

## **Risk Factors for Diabetic Retinopathy in Patients Attending Primary Care Settings**

Jameel Nasser, MD, MSc\*, Fatima Habib, MD, MSc\* Basma Al Tajer, MD\* Maha Al  
Tajer, MD\* Fatima Juma, MD\* Muna Almohri, MD\*

**Objective:** To identify risk factors for diabetic retinopathy (DR) among patients with diabetes attending primary care health centers and to assess level of control.

**Design:** Case control study.

**Setting:** Twenty-two health centers.

**Method:** The medical records of patients with diabetes who were screened for retinopathy during the year 2011 were reviewed. The following were documented: age, sex, duration of diabetes, glycated hemoglobin (A1C), blood pressure (BP), lipid profile, smoking status, presence or absence of chronic kidney disease and guardian drugs [Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors (ACEi), Angiotensin Receptor Blockers (ARBs), Statins and Aspirin] used. In addition, patients with diabetes who were screened as normal (no DR) from 4 health centers were randomly selected and their medical records were reviewed to compare the above mentioned risk factors between those with and those without DR.

**Result:** A total of 1,508 retinal screening forms were reviewed, 112 patients were diagnosed with DR. A total of 263 screened but had no DR were reviewed in the selected 4 health centers. In DR, uncontrolled A1C was found in 81 (72.3%) patients, high BP in 69 (61.6%) and Low Density Lipoprotein in 81 (72.3%). There was statistically significant association between A1C  $\geq$  53mmol/mol (P=0.000), increased diabetes duration (P=0.000), total cholesterol  $\geq$ 5.2mmol/l (P=0.008), LDL  $\geq$ 2.6mmol/l (P=0.002) and the presence of DR.

There was no significant association between age, sex, BP, and triglycerides level  $\geq$ 1.7mmol/l and presence of DR. The use of statins, ARBs, fibrates and aspirin was significantly higher in patients with DR.

**Conclusion:** Control of the identified modifiable risk factors is suboptimal. The burden of DR can be reduced by more intensive control of these factors through effective use of the currently available guardian drugs.

*Bahrain Med Bull 2014; 36(1):*

---

\*Family Physicians, Ministry of Health  
Kingdom of Bahrain  
Email: jnasser66@yahoo.com

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is one of the most common microvascular complications of diabetes. Worldwide, there are approximately 93 million patients with DR, 21 million with diabetic macular edema and 28 million with vision-threatening DR<sup>1</sup>. The prevalence of DR is likely to increase due to the increasing prevalence of diabetes. For example, it is estimated that the prevalence of DR and vision-threatening DR in the United States will be tripled by the year 2050<sup>2</sup>.

Diabetic retinopathy is the leading cause of blindness among age-working adults<sup>3</sup>. Furthermore, an independent association has been found between DR and hypertension, obesity, renal dysfunction and coronary atherosclerosis<sup>4</sup>. Therefore, the presence of DR increases the risk of cardiovascular events and all-cause mortality<sup>5</sup>.

Identifying the risk factors for DR is important for several reasons. First, most of the identified major risk factors are modifiable<sup>6-10</sup>. Second, the new modalities for management of DR are comparable to the gold standard of laser photocoagulation<sup>11,12</sup>. Lastly, adherence to annual screening as recommended by the guidelines and referral for ophthalmic evaluation is disappointingly low in family practice<sup>13-15</sup>. Therefore, primary prevention remains the most effective approach to combat this complication which is the main task of primary care providers.

Several studies have been conducted among different ethnic groups and in different settings to identify DR risk factors. Factors identified include duration of diabetes, degree of hyperglycemia and hypertension<sup>1,16-20</sup>. The association of other risk factors, such as dyslipidemia with DR has been inconsistent in various studies<sup>21,22</sup>.

In the Kingdom of Bahrain, a recent study found that the prevalence of DR is 20.4%<sup>23</sup>. However, there are no studies conducted about DR risk factors.

The aim of this study is to identify the risk factors of diabetic retinopathy in patients with diabetes attending primary care settings and to assess level of control.

## **METHOD**

Retinal screening using digital cameras is practiced in 6 health centers which cover all regions in Bahrain.

Fundus photos are taken by a trained ophthalmic technician and transferred electronically via Internet to a reading center in the ophthalmology department at Salmaniya Medical Complex; the photos are read and graded by ophthalmologists.

The medical records of patients who were screened and those with DR/maculopathy were reviewed for the year 2011. Data collected include age, sex, duration of diabetes, glycated hemoglobin (A1C), blood pressure (BP), lipid profile, smoking, chronic kidney disease, estimated glomerular filtration (GFR) less than 1 ml/sec/1.73m<sup>2</sup> surface area, and

guardian drugs [Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors (ACEi), Angiotensin Receptor Blockers (ARBs), Statins and Aspirin] used.

Four health centers were randomly selected and the forms of patients who were screened as normal (no DR) were reviewed along with their medical records to compare the risk factors in those with and those without DR. We defined controlled A1C, BP, and lipids based on current American Diabetes Association guidelines<sup>13</sup>.

Data were analyzed by using SPSS software version 20. Chi-squared test was used to assess the association between DR and each of the following factors: age, gender, level of control of DR risk factors and the use of guardian drugs. Multiple logistic regression model that included all the studied risk factors and DR as the dependent variable was set to determine the independent predictors for DR. P-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## RESULT

One hundred twelve patients were diagnosed with DR, 108 (96.4%) had type 2 diabetes. Ninety-seven (86.6%) were diagnosed with non-proliferative DR, 19 (17%) had maculopathy, and 7 (6.3%) had proliferative retinopathy. Twenty (17.9%) had both maculopathy and DR. The forms of two hundred and sixty-three patients with diabetes but had no DR were randomly selected from four health centers to represent the control group. Age and sex of the patients with DR and those without DR are presented in table 1.

**Table 1: Age and Sex and the Presence or Absence of Diabetic Retinopathy**

| Personal Characteristics | DR* Present Number & Percentage | DR Absent Number & Percentage | Total Number & Percentage | P value |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------|
| <b>Age group(years)</b>  |                                 |                               |                           |         |
| <40                      | 7(6.3)                          | 21(8)                         | 28(7.5)                   | 0.47    |
| 40-49                    | 25(22.3)                        | 76(28.9)                      | 101(26.9)                 |         |
| 50-59                    | 58(51.8)                        | 97(36.9)                      | 155(41.3)                 |         |
| ≥60                      | 22(19.6)                        | 69(26.2)                      | 91(24.3)                  |         |
| total                    | 112(100)                        | 263(100)                      | 375(100)                  |         |
| <b>Sex</b>               |                                 |                               |                           |         |
| Male                     | 43(38.4)                        | 121(46)                       | 164(43.7)                 | 0.174   |
| Female                   | 69(61.6)                        | 142(54)                       | 211(56.3)                 |         |
| Total                    | 112(100)                        | 263(100)                      | 375(100)                  |         |

\*DR: Diabetic Retinopathy

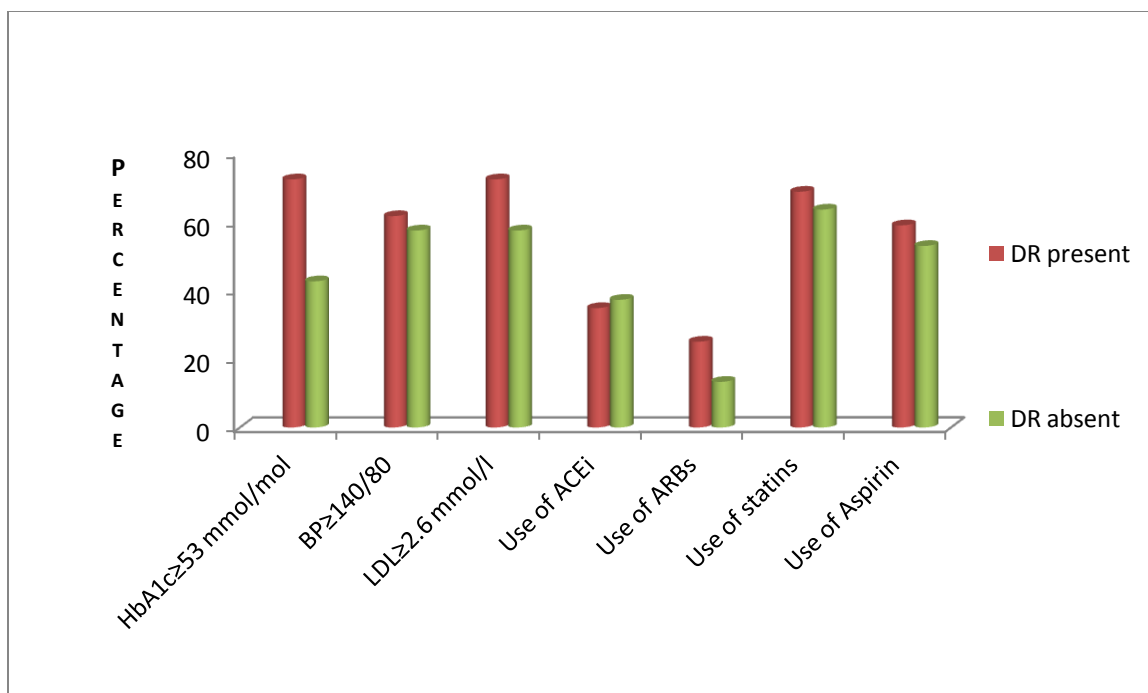
Table 1 shows that around 70% of patients with DR were ≥50 years and males constitute less than 40% of patients with DR. However, there was no significant statistical difference in age and sex regarding the presence or absence of DR.

The main risk factors of diabetic retinopathy and level of control are presented in table 2 and figure 1.

**Table 2: Main Risk Factors for Diabetic Retinopathy**

| Risk factors                  | DR present<br>Number &<br>Percentage | DR Absent<br>Number &<br>Percentage | Total<br>Number &<br>Percentage | P value |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------|
| Diabetes duration(years)      |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.000   |
| 0-<5                          | 9(8)                                 | 96(36.5)                            | 105(28)                         |         |
| 5-<10                         | 24(21.4)                             | 94(35.8)                            | 118(31.5)                       |         |
| 10-<15                        | 39(34.8)                             | 56(21.3)                            | 95(25.3)                        |         |
| 15-<20                        | 14(12.5)                             | 8(3)                                | 22(5.9)                         |         |
| ≥20                           | 19(17)                               | 8(3)                                | 27(7.2)                         |         |
| No data                       | 7(6.3)                               | 1(0.4)                              | 8(2.1)                          |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |
| Glycated hemoglobin(mmol/mol) |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.000   |
| <53*                          | 29(25.9)                             | 148(56.3)                           | 177(47.2)                       |         |
| ≥53                           | 81(72.3)                             | 112(42.6)                           | 193(51.5)                       |         |
| No data                       | 2(1.8)                               | 3(1.1)                              | 5(1.3)                          |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |
| Blood pressure                |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.265   |
| Controlled(≤140/80)           | 39(34.8)                             | 111(42.2)                           | 150(40)                         |         |
| uncontrolled                  | 69(61.6)                             | 151(57.4)                           | 220(58.7)                       |         |
| No Data                       | 4(3.6)                               | 1(0.4)                              | 5(1.3)                          |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |
| Total cholesterol(mmol/l)     |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.008   |
| <5.2                          | 75(67)                               | 209(79.5)                           | 284(75.7)                       |         |
| ≥5.2                          | 37(33)                               | 54(20.5)                            | 91(24.3)                        |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |
| LDL**(mmol/l)                 |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.002   |
| <2.6                          | 28(25)                               | 111(42.2)                           | 139(37)                         |         |
| ≥2.6                          | 81(72.3)                             | 151(57.4)                           | 232(61.9)                       |         |
| No Data                       | 3(2.7)                               | 1(0.4)                              | 4(1.1)                          |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |
| Triglycerides(mmol/l)         |                                      |                                     |                                 | 0.481   |
| <1.7                          | 42(37.5)                             | 109(41.4)                           | 151(40.3)                       |         |
| ≥1.7                          | 69(61.6)                             | 152(57.8)                           | 221(58.9)                       |         |
| No Data                       | 1(0.9)                               | 2(0.8)                              | 3(0.8)                          |         |
| Total                         | 112(100)                             | 263(100)                            | 375(100)                        |         |

\*equivalent to 7 % ( ref.13), \*\*LDL denotes Low Density Lipoproteins



**Figure 1: Control of Modifiable Risk Factors and Use of Guardian Drugs**

Table 2 shows that patients with DR were more likely to have longer duration of diabetes, worse diabetes control, worse cholesterol and LDL control. However, there was no statistical significant association between blood pressure and triglycerides control and DR.

Seventeen (15.2%) patients with DR were smokers compared to 35(13.3%) without DR (P=0.001).

Estimated glomerular filtration rate was less than 1 ml/s/1.73m<sup>2</sup> surface area in two patients with DR; patients without DR had glomerular filtration rate more than 1.

Guardian drugs used by the patients are shown in table 3 and figure 1.

**Table 3: Use of Guardian Drugs**

| Drug groups | DR present(n=112)       |                        |                         | DR absent(n=263)        |                        |                        | P value |
|-------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|---------|
|             | Yes Number & Percentage | No Number & Percentage | ND* Number & Percentage | Yes Number & Percentage | No Number & Percentage | ND Number & Percentage |         |
| ACEi        | 39(34.8)                | 70(62.5)               | 3(2.7)                  | 98(37.2)                | 165(62.8)              | 0                      | 0.028   |
| ARBs        | 28(25)                  | 80(71.4)               | 4(3.6)                  | 35(13.3)                | 227( 86.3)             | 1(0.4)                 | 0.001   |
| Statins     | 77(68.7)                | 32(28.6)               | 3(2.7)                  | 167(63.5)               | 95(36.1 )              | 1(0.4)                 | 0.063   |
| Fibrates    | 8(7.1)                  | 101(90.2)              | 3(2.7)                  | 14(5.3)                 | 249(94.7)              | 0                      | 0.022   |
| Aspirin     | 66(58.9)                | 36(32.2)               | 10(8.9)                 | 139(52.9)               | 124(47.1)              | 0                      | 0.000   |

\*ND = no data

Table 3 shows patients with DR were more likely to be on ARBs, fibrates, statins and aspirin, but less likely to be on ACEi. The association is statistically significant.

In the multiple logistic regression models, diabetes duration and the degree of diabetes control were found to be significant predictors for diabetic retinopathy as shown in table 4.

**Table 4: Multiple Logistic Regressions of Diabetic Retinopathy**

| Risk factor          | P value | Odds ratio(CI)  |
|----------------------|---------|-----------------|
| Duration of diabetes | 0.000   | 2.57(1.89-3.48) |
| Diabetes control     | 0.002   | 2.78(1.45-5.32) |

## DISCUSSION

The study shows that glycated hemoglobin equal or above 53 mmol/mol, longer diabetes duration, above target LDL and total cholesterol and current smoking were significantly associated with DR. No significant association was found between DR and blood pressure, age, or gender. Patients with DR were less likely to be on ACEi, but more likely to be on ARBs, fibrates, statins and aspirin.

A significant association was found between DR and uncontrolled hyperglycemia and increased diabetes duration, similar to other studies<sup>1,17-20</sup>, see tables 2 and 4. DR was found to be common even in patients with newly diagnosed diabetes<sup>19,24</sup>.

No significant association was found between DR and blood pressure control<sup>1,20,16</sup>, see table 2. Reduction of elevated pressure is beneficial in the prevention and progression of DR, blood pressure control per se does not prevent the incidence of DR in type 2 diabetes<sup>7,10,16</sup>.

While only around 35% were having controlled BP, a large percentage of patients with DR were not receiving ACEi/ARBs, see table 3. These drugs are important for patients with DR for several reasons. Studies have found beneficial effects of these drugs on DR regression in both types of diabetes regardless of blood pressure control<sup>25-27</sup>. Presence of advanced DR is closely associated with chronic kidney disease in the form of albuminuria and decreased GFR<sup>28,29,30</sup>. Patients with DR are at higher risk for cardiovascular mortality<sup>4,5,31</sup>.

Unlike glycated hemoglobin and diabetes duration, several studies had found inconsistent role of lipids as a risk factor for DR<sup>21,22</sup>. We found a significant association with increased total cholesterol and LDL which is similar to the findings of one study<sup>16</sup>.

The study shows that although more than 60% of patients with DR did not meet triglycerides target, only around 7% were on fibrates. The role of fenofibrate has emerged as a medical treatment of DR due to ACCORD eye study and FIELD study<sup>10,32,33</sup>. Both studies were done in patients with type 2 diabetes. It was found that fenofibrate reduces

DR progression and reduces the need for laser treatment in patients with proliferative DR and macular edema despite normal lipid concentration and glycemic control<sup>10,32,33</sup>. On the other hand, despite the suboptimal control of LDL in the total cohort of our study, we found improved rate of statins usage which is more than double which was seen in a previous study<sup>14</sup>. This may indicate increased awareness of health care providers about the importance of these drugs in the management of high risk patients.

Patients with DR were found to be significantly more likely to be on aspirin compared to those without DR. Aspirin is definitely indicated for secondary prevention (i.e. those with known cardiovascular diseases). However, its role in primary prevention is currently unclear and management should be individualized<sup>13,34</sup>.

In this study, all modifiable risk factors are poorly controlled and there is suboptimal use of guardian drugs in patients with DR. This highlights the need for multifactorial intervention to decrease the burden of diabetes complications<sup>8</sup>.

## CONCLUSION

**Control of the identified modifiable risk factors is suboptimal. The burden of DR can be reduced by more intensive control of these factors through effective use of the currently available guardian drugs.**

---

**Author contribution:** All authors share equal effort contribution towards (1) substantial contributions to conception and design, acquisition, analysis and interpretation of data; (2) drafting the article and revising it critically for important intellectual content; and (3) final approval of the manuscript version to be published. Yes.

**Potential conflicts of interest:** None.

**Competing interest:** None. **Sponsorship:** None.

**Submission date:** 27 October 2013. **Acceptance date:** 15 December 2013.

**Ethical Approval:** Approved by the National Research committee for Primary Care, Ministry of Health, Bahrain.

## REFERENCES

1. Yau J, Rogers SL, Kawasaki R, et al. Global Prevalence and Major Risk Factors of Diabetic Retinopathy. *Diabetes Care* 2012; 35(3):556–64.
2. Saaddine JB, Honeycutt AA, Narayan KM, et al. Projection of Diabetic Retinopathy and Other Major Eye Diseases Among People with Diabetes Mellitus. United States, 2005-2050. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2008; 126 (12):1740-47.

3. Klein BE. Overview of Epidemiologic Studies of Diabetic Retinopathy. *Ophthalmic Epidemiol* 2007; 14(4):179–83.
4. Rong J, Yu CQ, Yang P, Chen J, et al. Association of Retinopathy with Coronary Atherosclerosis Determined by Coronary 64-Slice Multidetector Computed Tomography Angiography in Type 2 Diabetes. *Diabetes and Vascular Disease Research* 2013; 10(2):161-8.
5. Kramer CK, Rodrigues PC, Canani LH, et al. Diabetic Retinopathy Predicts All-Cause Mortality and Cardiovascular Events in Both Type 1 and 2 Diabetes. Meta-analysis of Observational Studies. *Diabetes Care* 2011; 34(5):1238–44.
6. Intensive Blood-glucose Control with Sulphonylureas or Insulin Compared with Conventional Treatment and Risk of Complications in Patients with Type 2 Diabetes (UKPDS 33). *Lancet* 1998; 352(9131):837-53.
7. Matthews DR, Stratton IM, Aldington SJ, et al. Risks of Progression of Retinopathy and Vision Loss Related to Tight Blood Pressure Control in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. UKPDS 69. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2004; 122(11): 1631-40.
8. Gaede P, Lund-Andersen H, Hans-Henrik Parving HH, et al. Effect of a Multifactorial Intervention on Mortality in Type 2 Diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 358(6):580-91.
9. Holman RR, Paul SK, Bethel MA, et al. 10-Year Follow-up of Intensive Glucose Control in Type 2 Diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 359(15):1577-89.
10. Chew EY, Ambrosius WT, Davis MD. Effects of Medical Therapies on Retinopathy Progression in Type 2 Diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2010; 363(3):233-44.
11. Mohamed Q, Gillies MC, Wong TY. Management of Diabetic Retinopathy. A Systematic Review. *JAMA* 2007; 298(8):902-16.
12. Beck RW, Edwards AR, Aiello LP, et al. Three-year Follow-Up of a Randomized Trial Comparing Focal/Grid Photocoagulation and Intravitreal Triamcinolone for Diabetic Macular Edema. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2009; 127(3):245-51.
13. American Diabetes Association. Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2013; 36:S11-S66.
14. Nasser J. Evaluation of Diabetes Care in a Primary Care Setting. *Bahrain Medical Bulletin* 2007; 29(2): 45-9.
15. Newman R, Cummings DM, Doherty L, Patel NR, et al. Digital Retinal Imaging in a Residency-based Patient-Centered Medical Home. *Fam Med* 2012; 44(3):159-63.
16. Rema M, Premkumar S, Anitha B, et al. Prevalence of Diabetic Retinopathy in Urban India: The Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES) Eye Study, I. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2005;46(7):2328-33.
17. Chatziralli IP, Sergentanis TN, Keryttopoulos P, et al. Risk Factors Associated with Diabetic Retinopathy in Patients with Diabetes Mellitus Type 2. *BMC Research Notes* 2010; 3:153.
18. Villena JE, Yoshiyama CA, Sánchez JE, et al. Prevalence of Diabetic Retinopathy in Peruvian Patients with Type 2 Diabetes: Results of a Hospital-Based Retinal Telescreening Program. *Rev Panam Salud Publica* 2011; 30(5):408–14.
19. Kim JH, Kwon HS, Park YM, et al. Prevalence and Associated Factors of Diabetic Retinopathy in Rural Korea: The Chungju Metabolic Disease Cohort Study. *J Korean Med Sci* 2011; 26(8): 1068-73.



20. He BB, Wei L, Gu YJ, et al. Factors Associated with Diabetic Retinopathy in Chinese Patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. *International Journal of Endocrinology* 2012; Article ID 157940.
21. Huang OS, Lamoureux EL, Tay WT, et al. Glycemic and Blood Pressure Control in an Asian Malay Population with Diabetes and Diabetic Retinopathy. *Arch Ophthalmol* 2010; 128(9):1185-90.
22. Wang S, Xu L, Jonas JB, et al. Dyslipidemia and Eye Diseases in the Adult Chinese Population: The Beijing Eye Study. *PLoS ONE (One)*2012; 7(3): e26871.
23. Al Alawi E, Ahmed AA. Screening for Diabetic Retinopathy: The First Telemedicine Approach in a Primary Care Setting in Bahrain. *Middle East Afr J Ophthalmol* 2012; 19(3):295-8.
24. Kohner EM, Aldington SJ, Stratton IM, et al. United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study, 30: Diabetic Retinopathy at Diagnosis of Non-Insulin-Dependent Diabetes Mellitus and Associated Risk Factors. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1998; 116(3):297-303.
25. Sjølie AK, Klein R, Porta M, et al. Effect of Candesartan on Progression and Regression of Retinopathy in Type 2 Diabetes (DIRECT-Protect 2): A Randomised Placebo-Controlled Trial. *The Lancet* 2008; 372 (9647): 1385 -93.
26. Mauer M, Zinman B, Gardiner R, et al. Renal and Retinal Effects of Enalapril and Losartan in Type 1 Diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2009; 361(1):40-51.
27. Sjølie AK, Dodson P, Hobbs FR. Does Renin-Angiotensin System Blockade Have a Role in Preventing Diabetic Retinopathy? A Clinical Review. *Int J Clin Pract* 2011; 65 (2)148–153.
28. Rani PK, Raman R, Gupta A, et al. Albuminuria and Diabetic Retinopathy in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Sankara Nethralaya Diabetic Retinopathy Epidemiology And Molecular Genetic Study (SN-DREAMS, report 12). *Diabetology & Metabolic Syndrome* 2011; 3(1):9.
29. Chen H, Zheng Z, Huang Y, et al. A Microalbuminuria Threshold to Predict the Risk for the Development of Diabetic Retinopathy in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus Patients. *PLoS ONE (One)* 2012; 7(5): e36718.
30. Hansen A, Quack I, Rump C. Reducing progression of diabetic nephropathy by antihypertensive treatment. In: Wolf G, editor. *Diabetes and Kidney Disease*. First edition. UK: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013; 202-14.
31. Maraj I, Makaryus JN, Ashkar A, et al. Hypertension Management in the High Cardiovascular Risk Population. *International Journal of Hypertension* 2013; Article ID 382802.
32. Keech AC, Mitchell P, Summanen PA, et al. Effect of Fenofibrate on the Need for Laser Treatment for Diabetic Retinopathy (FIELD Study): A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Lancet* 2007; 370(9600):1687-97.
33. Wright AD, Dodson PM. Medical Management of Diabetic Retinopathy: Fenofibrate and ACCORD Eye Studies. *Eye* 2011; 25(7): 843–9.
34. Schnell O, Erbach M, Hummel M. Primary and Secondary Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease in Diabetes with Aspirin. *Diabetes and Vascular Disease Research* 2012; 9(4): 245-55.