• Investigation •

Prevalence and risk factors of diabetic retinopathy in patients with type 2 diabetes in Shanghai

Pei Zhang¹, Wen-Wen Xue², Xiao-Bo Huang³, Yi Xu², Li-Na Lu², Kai-Rong Zheng⁴, Hai-Dong Zou^{2,4}

¹Department of Ophthalmology, Shanghai Gonghui Hospital, Shanghai 200041, China

²Department of Ophthalmology, Shanghai Eye Disease Prevention and Treatment Center, Shanghai 200040, China

³Department of Ophthalmology, the Second Affiliated Hospital of Nantong University, Nantong 226000, Jiangsu Province, China

⁴Department of Ophthalmology, Shanghai General Hospital, Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, Shanghai 200080, China

Co-first authors: Pei Zhang and Wen-Wen Xue

Correspondence to: Li-Na Lu. Department of Ophthalmology, Shanghai Eye Disease Prevention and Treatment Center, No.380 Kangding Road, Shanghai 200040, China. lulina1019@163.com; Kai-Rong Zheng. Department of Ophthalmology, Shanghai General Hospital, Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine, Shanghai 200080, China Received: 2020-08-24 Accepted: 2021-02-18

Abstract

AIM: To investigate the prevalence of diabetic retinopathy (DR) in residents of Shanghai and analyze the risk factors of DR.
METHODS: This study involved 7233 patients with diabetes in 2016. The demographic data of the participants were collected using a questionnaire survey. Physical examination, laboratory tests, and ophthalmological examinations were conducted. Two professional ophthalmologists diagnosed and graded DR by fundus examination and then combined the results with fundus images. The unconditional multivariate Logistic regression analysis was used to determine the risk factors.

• **RESULTS:** In total, 6978 patients with type 2 diabetes in Shanghai with a mean age of 68.33±8.40y were recruited, including 2975 males (42.6%) and 4003 females (57.4%). Overall, 1184 patients were diagnosed with DR, with a prevalence rate of 16.97%. Regression analysis showed that duration of diabetes (OR 1.061, 95%Cl 1.049-1.073), high systolic blood pressure (SBP; OR 1.071, 95%Cl 1.037-1.106), increased glycosylated hemoglobin level (OR 1.234, 95%Cl 1.162-1.311), high blood glucose level (OR 1.061, 95%CI 1.023-1.099), increased neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio (NLR; OR 1.132, 95%CI 1.053-1.217) and mean platelet volume (MPV; OR 1.077, 95%CI 1.016-1.142) were risk factors of DR. Conversely, hematocrit (HCT; OR 0.971, 95%CI 0.954-0.988) and mean corpuscular volume (MCV; OR 0.980, 95%CI 0.965-0.994) were protective factors.

• **CONCLUSION:** The prevalence rate of DR in Shanghai is 16.97%. The duration of diabetes, high SBP, increased glycosylated hemoglobin, NLR, and MPV were determined as risk factors of DR.

• **KEYWORDS:** type 2 diabetes; diabetic retinopathy; prevalence; neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio

DOI:10.18240/ijo.2021.07.16

Citation: Zhang P, Xue WW, Huang XB, Xu Y, Lu LN, Zheng KR, Zou HD. Prevalence and risk factors of diabetic retinopathy in patients with type 2 diabetes in Shanghai. *Int J Ophthalmol* 2021;14(7):1066-1072

INTRODUCTION

he incidence and mortality rates of diabetes mellitus (DM) have been increasing in recent decades, especially in low and middle-income countries. According to the World Health Organization, the number of diabetes cases will increase from 171 million in 2000 to 366 million in 2030^[1]. In 2013, among Shanghai residents aged 35 years and above, the overall prevalence rate of diabetes was 17.6%. The prevalence rates were 19.1%, 15.4%, and 16.1% among urban, suburban, and rural residents^[2]. DM is a metabolic disease characterized by chronic hyperglycemia, which can lead to various microvascular complications, mainly manifested as diabetic retinopathy (DR) in the eyes. DR is diagnosed based on clinical manifestations of vascular abnormalities in the retina. Clinically, DR is divided into two stages: nonproliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR) and proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR). NPDR, which represents the early stage of DR, is characterized by retinal pathologies such as microaneurysms, hemorrhages, and hard exudates. PDR, a more advanced stage of DR, is characterized by neovascularization^[3].

Table 1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

	Exclusion criteria	Inclusion criteria		
	Age<35y	Age≥35y		
ire	Unable to cooperate with the examination and q	Able to cooperate with the examination and questionnaire		
abetic ketoacidosis	Experienced acute metabolic complications su and had fundus images that could not be examir	Willing to undergo full physical examination		
abetic k	1 1	Willing to undergo full physical examination Willing to sign an informed consent form		

DR is the leading cause of visual impairment (VI) and blindness in working-age Europeans^[4]. Thus, an increase in the number of patients with DM will lead to an increase in the number of patients with DR, which is estimated to increase to 191 million by 2030^[5]. The study showed that the prevalence rate of DR with type 2 DM was 21.7% in 2015 in Shanghai^[6]. Therefore, early detection and prevention can delay the occurrence of DR and, consequently, reduce blindness caused by DR. The risk factors of DR can be divided into modifiable and non-modifiable factors. Non-modifiable factors include the duration of diabetes, genetic factors, etc. Modifiable factors include blood glucose, blood lipid, blood pressure, and obesity. This study is a part of the Shanghai Cohort Study of Diabetic Eye Disease study (SCODE). SCODE was a communitybased prospective cohort study performed over 3 consecutive years, *i.e.*, from 2016 to 2018. Individuals with diabetes aged \geq 35y were recruited from community health service centers (CHSCs) using stratified random sampling. A total of 7233 adults with diabetes (34.7% enrollment rate, 20 844 eligible) from eight CHSCs in four districts were recruited and participated in the study.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

Ethical Approval This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Shanghai General Hospital, Affiliated to Shanghai Jiao Tong University School of Medicine (No.2013KY023). This study followed the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki; all patients understood the purpose and significance of the study and provided informed consent.

Methods Inclusion and exclusion criteria were shown in Table 1. Type 2 DM was diagnosed according to the definitions of the World Health Organization^[7]. The diagnosis and classification of DR were performed in accordance with international standards^[8]. In case of conflicting diagnoses, the senior ophthalmologist reviewed the diagnoses. After exclusion of ineligible participants, 7233 participants who underwent eye examinations were recruited, but only 6978 of them had complete data.

Data Collection

Questionnaire Before the beginning of the examination, a face-to-face questionnaire survey was conducted for each patient. Each questionnaire included the following aspects: name, age, sex, education level, occupation, income level,

marital status, type of diabetes, course of diabetes (calculated from the date of diagnosis in internal medicine), history of hypertension, other diabetes complications, drug use history, family history (emphasizing the family history of diabetes), history of cataract surgery, history of tobacco and alcohol use, and exercise habits, the realizing of the ocular complications of diabetes.

Physical examination and laboratory tests The patients' height, weight, systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP), waist circumference, abdominal circumference, and heart rate were measured by a trained clinician, and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated.

The laboratory tests included the following examinations: 1) Routing blood examinations: red blood cell (RBC) count, mean corpuscular volume (MCV), hematocrit (HCT), mean RBC hemoglobin (MCH), mean RBC hemoglobin concentration, RBC distribution width (RDW), platelet (PLT) count, mean PLT volume (MPV), PLT distribution width (PDW), PLT-large cell ratio (P-LCR), white blood cell (WBC) count, neutrophil count (N), lymphocyte count (L), lymphocyte percentage (L%), neutrophil percentage (N%), monocytes, eosinophils, and basophils; 2) Renal function tests included blood urea levels, blood creatinine levels, glomerular filtration rate, and serum bilirubin levels; 3) Liver function tests included alkaline phosphatase levels, alanine transaminase levels, aspartate transaminase (AST) levels, total protein, albumin, globulin, C-reactive protein (CRP), fasting blood glucose level (FBG), and glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) level; 4) Lipid profile included triglycerides (TG), total cholesterol (TP), highdensity lipoprotein (HDL), low-density lipoprotein (LDL), serum lipoprotein A, apolipoprotein AI, and apolipoprotein B; 5) Urine analyses included urine creatinine (UCR), urine sugar (GLU), urea (UREA), urine microalbumin (mALB), and urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio.

Fasting venous blood samples were collected from 8:00 to 9:30 a.m. Blood was sampled with the patient in a sitting position after fasting overnight to avoid potential confusion due to time and posture.

Eye examinations Ophthalmologists conducted the following eye examinations: refractive degree using automatic optometry machine (KR-8900, TOPCON, Japan), and the international standardized logMAR chart was used to determine best-

Cable 2 Demographic information Variable		DR (<i>n</i> =1184) No DR (<i>n</i> =5794)		Р	
Age (y)	68.33±8.40	68.10±8.47	$\frac{t/\chi^2 \text{ value}}{0.875}$	0.381	
Gender, n (%)			0.276	0.603	
Male	366 (40.53)	1623 (41.48)			
Female	537 (59.47)	2290 (58.52)			
Waist, cm	87.08±10.0 2	87.06±14.32	0.029	0.977	
BMI, kg/m ²	24.84±3.21	25.06±3.43	-2.016	0.035	
Smoking, n (%)			5.020	0.170	
Smoking daily	118 (9.97)	616 (10.63)			
Smoking irregularly	31 (2.62)	102 (1.76)			
Former smoking	83 (7.01)	451 (7.78)			
Nonsmoking	952 (80.40)	3052 (78.83)			
Alcohol drinking, n (%)			0.971	0.808	
Daily drinking	54 (4.56)	278 (4.80)			
Drinking \geq 3 times/wk	21 (1.78)	84 (1.44)			
Drinking <3 times/wk	117 (9.88)	596 (10.29)			
Nondrinking	992 (83.78)	4836 (83.47)			
Family history, n (%)			0.773	0.379	
Yes	342 (28.89)	1748 (30.17)			
No	842 (71.11)	4046 (69.83)			
Duration of diabetes (y)	14.41±5.82	11.65±5.50	15.567	< 0.001	

DR: Diabetic retinopathy; BMI: Body mass index.

corrected visual acuity. Slit-lamp biomicroscopy (SL130, Zeiss, Germany) was used to examine the eyelids, conjunctivae, cornea, anterior chambers, iris, pupils, and lenses, and a 90-D non-contact lens (90 D, Ocular, US) was used to examine the fundus of the retina. Digital fundus photography without mydriasis (AFC-210, NIDEK, Tokyo, Japan), was used to obtain two 45° digital retinal images centered on the macula and optic disc for each eye. Intraocular pressure and tonometry (NT-530p, Nidek, Tokyo, Japan) were assessed. IOL master (500, Carl Zeiss meditec, Dublin, CA, USA) was used to measure the axial length, anterior chamber depth, corneal thickness, corneal diameter, and lens thickness. Swept-source optical coherence tomography angiography (Triton, TOPCON, Tokyo, Japan) was used to examine the macular retina.

Statistical Analysis All statistical analyses were performed with SAS version 9.4 (SAS Company, USA). Continuous variables were described as mean±standard deviation (SD); skewed distribution as median (lower and upper quartiles), and categorical variables as frequency (percentage). For comparison between the groups, we used Chi-square tests for categorical variables and independent *t*-test for continuous variables; Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test was used for skewed distribution variables. Multivariate Logistic regression analysis was used to analyze the risk factors. A two tailed values of P<0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Baseline Characteristics In this study, more than 7247

patients with type 2 DM were recruited in 2016. Among them, 6978 patients aged 68.33 ± 8.40 had completed data including 2975 males (42.6%) and 4003 females (57.4%). In total, 1184 patients with DR were diagnosed, with a prevalence rate of 16.97%. The proportion of patients with PDR was 0.85% and 4.99% of patients had DR.

Differences of age, sex, smoking and drinking status, and family history between patients with DR and without DR were not significant (P>0.05). The duration of diabetes in patients with DR was significantly higher than that in no DR (P<0.001), as shown in Table 2.

Univariate Analysis of Blood Lipid, Blood Glucose Levels, and Blood Pressure The results of univariate analysis showed that there were significant differences in SBP, HbA1c, and fasting blood glucose levels between patients with DR and no DR (P<0.05; Table 3).

Univariate Analysis of Blood Routine Tests There were significant differences in serum albumin levels, PLT count, MPV, P-LCR, PDW, HCT, RDW, hemoglobin levels, MCV, WBC count, L%, L, neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio (NLR), N%, N, and globulin levels between the DR and no DR groups (*P*<0.05; Table 4).

Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis of Diabetic Retinopathy The duration of diabetes, SBP, HbA1c, NLR, fasting blood glucose level and PLT count had independent effects on DR after adjusting for other factors. Among them, the duration of diabetes, SBP, HbA1c, glucose level, NLR, and

Int J Ophthalmol, Vol. 14, No. 7, Jul.18, 2021 www.ijo.cn Tel: 8629-82245172 8629-82210956 Email: ijopress@163.com

able 3 Comparison of blood lipid, blood glucose levels, and blood pressure mean±SD					
Variable	DR (<i>n</i> =1184)	No DR (<i>n</i> =5794)	t/Z	Р	
SBP, ×10 mm Hg	14.46 ± 2.01	14.10±2.00	5.529	< 0.001	
DBP, ×10 mm Hg	7.91±1.27	$7.90{\pm}1.20$	0.108	0.914	
HbA1c, %	8.00 ± 1.76	$7.10{\pm}1.42$	16.497	< 0.001	
LDL, mmol/L	2.96±1.00	$2.92{\pm}0.95$	1.275	0.203	
HDL, mmol/L	1.34±0.37	$1.34{\pm}0.37$	0.350	0.727	
TG, mmol/L	1.71 ± 1.60	$1.70{\pm}1.33$	0.226	0.822	
FBG, mmol/L	8.56±30.2	7.18 ± 2.28	17.831	< 0.001	
Serum lipoprotein A, median (Q ₁ , Q _u)	8.70 (4.20, 22.00)	8.4 (4.00, 21.5)	0.004	0.997	
Apolipoprotein AI	148.23±28.21	149.21±27.64	-0.958	0.338	
Apolipoprotein B	99.57±27.90	99.02±26.25	0.649	0.519	

DR: Diabetic retinopathy; SBP: Systolic blood pressure; DBP: Diastolic blood pressure; HbA1c: Glycosylated hemoglobin; LDL: Low-density lipoprotein; HDL: High-density lipoprotein; TG: Triglycerides; FBG: Fasting blood glucose; $Q_{\rm h}$, $Q_{\rm u}$: Lower and upper quartiles.

able 4 Comparison of blood and urine routine tests				mean±SD
Variable	DR (<i>n</i> =1184)	No DR (<i>n</i> =5794)	t/Z	Р
Serum albumin, g/L	46.02±3.62	45.68±3.77	-3.029	0.003
Platelet count, $\times 10^{10}/L$	20.13±5.78	19.61±5.80	2.845	0.004
Mean platelet volume, fL	$10.84{\pm}1.98$	10.71±1.16	3.377	0.001
P-LCR, %	31.94±9.47	31.02±9.41	3.450	0.001
Platelet distribution width, fL	13.19±2.39	12.90±2.32	4.024	< 0.001
Hematocrit, %	40.88±4.32	41.23±3.97	2.729	0.006
RBC distribution width, %	40.73±4.15	41.31±4.07	-4.445	< 0.001
RBC, $\times 10^{12}/L$	4.54±0.53	4.54 ± 0.48	-0.030	0.976
Hemoglobin, g/L	136.79±15.45	137.85±14.50	-2.247	0.025
MCV, fL	90.15±5.40	90.97±5.78	4.720	< 0.001
Mean RBC hemoglobin, pg	30.15±2.10	30.40±52.04	-3.732	< 0.001
MCHC, g/L	333.91±16.97	333.77±14.76	0.307	0.759
White blood cell, $\times 10^9/L$	6.51±1.63	6.40±1.77	2.141	0.032
Lymphocyte percentage, %	31.40±7.71	32.64 ± 7.75	4.982	< 0.001
Lymphocyte count, ×10 ⁹ /L	$2.02{\pm}0.70$	2.06 ± 0.64	-2.155	0.031
Neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio	2.15±0.92	2.01±0.83	4.990	< 0.001
Neutrophil percentage, %	61.29±8.54	59.97±8.54	4.852	< 0.001
Neutrophil count, ×10 ⁹ /L	4.03±1.35	3.87±1.26	3.905	< 0.001
GLB, g/L	29.24±4.59	29.07±4.36	1.158	0.247
uCRE, median (Q_1, Q_u)	6520 (4130, 9870)	7060 (4400, 11030)	-3.910	< 0.001
Microalbuminuria, median (Q_1, Q_u)	14.00 (3.50, 52.90)	7.50 (2.50, 26.00)	9.638	< 0.001
ACR, median (Q_1, Q_u)	1.06 (0.43, 3.54)	1.04 (0.44, 3.69)	-0.515	0.606

Table 4 Comparison of blood and urine routine tests

P-LCR: Large percentage of cells in platelets; RBC: Red blood cell; MCV: Mean corpuscular volume; MCHC: Mean corpuscular hemoglobin contentration; GLB: Globulin; uCRE: Urine creatinine; ACR: Urinary trace albumin/ urinary creatinine; Q₁, Q₂: Lower and upper quartiles.

MPV were risk factors of DR. The risk of occurrence increased by 6.1%, 7.1%, 23.4%, 6.1%, 13.2%, and 7.7% for each additional unit, respectively. For each unit increase in HCT and MCV, the risk decreased by 2.9% and 2.0% respectively, as shown in Table 5.

DISCUSSION

The results of this cross-sectional study showed that the

prevalence of DR in patients with diabetes in Shanghai was 16.97%. Due to different races, economic development levels, study designs, and sample populations, the prevalence of DR varies in different countries. In European countries such as Sweden, Denmark and Italy, the prevalence of DR varied from 30% to 40%^[4]. The "Lifeline Rapid Diabetic Retinopathy Screening Program" in China reported that the prevalence of

Prevalence and risk factors of DR

Table 5 Multivariate	I onistic	rograssion	analysis	of DR
Table 5 Multivariate	Lugistic	regression	anarysis	ULDIV

Variable	β	SE	Wald	OR	95% upper	95% lower	P
Disease course	0.059	0.006	102.432	1.061	1.049	1.073	< 0.001
SBP	0.069	0.017	17.320	1.071	1.037	1.106	< 0.001
HbA1c	0.211	0.031	46.443	1.234	1.162	1.311	< 0.001
Blood glucose	0.059	0.018	10.260	1.061	1.023	1.099	0.001
Neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio	0.124	0.037	11.342	1.132	1.053	1.217	0.001
Mean platelet volume	0.074	0.030	6.202	1.077	1.016	1.142	0.013
Hematocrit	-0.030	0.009	11.360	0.971	0.954	0.988	0.001
Mean corpuscular volume	-0.021	0.007	7.644	0.980	0.965	0.994	0.006

DR: Diabetic retinopathy; SBP: Systolic blood pressure; HbA1c: Glycosylated hemoglobin.

DR range from 23.1% to 47.2%^[9]. These studies all targeted hospital population. A Beijing-based study on the recruitment of patients with diabetes in the community was similar to our research population. Literature reports that the DR prevalence of patients with type 2 diabetes in the Beijing community in 2009 was 24.7%^[10]. At the same time, our research in Shanghai 10y ago reported that the prevalence of DR was about 25%^[11]. In recent years (with the combined efforts of Shanghai Chronic Metabolic Disease Management Center and DRDR's eye remote health system^[11] and other modes), the prevalence of DR in Shanghai has decreased. It was lower compared to other cities, meaning patients with diabetes had a significant effect from the education and management of the eye health in Shanghai. Furthermore, Shanghai is located in the southeast of China and belongs to an economically developed southern city. This is consistent with findings that the prevalence of southern China is significantly lower than in the north^[9,12].

In this study, multivariate regression analysis was used to analyze the risk factors of DR. The results showed that prolonged diabetes, increased glycated hemoglobin levels, high fasting blood glucose, and high SBP, were risk factors of DR. This is consistent with the findings from other scholars in the past^[1,10,13-14]. However, no correlation between the prevalence of DR and hyperlipidemia was found. This result is consistent with the multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis and the Singapore-Indian Eye Study report^[15-16].

WBC count, lymphocyte count, and lymphocyte percentage were significantly different between DR and non-DR groups. Multivariate analysis found that NLR was an independent risk factor for DR. In recent years, studies have shown that NLR, a new inflammatory marker has a significant relationship with traditional inflammatory markers. NLR is positively correlated with serum IL-6 and CRP^[17-18]. Compared to neutrophils, NLR is less affected by various physiological and pathological conditions and can reflect the balance between peripheral blood neutrophils and lymphocytes better. NLR is associated to ocular inflammation and vascular diseases, such as DR, age-related macular degeneration, retinal vein occlusion, glaucoma,

and dry eye disease^[19-22]. DR is a pathology of retinal micro vessels caused by diabetes. Some of its pathological processes include inflammation, ischemia, and progressive retinal pigment epithelium cell degeneration. Various systemic and local (vitreous and aqueous) inflammatory factors play important roles in the development of DR^[23-25]. Currently, there are controversies about the link between NLR and DR. Some studies show a correlation between NLR and DR^[26], but some scholars believe that the two are not directly related^[27]. Our study is a large-scale community-based study, and the results are consistent with most recent studies. We believe that DR is related to NLR, and NLR is economically accessible. In a large-scale epidemiological survey, NLR can be used as a monitoring indicator for DR prevalence in patients with diabetes. However, the mechanism of NLR as a marker of inflammatory response in DR is not clear and needs further research.

Platelets are one of the causes of diminished (or no) perfusion in patients with diabetes. The nature of platelets and platelet activation in patients with diabetes has been reported, which is closely related to insulin resistance, hyperglycemia and abnormal blood lipids^[28-29]. Some studies indicate that platelets participate in DR development as microvascular thrombi^[30]. The increased platelet activation plays an important role in the occurrence of abnormal coagulation and thromboembolic events in patients with diabetes^[31]. Our results showed that PLT count, MPV, P-LCR, and platelet distribution width were significantly different between the DR groups. However, further analysis showed that only MPV was an independent risk factor for DR. This is because they were closely related and affect each other. Physiologically, the MPV reflects the average size of platelets in a person's blood sample. Platelets with higher MPV values have more metabolism and enzyme activity than platelets with lower MPV values^[32]. Large platelets are metabolically and enzymatically more active and have the potential to increase thrombosis^[33]. MPV is positively correlated with platelet adhesion and aggregation. At its higher levels, platelet adhesion and aggregation rate are higher and the function is stronger. DR microvascular disease is characterized by thickening of the basement membrane of the capillary. Platelet dysfunction has an important impact on the occurrence of microvascular complications. In recent years, several studies have elucidated the correlation between MPV and DR^[30,34].

Our results showed that the hematocrit, standard deviation of RBC distribution width, hemoglobin measurement, MCV, and MCH were significantly different between the groups. Previous studies suggested that anemia may be an independent risk factor for the occurrence of DR^[35]. Some scholars reported that parameters of RBC were related to the development of DR^[36]. In our study multivariate analysis showed that HCT and MCV were risk factors of DR. MCV referred to the average volume of each red blood cell. MCV is an important indicator in the diagnosis of anemia. The capillary diameter is between 2 and 10 µm, and the average diameter of red blood cells is 75 µm. The deformability of red blood cells allows red blood cells to pass through the small blood vessels in the circulation, in order to ensure the supply and support of micro vessels. In the state of high blood sugar, the degenerative ability of red blood cells is weak^[37], and oxygen cannot be transported through small blood vessels. This leads to an abnormal blood oxygen supply to the retina, and consequently the development of DR.

There are shortcomings in this study. First, the proportion of patients in the proliferative phase in our study was very low, thus no further discussion about the classification of patients with DR occurred. Second, due to the large number of elderly participants, limited information regarding daily medications was recorded. Thus, the situation and impact of medications in this study was poorly studied.

In our study, the prevalence of DR in Shanghai patients with diabetes was 16.7%, slightly lower than other studies. As in previous studies, it was proved that the course of diabetes, HbA1c, FBG, and increased SBP were all risk factors for the incidence of DR. MPV as an indicator of platelet activation; MCV as a parameter of erythrocyte volume is also closely related to the occurrence of DR. However, this study did not find any correlation between blood lipids and DR in patients with diabetes.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank all the participants in the study as well as the departments involved in their recruitment.

Conflicts of Interest: Zhang P, None; Xue WW, None; Huang XB, None; Xu Y, None; Lu LN, None; Zheng KR, None; Zou HD, None.

REFERENCES

- 1 Ting DS, Cheung GC, Wong TY. Diabetic retinopathy: global prevalence, major risk factors, screening practices and public health challenges: a review. *Clin Exp Ophthalmol* 2016;44(4):260-277.
- 2 Ruan Y, Yan QH, Xu JY, Yang QD, Yao HH, Li R, Shi Y. Epidemiology

of diabetes in adults aged 35 and older from Shanghai, China. *Biomed Environ Sci* 2016;29(6):408-416.

- 3 Wang W, Lo ACY. Diabetic retinopathy: pathophysiology and treatments. *Int J Mol Sci* 2018;19(6):E1816.
- 4 Li JQ, Welchowski T, Schmid M, Letow J, Wolpers C, Pascual-Camps I, Holz FG, Finger RP. Prevalence, incidence and future projection of diabetic eye disease in Europe: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Epidemiol* 2020;35(1):11-23.
- 5 Resnikoff S, Pascolini D, Etya'ale D, Kocur I, Pararajasegaram R, Pokharel GP, Mariotti SP. Global data on visual impairment in the year 2002. *Bull World Health Organ* 2004;82(11):844-851.
- 6 Qin F, Jing LM, Jia LL, Lou JQ, Feng Y, Long W, Yang H, Shi R. Retinopathy among Chinese subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus in Shanghai: a community-based follow-up study. *Int J Health Plann Mgmt* 2019;34(3):998-1012.
- 7 WHO (1999) Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications: report of a WHO Consultation. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization.
- 8 Jin P, Peng J, Zou H, Wang W, Fu J, Shen B, Bai X, Xu X, Zhang X. A five-year prospective study of diabetic retinopathy progression in Chinese type 2 diabetes patients with "well-controlled" blood glucose. *PLoS One* 2015;10(4):e0123449.
- 9 Zhang G, Chen H, Chen W, Zhang M. Prevalence and risk factors for diabetic retinopathy in China: a multi-hospital-based cross-sectional study. *Br J Ophthalmol* 2017;101(12):1591-1595.
- 10 Xu J, Wei WB, Yuan MX, Yuan SY, Wan G, Zheng YY, Li YB, Wang S, Xu L, Fu HJ, Zhu LX, Pu XL, Zhang JD, Du XP, Li YL, Ji Y, Gu XN, Li Y, Pan SF, Cui XL, Bai W, Chen YJ, Wang ZM, Zhu QS, Gao Y, Liu DY, Ji YT, Yang Z, Jonas JB. Prevalence and risk factors for diabetic retinopathy: the Beijing Communities Diabetes Study 6. *Retina* 2012;32(2):322-329.
- 11 Jin P, Peng J, Zou H, Wang W, Fu J, Shen B, Bai X, Xu X, Zhang X. The 5-year onset and regression of diabetic retinopathy in Chinese type 2 diabetes patients. *PLoS One* 2014;9(11):e113359.
- Liu L, Wu X, Liu L, Geng J, Yuan Z, Shan Z, Chen L. Prevalence of diabetic retinopathy in mainland China: a meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 2012;7(9):e45264.
- 13 Wang FH, Liang YB, Peng XY, Wang JJ, Zhang F, Wei WB, Sun LP, Friedman DS, Wang NL, Wong TY, Handan Eye Study Group. Risk factors for diabetic retinopathy in a rural Chinese population with type 2 diabetes: the Handan Eye Study. *Acta Ophthalmol* 2011;89(4):e336-e343.
- 14 Hu Y, Teng W, Liu L, Chen K, Liu L, Hua R, Chen J, Zhou Y, Chen L. Prevalence and risk factors of diabetes and diabetic retinopathy in Liaoning Province, China: a population-based cross-sectional study. *PLoS One* 2015;10(3):e0121477.
- 15 Zheng Y, Lamoureux EL, Lavanya R, Wu R, Ikram MK, Wang JJ, Mitchell P, Cheung N, Aung T, Saw SM, Wong TY. Prevalence and risk factors of diabetic retinopathy in migrant Indians in an urbanized

Prevalence and risk factors of DR

society in Asia: the Singapore Indian eye study. *Ophthalmology* 2012;119(10):2119-2124.

- 16 Sasongko MB, Wong TY, Nguyen TT, Kawasaki R, Jenkins A, Shaw J, Wang JJ. Serum apolipoprotein AI and B are stronger biomarkers of diabetic retinopathy than traditional lipids. *Diabetes Care* 2011;34(2): 474-479.
- 17 Okyay GU, Inal S, Oneç K, Er RE, Paşaoğlu O, Paşaoğlu H, Derici U, Erten Y. Neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in evaluation of inflammation in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Ren Fail* 2013;35(1):29-36.
- 18 Kahraman C, Kahraman NK, Aras B, Coşgun S, Gülcan E. The relationship between neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio and albuminuria in type 2 diabetic patients: a pilot study. *Arch Med Sci* 2016;12(3):571-575.
- 19 Hu Y, Cheng Y, Xu X, Yang B, Mei F, Zhou Q, Yan L, Wang J, Wu X. Pretreatment neutrophil-to-lymphocyte ratio predicts prognosis in patients with diabetic macular edema treated with ranibizumab. *BMC Ophthalmol* 2019;19(1):194.
- 20 Sekeryapan B, Uzun F, Buyuktarakci S, Bulut A, Oner V. Neutrophilto-lymphocyte ratio increases in patients with dry eye. *Cornea* 2016;35(7):983-986.
- 21 Zhu DD, Liu X. Neutrophil/lymphocyte ratio and platelet/lymphocyte ratio in branch retinal vein occlusion. *J Ophthalmol* 2019;2019: 6043612.
- 22 Zhang A, Ning L, Han J, Ma Y, Ma Y, Cao W, Sun X, Li S. Neutrophilto-lymphocyte ratio as a potential biomarker of neovascular *Glaucoma*. *Ocul Immunol Inflamm* 2021;29(2):417-424.
- 23 Nowak M, Wielkoszyński T, Marek B, Kos-Kudła B, Swietochowska E, Siemińska L, Karpe J, Kajdaniuk D, Głogowska-Szelag J, Nowak K. Antioxidant potential, paraoxonase 1, ceruloplasmin activity and C-reactive protein concentration in diabetic retinopathy. *Clin Exp Med* 2010;10(3):185-192.
- 24 van Hecke MV, Dekker JM, Nijpels G, Moll AC, Heine RJ, Bouter LM, Polak BC, Stehouwer CD. Inflammation and endothelial dysfunction are associated with retinopathy: the Hoorn Study. *Diabetologia* 2005;48(7):1300-1306.
- 25 Mesquida M, Drawnel F, Fauser S. The role of inflammation in diabetic eye disease. *Semin Immunopathol* 2019;41(4):427-445.
- 26 Liu J, Liu X, Li Y, Quan J, Wei S, An S, Yang R, Liu J. The association of neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio, mean platelet volume, and platelet distribution width with diabetic retinopathy and nephropathy: a meta-

analysis. Biosci Rep 2018;38(3):BSR20180172.

- 27 Ciray H, Aksoy AH, Ulu N, Cizmecioglu A, Gaipov A, Solak Y. Nephropathy, but not angiographically proven retinopathy, is associated with neutrophil to lymphocyte ratio in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes* 2015;123(5):267-271.
- 28 Kim JH, Bae HY, Kim SY. Response: clinical marker of platelet hyperreactivity in diabetes mellitus (diabetes metab j 2013;37:423-8). *Diabetes Metab J* 2014;38(2):160-161.
- 29 Suslova TE, Sitozhevskii AV, Ogurkova ON, Kravchenko ES, Kologrivova IV, Anfinogenova Y, Karpov RS, Karpov RS. Platelet hemostasis in patients with metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes mellitus: cGMP- and NO-dependent mechanisms in the insulinmediated platelet aggregation. *Front Physiol* 2014;5:501.
- 30 Zhong ZL, Han M, Chen S. Risk factors associated with retinal neovascularization of diabetic retinopathy in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Int J Ophthalmol* 2011;4(2):182-185.
- 31 El Haouari M, Rosado JA. Platelet signalling abnormalities in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a review. *Blood Cells Mol Dis* 2008;41(1):119-123.
- 32 Citirik M, Beyazyildiz E, Simsek M, Beyazyildiz O, Haznedaroglu IC. MPV may reflect subcinical platelet activation in diabetic patients with and without diabetic retinopathy. *Eye (Lond)* 2015;29(3):376-379.
- 33 Ji S, Zhang J, Fan X, Wang X, Ning X, Zhang B, Shi H, Yan H. The relationship between mean platelet volume and diabetic retinopathy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetol Metab Syndr* 2019;11:25.
- 34 Luo WJ, Zhang WF. The relationship of blood cell-associated inflammatory indices and diabetic retinopathy: a Meta-analysis and systematic review. *Int J Ophthalmol* 2019;12(2):312-323.
- 35 Magri CJ, Fava S. Red blood cell distribution width and diabetesassociated complications. *Diabetes Metab Syndr* 2014;8(1):13-17.
- 36 Blaslov K, Kruljac I, Mirošević G, Gaćina P, Kolonić SO, Vrkljan M. The prognostic value of red blood cell characteristics on diabetic retinopathy development and progression in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc* 2019;71(4):475-481.
- 37 Agrawal R, Smart T, Nobre-Cardoso J, Richards C, Bhatnagar R, Tufail A, Shima D, H Jones P, Pavesio C. Assessment of red blood cell deformability in type 2 diabetes mellitus and diabetic retinopathy by dual optical tweezers stretching technique. *Sci Rep* 2016;6:15873.