

STUDY OF LEVELS OF GLYCOSYLATED HB IN CORONARY ARTERY DISEASE AND DIABETES MELLITUS

Dr. Suvarna T. Jadhav^{1*}, Dr. Ajit V. Sontakke² and Dr. Bipin M. Tiwale³

^{1*}Assistant Professor. Biochemistry Department Bharati Vidyapeeth University Dental College and Hospital, Sangli.416 414. Maharashtra, India.

²Professor and Head of the Biochemistry Department Krishna Institute of Medical Sciences, Karad. 415 110. Maharashtra, India.

³Professor and Head of the Biochemistry Department Dr. D. Y. Patil Medical College, Kolhapur. 416 006. Maharashtra, India.

Article Received on
23 May 2018,

Revised on 11 June 2018,
Accepted on 02 July 2018

DOI: 10.20959/wjpr201814-12684

*Corresponding Author

Dr. Suvarna T. Jadhav

Assistant Professor.

Biochemistry Department

Bharati Vidyapeeth

University Dental College

and Hospital, Sangli.416

414. Maharashtra, India.

ABSTRACT

Coronary Artery Disease (CAD) leads to Angina and Myocardial Infarction (MI). Premature mortality on Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) is more common in diabetic atherosclerosis. In the present study serum level of Glycosylated Hb was estimated in patients of CAD with DM, CAD without DM, DM without CAD and CAD with DM and other risk factors compared to healthy normal subjects. In present study significant increase in Glycosylated Hb levels was observed in Gr.I, III and IV compared to control group.

KEYWORDS: Coronary Artery Disease, Diabetes Mellitus, Glycosylated Hb.

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus is a major factor contributing to the predication that cardiovascular disease will become the leading cause of mortality worldwide by 2020.^[1] Although coronary artery disease may contribute to the development of heart failure in a proportion of diabetic patients, some patients do not have obvious ischemic insults that lead to progressive heart failure. In the clinical setting, every 1% increase in the baseline glycosylated haemoglobin level translates into a 15% increase in risk of developing heart failure.^[2]

Algorithm for management of diabetes in presence of coronary heart disease has not changed much. Diet, exercise, oral hypoglycemia agents and insulin have remained the cornerstone of therapy. However, the paradigm has shifted from mere control of hyperglycemia to correction of a host of associated metabolic and hematologic abnormalities. This approach only could mitigate the devastating consequences of the lethal combination of diabetes and coronary artery disease. Appreciating its importance, American Heart Association, in its scientific statement has pronounced diabetes a cardiovascular disease.^[3]

Over the last couple of decades we have understood better the natural history of type-1 and type – 2 diabetes, as well as the pathogenetic mechanism involved in development of both macrovascular and microvascular complications. This has given us insight into developing therapeutic strategies which target key issues in the pathogenesis of diabetes and its complications.^[4]

Several studies have indicated that mortality and morbidity rates of Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) were 2 to 4 times higher among patients with type I diabetes whose HbA_{1C} was higher (> 10.4%) than in age matched non diabetic subjects.^[5]

Earlier sole method for diagnosis of DM was hyperglycemia but due to its wide biological variations it was found to be inaccurate measure of diabetic load. Subsequently, American Diabetes Association indicated the role of hemoglobin A_{1c}(HbA_{1c}), which provides a much better indication of long-term glycemic control and vascular risks of diabetes.^[6]

Macrovascular disease is the most important cause of mortality and morbidity in individuals with type 2 diabetes. Even when adjusted for conventional risk factors, diabetic individuals still exhibit a two to four fold increased risk of cardiovascular disease in comparison to the non-diabetic people. Therefore, long-term uncontrolled hyperglycemia, which is indicated by HbA_{1c} levels, is strongly suspected of promoting atherogenesis. Excess glucose is transformed into advanced glycation end products (AGEs) that not only make blood vessels inelastic and stenotic but also activates chronic inflammation. Furthermore, AGEs have been localized to atherosclerotic lesions, fatty streaks, lipid-containing smooth muscle cells, and macrophages in individuals with diabetes.^[7-8] The proposed pathophysiologic mechanism for development of atherosclerosis as mentioned above can be proven by correlation of glycated product of Hb with some reliable marker of atherosclerosis.

Atherosclerosis is the underlying disease process leading to ischemic heart disease (IHD). Atherosclerotic plaques and carotid vessel stenosis are reported to be independent predictors of cerebrovascular accidents.^[9] Several studies have also established strong correlation between common carotid artery intima media thickness (IMT) with all types of ischemic stroke, carotid plaque, and cardiovascular deaths.^[10] Carotid intima media thickness (CIMT) is a good surrogate marker for cardiovascular disease and can be used to predict myocardial infarction and stroke.^[11,12,13] HbA_{1c} level has been shown to be associated with carotid IMT in a large, multi-ethnic study in an American population. However, in the subgroup analysis, the association between CIMT and HbA_{1c} levels was not significant in an Asian American population.^[14-15]

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The present study was carried out in the Department of Biochemistry, Dr.D.Y.Patil Education Society's Medical College and Hospital, Kolhapur. This study was approved by Institutional ethical committee.

In this study a total number of 200 subjects between age 40 yrs to 60 yrs matched with age and sex were included. They were distributed in controls and four groups.

Controls	Normal Healthy controls- 100 cases
Group- I	Patients with CAD and DM- 25 cases
Group- II	Patients with CAD – 25 cases
Group- III	Patients with DM – 25 cases
Group- IV	Patients with CAD and DM + Other risk factors- 25 cases

All controls were from the same age groups as patients, not showing any clinical signs and symptoms suggestive of CAD. They were having normal blood pressure (BP), ECG, blood sugar level and apparently no other cardiac risk factors. Group-I contained patients diagnosed to have CAD (based on angiography)with confirmed DM and were receiving treatment for the same Group- II contained patients with CAD but no DM Group-III contained Type II DM patients receiving treatment for DM, and were not showing any complications of DM, and had normal ECG and BP. Group- IV contained patients with CAD and DM along with other risk factors. (such as smoking, hypertension, family history of CAD, obesity etc.)

Sample collection- 2ml of venous blood was collected in a E.D.T.A. bulb.

Inclusion Criteria: A) Control group: 100 age matched healthy subjects were included in the control group. The subjects were selected after screening for any prior history of

cardiovascular disease or any other disease. B) CAD Patients: Angiographically proven patients by the cardiologists with relevant coronary artery disease showing greater than 50% stenoses in at least one major coronary artery at the time of diagnostic catheterization were enrolled in this study. Each subject was screened by a complete history, physical examination and laboratory analysis. C) Diabetic Patients with CAD: Clinically diagnosed patients whose fasting blood glucose level was above 125 mg/dl.

Exclusion Criteria:-The patients with hemodynamically significant valvular heart disease undergoing catheterization, surgery or trauma, known cardiomyopathy, known cancer, abnormal hepatic and renal function, past or concurrent history of any disease and taking any medication that could influence the oxidant and antioxidant status and endothelial functions were excluded from the study group.

RESULT

Table No 1: Showing the levels of Glycosylated Hb (%) in control subjects and different study groups.

Groups	GLYCO Hb (%)
Control	6.8 ± 0.7
Group I (CAD with DM)	11.6 ± 1.8 *
Group II (CAD with out DM)	7.0 ± 0.89 #
Group III (DM with out CAD)	12.8 ± 1.7 * ♣ \$
Group IV (CAD with DM and other risk factors)	12.0 ± 1.9 * ♠ ♦

Values are expressed as mean ± SD

* P< 0.001 Group I, III, and IV as compared to control.

P<0.001 Group II as compared to Group I

♣ P<0.001 Group III as compared to Group I

\$ P<0.001 Group III as compared to Group II

♠ P<0.001 Group IV as compared to Group II

♦ P<0.05 Group IV as compared to Group III

In present study significant increase in GlycoHb levels was observed in Gr.I, III and IV compared to control group.

In the present study, highly significant increase in the level of glycosylated Hb was observed when Gr. III compared with Gr. I, however no significant change was seen when Gr. IV was compared with Gr.I

Similarly when Gr I, Gr. III and Gr. IV were compared with Gr.II showed highly significant rise.

DISCUSSION

Diabetes and dyslipidaemia are independent risk factors for macrovascular disease. It is clearly evident that the combination may be playing a major role in pathogenesis of CAD.¹ In the present study, as expected in group II, the level of glycosylated Hb was found to be normal but in other three groups (i.e. I, III and IV) it was significantly raised (Table No-1).

There is an increase in risk of CAD with increased risk for macrovascular disease.^[17,18] Klein R. (5) in his study showed an increased risk of 11% for each increment of 1% in HbA_{1c} and 10% increase in mortality from ischemic heart disease for an increment of 1% in HbA_{1c}.

Glycosylated proteins can be oxidized to produce free radicals, which may cause cross linking to produce advance glycosylation end products (AGES). Accumulation of AGES in the arterial walls may make it more susceptible to a variety of atherogenic influences. Endothelial dysfunction can be related to both, production of AGES and oxidation stress due to elevated glucose levels, causing free radical damage or can be independent and contribute to progression of CHD.^[19]

Hyperglycemia has been the sole diagnostic criterion for diabetes since the development of blood glucose assays 100 years ago. Despite being the gold standard, measurement of blood glucose is less accurate and less precise due to large biological variation. In 2009, an International Expert Committee recommended the use of the HbA_{1c} test to diagnose diabetes, with a threshold of 6.5% or greater.^[20] The American Diabetes Association adopted this criterion in 2010. The diagnostic cut point of 6.5% was recommended based on the risk for developing micro vascular complications such as retinopathy. This HbA_{1c} criterion identifies one third fewer cases of undiagnosed diabetes than a fasting glucose cut point of 126 mg/dL or greater. However, the advantage of using HbA_{1c} outweighs this limitation. Compared with fasting glucose, HbA_{1c} has higher repeatability, can be tested in a non-fasting status, and is a relatively stable marker for glucose level. The disadvantage of the use of HbA_{1c} in the diagnosis of diabetes might be the fact that the measurement of HbA_{1c} level is not standardized, which may result in unreliable values in different laboratories and countries.^[21] Recent studies have demonstrated that HbA_{1c} is also a predictor of all-cause, cardiovascular and IHD mortality even at concentrations below the accepted threshold for diabetes.^[22] A

recent study in the *Annals of Internal Medicine* had also validated that HbA_{1c} is a progressive risk-factor for cardiovascular disease in individuals with and without diabetes.^[23] Every 1% absolute increase in HbA_{1c} above the non-glycemic level of 5% predicts a 20% relative increase in the incidence of cardiovascular events even after adjustment for systolic blood pressure, cholesterol level, body mass index, waist to hip ratio, smoking and previous myocardial infarction or stroke.

REFERENCES

1. Bahal V.K. Management of coronary artery disease in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Indian Heart J*, 2001; 53: 147-154.
2. Chae C, Glynn R, Manson J. Diabetes predicts congestive heart failure risk in the elderly. *Circulation*, 1998; 98(suppl): 1-721.
3. Grundy S.M, Benjamin I. J, Burke G. L, Chait Ackel R.H, Howar B.V. Scientific statement for healthcare professional from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*, 1999; 100: 1134-46.
4. Gerick JE, The genetic basis of type 2 diabetes mellitus: impaired insulin secretion versus impaired insulin sensitivity, *Endocr Rev*, 1998; 19: 491-503.
5. Brownlee M `Glycation products and the pathogenesis of diabetic complications. *Diabetes Care*, 1992; 15: 1835–1843.
6. Friedman EA. Advanced glycosylated end products and hyperglycemia in the pathogenesis of diabetic complications. *Diabetes Care*, 1999; 22(Suppl 2): B65–71.
7. Schleicher ED, Wagner E, Nerlich AG. Increased accumulation of the glycoxidation product N (epsilon)-(carboxymethyl) lysine in human tissues in diabetes and aging. *J Clin Invest*, 1997; 99: 457–68.
8. Stitt AW, He C, Friedman S, Scher L, Rossi P, Ong L, et al. Elevated AGE-modified ApoB in sera of euglycemic, normolipidemic patients with atherosclerosis: Relationship to tissue AGEs. *Mol Med*, 1997; 3: 617–27.
9. Autret A, Pourcelot L, Saudeau D, Marchal C, Bertrand P, de Boisvilliers S. Stroke risk in patients with carotid stenosis. *Lancet*, 1987; 1: 888–90.
10. Lee EJ, Kim HJ, Bae JM, Kim JC, Han HJ, Park CS, et al. Relevance of common carotid intima-media thickness and carotid plaque as risk factors for ischemic stroke in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*, 2007; 28: 916–9.
11. O'Leary DH, Polak JF, Kronmal RA, Manolio TA, Burke GL, Wolfson SK., Jr Carotid-artery intima and media thickness as a risk factor for myocardial infarction and stroke in older

- adults. Cardiovascular Health Study Collaborative Research Group. *N Engl J Med*, 1999; 340: 14–22.
12. Bots ML, Hoes AW, Koudstaal PJ, Hofman A, Grobbee DE. Common carotid intima-media thickness and risk of stroke and myocardial infarction: The Rotterdam Study. *Circulation*, 1997; 96: 1432–7.
 13. Rundek T, Arif H, Boden-Albala B, Elkind MS, Paik MC, Sacco RL. Carotid plaque, a subclinical precursor of vascular events: The Northern Manhattan Study. *Neurology*, 2008; 70: 1200–7.
 14. McNeely MJ, McClelland RL, Bild DE, Jacobs DR, Jr, Tracy RP, Cushman M, et al. The association between A1C and subclinical cardiovascular disease: The multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis. *Diabetes Care*, 2009; 32: 1727–33.
 15. Palaniappan LP, Araneta MR, Assimes TL, Barrett-Connor EL, Carnethon MR, Criqui MH, et al. Call to action: Cardiovascular disease in Asian Americans: A science advisory from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*, 2010; 122: 1242–52.
 16. Gandhi H. R. Risk Factor for CAD in diabetes mellitus, particularly in Asian. *Indian Cardiology Today*, Jan-feb 2001; 5(1).
 17. Jarrett R J, Keen H. *rattpm*. SE. Manley, DR Matthews, R. R. Holman, Risk Factors for Coronary artery disease in non – insulin dependent diabetes mellitus Hyperglycemia and diabetes Mellitus. *Lancet*, 1976; 2: 1009–1012.
 18. Folsom A R, Szklo M, Stevens, stevens, Liao F, Smith R, Eckfeldt J. A prospective study of Coronary heart disease in relation to fasting insulin, Glucose and diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 1997; 20: 935 –942.
 19. Ryozo Tatami, Hiroshi Mabuchi, Kosh Veda, Intermediate – density lipoprotein and cholesterol – rich very low density lipoprotein in Angiographically Determined Coronary Artery Disease. *Circulation*, 1981; 1174-1183.
 20. Gillett MJ. International Expert Committee report on the role of the A1c assay in the diagnosis of diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 2009; 32: 1327–34.
 21. American Diabetes Association. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*, 2011; 34: S62–9.
 22. Khaw KT, Wareham N, Luben R, Bingham S, Oakes S, Welch A, et al. Glycated haemoglobin, diabetes, and mortality in men in Norfolk cohort of European prospective investigation of cancer and nutrition (EPIC-Norfolk) *BMJ*, 2001; 322: 15–8.
 23. Khaw KT, Wareham N, Bingham S, Luben R, Welch A, Day N. Association of hemoglobin A_{1c} with cardiovascular disease and mortality in adults: The European prospective investigation into cancer in Norfolk. *Ann Intern Med*, 2004; 141: 413–20.