to our understanding of how blood-based bioenergetic profiling relates to physical fitness and exercise physiology.

RER is the ratio of carbon dioxide output to oxygen uptake (V_{CO_2}/V_{O_2}) and is typically measured by gas exchange at the mouth. At higher exercise intensity, increased lactate buildup associated with anaerobic metabolism contributes to a disproportionate increase in V_{CO_2} that brings RER to values >1 (Balady et al 2010; Milani 2006). Thus, peak RER can be used as a reliable, quantitative measure of maximal exercise effort. Our findings indicate that platelet maximum ET capacity ($FNSG_{pE}$) most strongly correlates to maximal exercise effort. Additional measures of platelet respirometry, such as fatty acid oxidation as well as individual complex function, also correlate positively to maximal exercise effort.

Interestingly, we did not observe an association between platelet bioenergetics and peak V_{O_2} , which has been previously found to be related to skeletal muscle bioenergetics (Knuiman et al 2021; Coen et al 2013; Distefano et al 2017; Gonzalez-Freire 2018). While this finding has been previously reported in skeletal muscle, but not blood, it should be noted that the women enrolled in this study exhibited relatively similar levels of fitness to each other. This small dynamic range and small sample size suggest that we were not adequately powered to observe this potential relationship. Future studies should be designed to determine if platelet bioenergetics are associated with RMR and exercise capacity in both men and women, in addition to over a larger age range to analyze how these relationships may change over lifespan and healthspan.

Overall, these findings suggest that energy expenditure during rest and physical activity are related to systemic mitochondrial function. These data can be used as a foundation to study how potential interventions, such as diet and exercise, may lead to improvements in mitochondrial function, resting metabolic rate, and other measures of physical fitness. Blood-based bioenergetic profiling, a minimally-invasive technique, can be used to track improvements and changes in exercise fitness in clinical studies.

5. Conclusions

In this study, we report positive correlations across five measures of platelet respiration with both peak RER and RMR, thus contributing to a growing body of evidence indicating that this minimally-invasive evaluation of mitochondrial function relates to physical health. The ability of blood cells to recapitulate skeletal muscle bioenergetics and predict exercise fitness suggests that systemic bioenergetic capacity may play a key role in physical fitness. Blood-based bioenergetic profiling may serve as a reliable biomarker of mitochondrial health among older adults and may be utilized to test efficacy and identify targets of interventions designed to promote the health and well-being of older adults.

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