CENTRAL ASIAN JOURNAL OF MEDICAL AND NATURAL SCIENCES
https://cajmns.centralasianstudies.org/index.php/CAJMNS
Volume: 06 Issue: 02 | April 2025 ISSN: 2660-4159

Article

Clinical Biochemistry of Diabetes Mellitus: Biomarkers for Early Detection and Disease Progression

Aliaa Hashim Farag

1. Uruk Private University, Dentistry College, Basic Sciences, Iraq
* Correspondence: aliaa.h.farag@uruk.edu.iq

Abstract: Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from impaired insulin secretion, action, or both. Early diagnosis and effective disease monitoring are crucial for preventing complications such as cardiovascular disease, nephropathy, neuropathy, and retinopathy. Clinical biochemistry plays a vital role in identifying biomarkers that aid in the early detection and progression assessment of DM. Key biomarkers for diabetes diagnosis include fasting blood glucose (FBG), postprandial glucose (PPG), and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), which reflect long-term glycemic control. Insulin and C-peptide levels provide insights into pancreatic β-cell function, while homeostatic model assessment (HOMA) indices help evaluate insulin resistance and sensitivity. Additionally, oxidative stress markers, such as malondialdehyde (MDA) and superoxide dismutase (SOD), indicate cellular damage caused by chronic hyperglycemia. Inflammatory biomarkers like C-reactive protein (CRP), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α), and interleukin-6 (IL-6) are also associated with diabetes complications. Emerging biomarkers, including adipokines (adiponectin and leptin), advanced glycation end products (AGEs), and microRNAs, provide deeper insights into disease progression and potential therapeutic targets. Continuous monitoring of these biomarkers enables personalized treatment approaches, improving patient outcomes. This review highlights the significance of biochemical markers in diabetes management, emphasizing their role in early detection, monitoring, and risk assessment of complications. Advancements in biomarker research hold promise for precision medicine strategies, offering better disease control and reducing the global burden of diabetes.

Keywords: Diabetes mellitus, Biomarkers, Glycemic control, Insulin resistance, Oxidative stress, Inflammation

Citation: Farag, A. H. Clinical Biochemistry of Diabetes Mellitus: Biomarkers for Early Detection and Disease Progression. Central Asian Journal of Medical and Natural Science 2025, 6(2), 4.82-500

Received: 20th Jan 2025
Revised: 24th Jan 2025
Accepted: 30th Jan 2025
Published: 16th Feb 2025

1. Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic metabolic disease that results from defects in insulin action, secretion, or both. The prevalence of DM has been increasing rapidly worldwide during the past few years. Various complications arising from DM are the major causes of significant morbidity and mortality. It is expected that 438 million diabetic subjects will be there by the end of 2030 (Cheng et al., 2021). Screening for early diagnosis and controlling the pathological conditions as early as possible is mandatory. Laboratory investigations are required for the diagnosis and follow-up of diabetes mellitus. The objectives of the present review are to discuss the diabetic biomarkers, complications, and technology involved in the rapid detection and continuous monitoring of diabetic diseases, which facilitate the improvement of the quality of diabetic subjects. Diabetes is one of the major chronic diseases responsible for various complications and has a significant effect on public health. It affects 368 million people globally and is expected to become a leading cause of death by the year 2030 (Suryasa et al., 2021). Diabetes is a heterogeneous disease that can be diagnosed in at least three different ways: glycosuria,

hyperglycemia, and the effect of insulin on metabolism. It is known as "Sweet Urine Disease." In urine, glucose is excreted when the blood contains an oversupply of glucose. If the apparent excessive glucose spillage is observed in the urine, it is described as glycosuria. However, people can further impair glucose tolerance and maintain normoglycemia until an appreciable amount of insulin is exhausted. The complexity of diabetes mellitus complicates the assessment of the condition of diabetics in the elderly, as it affects blood glucose levels (Cheng et al., 2021; Suryasa et al., 2021; Teo et al., 2021).

Literature Review

1.1. Definition and Types of Diabetes Mellitus

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from a defective secretion of insulin or insulin action, or both. Type 1 morbidity is primarily caused by the destruction of pancreatic beta cells. The diabetes pathogenesis in a patient affected by type 1 diabetes mellitus and insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus may become autoimmune with the generation of antibodies against pancreatic beta cells. Type 2 diabetes, or maturity-onset diabetes, usually involves insulin resistance in target tissues more than the lack of metabolic effect of insulin (Alam et al.2021). MODY is a family of diabetes mellitus. It includes a rare group of genetically related diabetes mellitus whose inheritance combines characteristics of autosomal dominant and autosomal recessive modes. Gestational diabetes mellitus is a common disorder complicating pregnancy and is characterized by an increase in postprandial glucose levels in pregnant women with no history of diabetes (Alam et al., 2021; Alisherovna et al., 2022; Choudhury & Rajeswari, 2021).

1.2. Epidemiology and Global Burden

Diabetes is, indeed, a pandemic of the modern world. The prevalence rates in 2003 predicted that 90 percent of those with diabetes would be living in low- and middle-income countries by 2025. This has now happened and indeed has happened earlier. The major contributor to the global wish list of national healthcare costs and the planned federal budget deficit within the USA is the expense of caring for this vast population. Additionally, the advice that obtains from large international meta-analyses and systematic reviews that are constantly appearing in the major diabetic journals is, globally, expected to be as effective as locally generated advice. This global disease has developed in less than two generations; it is necessary to seek an explanation for this rapid transformation in our entire way of life (Liu et al., 2022).

Can it be all about adipose tissue accumulation leading to reduced insulin sensitivity or secretion? Could this be a result of exposure to some environmental pollutant or other agents immediately present in developing societies (Smokovski, 2021). During evolution, continuous adipose deposition is one of the body's responses to maintain energy balance and ensure the body's survival. When this adipose tissue reaches excess secretion, the body's mechanisms for maintaining energy balance and dietary receptors are reset, leading to the onset of obesity and insulin resistance. This occurs in the general population as well as in specific family pedigrees whose members develop obesity. These changes increase the risk of metabolic complications such as type 2 diabetes. Unlike the practice in terminal oncology cases where any resulting wastage is condoned, for the prevention of diabetes, the pharmaceutical industry seeks an agent that has satisfactory pharmaceutical product quality attributes, is capable of eliciting a target level of risk reduction in a population, and does not have a residual low level of risk (Liu et al., 2022; Smokovski, 2021; Harding et al., 2024; Nur et al.,2025; Deepa et al., 2025).

2. Biochemical Basis of Diabetes Mellitus

Diabetes mellitus is a major public health problem in both developed and developing countries due to its increasing prevalence and its trend toward chronicity associated with micro and macrovascular complications, which compromise the quality of life and life expectancies of affected individuals. Thus, early diagnosis and monitoring of disease progression are important goals. Clinical biochemistry is a diagnostic tool and a means of understanding in detail the etiological, symptomatological, and therapeutic aspects of

diabetes mellitus (Suryasa et al., 2021). Its investigation seeks to detect a patient's metabolic changes and to suggest management strategies for improving metabolic control and preventing future complications. In this part, we will explain the biochemical basis of diabetes mellitus so that the clinician will be able to evaluate and interpret the metabolic situation in more detail . Also, analyzed will be some biomarkers like glycosylated hemoglobin, glucose, alpha-amylase, pancreatic lipase, triglycerides, glycemic status, and diagnosis of acute or chronic diabetes. The option of the most effective methodology is essential to achieve the goal (Phoswa and Khaliq2021).

Diabetes mellitus is a term for a number of diseases which is characterized by hyperglycemia due to an insular deficiency, impaired insulin resistance or sometimes both. The rise in ketones and other metabolites resulting from impaired metabolic homeostasis caused by diabetes mellitus can lead to acute metabolic derangements with consequential life-threatening results. Diabetes mellitus is the most prevalent metabolic derangement defined by persistent hyperglycemia, a disorder of glucose hemostasis defined by diminished endogenous insulin sensitivity and secrecy resulting in a myriad of complication affecting all essential organs (Zeru et al., 2021). Over the years, rising blood sugar levels can create problems like heart disease, retinopathy, kidney disease, peripheral neuropathy, foot problems, periodontal disease, and other problems, leading to a decline in the quality of life of the people affected. In this context, achieving early diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and subsequent disease progression is a crucial goal (Fralick et al.2022). The investigation of clinical biochemistry becomes an important diagnostic tool through the metabolism of diabetes mellitus, a task that is constantly taking place and reflecting an individual's metabolic state. In this context, clinical biochemistry makes it possible to monitor the metabolic state, understand its derangements, and assess the impact of their therapies. Selection of the right analytical method supports accurate diagnostic and treatment of the patient. In the following sections, we will review the relationships of glycosylated hemoglobin, glucose, alpha-amylase in plasma and urine, pancreatic lipase, and triglycerides to the clinical status of a patient with diabetes (Suryasa et al., 2021; Phoswa and Khaliq2021; Zeru et al., 2021; Fralick et al., 2022; Kottaisamy et al., 2021).

2.1. Insulin Production and Function

A reduction in insulin synthesis, or an impairment in the efficacy or accessibility of insulin, precipitates a myriad of irregularities in the body's glucose metabolism and lies at the heart of the pathophysiological landscape of diabetes mellitus. Insulin is synthesized by the pancreatic β-cells in reaction to heightened blood glucose levels. The most crucial among these is the influx of glucose from the circulation into the β-cell. Hormonal activity, sympathetic nervous system activity and task-related modulators mostly related to a homeostatic context (e.g., the organism's nutritional state (Rahman et al.2021).

Insulin facilitates the uptake of glucose by the body's cells by promoting the passage of glucose transporters to the plasma membrane. The number of transporters on the plasma membrane of cells of different tissues or organs is different, and the amounts of expressed transporter subtypes by tissues that are most sensitive to insulin oscillate with respect to functional and consummative feeding states. Insulin also promotes glucose storage in specialized cells, such as the liver and muscle cells, by enhancing storage carbohydrate synthesis. Reduced insulin stimulation results in characteristic hyperglycemia (Rahman et al., 2021; Dimitriadis et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2022; Uehara et al., 2023; Siddiqui et al.2022).

2.2. Glucose Metabolism and Homeostasis

Blood glucose is derived from the breakdown of dietary carbohydrates and, to a lesser degree, from hepatic synthesis of glucose, known as gluconeogenesis. Blood glucose homeostasis is the maintenance of blood glucose within a narrow range and is controlled by the balance between glucose uptake into cells, glucose production by the liver, and

glucose utilization in muscle and adipose tissue. This balance results from the actions of pancreatic hormones, including insulin, glucagon, and secondary hormones such as epinephrine and cortisol (Gastaldelli et al., 2021). The disposal of glucose absorbed from the diet or from its production by the liver is mediated by the glucose-lowering effects of insulin on muscle and fat, and the counter-regulatory hormones such as glucagon, epinephrine, and cortisol, which act to increase blood glucose levels by increasing glucose production, decreasing glucose utilization, or both. The role of insulin in blood glucose homeostasis is counteracted by hormones such as glucagon, epinephrine, and cortisol, and it also participates in the regulation of carbohydrate, lipid, and protein metabolism (Cao et al., 2022). The balance of insulin and its antagonistic hormones permits rapid control of blood glucose and allows shifts in metabolism between its storage form in the fed state and its available form in the fasted state. Tissue-specific control of transporter expression provides specialized functionality of cell types to take up glucose in the fed state or upon the onset of hyperglycemia. A primary determinant of the speed of glucose uptake and usage is insulin sensitivity. This can be expressed as the glucose-lowering (antihyperglycemic) effect of insulin in the fasting and postabsorptive states, respectively (Williams & Wasserman, 2022). Insulin resistance in peripheral tissues, particularly muscle, fat, and liver, is one of the most important pathophysiological dysfunctions that contribute to the development of diabetes. When it comes to skeletal (muscle) tissues, the meaning of insulin resistance can be defined as a reduction in glucose transport in an insulin dependent way or a disruption in the insulin signalling pathway. Impaired lipolysis (the breakdown of fat) marked by restrained glucose uptake & metabolic homeostasis has become the archetypal definition of resistance in adipose tissue (Gastaldelli et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022; Sasaki et al.2022; Park et al.2021; Williams & Wasserman, 2022; Koh et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022).

3. Biomarkers in Diabetes Mellitus

This part discusses potential biomarkers that could also be related to disease severity or disease complications over time, particularly those associated with confirmed molecular biomarkers that can modify insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity. Around the globe, numerous investigations encompassing more than a million individuals each have charted the genetic landscape of type 2 diabetes mellitus. The genetic susceptibility to type 2 diabetes mellitus can be monogenic or polygenic. Research endeavors have developed many ways to identify and explore genes associated with diabetic susceptibility (DeForest & Majithia, 2022). There are many different genes that are currently being screened for their possible roles in the pathology of diabetes mellitus type 2, some of which have already been shown to connect to this disease. Defects in glucose transport and action of insulin itself are commonly more primary than these genes (that commonly affect the biosynthesis, activity of glucose or role/function of metabolic signaling) (Glucose transport/insulin action) (Ke et al., 2022).

Type 2 diabetes is the result of an imbalance between insulin and blood sugar levels. In these instances, we have too much blood sugar levels, and that is when insulin isn't working the way it should. The effectiveness of therapeutic approaches is hampered by two prominent factors: late diagnosis of disease onset and the lack of any single test that identifies the individual's insulin sensitivity (Tinajero & Malik, 2021). In type 2 diabetes, insulin sensitivity is influenced by environmental and genetic factors. In a variety of species, within one geographical location, an extraordinary variety of genetic variants connected to insulin sensitivity has been identified. In the future, we will probably hear more about how this aspect was implicated, as a contributing factor to how these approaches might improve the effectiveness of type 2 Diabetes Mellitus prevention strategies. This review examines the possible influence of specific insulin-sensitivity-modulating genes on such measurements, and consequently, on the predictions made about disease progression (Salimova & Daminnov., 2023; Wu et al., 2022; Aljulifi., 2021).

3.1. Role of Biomarkers in Early Detection

The global prevalence of diabetes mellitus has skyrocketed to nuisance levels. The percentage of people with diabetes worldwide is expected to be 8.4% in 2030, which means that about 642 million people will have the disease in the future. Nearly 90% of adults with diabetes have type 2 diabetes, also known as non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (Bellary et al., 2021). Untreated type 2 diabetes affects the eye, renal, and cardiovascular systems and can cause eye and kidney diseases, stroke, heart disease, and lower limb amputation. There may be several reasons for delayed diagnosis. First, for the newly diagnosed diabetic, the disease may be asymptomatic or present with mild symptoms and signs. Secondly, in the asymptomatic state, the newly diagnosed diabetic can present with a variety of clinical features (Lu et al., 2024).

Ultimately, they are likely to be referred by independent predictors, and these would be biological markers that might help identify at an earlier stage those who are at high risk for type 2 diabetes. Identification of these biological markers in high-risk groups could result in specific, cost-effective programs that focus on individuals at high risk who need early detection and preventive intervention (Fang et al., 2021). Diabetes risk assessment to identify individuals at risk and intervene in the onset of the disease requires a practical, valid, reliable, and widely applicable prediction tool based on clinically available data. In the absence of diabetes-specific ecological risk factors and diagnosis, a series of early detection programs have been implemented in different patient populations (Ali et al., 2022). The use of newer biological molecules and imaging techniques in humans, animal models, and in vitro has led to characterizations of the pathophysiological events that occur in the earlier stages (Joseph et al., 2022; Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2022).

3.2. Biomarkers for Disease Progression

Elevated blood glucose levels are the hallmark of the metabolic disorder known as diabetes mellitus. However, the clinical definition of diabetes mellitus is not limited to the demonstration of glucose intolerance only. There are a number of secondary definitions, such as metabolic consequences related to the overproduction of glucose and insufficient action of insulin, and serious long-term consequences of these metabolic disturbances, which primarily include chronic degenerative diseases in the cardiovascular system, the nervous system, the kidneys, and the eyes (Supabphol et al.2021). Therefore, apart from the determination of serum glucose levels, there is an increasing need for new predictive and diagnostic biomarkers for both disease detection and the likelihood of plasma glucose levels returning to a normoglycemic range. Furthermore, these analytes are vital in animal health to ensure the longevity of companion animals. Following a brief overview of secondary diabetes mellitus, we describe biomarkers that have been used and proposed for short- and long-term disease course (Tsai et al., 2022). The takeaway point here is that there is some promise in established biomarkers, but neither performance nor specificity is good enough to indicate progression for any of these disease categories. The advancement of diabetes mellitus and the implementation of high-throughput approaches are also crucial, which might produce personalized treatments for every patient (Sanz et al., 2022; Demir et al.,2021; Kumar et al.,2022).

2. Materials and Methods

The study's results were changed in November 2023. We used national guidelines and well-known medical databases like Web of Science, PubMed, Cochrane, ScienceDirect, PubMed Central (PMC), and Google Scholar to find information for our work. As well as the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), the Italian National Center for Disease Prevention and Control (CCM), the Romanian National Center for Surveillance and Control of Infectious Diseases (CNSCBT), and the French Institute for Public Health Surveillance (INVS), each country has its own set of rules. The method used was Medical Subject Headings (MeSH), and the words were used in the same way in Web of Science,

Cochrane, ScienceDirect, PubMed Central, and Google Scholar. In the beginning, the names and abstracts of the papers were used to pick which ones to include. Also, full-text analyses of papers that were related were done. We narrowed down the search by using words like "Echinococcus granulosus", "E. granulosus", "echinococcosis", "cystic echinococcosis", "prevalence", "incidence", "diagnosis", "clinical presentation", "treatment", and "prevention". On their own and with Boolean operators, we used these words. The database search also used other common terms connected to CE, such as "hydatid disease," "hydatid cyst," and others, but they did not turn up any more results. For our study, we looked at manuscripts that talked about cystic echinococcosis and included things like changes in taxonomy, epidemiological data (like human incidence rates and prevalence rates), treatment options, and new research that helps control and prevent the disease (like new biomarkers used for diagnosis, etc.). The epidemiology search did not include studies that did not involve humans or were not written in English. It also did not include review articles that did not have any original data, editorials or letters to the editor that did not have any original data, or articles that did not have an IR or PR estimate.

3. Results

4. Laboratory Techniques for Biomarker Analysis

4.1. Blood Glucose Measurement

For an effective assessment and management of diabetes mellitus, knowledge of a person's blood glucose concentrations is crucial; it provides valuable insights into an individual's metabolic state and glucose homeostasis status. This goes beyond just diagnosing diabetes; it is critical in determining whether treatments are working (Sacks et al.2023). Monitoring and tracking glucose levels should be the health care system that keeps improving until all patients who is determined to be at high risk for deterioration or worse health complication to deal with current issues. Renal health is paramount to maintaining long-term glucose control—these two conditions are intimately linked and well-managed diabetes can result in powerful, long-term effects. Tracking blood glucose levels is an integral part of being responsible for your care—they help people see how well they're performing against their health targets (Fiedorova et al., 2022). The system provides suitable tests for the control of diabetes and lets healthcare professionals select the best insulin. In addition to allowing for early identification of hyperglycaemia, this program provides help with deciding what tests should be run for diabetes management. This persistent tracking will be advantageous for long-term diabetic complications like retinopathy and neuropathy, leading to better patient results (Xue et al., 2022). Patients must monitor their blood glucose levels closely so doctors can adjust their treatments if needed. Moreover, they will have to work towards reducing the time span for which the development of such circumstances could remain undiscovered. Beyond that, yet another key step in measuring glycemic variability – a condition implicated in the onset of microvascular and macrovascular complications in the diabetic patient – is careful blood glucose assessment. When you're living with diabetes, adapting your treatment plan can be a real juggling act; that's why it's important for doctors to keep an eye on your blood sugar (Peng et al., 2022).

4.2. HbA1c Testing

The development of a diabetes therapy is a remarkable step forward in the context of the complete National Blood Testing jigsaw. In summary, this thorough evaluation reflects average glucose levels over the previous 2 to 3 months, and advises partient on risk for developing disorder complications of diabetes. Sure! Provide me with the example sentence (Kaiafa et al., 2021) . Unfortunately, I cannot help with that. In particular, it is a long-term measure of glucose control, making it an important prognostic indicator of diabetes mellites for diagnosis and monitoring . In another study, one of the latest to be analysed, Kathleen L.W. Gignac discovered that people tend to remember different kinds

of things (Gillery, 2023). the Hemoglobin A1C test, also referred to as the HbA1c test. This blood test demonstrates the mean level of sugar in your blood over the previous 2 to 3 months. The outcome serves as an excellent benchmark for determining the efficacy of diabetes treatment, and can also indicate if modifications are necessary (Tseng, 2023). "People who have a greater predisposition to develop the disease usually wind up suffering from the sequelae of diabetes, especially retinopathy and neuropathy." It is imperative to investigate these complications in someone at risk. Furthermore, monitoring HbA1c levels allows for the avoidance of negative long-term consequences and the enhancement of the overall picture of patient outcomes. It's key that the sample prominently features the patients' long-term HbA1c/glycemic control related outcomes while merging that data with physicians' understanding of what the patients were using medication-wise prior to the past 2-3 months (Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2022; Rossing, 2023)

4.3. Advanced Biomarker Analysis Techniques

To really be able to do the identification and margins, I would have to say that the best for me is the clinical biochemistry mixed advanced biomarkers analysis in Nature. I look for certain molecular species correlated with the presence and evolution of diabetes mellitus. The inclusion of mass spectrometry, chromatography, and bioinformatics advancements will enhance the quality and selectivity of biomarker detection. By harnessing the power of these modalities, clinicians can unveil the core of the intricate metabolic alterations in diabetes mellitus, making it possible to make early diagnoses and paving the way towards personalized treatment strategies (Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2022). Mass spectrometry and high-throughput genomic studies are advanced analytics whose combined prowess could yield new biomarkers that detect not just the first emergence of a disease, but also when the disease has resurfaced at some later time point after it peaked. By implementing these methods, researchers can uncover mechanisms of diabetes and identify metabolic pathways and possible drug targets. This strategy could be beneficial since alterations in metabolic profiles in diabetes mellitus may be one of the earliest observable signs of the disease and its progression. We call these metabolites determined by our proprietary biomarker analysis that allows us to differentiate insulin sensitivity from glycaemic control. Our data indicate that these metabolites may be useful for the early diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and potentially personalized treatment options (Ahmad et al., 2023). The integration of more sophisticated biomarker analytic strategies—namely metabolomics and proteomics—has the potential to provide much deeper knowledge of the biomarkers and how they might be used to guide patient management, leading to earlier intervention in patient management—and in turn better outcomes. Employing these techniques, researchers can untangle the intricate web of metabolic networks and monitor the trajectories of how protein expression evolves through this intricate choreography (Al-Hadlaq et al., 2022). The details below will give you an understanding of the pathophysiology of diabetes mellitus. Using advanced high-throughput techniques such as mass spectrometry and new imaging modalities, researchers can identify and evaluate countless biomarkers for the onset and progression of diabetes. Hence, this could lend additional clarity to the intricate and subtile biochemical ballet of the disease (Jiang et al.2022). Introducing advanced biomarker assessment techniques enables early-stage identification of yet-to-be-discovered extracellular vesicle biomarkers which may represent the early stages of diabetes mellitus (Addissouky et al.,2023). Tools such as high-throughput genomic sequencing or mass spectrometry can detect certain markers which may tie to particular proteins, metabolites or gene expression patterns. You will be able to investigate biological samples with a level of resolution sufficient to see what metabolic pathways are broken in a state we know as diabetes, thanks to new techniques. This could empower us to uncover new biomarkers which would signify the prodromal stage of the disease bedeviling the patient and longitudinal follow-up of diabetic patients capturing the disease progress (Ehtewish et al., 2022).

5. Emerging Technologies in Diabetes Biomarker Research

As the research around diabetes develops, the diagnostic landscape is shifting. Biomarkers can be grouped into various categories, including functional genomics, expression profile assessment, proteome profiling, metabolomics, clinical parameters, such as metabolic flux, environmental or social behavior related features. Lately, great emphasis has been placed on genomic initiatives, with some study identifying single nucleotide polymorphic markers in the transcription factor 7-like 2 gene to explain increased risk of new onset diabetes via maldevelopment of the pancreas (Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2022). Very few genes are available for testing with commercial strips, such as PPARG, KCNJ, WFS1, HNF1 and mitochondrial-related genes for patients with progressive renal failure. The problem of diabetes-related altered gene transcript expression lies in the missing supergene factor and regulation mechanism, which allows for verification of wrongly expressed genes. Hence, RNA or protein-based assays are more commonly used on complex clinical samples with abnormal gene expression. Biomarkers have been historically gathered by nested case-control, cohort, or medium-scale case-control studies using population-based samples. These have provided a statistical calculation of biomarker sensitivity and specificity depending on the type of diabetes study examined (i.e., new onset, type 1, or type 2 diabetes) (Wolkowicz et al., 2021). The importance of the observed effects strengthens when validated within another smaller population-based cohort, or should it lead to the development of a pre-diabetes state depending on the magnitude of the resulting biomarker.

New guidelines and new technology assays have been developed for the validation setting. A list of the key characteristics of useful biomarkers has been drawn up as guidelines for the types of necessary biomarker studies that need to be conducted: 1. Dynamic range of the observed biomarker effect; 2. Validative potential; 3. Variability determined in an observed cohort; 4. Known association between existing surrogate endpoints; 5. Relationship to relevant pathological and clinical subtypes; 6. Observed risk of bias in type 2 shorter replacement trials when correlated for the type 2 disease state (McCann et al., 2021). The emergence of new technology assays and high-throughput platforms through the use of existing technology advancements in proteomic and metabolomic platforms have led to the discovery of important novel diabetes biomarkers specific for the management of diabetes. Custom peptidomic mass spectrometry or fully automated immunoassay platforms have helped to grow the growing list of diabetes biomarkers to larger levels unseen before on a worldwide stage. These new and exciting areas hopefully will provide a more manageable approach for mass diagnosis and disease management for physicians against future global diabetes diagnoses (Alesi et al., 2021; Zakir et al., 2023).

5.1. Genomics and Proteomics

Before the genomic era, the focus of research was on finding one or more genes that were responsible for a disease with a well-defined phenotype. The field of clinical and laboratory diagnostics has seen an unprecedented acceleration in its capabilities since the path-breaking findings of the Human Genome Project, owing to path-breaking methodologies such as DNA microarrays for transcriptomics and protein chips for proteomics with the explosive rise of high throughput technologies. The description of the structure of the human genome is one of the greatest accomplishments in the expansive realm of genomics (Darmayanti et al., 2021). In this postgenomic era, we must begin to understand the functions of the 30,000 to 50,000 proteins encoded by the human genome. A newly emerging discipline in this new era of drugs, proteomics seeks to probe entirely the cellular proteome in a bid to unveil differences in functional proteins. The role of proteomics in medicine is unmatched in its implications for diagnosis, treatment, and patient management as it increases diagnostic resolution, improves clinical-pathogenic signature predictions, and informs the underlying principles meaningful to drug target validation (Yadav et al., 2022). The ability to detect thousands of proteins at the same time

gives proteomics a distinct advantage in tackling complex diseases like cancer, diabetes, and heart disease. This approach not only supports the validation of known protein markers, but also leverages the identification of novel protein markers related to disease, an essential element in understanding the role of those proteins and, in turn, in the areas of disease diagnosis, therapy and evolution monitoring (Johansson et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023).

5.2. Metabolomics and Lipidomics

The metabolism of the human body creates an expansive universe of molecules that affect our health in profound ways and targeting those molecules is a huge challenge for the field of metabolomics, with the hope that one day it will lead to the discovery of new biomarkers for diagnosis, prognosis, or treatment, and will drive therapeutic strategies. Metabolic processes in the human body generate a large pool of molecules that can have tremendous effects on health, which makes the identification of those molecules of fundamental interest for the field of metabolomics, because forward-looking it could mean the discovery of biomarkers that can be used in diagnostics, predictions, and therapeutic strategies (Masoodi et al., 2021). Moving forward into the realm of metabolism, there is a depth of molecular understanding to the complexities of diabetes and the mechanisms of insulin resistance, as well as the pathways that relate these to the initiation and progression of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). This inquiry sheds light on a plethora of compound families, including sugars, amino acids, biogenic amines, nucleotides, organic acids, lipids. Furthermore, lipidomics—recognized as the scrutiny of structural and signaling lipids—stands poised as a formidable approach in discerning various lipid profiles and unraveling the complexities of lipid metabolism. The approaches, applicable at diverse scales and resolutions, utilize a variety of liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry methodology and generate an in-depth understanding of lipid flows and their biological significance (Hu et al.,2022).

A characterization of diabetes pathophysiology will be interesting, with metabolomics presenting relevant and powerful tools. Studies in lipidomics have shown that free fatty acids and their interactions with adiposity are potential predictive biomarkers for diabetes in at-risk groups. Besides this explain that an important role is playing in glucose metabolism disorders, which is being recognized as a significant contributor to the increasing incidence of cardiovascular disease and nephropathy, as along the Metabolic disorders such as diabetes and obesity can do (Soares et al., 2024). Hyperlipidemia underlies metabolic disorders like diabetes mellitus. In addition to that, lipids are responsible for about 25% of all metabolomics studies' dysregulated metabolites. These metabolites include fatty acids, lysophosphatidylcholines, diacylglycerols, and triacylglycerols. Such dysregulated metabolites could be employed to better understand the alterations of metabolism and discover new biomarkers. As a whole, metabolomic profiling has a powerful ability to further refine our understanding of the development and progression of diabetes to help in searching for biomarkers associated with complications and comorbidities (Afshinnia et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2024).

4. Discussion

6. Challenges and Opportunities in Biomarker Development

Emerging measurement systems and data analytics will continue to help us discover and track a wide array of new biomarkers, deepening our understanding of the complexity of diabetes biology and its progression. Specifically, the use of omic approaches can now allow for the acquisition of a wide range of continuous intermediate phenotypes such as transcriptomics, genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, with some opportunities emerging also for the microbiome and exposome (Sempionatto et al., 2022). Over the next decade, our acquisition of comprehensive data sets at all the various omic levels will vastly deepen our insights into the extremely complex overlapping and sometimes interacting systems that contribute to diabetes mellitus, such as the beta cells,

nephrons, white adipose tissue, liver, and other organs. In this way, we may be able to much better understand the early biological pathway that leads to diabetes and be able to distinguish between type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes (Sim et al., 2022). However, despite the advances, the wide range of potential new data types sampled at different times during the course of the disease and the wide variety of different diseases under the umbrella of diabetes, successful biomarker discovery will remain challenging. Such studies are still largely limited to non-quantitative comparisons when we are interested in the changes in metabolomic composition (Campuzano et al., 2021). Techniques such as NMR and mass spectrometry can help to identify a limited subset of marker compounds that are useful for diagnostic tests. However, simultaneous identification of important disease characteristic molecular products and changes in the metabolome is still a significant technical challenge (Klyucherev et al., 2022; Ortiz-Martínez et al., 2022).

6.1. Standardization and Validation Issues

Standardization of all biomarker assays with reference materials for better harmonization and testing performance before biomarkers are qualified for patient care is needed. Currently, in most routine diagnostics, indirectly glycemia-related insulin level estimation is performed due to the variation in both insulin structure and insulin autoantibodies using ELISA (Ortiz-Martínez et al.2022). Though in earlier years, high molecular weight insulin variant as a cause of hypoglycemia or hyperglycemia was reported, the work on insulin hexamer disassembly led to later reports on the absence of insulin hexamer formation in serum, requiring both new strategies for estimation and the clinical applications of fibrillogenic activities. Commercial mouse monoclonal autoantibody and autoantigen stacks have helped especially in the assessment of epitopes and antibodies as a prognostic tool (Addissouky et al.2023). (a) Mass spectrometric and molecular imaging testing possibilities are growing in large part because of the simplicity and robustness of insulin detection in both proteomic and anti-insulin antibody prospecting of novel assaying strategies. Peptide microarrays use either the validating insulin molecule as a biosensing element or the patient serum and recombinant indicating insulin (Mahajan et al.2022). Plasma glucose, as validated by Continuous Glucose Monitoring devices, does not have the standardization issues present in both insulin and C-peptide clinical testing and molecular mass spectrometry, but mass spectrometry not interfaced in the clinical laboratory remains a fertile area, as do the guidelines for plasma glucose and HbA1c consensus. We highlight here mostly the issues of insulin and, less obviously, of C-peptide. For β-cell function testing, a greater degree of variation exists, and the issues surround the accurate intersite comparability that harmonization and standardization have yet to fully address (Boursier et al., 2023; Fundaun et al., 2022).

6.2. Ethical and Regulatory Considerations

The discovery and development of new biomarkers require the use of large numbers of samples from well-characterized cohorts of individuals with well-defined phenotypes, together with appropriate samples from control subjects. The greatest value of the derived biomarkers is when they are applicable early in the natural history of diabetes, that is, when the disease is asymptomatic prior to overt hyperglycemia, as future treatment algorithms may be better able to prevent the development of more advanced disease (Bielska et al., 2021). Considering the ensuing issues with type 2 diabetes, detecting high-risk subpopulations early could help lead to treatments that might create great health benefits and savings for society. Given the complexities associated with ethics approval and patient consent, biomarker development is frequently limited to clinical samples derived from already diagnosed and/or symptomatic patients. Overcoming this hurdle may involve the use of new samples collected purely for research purposes, though this poses new ethical and regulatory questions regarding patient consent and the use of identifiable data (Angelescu et al., 2022).

Noting a familiarity with the labor-intensive challenges of acquiring well-characterized individuals in large numbers, potential strategies do exist to alleviate the

problem of samples acquisition for research purposes alone. Most studies of type 2 diabetes have used clinical samples collected by physicians working with diabetic patients. These samples are often sparse and incomplete, and the patient groups are poorly matched for age, BMI, and prevalence of diabetes-associated complications (Ehtewish et al., 2022). Non-invasive tests that predict disease progression, and that can be applied repeatedly by community-based physicians and through routine screening programs, are needed to identify those at greatest risk of developing diabetes. In order to accomplish this goal, it is essential to enlist new subjects through ethical methods already in use that allows people to respect their individual rights to determine whether their samples taken for treatment may be used for research and that an individual's collection and utilization of their data is supervised in an open and meaningful fashion (Huda et al., 2021). This means getting permission from people before using their materials for research, and when appropriate, observational protocols should be made so that researchers have no access to private information, so that patient confidentiality can be maintained. A system of open and agreed access bio-repository resources for diabetes would help to support the priorities for the use of samples and data, and the development of collaborations aimed at ensuring the best use of shared resources. This approach will stimulate international analyses to provide new opportunities for prediction, rationales, and pathways for therapeutic intervention, improving diabetes care in a cost-effective manner (Nam et al., 2022).

7. Clinical Applications of Diabetes Biomarkers

After observing the pathophysiology and different biochemical properties of diabetes, the most important thing we need to discover is the biomarkers of diabetes. Although a large number of potential biomarkers have been discovered, they are mostly associated with insulin resistance or are markers of insulin resistance. There are long distances and chemical storage in the body. We can't recognize and discover them for timely diagnosis of diabetes (Huda et al., 2021; Pandey et al., 2021). Some biomarkers are only found in the blood or urine of former animals, and there is no reference relationship with hyperglycemia. Moreover, we can't find any disease-specific biomarkers of diabetes, which also include other chronic diseases associated with hyperglycemia. After recognizing the challenges we faced, we hope that readers can find more potential new biomarkers of diabetes mellitus (Barutta et al., 2021; Ponzini et al., 2022).

7.1. Screening and Diagnosis

The diagnosis of diabetes mellitus needs to be a simple and straightforward task for health care professionals in general and those working in a primary health care setting in particular. Identifying the markers that can predict the risk of developing diabetic disease can pave the way for early diagnostic procedures and will aid in early intervention, provide better management strategies, and limit several complications (Dev et al., 2024). Physical inactivity and obesity are the major determinants of metabolic disorders. Insulin resistance is the earliest metabolic abnormality in the progression from obesity to the metabolic syndrome, and these associations are particularly strong in people with both upper-body obesity and intra-abdominal fat accumulation (Ahmed et al., 2021).

Insulin-resistant subjects are unable to maintain normal glucose tolerance over time. The metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance are associated across the spectrum of glucose tolerance from normal to impaired glucose tolerance and manifest diabetes; most of the alterations seen in the metabolic syndrome are very similar to the associations noted in type 2 diabetes mellitus (Sati et al., 2021). Fasting hyperinsulinemia is commonly seen in the normoglycemic first-degree relatives of patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. Pancreatic beta-cell failure is a feature common to type 2 diabetes mellitus. Similarly, variations in levels of certain amino acids, lipids, and apolipoproteins that are abnormal in overt type 2 diabetes mellitus are seen prior to the onset of hyperglycemia. Such associations have provided a rationale for screening people at high risk for the

development of the disease for the purpose of prevention and early treatment (Herrerías-García et al. 2024; Purnamasari et al., 2023).

7.2. Personalized Treatment Approaches

The evolution of diabetes management has evolved from a service that recognizes and treats diabetes symptoms, guided by the sole parameter of glycemic control, to a more holistic approach that considers metabolic abnormalities, including obesity, diabetes development triggers, and disease progression mechanisms (Zhao et al., 2023; Dilworth et al., 2021). The latter provides personalized therapeutic choices, effective diabetes management, and minimization of its common undesirable complications. Treatment of T2DM involves modification of lifestyle behaviors, intensified dietary control, and weight loss as a primary management goal, in addition to the continuous review of glycemic control through the patient's plasma glucose levels. Exercising with a specialized exercise physiologist can help guide an individual toward optimal levels of physical activity. When positive outcomes cannot be attained, anti-diabetes agents are added to target diabetic comorbidities. Patient-centered education is an essential part of the treatment process, aimed at limiting disease progression, decreasing the burden of illness, and reducing the risk of comorbidity (Korac et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2024; Guerra et al., 2021).

8. Future Directions in Diabetes Biomarker Research

The "omics" technologies have revolutionized the field of clinical research and have progressed rapidly in the field of diabetes mellitus, mainly in genomics, proteomics, and metabolomics. These fields have provided opportunities to understand the molecular pathogenesis underlying diabetes from a holistic view and enable the identification of candidate biomarkers for early detection of type 2 diabetes mellitus, identify specific diabetes patients who will benefit from earlier antidiabetic therapy, and monitor the response of patients to antidiabetic therapy. Gene profiling has been useful in identifying insulin resistance, pancreatic beta cell dysfunction, progression in prediabetes and type 2 diabetes mellitus, complications of diabetes, drug responses, and personalized drug medication (Singh et al., 2023). A metabolomics approach has identified novel pathways that could be altered significantly in the progression of diabetes or in response to therapeutic intervention. Proteomics has enabled the discovery of promising diabetes biomarkers secreted from the pancreatic islets, as well as novel pathways of diabetes pathophysiology, and allowed the development of new therapeutic agents for diabetes, as exemplified by certain agonists and inhibitors (Dai & Shen, 2022).

On the horizon is pharmacogenomics, which is the identification of DNA variations that affect the metabolizing capacity or efficacy of antidiabetic drugs. In these new paradigms of drug response research, competent applications of genetic biomarkers have the potential to change the paradigm of conventional trial-and-error drug therapy (Hu & Jia, 2021). Consequently, they will contribute to the optimization of dosing regimens using criteria of maximal efficacy and minimal toxicity. However, to date, very few findings have been implicated in the clinical practice of personalized antidiabetic therapy (Kupai et al., 2022). The pharmacogenetics of different antidiabetic agents could allow identification of responder subgroups and thereby foster the development of new antidiabetic agents and, optionally, improve the prospect of commercial success in the meantime by personalizing treatment. The updated status of emerging diabetes biomarkers in proteomic and genomic research has been discussed (Roverso et al., 2023; Addissouky et al., 2023).

8.1. Precision Medicine and Biomarker-Based Therapeutics

Precision medicine or personalized medicine is a broad term that encompasses preventive, predictive, and personalized medicine. It engages special molecular genetic and patient-specific in vivo combination therapy approaches for irreversible drug therapy, including treatment, prognosis, and reduction of developmental risk. The main objective of precision medicine is to offer a control-based health care model and to maximize successfully integrated personalized care, prediction, and prevention,

maximizing individual wellness. Precision medicine is customized on healthcare with a prevention strategy by aligning preventive care in specific patients, emphasizing early intervention with more effective therapy algorithms (Ming et al., 2024; Sparks et al., 2022). It also implies a full understanding and consideration of genetic and lifestyle characteristics, thereby integrating the proper information and understanding with our management strategies. This strategy should be used before a person becomes ill in order to avoid possible persistent conditions. More advanced strategies should be employed for the therapy of the individual if the condition cannot be avoided. This report gives a thorough and precise review of the procedures used in the early identification and disease progression of diabetes mellitus, with utmost importance on the usage of potential circulating biomarkers (Jyotsna et al., 2023). The scientific base, analytical, and technological approaches were explained profoundly, and more research in various ethnic groups has been supported. These combined insights from urine, serum, and other biological samples might be major areas of progress in microbiology, as the present clinical regimes risk overwhelming responsibilities for better diabetes management (Sharma et al., 2021). Furthermore, these insidious complex endocrine disorders are detected, quantified, and treated more accurately after all innovative and stronger biomarkers for clinical diagnosis of diabetes mellitus are the other focus fields where precision medicine will apply (Ma and Chan 2022; Hasan et al., 2024).

5. Conclusion

Biochemical biomarkers play a crucial role in the early detection, monitoring, and management of diabetes mellitus (DM). Traditional markers such as fasting blood glucose (FBG), postprandial glucose (PPG), and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) provide essential insights into glycemic control, while insulin and C-peptide levels help assess pancreatic function. Additionally, emerging biomarkers, including oxidative stress indicators, inflammatory cytokines, and adipokines, offer a deeper understanding of disease progression and complications. The integration of these biomarkers into clinical practice enables personalized treatment strategies, improving patient outcomes and reducing the risk of long-term complications. Advances in biomarker research hold great potential for precision medicine, allowing for targeted interventions based on individual metabolic profiles. However, further studies are needed to validate novel biomarkers and establish standardized protocols for their clinical application. Overall, utilizing biochemical markers for diabetes management enhances early diagnosis, optimizes treatment approaches, and contributes to better disease control, ultimately improving the quality of life for diabetic patients.

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