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Original Research Article

THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN MICRONUTRIENTS LEVELS AND GESTATIONAL DIABETES: A CROSS SECTIONAL STUDY IN ASHANTI REGION

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ABSTRACT

SAMPLE ABSTRACT:

Aims: Micronutrients such as chromium, iron, magnesium and zinc can serve as good therapeutic and preventive agents for several diabetes complications including Gestational Diabetes Mellitus (GDM). The aim of this study was to compare the serum levels of chromium, iron, zinc and magnesium in pregnant women with and without GDM and to assess the association between the levels of these minerals and GDM.

Study design: A cross-sectional study.

Place and Duration of Study: Antenatal clinics in five selected hospitals in Ashanti region of Ghana between august 2016 to august 2017.

Methodology: A total of 50 pregnant women with GDM and 50 controls of the same gestational age participated in the study. Standard oral glucose tolerance test, fasting blood glucose, blood pressure and urine proteins were measured. Serum levels of chromium, iron, zinc and magnesium were measured using the atomic absorption spectrophotometer (AAS).

Results: The results indicated that 14% of the respondents with GDM had previous history of gestational diabetes. However, there was no previous history among the control group. Serum zinc was not significantly different in the two groups (0.052 ± 0.01 mg/dl; 0.093 ± 0.03 mg/dl, $p=0.276$). Iron levels in the test group were high (0.956 ± 0.35 mg/dl) when compared with the control group (0.635 ± 0.41 mg/dl). There was no significant difference of the serum magnesium level in the two groups ($p=0.967$). Chromium was higher in the test group (0.051 ± 0.05) than the control group (0.012 ± 0.06). There was a significant positive correlation between iron ($r = 0.303$, $p = 0.000$) and chromium ($r = 0.302$, $p = 0.002$) with the markers of GDM

Conclusion: This study established a positive correlation of iron and chromium with the markers of GDM while zinc and magnesium negatively correlate with the markers of GDM hence it is recommended that micronutrients supplementation during pregnancy needs to be carefully examined and commence only when significant deficiencies are observed.

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Keywords: diabetes, gestational, insulin, iron overload, hypertension.

1. INTRODUCTION

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Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) is a type of diabetes that manifests during pregnancy and normally disappears after delivering the baby. Research has shown that up to 8% of pregnant women between the gestational ages of 24 to 28 weeks develop gestational diabetes [1]. The placenta in pregnancy (the blood source for the baby) synthesizes useful hormones to help the baby grow and develop. Among these hormones are estrogen, cortisol and human placental lactogen that prevent or block the mother's insulin (insulin resistance) from performing its duty of transporting glucose in to cells. In pregnancy, to maintain the

23 normal levels of blood glucose, the pancreatic cells will have to produce up to 3 times the
24 normal amount of insulin because of this insulin resistance. If the body is not able to achieve
25 this, it might result in the development of GDM [1]. Research has shown that certain
26 micronutrients can serve as good therapeutic and preventive agents for several diabetes
27 complications including GDM. Abnormalities in the metabolism of magnesium, chromium,
28 zinc and copper have been shown to relate to diabetes [2].

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30 Chromium, as a trace element, is a member of the compounds called 'glucose tolerance
31 factor' (GTF) which are required for appropriate metabolism of glucose and lipid sensitivity. It
32 increases insulin sensitivity by inducing the binding of insulin to its receptors in cells and also
33 increasing receptor numbers. Chromium enhances an increased beta-cell sensitivity and
34 glucose utilization. A research conducted by Scott et al [3], has revealed that chromium
35 concentration in serum of pregnant women were considerably lower than normal [3].

36
37 Recent research works has revealed that iron supplements and elevated iron stores is
38 associated with increasing oxidative stress and gestational diabetes [4]. Consequently, while
39 iron supplementation may lead to improvement in pregnancy outcomes when maternal iron
40 levels are low, it is also possible that iron supplementation intended to prevent iron
41 deficiency problems may have serious consequences when the woman's iron level is not low
42 or she does not have iron deficiency [4]. There are so many molecular mechanisms that
43 seek to explain these effects. These mechanisms are not completely understood but are
44 said to include modulation of adipokines, oxidative stress and intracellular signal
45 transduction pathways [4].

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47 Zinc as a mineral impact a lot on pancreatic function as well as insulin secretion. It is
48 believed that iron and folic acid supplementation during pregnancy has a negative influence
49 on zinc absorption. Zinc deficiency impact negatively on carbohydrate metabolism. Studies
50 has revealed how zinc deficiency associate with diabetes mellitus, glucose intolerance,
51 cardiovascular disease and insulin resistance. Thus, Zinc supplementation in pregnancy is
52 very important because it has been suggested to reduce the risk of some pregnancy
53 complications [5].

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55 In this current work we investigated and established the association between levels of
56 micronutrients in serum and gestational diabetes among pregnant women.

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58 **2.0 Materials and Methods**

59 **2.1 Participants**

60 This cross-sectional case-controlled study was restricted to pregnant women attending
61 antenatal clinic at the St. Michael Hospital, Ejisu Government Hospital, Kumasi South
62 Hospital and the KNUST Hospital all in Ashanti region of Ghana. These pregnant women
63 were within the gestational age of 24 to 28 weeks. Convenient sampling technique was used
64 till the required number was obtained. All those who qualify to participate in the study signed
65 a consent form. Pregnant women who had already been diagnosed with gestational diabetes
66 for the current pregnancy were included. Oral Glucose Tolerance test was done for the
67 participating pregnant women. All participants were asked to have an unrestricted diet rich in
68 carbohydrate for three days. They were then asked to fast overnight before tests were
69 conducted. First, they were tested for fasting blood glucose after the 8-10 hours overnight
70 fasting using glucometer. The participants were made to drink 100 g/ml of glucose solution.
71 They were then tested for glucose levels using glucometer at 1, 2 and 3 hours afterward.
72 The following were considered as abnormal values of glucose according to the American
73 Diabetes Association [6].

- 74 I. Fasting blood glucose levels ≥ 95 mg/dL (5.33mmol/L).
- 75 II. 1 hour post-prandial blood glucose level ≥ 180 mg/dL (10mmol/L).

- 76 III. 2 hour post-prandial blood glucose level \geq 155 mg/dL (8.6mmol/L).
77 IV. 3 hour post-prandial blood glucose level \geq 140 mg/dL (7.8mmol/L).

78 For the participants who recorded abnormal values of glucose, the test was repeated after
79 one week to rule out false positives. Those who had abnormal OGTT values were chosen for
80 the study as those with GDM. Those that were normal and matched with those with diabetes
81 were chosen as the control group. A total of 50 pregnant women with GDM and 50 controls
82 of the same gestational age were recruited for study. A structured, pre-tested questionnaire
83 were used to solicited information such as age, occupation, educational background,
84 tobacco use, alcohol intake, previous history of GDM, family history of diabetes and
85 nutritional supplementation of the participants. Ethical approval for this project was sought
86 from the Committee on Human Research Publication and Ethics of Kwame Nkrumah
87 University of Science and Technology (CHRPE/AP/015/17).

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89 **2.2 Micronutrients analysis**

90 Four (4) ml of blood was taken from each participant in to vacutainer tube by trained hospital
91 phlebotomist. The serum was separated by centrifuging at 3500 g for 10 min and stored at -
92 20^oC prior to micronutrient analysis. After the total number of participants was reached, the
93 samples were digested by mixing (0.5) ml of serum with deionized water in a digestion flask.
94 Five milliliters of Nitric-perchloric acid (5 ml, 1:1 v/v) and 5 ml of sulphuric acid were added to
95 each sample in a fume chamber. The samples were then heated on a heat plate at
96 2000^oC \pm 5 for 30 minutes and allowed to cool. Measurement for chromium, iron, magnesium
97 and zinc was done using the atomic absorption spectrophotometer. The sensitivity of
98 methods for measuring the macronutrients was 1ppm.

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100 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

101 The data was analyzed using the SPSS 20 (IBM, USA). Continuous variables were
102 expressed as means and standard deviation while categorical variables were expressed as
103 percentages. The significance of the differences in the mean values between study group
104 and controls for normally distributed parameters were determined using the independent t-
105 test for continuous variables and Chi-square test for categorical variables at 95% confidence
106 level. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to signify the association between
107 different quantitative variables. P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

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109 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

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111 **3.0 Results**

112 A total of 100 pregnant women participated in the study of which 50 were with GDM as the
113 study group and 50 were without gestational diabetes mellitus (NGDM) as the control group.
114 Table 1 summaries the demography and clinical characteristics of the participants. With the
115 study group, age, family history of GDM, previous history of diabetes, the use of alcohol and
116 tobacco, systolic and diastolic blood pressures compared to the control group were not
117 significantly different. The urine glucose level of the participant presented in Table 3 shows
118 that the control group had no trace of glucose in their urine. In the GDM group 30% had no
119 trace while 38% of them have 2+ of urine glucose. About 2%, 18% and 12% had trace, 3+
120 and 4+ respectively of urine glucose. The urine glucose levels were significantly different in
121 the two groups (P=0.000). The urine protein of the participants is presented in Table 4. The
122 findings revealed that 80% of the test group and the entire control group had no proteins in
123 their urine. It was also shown that 12%, 6% and 2% of the participant with GDM had trace,
124 2+ and 3+ of urine protein respectively. There was statistically significant difference between
125 the two groups (p=0.001).

126 Table 4 shows the serum micronutrients including chromium, iron, magnesium and zinc
 127 levels in the study group and control group. There was no significant difference in the levels
 128 of zinc and magnesium in the two groups ($p=0.278$; $p= 0.967$). However, there was
 129 significant difference in the iron and chromium levels for the two groups ($p=0.000$; $p=0.002$).
 130 Table 5 shows the correlation of the measured minerals with the markers of GDM. The
 131 results show a weak and an inverse relationship between FBG and serum zinc level ($r = -$
 132 0.041 , $p=0.276$). There was a weak and insignificant correlation with zinc. Magnesium also
 133 showed a weak and an inverse or negative relationship ($r = -0.43$, $p= 0.967$) with FBG. There
 134 was positive correlation between serum chromium and fasting blood glucose ($r = 0.302$, $p=$
 135 0.002). Serum iron also correlated positively with fasting blood glucose ($r = 0.303$, $p =$
 136 0.002).

137
 138 Table 1: Demographic and clinical characteristics of the participants.

Subjects	GDM Group N (%)	Normal group N (%)	P-value
Age	30.98 ± 4.89	30.66 ± 5.14	0.682
Family history of GDM			
YES	7 (14.0)	1 (2.0)	0.059
NO	43 (86.0)	49 (98.0)	
Previous history of GDM			
YES	5 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	0.056
NO	45 (90.0)	50(100.0)	
Alcohol use			
YES	2 (4.0)	5 (10.0)	0.436
NO	48 (96.0)	45 (90.0)	
Tobacco use			
YES	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	
NO	50 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	
SBP	121.3 ±18.6	122.0 ± 15.1	0.823
DBP	68.2±17.7	68.9 ± 13.8	0.816

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140 Table 2: Markers of GDM in the participants.

Classification	Women with GDM n (%)	Women without GDM n (%)	P-value
WC	109.0 ± 6.93	97.18 ± 5.13	0.000
OGTT			
1-hr	14.40 ± 2.26	8.98 ± 0.54	0.000
2-hr	12.51 ± 2.01	7.00 ± 0.67	
3-hr	10.42 ± 1.74	5.02 ± 0.61	
FBG	7.90 ±1.8	4.39 ± 0.41	0.000

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142 Table 3 Urine glucose and protein level in the participant's urine

Classification	Women with GDM	Women without GDM	P-value
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	n (%)	n (%)	
Glucose			
Normal	15 (30)	50 (100)	0.000
Trace	1 (2)	0 (0)	
2+	19 (38)	0 (0)	
3+	9 (18)	0 (0)	
4+	6 (12)	0 (0)	
Protein			
Normal	40 (80)	50 (100)	0.001
Trace	6 (12)	0 (0)	
2+	3 (6)	0 (0)	
3+	1 (2)	0 (0)	

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144 Table 4 Serum micronutrients levels in the participants.

Macronutrients	GDM Group	Control Group	P-value
Chromium	0.05057	0.0124	0.002
Iron	0.9561	0.6348	0.000
Magnesium	1.9792	1.9740	0.967
Zinc	0.05152	0.09302	0.276

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146 Table 5 Pearson correlation of the measured minerals and gestational diabetes

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	Zinc	Magnesium	Chromium	Iron
FBS	-.041	-.043	.302**	.303**

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149 **3.1 DISCUSSION**

150 The main aim of this study was to find out the possible association between the serum
 151 micronutrients concentration in the development of gestational diabetes. This will help to
 152 better understand their role in the development and complication of gestational diabetes.
 153 Gestational diabetes is a very complex metabolic disorder that can be associated with
 154 several factors. The causes of GDM are multifactorial which include environmental factors
 155 affecting insulin sensitivity and genetic factors.

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157 In this study information on socio-demographic characteristics in Table 1 showed that the
 158 mean age for pregnant women with gestational diabetes was 30.98 years while that of the
 159 controls was 30.66 years. These findings were consistent with two previous studies [5, 7],
 160 which revealed higher mean ages for the people with diabetes compared to the controls.
 161 This study also shows that the family and previous history of diabetes was high among the
 162 study group compared with the control group (Table 1). Risk factors such as previous
 163 macrosomic neonates, family history of GDM and previous medical history of GDM increase
 164 the rate of developing diabetes and hence pregnant women with these factors should be
 165 screened early for gestational diabetes mellitus [7]

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167 Information from the standard oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) conducted revealed that
 168 40% of the women with GDM had severe diabetes and 60% were mild diabetic (Table 2). All
 169 the participants used as controls recorded normal blood glucose levels. These findings

170 agree with others who report increasing OGTT values in pregnant women with GDM [8].
171 This study showed no significant differences in the blood pressures of the study group and
172 the control group (Table 1). This finding contradicts with that of Monique et al. [9], who
173 showed that the blood pressure of persons with GDM is higher than controls.

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175 Chromium is a micronutrient that is required in small quantity in the body and plays a very
176 important role in human nutrition. Regulation of blood glucose levels is among the several
177 importance of chromium in the body. In our study, it was revealed that there was a significant
178 decrease in the levels of chromium in the pregnant women without GDM (Table 4). This was
179 different from other findings by Ghosh et al. [10], which show that chromium levels in non-
180 diabetic Indians people where higher compared to those with diabetes. Scientist believe that
181 chromium is a co-factor that assist insulin to get to the cell membrane and aid in the
182 transport of glucose in to the cell [11]. Long before now, scientist used to believe that to
183 achieve this, the body will have to convert chromium to glucose tolerance factor which is a
184 large chemical. However current research has shown that there is no glucose tolerance
185 factor but chromium acts with a protein known as low molecular weight chromium –binding
186 substance to aid in the action of insulin. This means that chromium’s role is to assist insulin
187 to bind to its receptors and its deficiency in pregnancy can result into abnormal glucose
188 tolerance and insulin resistance leading to GDM.

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190 The study revealed that the serum iron level in pregnant women with GDM was significantly
191 higher than the pregnant women without GDM. These findings were in line with the study
192 conducted by Muhammad et al. [12] that showed that serum iron levels were significantly
193 higher in pregnant women with abnormal glucose tolerance when compared with those with
194 normal glucose tolerance. A study by Ford and Cogswell [13], has shown that elevated iron
195 stores are associated with high frequency of diabetes. Lao et al. [14], has shown in an
196 observational study consisting of 762 Chinese women without diabetes and with singleton
197 pregnancies, selected between 28 to 30 weeks, that the group with a higher haemoglobin
198 level had a significantly elevated incidence of gestational diabetes as well as greater iron
199 concentration. These findings confirm the observation of our study of higher iron levels in the
200 women with GDM than the control group. In another study involving 1023 women revealed a
201 double increase in the risk of GDM for women with high level of serum ferritin at entry and
202 almost three times higher in the third trimester [6]. This positive association shows that iron
203 store may contribute to the development of gestational diabetes mellitus by inducing
204 oxidative stress on the pancreatic cell.

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206 Magnesium is an important metal that is involved in several levels of insulin production, its
207 binding and activity. Magnesium is also a critical co-factor of several enzymes involve in
208 carbohydrate metabolism. In this study, there was no significant difference in the serum
209 magnesium levels for the pregnant women with and without diabetes. These findings are
210 similar to the finding of Walter et al. [15], which indicated no significant difference in the
211 plasma magnesium levels of people with diabetes and the control group. Previous studies
212 have shown low levels of magnesium in pregnant women with GDM than control group [16,
213 17, 18]. In the current study, there was also a negative correlation between the serum
214 magnesium levels with fasting blood glucose. Karim et al. [19] and Mishra et al. [20], also
215 found a negative correlation between serum magnesium levels and fasting blood glucose in
216 diabetes. This association indicates the role it plays in the development and progression of
217 diabetes. The differences in the results regarding the correlation of serum magnesium levels
218 and glycaemic control may be as a result of difference in study design and also population
219 characteristics.

220 This study showed that the serum zinc levels of pregnant women with gestational diabetes
221 are significantly lower when compared with the pregnant women without gestational

222 diabetes. These findings agree with other studies [21]. The decreasing levels of zinc in
223 diabetes may be associated with hyperzincuria and also lower gestational absorption of zinc.

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4. CONCLUSION

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DEFINITIONS, ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS

303

304 AAS: Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometry

305 GDM: Gestational Diabetes Mellitus

306 GTF: Glucose Tolerance Factor

307 IGT: Impaired Glucose Tolerance

308 NDSS: National Diabetes Service Scheme

309 NGDM Non-Gestational Diabetes Mellitus

310 OGTT: Glucose Tolerance Test