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Research Article

THE RISK OF CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE AND THE IMPACT OF HYPERGLYCEMIA ON TYPE 1 DIABETES RELATED CVD MORTALITY

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Abstract:

Aim: Think regarding the risk of cardiovascular disease (CVD) and the impact of hyperglycemia on the risk of type 1 diabetes-related CVD mortality on type 2 diabetes.

Methods: The inquiry involved 177 participants with type 1 diabetes, 839 members with type 2 diabetes and 1,294 non-diabetic members, aged 47–65 years at the gage and released from CVD. Our current research was conducted at Mayo Hospital, Lahore from May 2019 to April 2020. The time of onset of diabetes was 32 years in both diabetic meetings.

Results: During the 18-year period, 86 members with type 1 diabetes, 569 members with type 2 diabetes and 252 non-diabetic members kicked the bucket. CVD mortality rates per 1,000 man years is 23.1 (95 per cent CI 16.9 – 31.9) for diabetic grade 1, 36.4 (31.9 – 41.5) for diabetic grade 2, and 5.7 (3.9 – 5.8) for non-diabetic participants. Changes in the probability of CVD death is 3.6 (95 per cent CI 2.2–5.7) in males and 14.4 (6.9–24.6) in females and participants of type 2 diabetes versus no 3.3 (2.5–4.5) in males and 12.2 (7.8–18.5) in females. A rise of 1 unit (percent) of GHb improved CVD mortality by 53.6 per cent (96 per cent CI 28.6–82.4) in diabetic subjects of type 1 and 8.6 per cent (4.3–12.9) in diabetic subjects of type 2.

Conclusion: The effect of type 1 and type 2 diabetes on CVD mortality was comparative. The impact of expanding hyperglycemia on the danger of CVD mortality was more significant in sort 1 than in kind 2 diabetic subjects.

Keywords: cardiovascular disease (CVD), impact of hyperglycemia, risk of type 1 diabetes-related CVD, mortality, type 2 diabetes.

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INTRODUCTION:

Diabetes is a heterogeneous set of disorders represented by high blood glucose levels. Type 1 diabetes is primarily caused by the destruction of cells in the pancreas, which causes a lack of insulin. Type 2 diabetes, which accounts for 82% of all cases of diabetes worldwide, is represented by the opposition to insulin, which also hinders the release of insulin [1]. Both type 1 and type 2 diabetes can share normal hereditary elements, also hereditary, ecological elements, including being overweight. It is not clear to what extent the pathobiology of vascular entanglement, the major burden of diabetes, is divided between type 1 and type 2 diabetes [2]. Insulin obstruction is essential for the advancement of discomfort in subjects with type 2 diabetes, but it also raises the miniature and microvascular discomfort in subjects with type 1 diabetes, a heterogeneous set of disorders represented by high blood glucose levels [3]. Type 1 diabetes is mainly due to the erasure of pancreatic cells, causing a total absence of insulin. Type 2 diabetes, which accounts for 82% of all diabetes cases worldwide, is represented by the opposition of insulin and the weakening of insulin release [4]. Type 1 and type 2 diabetes may share basic hereditary characteristics, but also natural elements, including heaviness. It is unclear to what extent the pathobiology of vascular difficulties, the major burden of diabetes, is divided between type 1 and type 2 diabetes. The opposition of insulin is vital for the improvement of difficulties in subjects with type 2 diabetes, but it also raises miniature and microvascular confusions in subjects with type 1 diabetes. Hyperglycemia is the primary risk factor for microvascular confusions in both type 1 and type 2 diabetes. Hyperglycemia is also considered to be an important risk factor for microvascular tangles in type 1 diabetes, but its role as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease (CVD) in type 2 diabetes has not been consistently recognized. It is not known whether the risk of CVD in type 1 diabetes approaches that of type 2 diabetes [5]. Nor do we know whether the effect of hyperglycemia on mortality is similar in these two basic types of diabetes. Hence, the purpose

of this review was to investigate the effect of type 1 and type 2 diabetes on the risk of CVD and the effect of blood glucose on mortality in type 1 also, type 2 diabetes in people whose diabetes is diagnosed after the age of 33 years.

METHODOLOGY:

The first study population included 214 subjects with type 1 diabetes, 1,058 subjects with type 2 diabetes and 1,376 non-diabetic subjects compared. A detailed description of the study members has already been distributed. The choice of the diabetic survey accomplice depended on a drug reimbursement library maintained by the Social Insurance Foundation. Our current research was conducted at Mayo Hospital, Lahore from May 209 to April 2020. All members were between 45 and 64 years of age. The diabetic members met the World Health Organization's Demonstration Measures for Diabetes. Their age at onset of diabetes was 33 years. Type 1 diabetes was confirmed by exposure of the Peptide reinvigorated by glucagon, with an invigorated level of 0.22 nmol/l for 6 minutes. An arbitrary age-coordinated population control test of non-diabetic subjects was welcomed to investigate. The boards of morality of the University Hospital of Kuopio and the Central Hospital of the University of Turku also approved the test. All members of the examination gave their informed consent. The standard assessment, conducted somewhere between 1986 and 1988 in Kuopio, Eastern Finland, and Turku, Western Finland, and the biochemical techniques were described in detail beforehand. Creatinine freedom was evaluated according to the Cockcroft-Gault recipe. Type 1 diabetic, type 2 diabetic and non-diabetic limbs with a serum creatinine of 200 mol/l or with clinically critical atherosclerotic CVD (dead myocardial tissue, stroke or non-dramatic ablation of the lower limit) at the reference point were rejected from the investigation. Finally, overall, 173 type 1 diabetics (86 males and 92 females), 834 type 2 diabetics (421 males and 408 females) and 1296 non-diabetics (584 males and 716 females) were retained for evidence-based testing.

Figure 1:

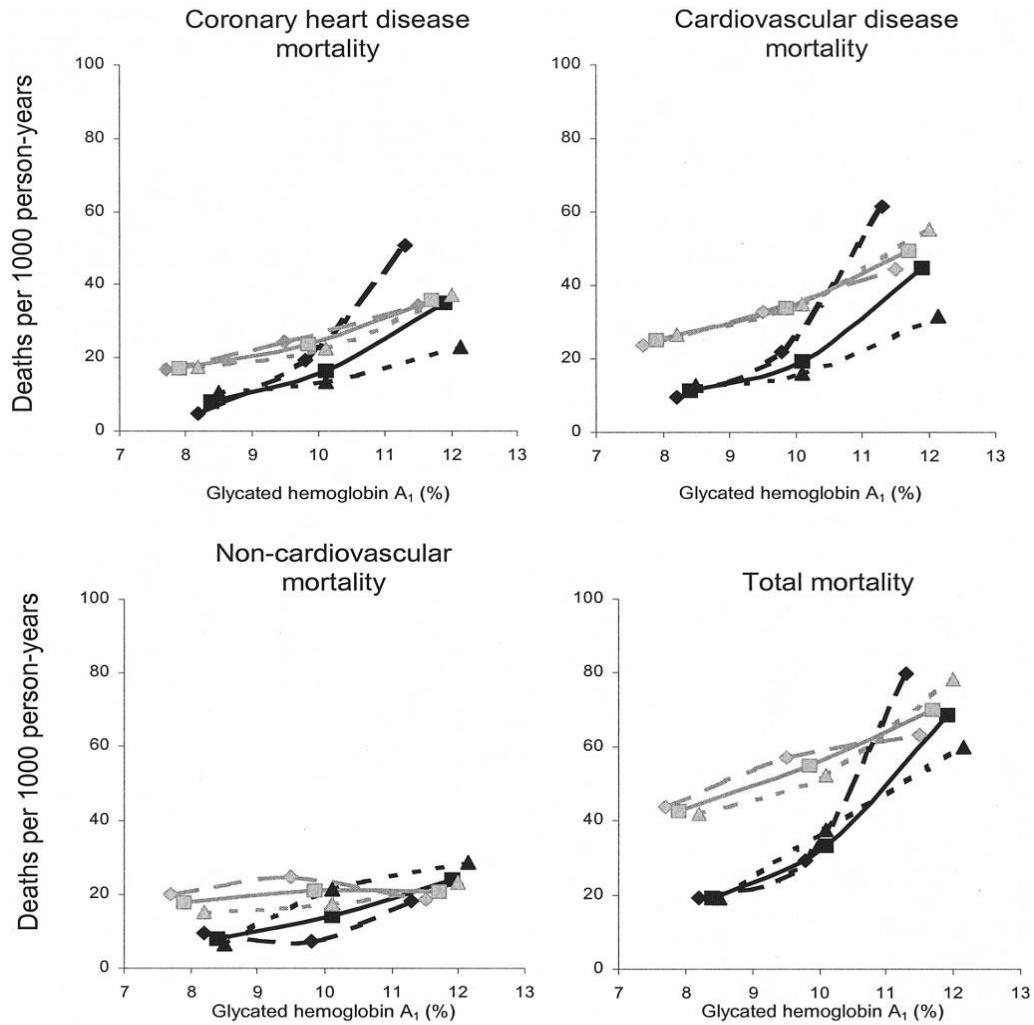


Table 1:

	Type 1 diabetes	Type 2 diabetes
Men	80.1 (37.5–135.8)	6.0 (1.0–11.1)
Women	48.4 (7.8–104.3)	10.2 (5.4–15.2)
All	52.5 (28.4–81.3)	7.5 (4.3–10.8)

Adjusted for age, sex (in the analyses of all participants), area of residence, BMI, current smoking, use of alcohol, systolic blood pressure, total cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, duration of diabetes, Cockcroft-Gault estimate of creatinine clearance, and urinary protein (log).

RESULTS:

During the 19-year follow-up, 89 members with type 1 diabetes (43 males and 45 females), 569 members with type 2 diabetes (293 males and 277 females) and 255 members without diabetes (164 males and 88 females) kicked the basket. Individually, 54 members with type 1 diabetes (33 males and 26 females), 366 members with type 2 diabetes (179 males and 187 females) and 100 non-diabetic members (79 males and 23 females) were affected by cardiovascular disease, and 44 members with type 1 diabetes (26 males and 19 females), 250 members with type 2 diabetes (134 males and 124 females) and 66 non-diabetic members (53 males and 16 females) were affected by coronary heart disease. Members with type 1 diabetes were thinner and had higher HDL cholesterol and lower diastolic blood pressure, but had slightly more hypertension, higher systolic blood pressure and more urinary protein than non-diabetic members. Type 2 diabetic members, compared to non-diabetic members, were more experienced, heavier and more regularly non-alcoholic. They had a higher recurrence of hypertension, higher systolic pulse, lower diastolic pulse, lower HDL cholesterol, higher fatty oil levels,

more urinary protein and greater creatinine clearance. Type 1 diabetic limbs, compared to type 2 diabetic limbs, are younger, lower in fat and do not consume alcohol on a regular basis. In addition, they have less hypertension, lower diastolic and systolic blood pressure, higher HDL cholesterol, less fatty oils, longer duration of diabetes and, most importantly, lower assessed creatinine freedom. All-cause mortality rates for cardiovascular and coronary heart disease were 52.7, 32.4 and 25.8% for members with type 1 diabetes, 18.6, 9.8 and 6.2% for members without diabetes and 68.0, 43.9 and 30.9% for members with type 2 diabetes during the 18 years of development. For members with type 1 diabetes, members with type 2 diabetes and members without diabetes, the rates (transition rate [95% CI]) per 1,000 individual years were 37.7 (28.0-50.8), 54.6 (47.2-63.2) and 12.8 (12.3-14.6) for absolute mortality; 23.1 (17.9 - 32.8), 36.4 (30.8 - 42.5), and 5.7 (4.9 - 6.8), individually, for mortality due to CVD; in addition, 19.6 (14.1 - 26.0), 24.9 (22.6 - 27.9), and 4.3 (3.5 - 4.8), separately, for mortality due to CVD, in the consolidated survey of both sexes.

Figure 2:

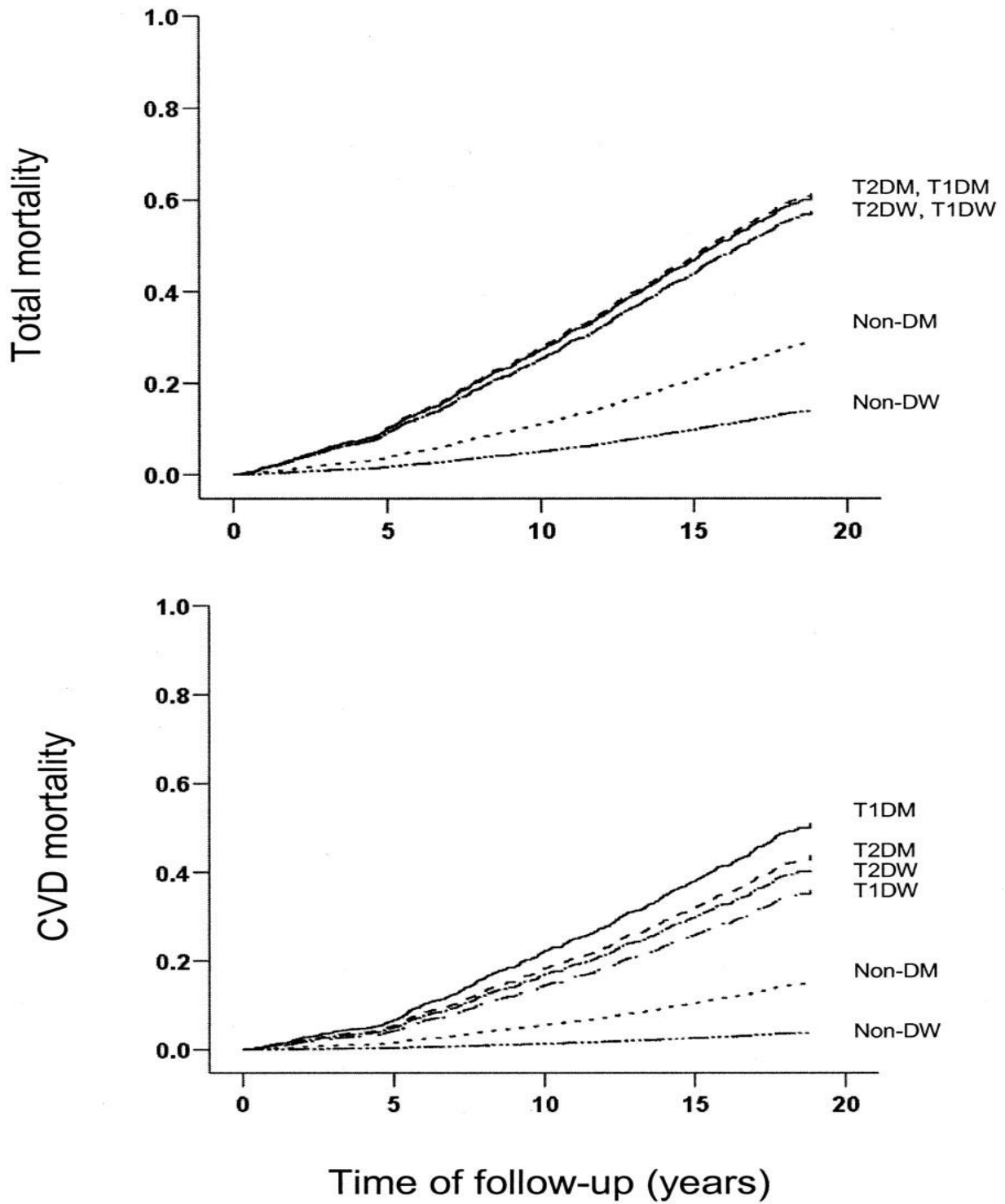


Table 2:

	Men	Women	All
Type 1 vs. no diabetes			
Total mortality	2.2 (1.5–3.2)	4.5 (3.0–6.8)	2.9 (2.2–3.8)
CVD mortality	3.6 (2.2–5.7)	13.3 (6.9–25.5)	5.2 (3.6–7.5)
CHD mortality	4.9 (2.9–8.4)	16.9 (7.6–37.2)	6.6 (4.3–10.1)
Non-CVD mortality	1.0 (0.5–2.0)	2.5 (1.4–4.3)	1.7 (1.1–2.5)
Type 2 vs. no diabetes			
Total mortality	2.6 (2.1–3.2)	4.5 (3.4–5.9)	3.2 (2.7–3.7)
CVD mortality	3.3 (2.5–4.5)	10.1 (6.7–17.4)	4.9 (3.8–6.3)
CHD mortality	3.7 (2.6–5.3)	10.8 (5.9–19.7)	5.1 (3.8–6.9)
Non-CVD mortality	1.9 (1.4–2.6)	2.1 (1.4–3.1)	2.0 (1.6–2.5)
Type 1 vs. type 2 diabetes			
Total mortality	0.8 (0.6–1.2)	0.9 (0.6–1.3)	0.9 (0.6–1.1)
CVD mortality	1.1 (0.7–1.7)	0.7 (0.4–1.1)	0.8 (0.6–1.2)
CHD mortality	1.1 (0.7–1.9)	0.7 (0.3–1.3)	0.9 (0.6–1.3)
Non-CVD mortality	0.5 (0.2–1.0)	1.2 (0.7–2.3)	0.8 (0.5–1.3)

Adjusted for age, sex (in the analyses of all participants), area of residence, BMI, current smoking, use of alcohol, systolic blood pressure, total cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, duration of diabetes (in comparison of type 1 diabetes versus type 2 diabetes), Cockcroft-Gault estimate of creatinine clearance, and urinary protein (log).

DISCUSSION:

Table 2 shows the extent to which a one unit (%) increase in GHb raises mortality due to cardiovascular disease in Cox models. In model 3, a one unit (%) increase in GHb raised the risk of cardiovascular mortality by 53.6% (97% CI 29.5 - 82.4) in type 1 diabetic limbs [6]; furthermore, 8.6% (6.5 - 12.89) in type 2 diabetic limbs. In gender-specific studies, the increase in cardiovascular risk was 80.1% (38.6 - 136.9) in men with type 1 diabetes, 49.5% (7.8 - 106.4) [7] in women with type 1 diabetes, 6.0% (1.0 - 11.1) in men with type 2 diabetes and 11.3% (6.5 - 16.4) in women with type 2 diabetes. In independent trials, in women with type 1 diabetes, the danger of GHb rising was recognizably increased after also introducing renal factors into the model [8]. To assess the impact of elevated GHb on cardiovascular disease mortality in limbs with high or low urinary protein levels, samples were dichotomized using explicit medians of GHb and urinary protein [9]. The CVD passage rates for high GHb and high/low GHb urinary protein and high/low GHb urinary protein/low GHb urinary protein and high/low GHb urinary protein were 44.5/23.1/47.0/7.7 in men with type 1 diabetes, 32.3/12.2/20.0/ 13.0 in women with type 1 diabetes, 57.7/35.1/ 22.3/23.9 in men with type 2 diabetes and

54.1/34.2/40.0/27.1 in women with type 2 diabetes [10].

CONCLUSION:

Our study showed that in people whose diabetes was analyzed after the age of 32, the effect of type 1 and type 2 diabetes on the risk of CVD was also comparable. In addition, the dangerous impact of hyperglycemia on mortality was greater in type 1 diabetic limbs than in type 2 diabetic limbs. Our review is consistent with the Early Treatment Diabetic Retinopathy Study, which showed that 6-year all-cause mortality rates were very comparable despite type of diabetes and gender.

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