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### The application of simple metrics in the assessment of glycaemic variability

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#### ABSTRACT

The assessment of glycaemic variability (GV) remains a subject of debate with many indices proposed to represent either short- (acute glucose fluctuations) or long-term GV (variations of HbA1c). For the assessment of short-term within-day GV, the coefficient of variation for glucose (%CV) defined as the standard deviation adjusted on the 24-h mean glucose concentration is easy to perform and with a threshold of 36%, recently adopted by the international consensus on use of continuous glucose monitoring, separating stable from labile glycaemic states. More complex metrics such as the Low Blood Glucose Index (LBGI) or High Blood Glucose Index (HBGI) allow the risk of hypo or hyperglycaemic episodes, respectively to be assessed although in clinical practice its application is limited due to the need for more complex computation. This also applies to other indices of short-term intraday GV including the mean amplitude of glycemic excursions (MAGE), Shlichtkrull's M-value and CONGA. GV is important clinically as exaggerated glucose fluctuations are associated with an enhanced risk of adverse cardiovascular outcomes due primarily to hypoglycaemia. In contrast, there is at present no compelling evidence that elevated short-term GV is an independent risk factor of microvascular complications of diabetes. Concerning long-term GV there are numerous studies supporting its association with an enhanced risk of cardiovascular events. However, this association raises the question as to whether the impact of long-term variability is not simply the consequence of repeated exposure to short-term GV or ambient chronic hyperglycaemia. The renewed emphasis on glucose monitoring with the introduction of continuous glucose monitoring technologies can benefit from the introduction and application of simple metrics for describing GV along with supporting recommendations.

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23

Adopting a "glucocentric" approach to diabetes management requires targeting the 3 main components of dysglycaemia, i.e. chronic or ambient hyperglycaemia, glycaemic variability (GV) and hypoglycaemia. Each of these features, depicted as the "glycaemic triumvirate" [1] contributes to different degrees to the development and progression of diabetic complications [2]. Long-term interventional trials comparing intensive and conventional therapeutic strategies have clearly demonstrated that excess chronic/ "ambient" hyperglycaemia is a major risk factor for the development of microvascular complications and to a lesser extent, macrovascular diseases [3]. The recent availability of more reliable devices for continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) have renewed the opportunity to further determine the clinical implications of GV with respect to the risk of developing vascular complications, especially in people with diabetes but also in prediabetes (impaired glucose tolerance). From a pathophysiological point of 24 view the damages of GV on the vasculature are probably mediated 25 through several biochemical disorders such as the activation of 26 oxidative stress [4–6] and impairment of the Akt signalling 27 pathway [7] that regulates cell proliferation, migration and 28 angiogenesis. In a clinical context, GV can be a pathological 29 contributor to diabetic complications through either acute glucose 30 fluctuations (peaks to nadirs) [8,9] or longer-term variations in 31 glucose homeostasis assessed by using monthly or quarterly self-32 monitoring of blood glucose (SMBG) in the fasting and/or 33 postprandial [10] or changes in quarterly HbA1c levels [11]. At 34 present, we lack of any long-term prospective interventional trials 35 providing compelling evidence for a beneficial effect of reducing in 36 short-term GV on "hard outcomes" such as the incidence rates of 37 fatal and non-fatal cardiovascular events [major adverse cardio-38 vascular events (MACE)] with available studies being either 39 observational or retrospective. Some observational studies [4,5] 40 have described an association between acute glucose fluctuations 41

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2

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L. Monnier et al. / Diabetes & Metabolism xxx (2018) xxx-xxx

and markers of the activation of oxidative stress, one of the key 42 43 players in the genesis of diabetic vascular complications [6]. How-44 ever, recent interventional trials such as the FLAT-SUGAR trial 45 failed to demonstrate significant improvements in surrogate 46 cardiometabolic indices after therapeutic interventions aimed at 47 reducing short-term GV [12]. The recent DEVOTE trial indicted 48 [13,14] that individuals with a high day-to-day fasting GV had an 49 increasing risk of severe hypoglycaemia (DEVOTE 2 [13]) 50 predisposing them to two-fold increase risk of all-cause mortality 51 and cardiovascular deaths in contrast to those who never suffered 52 from severe hypoglycaemia (DEVOTE 3 [14]). These observations 53 are in line with the fact that the risk for hypoglycaemia is related to 54 the magnitude of acute glucose fluctuations [9]. The question then 55 arises as to whether excess GV is an independent risk factor, 56 facilitating and/or mediating the increased risk of cardiovascular 57 events. Presently, the respective contributions of the 3 components 58 of the "glycaemic triumvirate" to diabetic complications remain 59 unclear. The objective of this present review is to clarify and 60 provide further insight into this conundrum with particular 61 references to the role of GV and cardiovascular complications of 62 diabetes as compared to chronic glucose exposure and hypo-63 glycaemia, where evidence-based recommendations are available 64 [HbA1c < 7% to be modulated with the patient's vulnerability and 65 hypoglycaemia defined as blood glucose (BG) < 70 mg/dL] 66 [15]. However, the first recommendation for the short-term GV 67 has been recently adopted by the consensus on use of continuous 68 glucose monitoring [16] with a threshold set at 36% to differentiate 69 between stable and unstable glycaemic control [9]. Advances in 70 our knowledge about GV appear relatively slow although it should 71 be borne in mind that more than 30 years have elapsed between 72 the introduction of HbA1c as marker of chronic glucose exposure in 73 the seventies [17] and its final well-recognized standardization by 74 the International Federation of Clinical Chemistry and Medicine in 75 2002 [18].

### Messages and thoughts on the metrics used to quantify GV: a76contra-productive profusion?Q277

GV is simply defined as the fluctuation of measurements of 78 either glucose or other related parameters of glucose homeostasis 79 (e.g. HbA1c) over a given interval of time [19]. In the 1970s, Service 80 et al. introduced the mean amplitude of glycemic excursions 81 (MAGE) considered to be the "gold standard" for assessing the 82 short-term within-day GV [20]. Since then an ever-increasing 83 number of new metrics of varying complexities have appeared in 84 an attempt to better represent either short-term (within-day and 85 between-day variability) or longer-term variability (Table 1) [21-86 24]. Such profusion of metrics of GV contributes to confusion based 87 on differences between modalities of computation, advantages, 88 limitations and means for interpretation (Table 1). Some of these 89 indices required relatively complex mathematical computations 90 and are not easily accessible and decipherable by health care 91 professionals in routine clinical practice. Therefore, it is necessary 92 to define measures of GV that can be easily computed, 93 comprehended, and interpreted. There are predominantly two 94 types of GV according to whether it is over a long or short time-95 interval. When the duration between two consecutive measure-96 ments is several weeks or months such as HbA1c measured 97 quarterly, or serial fasting plasma glucose (FPG) and postprandial 98 glucose (PPG) testing at the same frequency the variability is 99 referred to as long-term or visit-to-visit variability [11]. Short-100 term GV is characterized by sudden and rapid upward or 101 downward glucose changes usually within- or between-days 102 based on either discontinuous or continuous monitoring of 24-h 103 glycaemic profiles. Self-monitoring of blood glucose (SMBG) has 104 been the main method for this purpose during the last 40 years 105 [25,26], although in the past few years it is being replaced by 106 continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) [16,27,28]. The main 107 advantage of the CGM, which measures interstitial glucose is 108

Table 1

List of main metrics developed for assessing GV. For each index, short notes on computation, interpretation, advantages and limitations are indicated.

| Metrics                   | Computation  | Interpretation   | Advantages/limitations   |
|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| SD of glucose             | From the mean square deviation (variance)  | Short-term within-day glucose variability  | Traditional measure of dispersion for<br>large number of data such as those<br>recorded with CGM systems and<br>directly calculated by all devices   |
| %CV for glucose           | Calculated as %: [SD/mean glucose] × 100   | Short-term within-day glucose variability. A value of 36% separates stable from unstable diabetes [6,26]                                   | Adjusted on the mean glucose and<br>easily computed from SD and mean by<br>using a desktop calculator  |
| MAGE                      | Mean differences from peaks to nadirs  | Short-term within-day glucose variability  | Major glucose fluctuations. Not directly given by the devices but requires a very simple calculation   |
| MODD                      | 24-hmean absolute differences between 2 values measured at the same time point   | Short-term between-day glucose variability   | Not directly given by the devices.<br>Requires an additional computation,<br>but easy to interpret   |
| CONGA                     | Integrates the duration and degree of glucose excursions   | Short-term within-day temporal glucose variability   | Complex calculation  |
| ADRR                      | Sum of the daily peak risks for hypo- and hyperglycaemia   | Composite of short-term within- and between-day<br>temporal glucose variability  | Complex calculation  |
| LBGI; HBGI                | Preceded by a log transform to render symmetric<br>the skewed distribution of glucose values   | Risk indices for predicting hypo- or<br>hyperglycaemia, respectively   | Complex calculation. Both indices are<br>more oriented toward investigating<br>glucose tendency than variability   |
| MAG<br>IQR of AGP         | Incremental/decremental changes in glucose<br>Distribution of glucose date at a given time point by<br>using non-parametric statistics | Short-term within-day temporal variability<br>Reflects the presence/absence of day-to-day<br>synchrony in glucose patterns at a given time | Relatively complex calculation<br>Measure of dispersion for small number<br>of data such as those recorded at a given<br>time point over several days. Directly<br>given by the Free Style Libre |
| Visit-to-visit<br>changes | Measures of variability (SD, CV) of HbA1c, FPG between sequential visits   | Long-term variability in glucose homeostasis   | Measures that are very heterogeneous<br>in design  |

SD: standard deviation; %CV: coefficient of variation for glucose expressed as percentage; MAGE: mean amplitude of glycaemic excursions; CONGA: continuous overlapping net glycaemic acting; ADRR: average daily risk range; LBGI: Low Blood Glucose Index; HBGI: High Blood Glucose Index; MAG: mean absolute glucose variation; IQR: interquartile range (dispersion of data between the 25th and 75th percentile around the median); AGP: averaged glycaemic profile over several consecutive days (14 days with the Free Style libre<sup>®</sup>).

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