RESEARCH Open Access

Association of T-wave electrocardiogram changes and type 2 diabetes: a cross-sectional sub-analysis of the MASHAD cohort population using the Minnesota coding system

Sara Soflaei Saffar^{1†}, Eisa Nazar^{2,11†}, Toktam Sahranavard^{1†}, Farzad Fayedeh³, AmirAli Moodi Ghalibaf³, Mahmoud Ebrahimi⁴, Hedieh Alimi⁴, Bahram Shahri⁵, Azadeh Izadi-Moud⁵, Gordon A. Ferns⁶, Alireza Ghodsi¹, Saeed Mehrabi⁷, Milad Tarhimi⁷, Habibollah Esmaily^{8,9}, Mohsen Moohebati^{4,5*} and Majid Ghayour-Mobarhan^{1,10*}

Abstract

Background Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) has become a major health concern with an increasing prevalence and is now one of the leading attributable causes of death globally. T2DM and cardiovascular disease are strongly associated and T2DM is an important independent risk factor for ischemic heart disease. T-wave abnormalities (TWA) on electrocardiogram (ECG) can indicate several pathologies including ischemia. In this study, we aimed to investigate the association between T2DM and T-wave changes using the Minnesota coding system.

Methods A cross-sectional study was conducted on the MASHAD cohort study population. All participants of the cohort population were enrolled in the study. 12-lead ECG and Minnesota coding system (codes 5–1 to 5–4) were utilized for T-wave observation and interpretation. Regression models were used for the final evaluation with a level of significance being considered at p < 0.05.

Results A total of 9035 participants aged 35–65 years old were included in the study, of whom 1273 were diabetic. The prevalence of code 5–2, 5–3, major and minor TWA were significantly higher in diabetics (p < 0.05). However, following adjustment for age, gender, and hypertension, the presence of TWAs was not significantly associated with T2DM (p > 0.05). Hypertension, age, and body mass index were significantly associated with T2DM (p < 0.05).

Conclusions Although some T-wave abnormalities were more frequent in diabetics, they were not statistically associated with the presence of T2DM in our study.

Keywords Electrocardiogram, Type 2 diabetes mellitus, T-wave

[†]Sara Saffar Soflaei, Eisa Nazar, and Toktam Sahranavard contributed equally as first authors.

*Correspondence: Mohsen Moohebati MouhebatiM@mums.ac.ir Majid Ghayour-Mobarhan GhayourM@mums.ac.ir Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

Introduction

Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) is a complex condition associated with impaired glucose tolerance, insulin resistance and hyperglycemia; its increasing prevalence has become a serious global health challenge. It is accountable for 11.3% of deaths worldwide and is believed to affect approximately 10.9% of the global population [1]. T2DM is accompanied by debilitating chronic complications such as kidney disease, retinopathy, neuropathy, microvascular impairment, and cardiovascular complications [1, 2].

Cardiovascular complications are responsible for up to 68% of all diabetes-related mortalities. Several studies have revealed that patients with T2DM are at increased risk of coronary disease [3], myocardial infarction [4], heart failure [5], cardiomyopathy [6], and thrombotic events [7]. It has been shown that diabetic patients have a two- to three-fold increase in cardiovascular disease (CVD) development [8]. Various mechanisms have been proposed to explain the increased CVD rates among diabetic patients. Higher incidence of dyslipidemia [9], chronic inflammatory states [10-12], enhanced oxidative stress and reactive oxygen species [13], and hypercoagulability [14] are some of the key findings in patients with T2DM that can potentially increase atherosclerosis, plaque formation, and consequently result in increased rates of CVD [10, 15]. Thus, it is of great importance to investigate sufficient early detection methods and effective therapeutic approaches for CVD among diabetic patients.

An electrocardiogram (ECG) is a useful and non-invasive assessment that has been utilized for several biomedical uses such as determination of arrhythmias, fibrillations, heart rates, premature contractions, and ischemia [16–19]. T-wave in ECG represents ventricular repolarization. T-wave abnormalities (TWA) can be an indicator of a variety of conditions such as cardiomyopathy, pulmonary embolism, peri- and myocarditis, and ischemia [20–23].

Given the importance of T2DM and its complications, especially those affecting the cardiovascular system, as well as considering the ease of accessibility and practicality of ECG in medical practice, this cross-section study was designed to investigate the prevalence of T-wave abnormalities and its association with T2DM.

Method

Study design and participants

The current cross-sectional study was conducted on the population of Mashhad stroke and heart atherosclerotic disorder (MASHAD) cohort study [24]. A total of 9704 individuals aged 35 to 65 years were enrolled into this cohort study. A checklist containing participants' demographic data including age, sex, educational level, and marital status was recorded. Patients whose systolic blood pressure levels were at or above 140 mmHg and/or diastolic blood pressure were at or beyond 90 mmHg—measured using a mercury sphygmomanometer- were considered hypertensive [25]. A fasting blood glucose (FBG) > 126 mg/dl, or being under anti-hyperglycemic medication was defined as diabetic patients [26]. The FBG was measured in a peripheral blood sample following 14 h of fasting [27]. The study was approved by the Human Research ethics committee of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran, and all participants provided informed consent prior to data collection.

ECG analysis

A standard resting 12-lead ECG was taken from each participant of the study. These ECGs were interpreted by instructed medical students in accordance with Minnesota coding system [28]. Five percent of all ECGs were also read by certified cardiologists. Among the 9704 participants, the ECGs of 9035 participants were available and readable according to Minnesota coding system [28].

Four different t-wave abnormalities were described within the coding system including codes 5-1, 5-2, 5-3and 5-4. The code 5-1 was defined as T amplitude negative 5.0 mm or more in either of leads I, V6, or in lead aVL when R amplitude is≥5.0 mm and code 5-2 was defined as T amplitude negative or diphasic (positivenegative or negative-positive type) with negative phase at least 1.0 mm but not as deep as 5.0 mm in lead I or V6, or in lead aVL when R amplitude is≥5.0 mm. Code 5-3 was described as flat, negative or diphasic t-wave with less than 1 mm negative phase in any leads of I, II or V3 to V6 or in lead aVL when the R amplitude is \geq 5.0 mm. Lastly, code 5-4 was defined as a positive T amplitude and a T/R amplitude ratio < 1:20 in any of leads I, II, aVL, or V3 through V6. The R-wave amplitude must be \geq 10.0 mm [28].

Statistical analysis

Qualitative and quantitative variables were summarized as Mean \pm SD and frequency (%), respectively. An independent t-test was used in order to compare the mean of quantitative variables between the two groups. In addition, evaluating the association between qualitative variables was performed using Chi-square and Fisher's exact test. Further analyses were performed in order to investigate the association between T wave impairments and T2DM after adjusting the effect of potential confounders (variables with P < 0.25 in the univariate logistic

regression model) using the multiple logistic regression (LR) model. Furthermore, receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were used to evaluate the ability of the multiple LR model to predict the occurrence of TWA and T2DM. All statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS version 20 and the statistical significance level was considered at 0.05.

Results

Study population characteristics

A total of 9035 subjects were included into this study, including 1273 diabetic patients and 7762 non-diabetic individuals (Fig. 1). The average age was 47.45 ± 8.17 years and 51.77 ± 7.73 years in non-diabetic and diabetic patients which differed significant (p<0.001). Diabetic patients were found to have higher body mass index (BMI), as well as higher rates of hypertension (50.3 vs 27.9%, p<0.001). Marital status and educational levels also showed a significant different distribution between the two diabetic and non-diabetic groups with married being the most prevalent status among studied groups (P<0.001). Table 1 presents patients' demographic data distributions.

T-wave abnormality frequency

A total of 1246 T wave abnormalities were reported among the study sample population, approximately 13.79% of all participants. The most frequent TWA among both groups were code 5-2 (4.9% in diabetics and 3.6% in the control group) and major T-wave abnormalities (5% in diabetics and 3.7% in the control group). Different TWA yielded varying associations with T2DM. While T-wave abnormalities code 5-1 and 5-4 failed to show a significantly different distribution among diabetic and non-diabetic participants (P = 0.24 and 0.92 respectively), code 5–2 and 5–3 were shown to be significantly higher among diabetic patients compared to the non-diabetic individuals (P=0.02 and 0.01, respectively). Overall, both major and minor T-wave abnormalities were significantly more frequent among patients with T2DM compared to the control group, (p=0.02 and 0.008,respectively). Figures 2 and 3 compare T wave impairments and T2DM distribution.

T2DM predictive factors

Results from the multiple logistic regression models indicated a significant association between age

Is there any association between T-wave Changes and Type 2 diabetes?

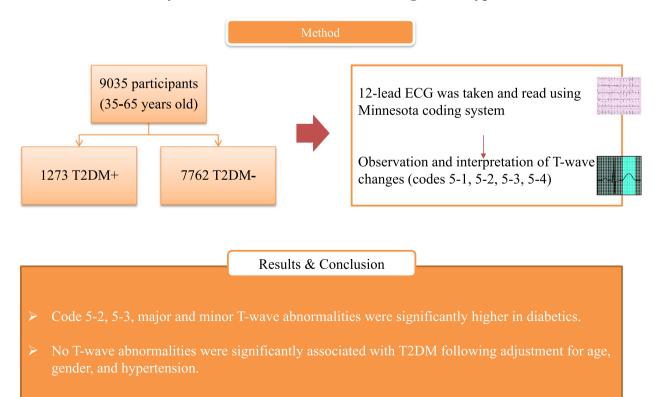


Fig. 1 The summary of the methodology and the findings

Table 1 Demographic and clinical characteristics of patients under study according to T2DM^a

Variables ^a	Total	T2DM		<i>P</i> -value
		Yes (N = 1273)	No (N=7762)	
Age (y)	51.77 ± 7.73	47.45 ± 8.17	51.77 ± 7.73	< 0.001*
Body mass index (kg/m²)	28.93 ± 4.62	27.71 ± 4.73	28.93 ± 4.62	< 0.001*
Gender				
Male	3615 (40.00)	3129 (40.30)	486 (38.20)	0.15
Female	5420 (60.00)	4633 (59.70)	787 (61.80)	
Marital status				
Single	55 (0.60)	51 (0.70)	4 (0.30)	< 0.001*
Married	8418 (93.20)	7262 (93.60)	1156 (90.80)	
Divorced/widowed	562 (6.20)	449 (5.80)	113 (8.90)	
Education level				
Illiterate	1155 (12.80)	927 (11.90)	228 (17.90)	< 0.001*
Lower than diploma	6815 (75.40)	5881 (75.80)	934 (73.40)	
Higher than diploma	1065 (11.80)	954 (12.30)	111 (8.70)	
Hypertension				
No	6220 (69.00)	5589 (72.10)	631 (49.70)	< 0.001*
yes	2798 (31.00)	2159 (27.90)	639 (50.30)	

^{*} Significance level of 0.05

 $^{^{\}rm a}$ Values are reported as Mean \pm SD and frequency (%)

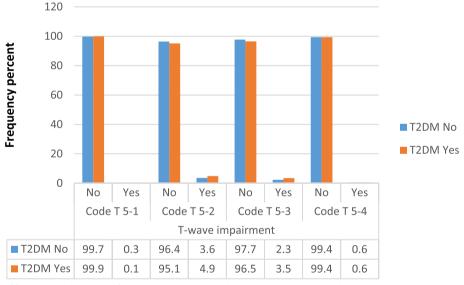


Fig. 2 Comparison of frequency distribution of the T wave impairments between patients with and without T2DM (n = 9035)

(OR = 1.05, 95%CI = 1.04–1.05) and BMI (OR = 1.03, 95%CI = 1.02–1.05) with having T2DM. Gender, marital status, and educational level did not show a significant association with having T2DM (all P > 0.05) (Tables 2 and 3). Hypertension has been reported to increase the odds of T2DM by 86 percent (95%CI = 1.63–2.12, p < 0.001). According to Tables 2 and 3, only major and minor T wave impairments as well as impairments code

5–2 and 5–3 were reported to be higher among diabetic patients and thus only these items were further analyzed by inclusion in the multiple LR model. A model analyzing T-wave abnormality code 5–2 and 5–3 showed that the odds of having T2DM among patients with T-wave code 5–2 and 5–3 abnormalities were 1.07 and 1.31 times as those without these abnormalities, respectively. This observed difference between patients with and

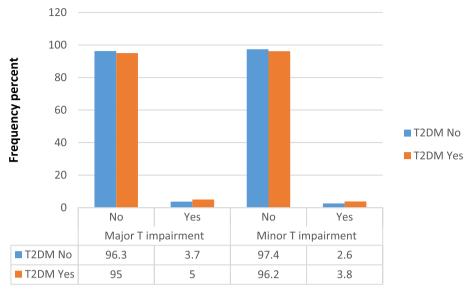


Fig. 3 compares major T impairment and major T impairment between patients with and without T2DM (n = 9035)

Table 2 Investigating the association between T-wave impairment and having diabetes adjusted by age, BMI, gender, education, and marital status using multiple LR model

Variables	ORa	95% CI	<i>P</i> -value
Age	1.05	1.04- 1.05	< 0.001*
BMI	1.03	1.02—1.05	< 0.001*
Gender			
Female	Ref	Ref	0.88
Male	1.01	0.88—1.16	
Marital status			
Single	Ref	Ref	-
Married	1.20	0.42—3.37	0.72
Divorced/Widowed	1.34	0.46—3.85	0.58
Educational level			
Illiterate	Ref	Ref	-
Lower than diploma	0.94	0.79—1.11	0.48
Higher than diploma	0.73	0.56—0.95	0.02*
Hypertension			
No	Ref	Ref	< 0.001*
Yes	1.86	1.63—2.12	
Code 5–2T wave impairmen	t		
No	Ref	Ref	0.63
Yes	1.07	0.80—1.44	
Code 5–3 T wave impairmen	t		
No	Ref	Ref	0.12
Yes	1.31	0.92—1.87	

^{*} Significance level of 0.05

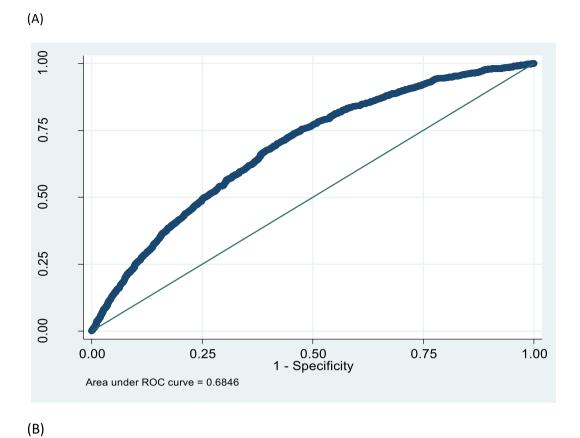
Table 3 Investigating the association between major T-wave impairment and minor T-wave impairment with having diabetes adjusted by age, BMI, gender, education, and marital status using multiple LR model

Variables	ORa	95% CI	<i>P</i> -value
Age	1.05	1.04- 1.06	< 0.001*
BMI	1.03	1.02—1.05	< 0.001*
Gender			
Female	Ref	Ref	0.88
Male	1.01	0.88—1.16	
Marital status			
Single	Ref	Ref	-
Married	1.20	0.42—3.37	0.72
Divorced/Widowed	1.34	0.46—3.84	0.58
Educational level			
Illiterate	Ref	Ref	-
Lower than diploma	0.94	0.79—1.11	0.48
Higher than diploma	0.73	0.56—0.95	0.02*
Hypertension			
No	Ref	Ref	< 0.001*
Yes	1.86	1.63—2.12	
Major T-wave impairment			
No	Ref	Ref	0.65
Yes	1.06	0.79—1.42	
Minor T-wave impairment			
No	Ref	Ref	0.11
Yes	1.30	0.93—1.82	

^{*} Significance level of 0.05

^a OR Odds Ratio

^a OR Odds Ratio



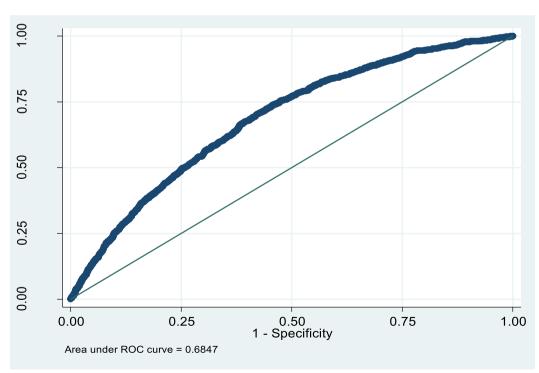


Fig. 4 A showing the predictive power of final multiple LR model including T-wave abnormality code 5–2 and 5–3 to predict diabetes and **B** showing the predictive power of final multiple LR model including major and minor T wave abnormality to predict diabetes

without T-wave abnormalities regarding having T2DM failed to yield statistical significance (P = 0.63 and 0.12, respectively). The area under the ROC curve (AUC) of the final multiple LR model was 0.6847, which indicates a good predictive power of the final model, as shown in Fig. 4A. Also, the results of our model for major and minor T-wave abnormality revealed that the odds of having T2DM in patients who had T major and T minor abnormalities were 1.06 and 1.30 times than those without ischemia abnormalities, respectively. However, this difference did not show a significant difference within the logistic regression model (P = 0.65 and 0.11 respectively). The AUC for this model was 0.6846 which suggests a good predictive power of the final model, as shown in Fig. 4B. Tables 2 and 3 presents the results of the regression model analyses.

Discussion

The current study aimed to investigate the distribution of t-wave impairment among diabetic patients and its association with T2DM according to the Minnesota coding system. The primary results showed significantly higher rates of code 5–2 and 5–3 t-wave impairment among diabetic patients. Both minor and major t-wave abnormalities were also significantly higher among diabetics. However, upon adjusting for several factors such as age, gender, and hypertension within the regression model, none of the mentioned t-wave abnormalities showed a significant association with T2DM.

Myocardial ischemia is a relatively frequent finding among diabetic patients and can potentially lead to coronary artery disease [29, 30]. Patients with myocardial ischemia can present both symptomatic and asymptomatic, with or without previous cardiovascular events. The rates of silent asymptomatic myocardial ischemia have been shown to be three to six times higher among diabetic patients [29]. Atherosclerosis and endothelial damage of vessels has been shown to be strong risk factors for ischemic heart disease (IHD). On the other hand, the formation of plaque and thrombi can lead to acute forms of myocardial ischemia and coronary syndromes [31, 32]. T2DM can contribute substantially to atherogenesis [33], thrombosis [34], and vascular damage [35], therefore leading to increased risks of IHD [36]. Hyperglycemia, increased levels of free fatty acids, and insulin resistance can lead to several destructive mechanisms such as inflammation, oxidative stress, and the production of advanced glycation products (AGE) [36, 37]. Following the increase in AGE production, inflammatory responses are triggered and pro-inflammatory transcription factors such as NF-kB are upregulated [38, 39]. Vascular motion is also affected via the reduction in nitric oxide synthesis and enhanced endothelin-1 release.

Upregulated pro-thrombotic tissue factor and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 levels, as well as decreased tissue plasminogen activator within T2DM, can lead to thrombi formation [36, 40]. The results of these various mechanisms is endothelial dysfunction, vasoconstriction, and enhanced plaque formations, which as mentioned before, are key components in the development and progression of IHD [36, 40].

Several studies have shown TWA among diabetic patients and their utilization as risk predictors. A 2021 study by Molud et al. studied the relationship between TWA and cardiovascular events among diabetic patients [41]. Minnesota code 5–1 and 5–2 were considered major TWA and codes 5-3 and 5-4 were considered to be minor TWAs. Their results indicated that patients with TWA had increased risks of both cardiovascular and all-cause mortality and major TWA was attributed to higher risk than minor TWAs [41]. They also highlight the usefulness of TWA in prognostication of diabetic patients in long-term settings. According to a prospective longitudinal study by Harms et al. [42] 45% of diabetic patients had or develop ECG abnormalities and 7.5% developed major adverse cardiac events within a 6.6-year follow-up period. Upon grading ECG abnormalities using the Minnesota coding system, 6 and 5% of the diabetic population had minor and major ST-segment/T-wave abnormalities respectively. They also concluded that ST-segment/T-wave abnormalities were associated with heart failure and coronary heart disease. Thus, T-T-wave modifications can be used as risk predictor for cardiovascular events and mortality among diabetic patients. In addition to ST/T-wave changes which exhibit ischemic disorders, signs of decreased conductivity such as PR and QRS prolongation, and hypertrophy such as tall R-wave was also observed in diabetics and were associated with chronic heart disease [42].

T-wave variation and abnormalities have also been shown within several other diabetes-related pathologies other than IHD. T-wave inversion within some diabetic patients can be explained via hyperkalemia. Diabetic ketoacidosis is a state of hyperkalemia and can result in a variety of ECG modifications affecting T-wave, QT, and ST segments [43]. T-wave inversion is also associated with left ventricle hypertrophy findings of ECG among diabetic patients, which might indicate myocardial injury but not coronary disease [44]. This finding is contradicted by another study, in which, ST-T changes are significant predictors of coronary artery disease, defined as elevated, depressed, or inversed T waves [45]. The observed difference can be due to sample size or ECG coding and grading system.

Some of the novel ECG parameters such as the QRS-T angle and T-wave axis of the frontal plane have also been investigated in diabetic patients by other studies [46]. It has been shown that 20.9% of diabetic patients have

abnormal T-wave axis while 14% of them have increased QRS-T angle. These two ECG parameters are associated with some atherosclerotic disease markers among type II diabetic patients [46].

Studies on the relationship between T2DM and T-wave abnormalities have reported inconsistent results. A Chinese study investigated ECG abnormalities within several disorders such as hypertension, smoking, obesity, and so forth [47]. T2DM was found to be associated with ST elevation but failed to show a significant correlation with other electrocardiogram findings such as ST depression, T-wave and Q-wave impairment, tall R wave, atrial hypertrophy, and axial deviations. Unlike T2DM, hypertension, and hypercholesterolemia were significantly attributed to ST depression and T-wave abnormalities. These findings are in line with the results of our study, since upon adjustment, none of the T-wave abnormalities were associated with T2DM. However, two studies showed a contrary result. Flatter and asymmetric T-waves were observed in patients with type I diabetes, according to the study by Isaksen et al. [48]. This association was also confirmed by a regression model corrected for age, gender, BMI, blood pressure, potassium, and cholesterol. Interestingly, asymmetrical t-wave was significantly associated with both macro and microalbuminuria among type I diabetic patients. An Italian cross-sectional study [49] also confirmed this finding and suggests higher rates of T-wave axis abnormalities – described as T-wave rotation in the frontal plane - in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic individuals [49]. These differences could be due to a lack of differentiating diabetes types, as well as the ethnicity of the study population.

Even though our analysis showed no significant association between T2DM and T-wave changes in the ECG, several other factors such as hypertension, age, and BMI were found to be significantly associated with T2DM. A meta-analysis of a total of 452,584 patients also showed similar results about the association between T2DM and hypertension (pooled OR:8.32, 95%CI: 3.05-22.71) [50]. The mechanisms by which, diabetes increases risks of hypertension can be explained through disturbed sodium homeostasis, insulin resistance, enhanced volume expansion and prominent resistance within peripheral vessels [51]. Our results indicated no significant relationship between gender and T2DM, whereas some studies show a significant contribution of sex and T2DM [52]. A longitudinal study in Iran showed significantly higher rates of T2DM among females while the global prevalence is higher in men [53, 54]. These differences in findings can be due to sampling size as well as not differentiating the type of diabetes among different studies. It has been also shown that gender differences poses varied risks of diabetes development among different races [55].

This study is one of very few studies to differentiate T-wave abnormalities into six categories, while most of the studies only summarize them in two. Second, a large population (n = 9035) was examined and observed in this cross-section study which belonged to the MASHAD cohort study. Third, some of the interpretations were also controlled by certified cardiologists which reduce the chances of errors. However, our study faced several limitations which need to be considered for future studies. First, available documentation did not differentiate type I or II diabetes, and thus, exact conclusions cannot be made for each type. Second, the age group of the study was limited to 35-65 years old, and variation might exist in ages above or below the cutoff used in our study. Third, only t-waves were used for ischemic changes of the heart, and future studies can use several other modalities, such as other ECG findings, and other para-clinical values to further confirm ischemic diseases of the heart due to T2DM. We also highly encourage future researchers to perform multi-central cohort studies in order to precisely evaluate the relationship between the two. High-quality meta-analyses are needed for confirming our findings.

Conclusion

The results of this study show a significantly higher prevalence of Minnesota codes 5–2, 5–3, major and minor T-wave abnormalities in diabetic patients compared to non-diabetic individuals. However, the association between these abnormalities was not significant using regression models and adjusting for age, gender, and BMI. Considering the aberrant T2DM complications, especially cardiovascular ones, it is highly important to investigate CVD diagnostic tools among diabetics. Given the contrary results of other studies, large-scale studies on the topic of using t-wave abnormalities as ischemic pathologies resulting from T2DM are needed for further identification of sufficient indicative and predictive tools.

Abbreviations

T2DM Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus
TWA T-wave abnormalities
ECG Electrocardiogram
CVD Cardiovascular disease

MASHAD Mashhad stroke and heart atherosclerotic disorder

FBG Fasting blood glucose LR Logistic regression

ROC Receiver operating characteristic BMI Body mass index AUC Area under the ROC curve IHD Ischemic heart disease AGE Advanced glycation products

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Mashhad University of Medical Sciences for supporting this study.

Authors' contributions

All authors have read and approved the manuscript. Study concept and design: SSS and Al; data collection: FF, ME, HA, BS, AG, SM, and MT; Analysis and interpretation of data: EN and HE; Drafting of the manuscript: TS and AM; Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: GF, MG, and MM.

Funding

The collection of clinical data was financially supported by Mashhad University of Medical Sciences.

Availability of data and materials

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent of participate

The study protocol was given approval by the Ethics Committee of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences and written informed consent was obtained from participants.

Consent of publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹International UNESCO Center for Health-Related Basic Sciences and Human Nutrition, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ²Orthopedic Research Center, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran. ³Student Research Committee, Birjand University of Medical Sciences, Birjand, Iran. ⁴Vascular and Endovascular Research Center, Faculty of Medicine, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ⁵Department of Cardiology, Faculty of Medicine, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ⁶Brighton and Sussex Medical School, Division of Medical Education, Brighton, UK. ⁷Department of Cardiology, Faculty of Medicine, Gonabad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ⁸Department of Biostatistics, School of Health, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ⁹Social Determinants of Health Research Center, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad, Iran. ¹⁰Metabolic Syndrome Research Center, Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, Mashhad 99199-91766, Iran. 11 Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences Research Center, Addiction Institute, Mazandaran University of Medical Sciences, Sari, Iran.

Received: 30 July 2023 Accepted: 30 November 2023 Published online: 13 January 2024

References

- Duan D, Kengne AP, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB. Screening for diabetes and prediabetes. Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am. 2021;50(3):369–85.
- 2. Zheng Y, Ley SH, Hu FB. Global aetiology and epidemiology of type 2 diabetes mellitus and its complications. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2018;14(2):88–98.
- 3. Ali MK, Narayan KM, Tandon N. Diabetes & coronary heart disease: current perspectives. Indian J Med Res. 2010;132(5):584–97.
- 4. de Jong M, Woodward M, Peters SAE. Diabetes, glycated hemoglobin, and the risk of myocardial infarction in women and men: a prospective cohort study of the UK Biobank. Diabetes Care. 2020;43(9):2050–9.
- 5. Shaw JA, Cooper ME. Contemporary management of heart failure in patients with diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2020;43(12):2895–903.
- Chen Y, Hua Y, Li X, Arslan IM, Zhang W, Meng G. Distinct types of cell death and the implication in diabetic cardiomyopathy. Front Pharmacol. 2020;11:42.
- Camm AJ, Sabbour H, Schnell O, Summaria F, Verma A. Managing thrombotic risk in patients with diabetes. Cardiovasc Diabetol. 2022;21(1):160.
- Kayama Y, Raaz U, Jagger A, Adam M, Schellinger IN, Sakamoto M, et al. Diabetic cardiovascular disease induced by oxidative stress. Int J of Mol Sci. 2015;16(10):25234–63.

- Taskinen M-R. Diabetic dyslipidemia. Atherosclerosis Supp. 2002;3(1):47–51.
- Dokken BB. The pathophysiology of cardiovascular disease and diabetes: beyond blood pressure and lipids. Diabetes Spectr. 2008:21(3):160–5.
- 11. Lontchi-Yimagou E, Sobngwi E, Matsha TE, Kengne AP. Diabetes mellitus and inflammation. Current Diab Rep. 2013;13(3):435–44.
- Ghalibaf AM, Soflaei SS, Ferns GA, Saberi-Karimian M, Ghayour-Mobarhan M. Association between dietary copper and cardiovascular disease: a narrative review. J Trace Elem Med Biol. 2023;80:127255.
- Selvaraju V, Joshi M, Suresh S, Sanchez JA, Maulik N, Maulik G. Diabetes, oxidative stress, molecular mechanism, and cardiovascular disease–an overview. Toxicol Mech Method. 2012;22(5):330–5.
- 14. Domingueti CP, Dusse LMSA, das Graças Carvalh M, de Sousa LP, Gomes KB, Fernandes AP. Diabetes mellitus: the linkage between oxidative stress, inflammation, hypercoagulability and vascular complications. J Diabetes Complications. 2016;30(4):738–45.
- Resnick HE, Howard BV. Diabetes and cardiovascular disease. Annu Rev Med. 2002;53(1):245–67.
- Berkaya SK, Uysal AK, Gunal ES, Ergin S, Gunal S, Gulmezoglu MB. A survey on ECG analysis. Biomed Signal Process Control. 2018;43:216–35.
- Meek S, Morris F. ABC of clinical electrocardiography. Introduction. I-Leads, rate, rhythm, and cardiac axis. BMJ. 2002;324(7334):415–8.
- Krittayaphong R, Muenkaew M, Chiewvit P, Ratanasit N, Kaolawanich Y, Phrommintikul A. Electrocardiographic predictors of cardiovascular events in patients at high cardiovascular risk: a multicenter study. J Geriatr Cardiol. 2019:16(8):630–8.
- Saffar Soflaei S, Ebrahimi M, Rahimi HR, Moodi Ghalibaf A, Jafari M, Alimi H, et al. A large population-based study on the prevalence of electrocardiographic abnormalities: a result of Mashhad stroke and heart atherosclerotic disorder cohort study. Ann Noninvasive Electrocardiol. 2023;28:e13086.
- Channer K, Morris F. ABC of clinical electrocardiography: myocardial ischaemia. BMJ. 2002;324(7344):1023–6.
- 21. Hanna EB, Glancy DL. ST-segment depression and T-wave inversion: classification, differential diagnosis, and caveats. Cleve Clin J Med. 2011;78(6):404.
- Migliore F, Zorzi A, Michieli P, Perazzolo Marra M, Siciliano M, Rigato I, et al. Prevalence of cardiomyopathy in Italian asymptomatic children with electrocardiographic T-wave inversion at preparticipation screening. Circulation. 2012;125(3):529–38.
- Surawicz B, Lasseter KC. Electrocardiogram in pericarditis. Am J of Cardiol. 1970;26(5):471–4.
- Ghayour-Mobarhan M, Moohebati M, Esmaily H, Ebrahimi M, Parizadeh SM, Heidari-Bakavoli AR, et al. Mashhad stroke and heart atherosclerotic disorder (MASHAD) study: design, baseline characteristics and 10-year cardiovascular risk estimation. Int J Public Health. 2015;60(5):561–72.
- James PA, Oparil S, Carter BL, Cushman WC, Dennison-Himmelfarb C, Handler J, et al. 2014 evidence-based guideline for the management of high blood pressure in adults: report from the panel members appointed to the Eighth Joint National Committee (JNC 8). JAMA. 2014;311(5):507–20.
- Catamo E, Tornese G, Concas MP, Gasparini P, Robino A. Differences in taste and smell perception between type 2 diabetes mellitus patients and healthy controls. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2021;31(1):193–200.
- Hong SH, Noh E, Kim J, Hwang SY, Kim JA, Lee YB, et al. Fasting plasma glucose variability and gastric cancer risk in individuals without diabetes mellitus: a nationwide population-based cohort study. Clin Transl Gastroenterol. 2020;11(9):e00221.
- 28. Prineas RJ, Crow RS, Zhang Z-M. The Minnesota code manual of electrocardiographic findings: Springer Science & Business Media. 2009.
- 29. Le Feuvre C, Jacqueminet S, Barthelemy O. Myocardial ischemia: a silent epidemic in type 2 diabetes patients. Future Cardiol. 2011;7(2):183–90.
- 30. Raza JA, Movahed A. Current concepts of cardiovascular diseases in diabetes mellitus. Int J Cardiol. 2003;89(2–3):123–34.
- Conti C, Mehta J. Acute myocardial ischemia: role of atherosclerosis, thrombosis, platelet activation, coronary vasospasm, and altered arachidonic acid metabolism. Circulation. 1987;75(6 Pt 2):V84–95.
- Smit M, Coetzee A, Lochner A. The pathophysiology of myocardial ischemia and perioperative myocardial infarction. J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth. 2020;34(9):2501–12.

- 33. Fisher M. Diabetes and atherogenesis. Heart. 2004;90(3):336-40.
- Vazzana N, Ranalli P, Cuccurullo C, Davì G. Diabetes mellitus and thrombosis. Thromb Res. 2012;129(3):371–7.
- De Vriese AS, Verbeuren TJ, Van de Voorde J, Lameire NH, Vanhoutte PM. Endothelial dysfunction in diabetes. Br J Pharmacol. 2000;130(5):963–74.
- 36. Henning RJ. Type-2 diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular disease. Future Cardiol. 2018;14(6):491–509.
- Goh S-Y, Cooper ME. The role of advanced glycation end products in progression and complications of diabetes. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2008;93(4):1143–52.
- Sousa MM, Du Yan S, Stern D, Saraiva MJ. Interaction of the receptor for advanced glycation end products (RAGE) with transthyretin triggers nuclear transcription factor kB (NF-kB) activation. Lab Invest. 2000;80(7):1101–10.
- Basta G, Schmidt AM, De Caterina R. Advanced glycation end products and vascular inflammation: implications for accelerated atherosclerosis in diabetes. Cardiovasc Res. 2004;63(4):582–92.
- Severino P, D'Amato A, Netti L, Pucci M, Infusino F, Maestrini V, et al. Myocardial ischemia and diabetes mellitus: role of oxidative stress in the connection between cardiac metabolism and coronary blood flow. J Diabetes Res. 2019;2019:9489826.
- 41. Mould SJ, Soliman EZ, Bertoni AG, Bhave PD, Yeboah J, Singleton MJ. Association of T-wave abnormalities with major cardiovascular events in diabetes: the ACCORD trial. Diabetologia. 2021;64(3):504–11.
- Harms PP, Elders P, Rutters F, Lissenberg-Witte BI, Tan HL, Beulens JWJ, et al. Longitudinal association of electrocardiogram abnormalities with major adverse cardiac events in people with Type 2 diabetes: the Hoorn Diabetes Care System cohort. Eur J Prev Cardiol. 2023;30(8):624–33.
- Kale T, Agrawal H, Pandit R, Naheed Z.T-wave inversion in diabetic ketoacidosis with normokalemia in an adolescent. Pediatr Cardiol. 2013;34:1508–10.
- Gerdts E, Gulam-Abbas Z, Lutale J, Thordarson H, Vetvik K. Prevalence and covariates of electrocardiographic left ventricular hypertrophy in diabetic patients in Tanzania: Cardiovascular Topics. Cardiovasc J Afr. 2008;19:8–14.
- 45. Dickinson S, Rogers T, Kasiske B, Bertog S, Tadros G, Malik J, et al. Coronary artery disease in young women and men with long-standing insulindependent diabetes. Angiology. 2008;59(1):9–15.
- Cardoso CR, Leite NC, Salles GF. Factors associated with abnormal T-wave axis and increased QRS-T angle in type 2 diabetes. Acta Diabetol. 2013;50(6):919–25.
- 47. Yu L, Ye X, Yang Z, Yang W, Zhang B. Prevalences and associated factors of electrocardiographic abnormalities in Chinese adults: a cross-sectional study. BMC Cardiovasc Disord. 2020;20(1):414.
- 48 Isaksen JL, Graff C, Ellervik C, Jensen JS, Andersen HU, Rossing P, et al. Type 1 diabetes is associated with T-wave morphology changes. The Thousand & 1 Study. J Electrocardiol. 2018;51(6s):S72–s7.
- Assanelli D, Di Castelnuovo A, Rago L, Badilini F, Vinetti G, Gianfagna F, et al. T-wave axis deviation and left ventricular hypertrophy interaction in diabetes and hypertension. J Electrocardiol. 2013;46(6):487–91.
- Tesfaye B, Alebel A, Gebrie A, Zegeye A, Tesema Leshargie C, Ferede A, et al. Diabetes mellitus and its association with hypertension in Ethiopia: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. 2019;156:107838.
- Sahay BK, Sahay RK. Hypertension in diabetes. J Indian Med Assoc. 2003;101(1):12, 4–5, 44.
- Tramunt B, Smati S, Grandgeorge N, Lenfant F, Arnal JF, Montagner A, et al. Sex differences in metabolic regulation and diabetes susceptibility. Diabetologia. 2020;63(3):453–61.
- 53 Mirzaei M, Rahmaninan M, Mirzaei M, Nadjarzadeh A, Dehghanitafti AA. Epidemiology of diabetes mellitus, pre-diabetes, undiagnosed and uncontrolled diabetes in Central Iran: results from Yazd health study. BMC Public Health. 2020;20(1):166.
- Ciarambino T, Crispino P, Leto G, Mastrolorenzo E, Para O, Giordano M. Influence of gender in diabetes mellitus and its complication. Int J Mol Sci. 2022;23(16):8850.
- Regensteiner JG, Reusch JEB. Sex differences in cardiovascular consequences of hypertension, obesity, and diabetes: JACC focus seminar 4/7.
 J Am Coll Cardiol. 2022;79(15):1492–505.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- $\bullet\,$ thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more biomedcentral.com/submissions

