

**Original Research Article****CORRELATION BETWEEN OXIDATIVE STRESS MARKERS AND ATHEROGENIC INDICES  
IN TYPE 2 DIABETES MELLITUS****ABSTRACT**

Worldwide, approximately 200 million individuals are currently suffering of type 2 diabetes mellitus (DM). Diabetes mellitus is associated with hyperglycemia, which induces oxidative stress that is responsible for the various complications associated with the disease. This study was designed to know the relationship between oxidative stress and atherogenic indices of plasma in type 2 diabetic and non-diabetic subjects. A total number of eighty (80) subjects comprising 58 diabetic subjects with mean age (62.91±10.57) years and 22 non-diabetic subjects with mean age (55.27±16.62) years were studied. Estimation of enzymatic and non-enzymatic oxidative stress markers (which include MDA, SOD, GPx, CAT, Uric acid and Albumin) and atherogenic indices (TCHOL, TG, HDL, LDL) were done respectively using standard spectrophotometric techniques. The plasma mean of SOD, GPx, CAT and albumin were significantly lower in diabetic subjects compared with control group. However, TChol, HDL, MDA and uric acid were significantly higher in diabetic subjects compared with controls. The findings of this study show significant differences in dyslipidemia, lipid peroxidation and increasing of oxidative stress markers from naïve type 2 diabetic subjects through controls. Thus, early diagnosis and management of this condition is necessary in order to incorporate antioxidant supplement as a supportive therapy for adequate glycaemic control.

**Keywords:** Diabetes mellitus, Oxidative stress, antioxidant, CVD, atherogenic indices

**1.0 INTRODUCTION**

Diabetes mellitus (DM), commonly referred to as diabetes, is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by chronic hyperglycaemia over a prolonged period. Diabetes is either due to the pancreas inability to produce adequate insulin or insulin resistant to the cells of the body [1]. As of 2014, estimated 387 million diabetes cases have been reported worldwide [2] with type 2 DM making up about 90% of the case [3].

28 This represents 8.3% of the adult population with equal rates in both women and men [4]. From 2012 to  
29 2014, diabetes is estimated to have resulted in 1.5 to 4.9 million deaths each year and the number of  
30 individuals with diabetes are expected to rise to 592 million by 2035 [5]. Diabetes has been reported to at  
31 least double individuals' risk of death [6].

32 There are three main types of diabetes mellitus as reported by Picot *et al.* [7]: Type 1 DM, type 2 DM and  
33 gestational diabetes. Inability of the pancreas to produce enough insulin is the main cause of type 1 DM  
34 and this type was previously referred to as "insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus" (IDDM) or "juvenile  
35 diabetes" [4]. Type 2 DM begins with insulin resistance; a condition in which cells fail to respond to insulin  
36 properly [4]. As the disease progresses, a lack of insulin may also develop [8]. This form was previously  
37 referred to as "non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus" (NIDDM) or "adult-onset diabetes". The primary  
38 cause is excessive body weight and inadequate exercise [4]. Gestational diabetes is the third main type  
39 and occurs when pregnant women without a previous history of diabetes develop hyperglycaemic  
40 condition [4]. Type 2 diabetes is typically a chronic disease associated with a ten-year-shorter life  
41 expectancy. Long-term complications from this condition includes heart disease, strokes, diabetic  
42 retinopathy, kidney failure, and poor blood flow in the limbs leading to amputations [1].

43 Free radicals are atoms or group of atoms with an unpaired number of electron(s) in their outer most shell  
44 and can be possibly formed when oxygen interacts with certain biomolecules [9]. Once formed, these  
45 highly reactive species can start a chain reaction. Their chief danger comes from the damage they can do  
46 when they react with important cellular component such as DNA, or the cell membrane [9]. Cells might  
47 function poorly or die if this eventually occurs and could not be arrested on time. To prevent free radical  
48 effect(s), the body has a defense mechanism system of antioxidant [10]. An antioxidant is a molecule that  
49 inhibits the oxidation of other molecules, while oxidation is a chemical reaction that can produce free  
50 radicals, leading to chain reaction that may damage cells. Thus antioxidant such as thiols or ascorbic  
51 acid terminates this chain reaction [11]. To balance the oxidative state, plant and animal maintain  
52 complex system of overlapping antioxidant, such as glutathione and enzymes (such as catalase)  
53 produced internally or Vitamin C, Vitamin A, and Vitamin E obtained by ingestion [12]. Antioxidants are  
54 widely used in dietary supplements and have been investigated to be highly effective for the prevention of  
55 diseases such as cancer and coronary heart diseases [13].

56 Oxidative stress reflects an imbalance between the systemic manifestation of reactive oxygen species  
57 (ROS) and a biological system's ability to readily detoxify the reactive intermediates or to repair the  
58 resulting damage. Disturbances in the normal redox state of cells could possibly cause toxic effects  
59 through the production of peroxides and free radicals that damage body's biomolecules, including  
60 proteins, lipids, and DNA [14]. Oxidative stress from oxidative metabolism has been reported to cause  
61 base damage, as well as break strand in DNA [15]. In humans, oxidative stress is thought to be involved  
62 in the development of atherosclerosis and had been sited to be of etiological importance in cardiovascular  
63 diseases [16], which could be related to diet and also metabolic disorders with abnormal lipid metabolism  
64 [17]. In either of the case it results to atherosclerotic endothelial dysfunction from arterial diseases and  
65 this has been reported to be responsible for about 30% of death worldwide [16]. Diabetes mellitus is  
66 characterized with hyperglycemia, which may induce oxidative stress that is responsible for the various  
67 complications associated with the disease [18], which affects the heart, the nerves and the retina resulting  
68 into heart disorders [19]. The characteristics of diabetic mellitus such as hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia,  
69 inflammation and oxidative stress affect the vascular wall and thus accelerate atherosclerosis and its  
70 clinical complications [10]. Atherosclerotic disorder of the coronary arteries usually result in partial or  
71 complete occlusion of vascular lumen and this is of pathologic significance in determining the morbidity  
72 and mortality pattern of ischemic heart disease (IHD) [10]. Coronary artery disease (CAD) is initially  
73 symptomless with normal basic activities but as the disease progresses, the degree of lumen narrowing is  
74 sufficiently great and this limit increase in blood flow during exercise and thus producing symptoms of  
75 angina pectoris which can lead to heart attack [20].

76 Oxidative stress is associated with increased production of oxidizing species or a significant decrease in  
77 the effectiveness of antioxidant defenses, such as glutathione [21]. The effects of oxidative stress depend  
78 upon the size of these changes, with a cell being able to overcome small perturbations and regain its  
79 original state. However, more severe oxidative stress can cause cell death and even moderate oxidation  
80 can trigger apoptosis, while more intense stress may cause necrosis [22]. Worldwide, approximately 200  
81 million individuals are currently suffering of type 2 diabetes mellitus (DM) [2]. Some studies have shown  
82 that Type 2 DM subjects generally carry a number of risk factors for coronary vascular disease (CVD),

83 which is found to be characterized with hyperglycemia, abnormal lipid profiles pattern and alterations in  
84 inflammatory mediators [20]. Thus, diabetes mellitus associated with cardiovascular diseases tends to be  
85 one of the highest causes of death worldwide. This study therefore aimed to know the relationship  
86 between oxidative stress biomarkers and atherogenic indices of plasma in type 2 diabetes mellitus, which  
87 might contribute to the incidence of CVD in this condition if it is not ameliorated on time.

## 88 **2.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 89 **2.1 Study population**

90 This study was conducted at Federal Medical Centre, Owo, Ondo State. Owo is a town in Ondo State  
91 situated at south-western Nigeria, with latitude 710'59.998"N and longitude 534'59.988"E at an average  
92 altitude of 348 meters. It is at the southern edge of the Yoruba hills, and at the intersections of roads from  
93 Akure and Benin City. The community has a population of 276, 593 according to national population in  
94 the year 2006 census [23].

### 95 **2.2 Study design**

96 This is a case-control study and it was conducted at Federal Medical Centre, (FMC) Owo, which serve as  
97 tertiary health institutions in Ondo State. The research was conducted between January to July, 2016. A  
98 total number of eighty (80) type 2 diabetes mellitus subjects (both males and females) aged between 30 –  
99 80 years, which were sub-divided into diabetic mellitus subjects under treatment, DMUT and naïve  
100 diabetic subjects (which are newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes mellitus) attending diabetic clinic at Federal  
101 Medical Centre, Owo were randomly selected for this study. Type 2 diabetes mellitus subjects in this  
102 study were diagnosed according to guideline of WHO [24]. Their medical history and personal data was  
103 obtained via short structured questionnaire after due approval from the ethical committee of the hospital.  
104 Forty (22) age and sex matched apparently healthy controls with no history of diabetes mellitus were  
105 enrolled into this study. Informed consent was thus obtained from all the participants.

### 106 **2.3 Ethical clearance and consent**

107 Subjects participating in this study were fully briefed on the research protocols in the clinic after which  
108 they were being required to sign a written consent. After that, a pre-designed structural questionnaire was

109 utilized to collect bio-data, and socio-demographic characteristics of the patients. Approval for this study  
110 was obtained from the Federal Medical Centre, Owo and Ethical Clearance  
111 (FMC/OW/380/VOL.XXIX/197) was issued by Ethical Committee Federal Medical Centre, Owo.

## 112 **2.4 Collection and Storage of Samples**

113 Blood samples were obtained from each subject by applying a tourniquet around the arm above elbow.  
114 The ante-cubital forsa was disinfected with a 70% alcohol soaked swab. Six milliliters (6mls) of venous  
115 blood was collected from each subject using aseptic procedure after 12 hours fast. 4mls of venous blood  
116 was dispensed into 5 ml sterile vacutainer bottle containing lithium heparin anticoagulant and gently  
117 mixed by inverting the container severally for the determination of lipids profile and oxidative stress  
118 markers. The remaining (2mls) of the venous blood was dispensed into 3mls vacutainer bottle containing  
119 fluoride oxalate anticoagulant which was also mixed gently by inverting the container several times for the  
120 determination of plasma glucose. Plasma was separated from the blood by centrifugation for 5 minutes at  
121 4000rpm, into plain bottles and stored at -20°C until time of analysis.

## 122 **2.5 Analytical Methods**

123 Height (m) was taken using a Stadiometer while body weight (kg) was taken using a body weight  
124 weighing scale with the subject wearing light clothing and without shoes. Body mass Index (BMI) was  
125 calculated as the ratio of weight (kg) to the square of height (m<sup>2</sup>). Blood pressure and pulse rate were  
126 taken simultaneously using a sphygmomanometer. Blood levels of fasting blood sugar and lipids profile  
127 were determined using standard spectrophotometric method [25] and standard methods were employed  
128 for the determination of SOD, CAT and GPx plasma activities [26, 27] and plasma levels of MDA, Uric  
129 acid and albumin [28, 29, 30].

## 130 **2.6 Statistical analysis of data**

131 A statistical package for social scientist (SPSS) 17.0 was used for the analysis of the data appropriately.  
132 Continuous variables were displayed as means and standard deviation (SD) and categorical variables  
133 were displayed as percentage. The level of significance was taken at 95% confidence interval and P  
134 value less than 0.05 was considered significant.

## 135 **3.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 136 **3.1 Results**

137 A total number of eighty (80) subjects comprising 58 diabetic subjects with mean age (62.91±10.57) years  
138 and 22 non-diabetic subjects (control) with mean age (55.27±16.62) years were studied. Twenty three  
139 (23) out of the diabetic subjects were naïve (i.e. not yet placed on diabetic drugs) while the remaining 35  
140 were already undergoing treatment.

141 Table 1 shows the age and sex distribution of all participants. Participants were aged between 30 and 80  
142 years. There were 34 females and 24 males, and 13 females and 9 males in diabetic and non-diabetic  
143 groups respectively. Thus, females constituted 58.75% while males constituted 41.25% in overall.

144 Table 2 shows anthropometric indices and biochemical parameters in both diabetic and non-diabetic  
145 subject population. The mean body mass index (BMI), pulse, systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic  
146 blood pressure (DBP) were significantly higher in diabetic subjects compared with controls, while there  
147 were no statistical significant in mean height and weight. The mean SOD, GPx, CAT and albumin were  
148 significantly lower in diabetic subjects compared with control group. However, TChol, HDL, MDA and uric  
149 acid were significantly higher in diabetic subjects compared with controls.

150 Table 3 shows the anthropometric indices and biochemical parameters in diabetic subjects (naive and  
151 under treatment) and controls using One way analysis of variance (ANOVA), the mean BMI. Pulse, SBP,  
152 DBP, FBS, TChl, TAG, HDL, MDA, Uric acid, SOD, GPx and CAT were significantly different among the  
153 three groups

154 Table 4 indicates correlation of plasma levels of enzymatic antioxidant biomarkers with atherogenic  
155 indices and other parameters in diabetic subjects. CAT had positive correlation with FBS, TChol, TAG  
156 and LDL, but inverse correlation with HDL. Also, SOD showed statistical negative correlation with TChol,  
157 TAG, HDL and LDL, while GPx only had positive correlation with HDL, TChol:HDL and LDL:HDL. Finally,  
158 table 5 shows plasma levels of MDA had significant positive correlation with FBS, TChl and LDL. Uric acid  
159 showed statistical positive significant correlation with blood pressure (SBP and DBP), while albumin only  
160 had significant inverse correlation with pulse.

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163 **Table 1: Age and Sex distribution of the Subject population in percentage (%)**

Age group (Years)	Diabetic Subjects		Non-diabetic subjects		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
<b>31-40</b>	-	1 (1.25)	4 (5)	3 (2.75)	8 (10)
<b>41-50</b>	8 (10)	2 (2.5)	-	3 (3.75)	13 (16.25)
<b>51-60</b>	2 (2.5)	8 (10)	1 (1.25)	2 (2.5)	13 (16.25)
<b>61-70</b>	10 (12.5)	15 (18.75)	1 (1.25)	3 (2.75)	29 (36.25)
<b>71-80</b>	4 (5)	8 (10)	3 (3.75)	2 (2.5)	17 (21.25)
<b>Total</b>	24 (30)	34 (42.5)	9 (11.25)	13 (16.25)	80 (100)

164  
165 **Table 2: anthropometric indices and biochemical parameters in both diabetic and non-**  
166 **diabetic subject population**

Parameters	Diabetic subjects (n=58)	Non-diabetic subjects (n=22)	P-value
<b>BMI (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	28.93±7.68	24.88±5.11	0.025*
<b>Pulse (b/m)</b>	74.71±5.09	69.09±3.04	0.000*
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	129.16±13.25	115.73±8.69	0.000*
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	83.10±7.66	75.64±5.38	0.000*
<b>FBS (mmol/l)</b>	10.47±4.77	4.57±0.61	0.000*
<b>TChl (mmol/l)</b>	5.04±1.35	4.26±1.01	0.016*
<b>TAG (mmol/l)</b>	1.80±0.79	1.46±0.74	0.083
<b>HDL (mmol/l)</b>	1.42±0.47	1.04±0.27	0.001*
<b>LDL (mmol/l)</b>	2.81±0.91	2.56±0.62	0.252
<b>TChl:HDL</b>	3.80±1.34	4.20±0.74	0.186
<b>LDL:HDL</b>	2.19±1.08	2.57±0.68	0.127
<b>SOD (U/ml)</b>	2.03±0.69	3.19±1.39	0.000*
<b>MDA (µmol/l)</b>	3.25±1.45	2.51±0.96	0.030*
<b>GPx (U/ml)</b>	2.03±0.75	2.90±0.90	0.000*

<b>CAT (U/L)</b>	20.65±6.57	27.91±6.87	0.000*
<b>Uric Acid (mmol/l)</b>	392.71±174.54	287.99±125.75	0.012*
<b>Albumin (mg/dl)</b>	36.45±5.55	38.39±4.10	0.140

168 \* significant at p<0.05

169 **Table 3: Anthropometric indices and biochemical parameters in diabetic subjects (naive**  
 170 **and under treatment) and controls**

171

Parameters	Naïve DM (n=23)	DMUT (n=35)	Control (n=22)	F-value
<b>BMI (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	30.44±6.28	27.94±8.42	24.88±5.11	0.035*
<b>Pulse (b/m)</b>	78.04±4.65	72.51±4.13	69.09±3.04	0.000*
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	135.00±12.61	125.31±12.38	115.73±8.69	0.000*
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	85.43±7.22	81.57±7.65	75.64±5.38	0.000*
<b>FBS (mmol/l)</b>	13.50±4.95	8.47±3.45	4.57±0.61	0.000*
<b>TChl (mmol/l)</b>	5.38±1.37	4.82±1.31	4.26±1.01	0.015*
<b>TAG (mmol/l)</b>	2.21±0.86	1.53±0.62	1.46±0.74	0.001*
<b>HDL (mmol/l)</b>	1.44±0.38	1.40±0.53	1.04±0.27	0.003*
<b>LDL (mmol/l)</b>	2.93±0.93	2.72±0.90	2.56±0.62	0.342
<b>TChl:HDL</b>	3.95±1.64	3.70±1.12	4.20±0.74	0.310
<b>LDL:HDL</b>	2.21±1.29	2.18±0.94	2.57±0.68	0.312
<b>SOD (U/ml)</b>	2.12±0.47	1.96±0.81	3.19±1.39	0.000*
<b>MDA (µmol/l)</b>	3.44±1.07	3.12±1.66	2.51±0.96	0.065
<b>GPx (U/ml)</b>	2.10±0.68	1.99±0.79	2.90±0.90	0.000*
<b>CAT (U/L)</b>	19.76±5.71	21.23±7.11	27.91±6.87	0.000*
<b>Uric Acid (mmol/l)</b>	437.30±155.11	363.41±182.41	287.99±125.75	0.010*
<b>Albumin (mg/dl)</b>	33.56±5.07	38.35±5.07	38.39±4.10	0.001*

172 \* significant at p<0.05

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176 **Table 4: Correlation of plasma levels of enzymatic antioxidant biomarkers with**  
 177 **atherogenic indices and other parameters in diabetic subjects**

	SOD		GPx		CAT	
	r-value	p-value	r-value	p-value	r-value	p-value
<b>BMI (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	-0.151	0.259	0.040	0.765	-0.096	0.474
<b>Pulse (b/m)</b>	0.130	0.332	0.108	0.419	0.015	0.910
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	-0.033	0.807	-0.063	0.638	-0.159	0.234
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	-0.112	0.404	-0.127	0.342	-0.253	0.056
<b>FBS (mmol/l)</b>	-0.064	0.635	-0.250	0.059	-0.373	0.004*
<b>TChl (mmol/l)</b>	-0.474	0.000*	-0.235	0.076	-0.447	0.000*
<b>TAG (mmol/l)</b>	-0.279	0.034*	-0.104	0.439	-0.387	0.003*
<b>HDL (mmol/l)</b>	-0.308	0.019*	0.286	0.029*	0.303	0.021*
<b>LDL (mmol/l)</b>	-0.418	0.001*	0.070	0.603	-0.293	0.026*
<b>TChl:HDL</b>	-0.010	0.938	0.297	0.024*	0.096	0.474
<b>LDL:HDL</b>	0.001	0.994	0.287	0.029*	0.132	0.324

178 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

179 **Table 5: Correlation of plasma levels of non-enzymatic biomarkers of oxidative stress**  
 180 **with atherogenic indices and other parameters in diabetic subjects**

	MDA		Uric Acid		Albumin	
	r-value	p-value	r-value	p-value	r-value	p-value
<b>BMI (Kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	0.230	0.083	0.025	0.852	-0.155	0.244
<b>Pulse (b/m)</b>	0.121	0.366	0.184	0.166	-0.307	0.019*
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	0.101	0.450	0.312	0.017*	-0.121	0.366
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	0.231	0.081	0.291	0.027*	0.096	0.472
<b>FBS (mmol/l)</b>	0.382	0.003*	0.251	0.057	-0.321	0.014
<b>TChl (mmol/l)</b>	0.512	0.000*	-0.031	0.818	-0.036	0.790
<b>TAG (mmol/l)</b>	-0.336	0.010*	-0.052	0.697	-0.192	0.149
<b>HDL (mmol/l)</b>	0.168	0.206	-0.073	0.587	-0.113	0.398
<b>LDL (mmol/l)</b>	0.460	0.000*	-0.048	0.718	0.010	0.938
<b>TChl:HDL</b>	0.147	0.272	-0.057	0.674	0.034	0.798

<b>LDL:HDL</b>	0.113	0.400	- 0.072	0.591	0.068	0.613
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182 \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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### 184 3.2 Discussion

185 Diabetes mellitus is associated with hyperglycemia which induces oxidative stress that is responsible for  
 186 the various complications associated with the disease [18], which affects the heart, the nerves and the  
 187 retina resulting into heart disorders [19]. The characteristics of diabetic mellitus such as hyperglycemia,  
 188 dyslipidemia, inflammation, and oxidative stress affect the vascular wall and thus accelerate  
 189 atherosclerosis and its clinical complications [10].

190 Oxidative stress reflects an imbalance between the systemic manifestation of reactive oxygen species  
 191 and a biological system's ability to readily detoxify the reactive intermediates or to repair the resulting  
 192 damage. Oxidative stress depicts the existence of products called free radicals and reactive oxygen  
 193 species (ROS) which are formed under normal physiological conditions but become deleterious when  
 194 they are unable to be quenched by the antioxidant systems [31]. There are convincing experimental and  
 195 clinical evidences that the generation of reactive oxygen species is increased in both types of diabetes  
 196 and that the onset of diabetes is closely associated with oxidative stress [32]. Free radicals are formed  
 197 disproportionately in diabetes by glucose autoxidation, polyol pathway and non-enzymatic glycation of  
 198 proteins [33]. Abnormally high levels of free radicals and simultaneous decline of antioxidant defense  
 199 systems can lead to the damage of cellular organelles and enzymes, increase lipid peroxidation and  
 200 development of complications of diabetes mellitus [34].

201 From the results obtained in this study, it is evident that the diabetic patients had much higher glucose  
 202 and lipids levels (TChol and TAG) when compared with non-diabetic subjects. Increased of theses indices  
 203 in this work is consistent with Whiting et al. [35] which reported that chronic hyperglycemia could  
 204 influence the generation of free radicals, which might eventually lead to increase lipid peroxidation and  
 205 depletion of antioxidants. Significant lipid peroxidation, higher levels of lipids and lipid risk factors (such as  
 206 increase in BMI, SBP & DBP) in diabetic subjects in this study are indicators for atherogenic changes

207 [36]. The products of lipid peroxidation are harmful to most cells in the body and are associated with a  
208 variety of diseases, such as atherosclerosis and brain damage [37].

209 The major finding of this study was that antioxidant levels, both enzymatic and non-enzymatic, were  
210 either significantly reduced or increased in diabetic subjects. Significantly decrease in albumin levels and  
211 elevated levels of uric acid in the diabetic subjects when compared with the corresponding control groups  
212 are reflective of the acute phase response. Acute-phase reactants are plasma proteins that alter in  
213 concentration sequel to an inflammatory stimulus [38]. Thus, decrease in plasma levels of albumin may  
214 be used as a marker of negative acute phase proteins in type 2 diabetic subjects.

215 Significantly increased mean levels of plasma Uric acid in diabetic cases when compared to controls is  
216 associated with higher risk of type 2 diabetes, independent of obesity, dyslipidemia and high blood  
217 pressure as reported by Dhengan et al. [39]. In humans, uric acid is the main plasma antioxidant followed  
218 by vitamin C and thus, it stabilizes vitamin C in plasma and protects it from oxidation [40, 41]. Besides  
219 that hyperuricaemia was presumed to be consequence of insulin resistant [39], Uric acid in the blood had  
220 also been documented to scavenge superoxide radicals, hydroxyl radicals, singlet oxygen and could  
221 chelate transition metals [42]. Thus increase in plasma levels of Uric acid in cases compared to controls  
222 might be a compensatory mechanism to mump up free radicals generated in diabetic condition.

223 This study shows a significant increase in plasma MDA levels in type 2 diabetics when compared to  
224 controls indicating increase lipid peroxidation. Malondialdehyde (MDA) is a product of lipid peroxidation  
225 and provides a means of assessing the extent of lipid peroxidation. Our data show plasma levels of MDA  
226 had significant positive correlation with FBS and TChol. This finding is in agreement with previous report  
227 by Suchitra et al. [36] who also reported significant positive correlation of MDA with FBS and TChol in  
228 diabetic subjects. This correlation analysis also suggests that hyperglycemia per se is greatly involved in  
229 oxidative stress resulting in increased lipid peroxidation.

230 The significant reduction in activity of serum antioxidant enzymes such as SOD, CAT and GPx was  
231 recorded in this work among diabetic subjects when compared to controls. This observation is consistent  
232 with most invivo and invitro studies which demonstrated that the levels of antioxidant enzymes are altered

233 in chronic conditions [43]. Catalase catalyzes the decomposition of hydrogen peroxide to water and  
234 oxygen. It is a very important enzyme in protecting the cell from oxidative damage by reactive oxygen  
235 species (ROS) [44]. Superoxide dismutases are important antioxidant defense systems in nearly all cells  
236 exposed to oxygen, they are proteins co-factored with copper and zinc, or manganese, iron, or nickel,  
237 while GPx is a selenium dependent enzyme with peroxidase activity whose main biological role is to  
238 protect the organism from oxidative damage. The biochemical function of glutathione peroxidase is to  
239 reduce lipid hydroperoxides to their corresponding alcohols and to reduce free hydrogen peroxide to  
240 water [45]. Oxidative stress results when there is increased production of free radicals or decreased  
241 activity of counter-actors, antioxidants or both in a combination [36]. These observations provide evidence  
242 why there is increased in the oxidative stress among type 2 diabetes.

#### 243 **4.0 Conclusion and recommendations**

244 The findings of this study show significant differences in dyslipidemia, lipid peroxidation and increasing of  
245 oxidative stress markers from naïve type 2 diabetic subjects through controls. Thus, early diagnosis and  
246 management of this condition is necessary in order to incorporate antioxidant supplement as a supportive  
247 therapy for adequate glycaemic control. This would go far in preventing development of oxidative stress-  
248 associated diabetic complications.

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