Republic of Iraq Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research University of Anbar /College of Science Department Of Chemistry



Association of Vitamin D₃ Receptor Gene and Biochemical Parameters in Iraqi Gestational Diabetic Patients

A Dissertation Submitted to

The Council of the College of Science /University of Anbar in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in

Chemistry

BY

Raya Hatem Yahea Al-Mawla

B.Sc. (University of Anbar, 2003) M.Sc. (University of Anbar, 2008)

Supervised by

Asst. Prof. Dr. Hameed Hussein Ali

Prof. Dr. Wajeeh Younis Al-Ani

2019 A.D

1440 A.H

Dedication

- To the utmost knowledge lighthouse , to our greatest and most honoured.... Prophet Mohammed – may peace and grace from Allah be upon him .

- To the spring that never stops giving , who weaves my happiness with strings from her merciful heart My beloved mother .

- To whom he strives to bless comfort and welfare and never stints what he owns to push me in the success way who taught me to promote life stairs wisely and patiently My dearest father .

- To whose love flows in my veins , and my heart , always remembers them My brothers and my sisters .

- To who leads me through the valley of darkness with light of hope and support My husband .

- To whom I cannot force myself to stop loving My beloved kids .

RAYA

Acknowledgment

In the name of Allah, the most merciful, the most compassionate all praise be to Allah, the lord of the world; and prayers and peace be upon Mohammed his servant and messenger.

First and foremost, I must acknowledge my limitless thanks to Allah, for his favor upon me in accomplishing this thesis. I am totally sure that this work would have never become truth without his guidance.

I am grateful to some people , who worked hard with me from the beginning till the completion of the present research particularly my supervisors Assistant Prof . Dr . Hameed Hussein Ali and Prof . Dr . Wajeeh Younis Al– Ani , who introduced me to the extensive field of research on vitamin D .Thank you for having faith in me , Your combination of enthusiasm and go – ahead spirit together with a scientific mind and long – term experience have helped me through the obstacles on the road , and your door have always been open for immediate response to my questions and concerns .

I wish to express my deepest thanks to Dr . Omar Mohammed Hasan to help me in statistical analysis .

It has been a great experience and I am truly grateful for all those who have helped me get to where I am today.

Summary

Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) is defined as glucose intolerance of variable severity that occurs during pregnancy . Women with GDM represent a heterogeneous group .GDM is characterized by pancreatic β cell function that is insufficient to meet body insulin needs , probably due to autoimmune diseases , insulin resistance or genetic abnormalities .

The prevalence of GDM may range from 1 to 14% of all pregnancies. Diagnosis of GDM is by using a two - hour OGTT with a 75 g dose of glucose .

This study aims to examine concentrations of 25 (OH) vitamin D in Iraqi women with normal pregnancies and pregnancies complicated by GDM , and with two single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP A/G rs # 1544410 and SNP C/T rs # 10735810 in vitamin D receptor (VDR) to the susceptibility to gestational diabetes in the Iraqi women , The second aim of this study is to investigate the association of VDR together with 25-hydroxy vitamin D serum levels, and biochemical parameters (Fasting Blood Glucose, Glycated Hemoglobin, Insulin hormone, Insulin Resistance, Parathyroid Hormone, Insulin Like Growth Factor Hormone, Calcium ion , Phosphorus ion and lipid profile .

This cross-sectional study was carried out at Ramadi Teaching Hospital for gynecology and pediatrics ,office Wahj Al-DNA scientific and Al-Mawla laboratory for media lab during the period from 1st September 2017 to the end of April 2018. It involved 40 cases pregnant with GDM, 30 cases pregnant without GDM and 30 cases with normal vitamin D and non pregnant to represent the control group .

A venous blood samples were collected at morning after fasting for 10-12 hours. The blood samples were divided into two aliquots, 2 ml were transferred into EDTA for HbA1c and DNA extraction, and 3 ml used for laboratory investigation .

The mean of serum vitamin D concentrations was lower in both groups: pregnant with GDM (6.83 ± 3.547 ng/ml) and pregnant without GDM (8.73 ± 4.158 ng/ml) and there was no significant differences between these groups but there was significant differences in concentrations of FBG, HbA1c, insulin hormone, HOMA-IR, lipid profile except of high density lipoprotein cholesterol, parathyroid hormone and calcium ion between normal pregnant and gestational pregenant. There was no significant differences in concentrations in insulin – like growth factor hormone and phosphorus ion .

Vitamin D had a significant negative correlation with HOMA-IR (p < 0.014) in pregnant with GDM

The results showed a relationship between age and GDM (p < 0.001) and also between body mass index and GDM (p < 0.001).

Vitamin D receptor rs (10735810) and rs (1544410) polymorphisms were not associated with Iraqi gestational dibetes mellitus. Homozygous CC and homozygous GG turned out to be as a preventive genotype of gestational diabetes mellitus (OR < 1) while CT ,TT and GA turned out to be related with risk of GDM (OR \geq 1).The allele C and allele G represent as a preventive allele (preventive factor), while the allele T and allele A act as etiological factor.

List of contents

No.	Title	Page No.
	Acknowledgments	Ι
	Summary	II
	List of contents	IV
	List of tables	IV
	List of figures	IX
	List of Abbreviations	IV
	Chapter One: Introduction and Literature Rev	view
	Introduction	1
1.1	Vitamin D	4
1.1.1	Physiology of vitamin D	4
1.1.2	Source of vitamin D	5
1.1.3	Metabolism of vitamin D	6
1.1.4	Assessing vitamin D nutritional status	9
1.1.5	Vitamin D in bone health	10
1.1.6	Non- skeletal roles of vitamin D	11
1.2	The vitamin D receptor	12
1.3	Diabetes mellitus	14
1.4	Classification of diabetes mellitus	16
1.4.1	Type 1 Diabetes mellitus	16
1.4.2	Type 2 Diabetes mellitus	17
1.4.3	Gestational diabetes mellitus	18
1.4.4	Other specific types	19
1.5	Insulin	19
1.6	Insulin resistance	20

1.7	Insulin-like growth factor-1	21
1.8	Parathyroid hormone	22
	Aims of study	24
	Chapter Two : Materials and Methods	
2.1	Materials	25
2.1.1	Equipment	25
2.1.2	Chemical materials and kits	27
2.2	Subjects	28
2.2.1	Patients and controls	28
2.2.2	Collection of blood samples	28
2.3	Methods	29
2.3.1	Calculation of body mass index	29
2.3.2	Laboratory investigations	30
2.3.2.1	Measurement of fasting blood glucose	31
2.3.2.2	Determination of glycated hemoglobin	32
2.3.2.3	Determination of serum total cholesterol	34
2.3.2.4	Determination of serum triglycerides	36
2.3.2.5	Determination of serum high density lipoprotein	38
	cholesterol	
2.3.2.6	Calculation of low density lipoprotein	39
	cholesterol	
2.3.2.7	Calculation of very low density lipoprotein	40
	cholesterol	
2.3.2.8	Determination of serum level 25-OH vitamin D	40
2.3.2.9	Determination of serum level of parathyroid	42
	hormone	
2.3.2.10	Determination of serum level of insulin	43
2.3.2.11	Calculation of insulin resistance	45

F		
2.3.2.12	Determination of insulin-like growth factor	45
2.3.2.13	Determination of serum level of calcium	47
2.3.2.14	Determination of serum level phosphorus	48
2.3.3	Molecular analysis	50
2.3.3.1	DNA extraction	50
2.3.3.2	Determination of DNA concentration and purity	51
2.3.3.2.1	Prepare of the agarose gel	51
2.3.3.2.2	Preparation of samples	51
2.3.3.3	Polymerase chain reaction	52
2.3.3.3.1	Preparation of primers	52
2.3.3.3.1.1	The specific primer rs 10735810 of gene	52
2.3.3.3.1.2	The specific primer rs 1544410 of gene	53
2.3.3.4	Restriction fragment length polymorphism	55
	Chapter Three : Results and discussion	
3.1	Age and body mass index	57
3.2	Glucose index in study groups	59
3.2.1	Fasting blood glucose	59
3.2.2	Glycated hemoglobin	60
3.2.3	Insulin hormone	61
3.2.4	Insulin resistance	62
3.3	Lipid profile	64
3.3.1	Total serum cholesterol	64
3.3.2	Serum triglycerides	65
3.3.3	Serum high density lipoprotein cholesterol	66
3.3.4	Serum low density lipoprotein cholesterol	67
3.3.5	Serum very low density lipoprotein cholesterol	68
3.4	Serum level of parathyroid hormone	69
3.5	Serum level of vitamin D	71

3.6	Serum level of insulin-like growth factor1	72
3.7	Serum level of calcium ion	73
3.8	Serum level of phosphorus ion	75
3.9	Correlation between vitamin D and clinical	77
	biochemistry parameters in pregnant	
3.10	Molecular analyses	79
3.10.1	DNA detect	79
3.10.2	Polymerase chain reaction	80
3.10.2.1	rs 10735810 polymorphism	80
3.10.2.2	rs 1544410 polymorphism	81
3.10.3	Restriction fragment length polymorphism	82
3.10.3.1	rs 10735810 polymorphism	82
3.10.3.2	rs 1544410 polymorphism	87
	Conclusions	93
	Recommendations	93
	References	94

List of Tables

Table	Title	Page No.
2-1	The equipment used in the present study	25
2-2	Chemical material and kits used in the study	27
2-3	The body mass index and weight status	29
2-4	Sequence of primer rs 10735810 of gene	52
2-5	Sequence of primer rs 1544410 of gene	53
2-6	The components of Maxime PCR premix kit	53
2-7	Mixture of the specific interaction for diagnosis	54
	gene	
2-8	The optimum condition of detection rs	55
	10735810, rs 1544410	
2-9	Reaction condition of restriction enzyme rs	56
	10735810	
2-10	Reaction condition of restriction enzyme rs	56
	1544410	
3-1	Correlation of 25-hydroxy vitamin D level with	77
	anthropomorphic and biochemical parameters of	
	study groups	
3-2	Genotype of rs 10735810 polymorphism	84
3-3	Allele frequency of rs 10735810	86
	polymorphism	
3-4	Genotype of rs 1544410 polymorphism	90
3-5	Allele frequency of rs 1544410 polymorphism	91

List of Figures

Figure	Title	Page No.
1-1	Structures of vitamin D ₂ and vitamin D ₃	5
1-2	Synthesis and metabolism of vitamin D from	7
	photoproduction or dietary intake of vitamin	
	D_2, D_3	
1-3	Proposed health implications of vitamin D	12
	deficiency from infancy to seniority	
1-4	Location of the vitamin D receptor gene located	13
	on chromosome 12	
2-1	The clover A1c analyzer	34
2-2	Reflotron analyzer	39
2-3	Cobas e 411	41
2-4	Standard curve of insulin	44
2-5	Standard curve of insulin like growth factor 1	47
3-1	Mean age for GDM ,normal pregnant and	57
	control	
3-2	The mean value of BMI for GDM ,normal	58
	pregnant and control	
3-3	Mean of FBG in GDM and normal pregnant	59
	compared with control	
3-4	Mean of HbA1c in GDM, normal pregnant and	60
	control	
	Mean of Insulin hormone in GDM, normal	61
3-5	pregnant and control	

3-6	Mean of HOMA IR in GDM, normal pregnant	63
	and control	
3-7	The mean of serum total cholesterol in GDM,	64
57	normal pregnant and control	
2.9		65
3-8	Mean of serum triglycerides in GDM, normal	65
	pregnant and control	
3-9	Mean of serum HDL-C in GDM, normal	66
	pregnant and control	
3-10	The mean of serum LDL-C in GDM compared	67
	with normal pregnant and control	
3-11	Mean of serum VLDL-C in GDM, normal	68
	pregnant and control	
3-12	Mean of serum PTH in GDM, normal pregnant	70
	and control	
3-13	Mean of serum vitamin D in GDM compared	71
	with normal pregnant and control	
3-14	Mean of serum IGF-1 in GDM , normal	72
	pregnant and control	
3-15	Mean of serum Calcium in GDM, normal	74
	pregnant and control	
3-16	Mean of serum phosphorus in GDM, normal	75
	pregnant and control	
3-17	Gel electrophoresis of genomic DNA extraction	79
	from blood	
3-18	PCR product of the VDR gene rs 10735810 at	80
	the band size 270 bp	
3-19	PCR product of the VDR gene rs 1544410 at	81
	the band size 820 bp	

3-20	Electrophoresis pattern of PCR product digested	82
	with rs 10735810 restriction enzyme	
3-21	Electrophoresis pattern of PCR product digested	88
	with rs 1544410 restriction enzyme	

List of Abbreviations

BMI	Body Mass Index
bp	Base pair
Ca ⁺²	Calcium Ion
CI	Confidence Intervalse
DBP	Vitamin D Binding Protein
DM	Diabetes Mellitus
DNA	Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid
EDTA	Ethylene Di amine Tetra Acetic Acid
ELISA	Enzyme Linked Immuno Sorbent Assay
FBG	Fasting Blood Glucose
GDM	Gestational Diabetes Mellitus
HbA1c	Glycated Hemoglobin
HDL	High Density Lipoprotein
HOMA-IR	Home Ostatic Model Assessment Insulin Hormone
IGF	Insulin- Like Growth Factor
IR	Insulin Resistance
IU	International Unit
LDL	Low Density Lipoprotein
LSD	Least Significant Difference
OGTT	Oral Glucose Tolerance Test
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
)PO ₄) ⁻²	Phosphorus Ion
PTH	Parathyroid Hormone
P value	Probability value
RFLP	Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism

RXR	Retinoid X Receptor
VDR	Vitamin D Receptor
VLDL	Very Low Density Lipoprotein

Chapter One

Introduction and Literature Review

Introduction

Vitamin D is a fat soluble steroid hormone precursor that is mainly produced in the skin by exposure to sunlight, Vitamin D is biologically inert and must undergo two successive hydroxylations in the liver and kidney to become biologically active 1,25 –dihydroxyvitamin D ⁽¹⁾. The two most important forms of vitamin D are vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) and vitamin D_2 (ergocalciferol). In contrast to vitamin D_3 , the human body can not produce vitamin D_2 which is taken up with fortified food or given by supplements $^{(2)}$. In human plasma vitamin D₃ and D₂ are bound to the vitamin D binding protein and transported to the liver where both are hydroxlated to form 25-hydoxyvitamin D, It is commonly agreed that 25-hydroxyvitamin D is the metabolite to determine the overall vitamin D status as it is the major storage form of vitamin D in the human body ⁽³⁾. This primary circulation form of vitamin D is biologically inactive with levels approximately 1000 -fold greater than the circulating 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D, The half- life of circulating vitamin D (25-OH) is 2-3 weeks, Most of the vitamin D (25-OH) measurable in serum , is vitamin D_3 (25-OH) whereas vitamin D_2 (25-OH) reaches measurable levels only in patients taking vitamin D_2 supplements.⁽⁴⁾ Vitamin D_2 is considered to be less effective .⁽⁵⁾ Vitamin D is essential for bone health, In children ,severe deficiency leads to bone –malformation, known as rickets, Milder degrees of insufficiency are believed to cause reduced efficiency in the utilization of dietary⁽⁶⁾.

Vitamin D deficiency causes muscle weakness, In elderly the risk of falling has been attributed to the effect of vitamin D on muscle function⁽⁷⁾.

Vitamin D has been shown to affect the expression of over 200 different genes. Insufficiency has been linked to diabetes ⁽⁸⁾, different forms of cancer ,cardiovascular disease , autoimmune diseases and innate immunity⁽²⁾.

Relationship between the vitamin D receptor (VDR) gene and diabetes has been noted in several population. The VDR is encoded by a gene located in chromosome 12q12 and several polymorphisms have been described for the VDR gene.⁽⁹⁾ In addition, the VDR is present in pancreatic β -cells .Thus ,1,25(OH)₂D₃ may play an important role in insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity in diabetes by either increasing the intracellular calcium concentration in the β -cell to induce insulin secretion or by increasing the conversion of proinsulin to insulin ⁽¹⁰⁾.

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a major challenge for global puplic health, and it comprises a heterogeneous etiology of diseases characterized by elevated blood glucose. ⁽¹¹⁾Three main types of DM are recognized :

Type 1 DM is caused by autoimmune destruction of insulin – producing pancreatic β cells ,culminating insulinopenia with resultant hyperglycemia .It is diagnosed during infancy and requiring exogenous insulin for survival ⁽¹²⁾.

Type 2 DM is a complex disorder characterized by imbalance between insulin resistance and insulin secretion that induce liver glucose output by preventing glycogen formation and stimulating glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis⁽¹³⁾.

Gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) usually reveals itself in the latter half of pregnancy and it is identified by carbohydrate intolerance of variable severity ⁽¹⁴⁾. Hyperglycemia develops during pregnancy because of the secretion of placental hormones , which causes insulin resistance⁽¹⁵⁾.

2

Risk factors for GDM include :glucoseurea, age over 30 years , obesity, family history of diabetes, past history of GDM and previous macrosomic child⁽¹⁶⁾. Vitamin D deficiency may play a role in the pathogenesis of GDM⁽¹⁷⁾.

Other specific types of diabetes are caused by specific genetic defect of β cell function or insulin action , the pancreas disease and drug or chemical induced diabetes mellitus ⁽¹⁸⁾.

1.1 Vitamin D

1.1.1 Physiology of vitamin D

Vitamin D is actually a hormone, not technically a vitamin, Vitamin is defined as a substance that is not made by the body but supplied in the diet to maintain life processes ⁽¹⁹⁾. The body itself has the ability to produce vitamin D, when UV radiation (wave length 290 – 315 nm) reaches perfect 7-dehydrocholesterol in the skin ⁽²⁰⁾.

A latitude, season, sunscreen , aging and skin pigmentation influence the production of vitamin D_3 by the skin⁽²¹⁾.

Vitamin D represents a group of fat soluble compounds . It has a 27 carbon secosteroid whose molecular structure is like that of classic steroid hormones including cortisol , estradiol and aldosterone ⁽²²⁾. Two main forms of vitamin D are vitamin D₂ (ergocalciferol) and vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) ^(23,24). These have unlike side chains : vitamin D₂ has a methyl group at C₂₄ as well as a double bond between C₂₂ and C₂₃ while vitamin D₃ has a single bond between C₂₂ and C₂₃ , and hasn't methyl group at C₂₄ ⁽²⁴⁾. These structures are shown in figure 1.1.

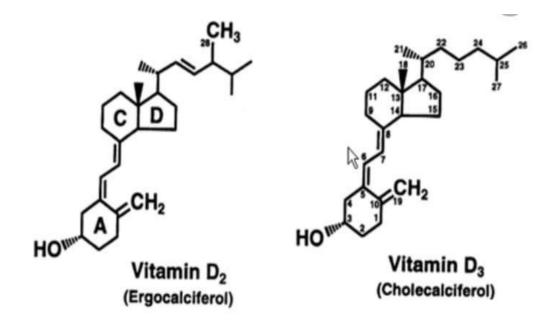


Figure 1.1: Structures of vitamin D_2 and vitamin D_3 ⁽²⁴⁾.

1.1.2 Source of vitamin D

The primary source of vitamin D is the skinny synthesis of vitamin D through sunlight exposure , specially ultraviolet radiation $(290 - 315 \text{nm})^{(25)}$. In addition to endogenous production of vitamin D , humans can obtain vitamin D from the food $^{(26)}$. Plants and fungi produce vitamin D₂ , while vitamin D₃ is synthesized by animals (such as liver, fish, egg yolk)⁽²⁷⁾. Small amounts of vitamin D₃ are found in butter, cream. Human and cows` milk is poor sources of vitamin D₃. In many parts of the world , fluid and dried milk is supplemented with vitamin D⁽²⁸⁾. Vitamin D has been given by intramuscular injection or by oral ⁽²⁹⁾.

A UK trial examined the use of oral vitamin D_3 100000 IU every four months for five years in retired male doctors, there was a reduction in fractures at any specific site ⁽³⁰⁾. Most studies proved that vitamin D_2 is less effective than vitamin $D^{(31,32)}$. Vitamin D_2 and vitamin D_3 supplementation were evenly effective in maintaining serum 25 (OH) D levels ⁽³³⁾. Generally vitamin D_3 used for nutritional and clinical purpose ⁽³⁴⁾.

1.1.3 Metabolism of vitamin D

Vitamin D endocrine system plays an important role in regulation of bone remodeling and mineral homeostasis ⁽³⁵⁾. Also it has important role in physiological processes , vitamin D endocrine system participates in pathological processes including autoimmune disorders , cardiovascular disease and diabetes mellitus ^(36,37).

During exposure to sunlight, 7-dehydrocholesterol is present in the epidermis and dermis absorbs UV photons. ⁽³⁸⁾ The absorbed energy rises the double bonds to rearrange causing a break in the bond between 9 and 10 carbons leading to formation of pre-vitamin D_3 ^(38,39).

Pre-vitamin D_3 exists in two forms cis , cis and cis , trans. The cis , trans pre-vitamin D_3 form is the most stable. But it cannot convert to vitamin D_3 . So , in an organic solvent , it takes approximately 24 hours for converting 50% of pre-vitamin D_3 to vitamin $D_3^{(40)}$.

Vitamin D , whether endogenously synthesized or ingested , should undergo two hydroxylations in the body before it becomes an active hormone. Once vitamin D is transported in circulation by binding to the vitamin D binding protein DBP and troubles to the liver, it is hydroxylated by the cytochrome P450 enzyme to 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25(OH)D) which is also known calcidiol ^(41,42). The half-life of 25-OH D is 20-30 days. ^(43,44) 25-hydroxyvitamin D is the major circulating form of vitamin D in the body ^(41,42). 25(OH)D then transported to the kidney where it is hydroxylated by the enzyme 25-hydroxy vitamin D 1-alpha-hydroxylase (25(OH)D-1 α OH ase) to produce the active form of vitamin D metabolite , 1,25dihydroxyvitamin D well known calcitriol ⁽⁴⁵⁾. The half-life of it is only a few hours ⁽⁴³⁾.

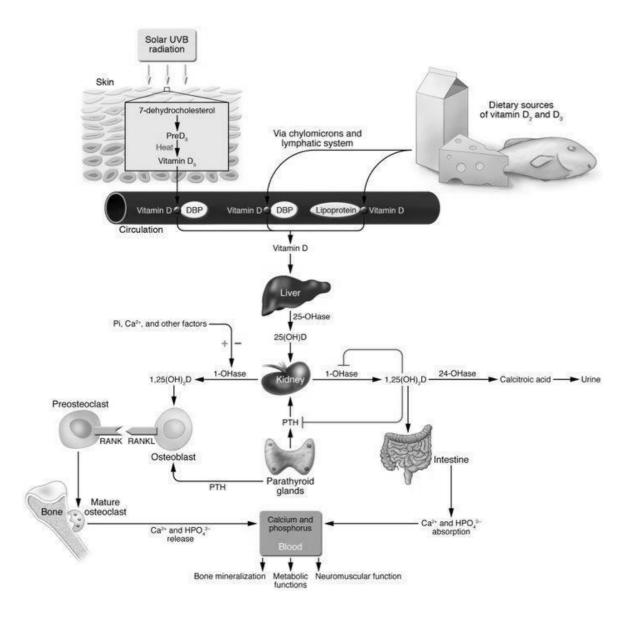


Figure 1.2: Biosynthesis and metabolism of vitamin D from photoproduction or dietary intake of vitamin D_2 , D_3 ⁽⁴⁶⁾.

The renal production of $1,25(OH)_2$ D is regulated by parathyroid hormone (PTH), calcium, phosphorus and 1,25 (OH)₂ D itself ⁽⁴⁷⁾. When blood calcium levels are insufficient , increase level of PTH signals an increase of calcitriol synthesis which increases intestinal absorption of calcium. ⁽⁴⁸⁾ When phosphate levels are high , this stimulates the production of fibroblast growth factor-23 (FGF-23) in the bone , which inhibits synthesis of calcitriol in the kidney ⁽⁴⁹⁾ , when 1,25 (OH)₂ D level is sufficient , this induces the catabolic enzyme 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D-24-hydroxylase in the kidney ^(41,50).

For years, calcitriol appeared to be central to every thing regarding vitamin D , common 25(OH)D was regarded an inactive precursor , and all neglected in patient with chronic renal failure , the realization that many non-renal tissues have 25(OH)D-1-hydroxylase has provided a mechanistic basis of clinical epidemiologic findings which show that 25(OH)D concentration is normally more relevant to health and disease prevention than are calcitriol concentration.⁽⁵¹⁾ Circulating 25(OH)D serves as the substrate for paracrine and autocrine control systems in many body tissues , most of these are related to calcium homeostasis.⁽⁵²⁾

The index disease for vitamin D is rickets in children and osteomalacia in adults with long term, mild deficiency. Osteoporosis is regarded as the consequence of too little vitamin D⁽⁵³⁾. As support for this, mild degrees of vitamin D insufficient increased bone turnover markers, and increased fracture risk ^(51,53). Essentially all clinical research into vitamin D supplementation has focused on early childhood and the elderly.

The consequences of vitamin D nutritional status on musculoskeletal health in the skeleton of early adolescence are unclear,

8

little is known about how to treat the situation, This case is of particular relevance because of the growing recognition that serum 25(OH)D concentration is low in children and adolescents.⁽⁵⁴⁾

1.1.4 Assessing of vitamin D nutritional status

Plasma or serum 25(OH)D is considered to be the best measure of vitamin D nutritional status, it is the major form of vitamin D in the body and it is reflective of both dietary intake and cutaneous synthesis.⁽⁵⁵⁾ As a result of its stability when bound to DBP , as well , renal production of 1,25(OH)₂D is tightly regulated. ⁽⁵⁶⁾ And 1,25(OH)₂D level is often normal or even slightly elevated in the presence of 25(OH)D insufficiency. There has been some controversy over whether the measurement of 25(OH)D is adequate for making dietary recommendations which gives disagreement regarding the optimal serum level for this metabolite, and also It gives significant variability in the assays measuring serum 25(OH)D. (57,58) Although other potential functional markers of vitamin D status have been suggested including PTH, bone mineral density and calcium absorption $^{(59,60)}$, a systematic review of these existing markers confirmed that circulating 25(OH)D was a robust and reliable marker of vitamin D status.⁽⁶¹⁾

The sufficient of vitamin D defined as 25(OH)D level > 20 ng/ml upon evidence related to bone health , on the other hand , the endocrine society guidelines define vitamin D insufficiency as 25(OH)D level of 21-29 ng/ml ^(41,62).

1.1.5 Vitamin D in bone health

Numerous studies have indicated a relationship between vitamin D and bone health .Vitamin D like calcium , has long been regarded as a fundamental part of the prevention and treatment of osteoporosis.⁽⁶³⁾ Findings from observational studies showed inconsistent associations between bone mineral density and vitamin D status⁽⁶⁴⁾, and debate continues regarding optimum concentrations of 25-hydroxyvitamin D for the best possible skeletal health ⁽⁶⁵⁾.

Calcitriol increases levels of ionized calcium in blood by binding to the VDR. In the intestine , the Calcitriol-VDR complex acts as a transcription factor for the expression of transport proteins involved in calcium absorption ⁽⁶⁶⁾, and an increase in intestinal absorption of calcium results. In the kidney , Calcitriol increases renal tubular reabsorption of calcium , and in bone , Calcitriol indirectly stimulates osteoclast action to increase calcium release into blood. Calcitriol also acts directly on the parathyroid gland to decrease parathyroid hormone (PTH) production and indirectly decrease PTH by increasing serum calcium concentration ⁽⁴⁶⁾.

Vitamin D is primarily responsible for regulating absorption of calcium and phosphorus from the intestine. Low levels of vitamin D result in only 10 to 15% of dietary calcium and a low level of dietary phosphorus being absorbed. When vitamin D levels are sufficient, 30 to 40% of dietary calcium and a higher level of phosphorus are absorbed ^(67,2). Low levels of vitamin D result in insufficient calcium absorption to maintain calcium homeostasis , and low serum calcium stimulates PTH release , PTH increases serum calcium by acting on bone to increase calcium release , acting on the kidney to increase renal

tubular calcium reabsorption , and increasing formation of Calcitriol.⁽⁴⁶⁾ In infants and adolescents , these bone stores of calcium occasionally cannot be released quickly enough to meet the demand during periods of rapid growth , and this may result in hypocalcemic seizures or tetany ^(68,69). In school-aged children , chronic mobilization of calcium from bone is usually sufficient to maintain normal serum calcium , but demineralization and subsequent deformity of the bone can result in rickets ⁽⁶⁹⁾. Bone breakdown is also the reason that low vitamin D in pregnancy and in children may impair the attainment of peak bone mass in children ⁽⁷⁰⁾. The same process in adults may result in bone pain , proximal muscle weakness , osteomalacia , osteoporosis , and increase risk of fractures ^(71,72).

1.1.6 Non - skeletal roles of vitamin D

The presence of vitamin D receptor in a wide variety of nonskeletal organs and tissue suggests that vitamin D likely plays a role in many physiological processes. A role for vitamin D has been implicated in cardiovascular health ⁽²³⁾, autoimmune disease ⁽⁷³⁾, neurological development ⁽⁷⁴⁾, cancer ⁽⁷⁵⁾, and immune function. ⁽⁷⁶⁾ In addition vitamin D levels have been associated with dermatologic disease ⁽⁷⁷⁾, preeclampsia ⁽⁷⁸⁾, mental health , specifically schizophrenia⁽⁷⁹⁾ and obesity ⁽⁸⁰⁾. The mechanisms by which vitamin D exerts its non-skeletal effects are manifold. Calcitriol directly or indirectly controls more than 200 genes. It is involved in regulation of cellular differentiation , proliferation and angiogenesis , apoptosis.⁽⁸¹⁾ It inhibits renin synthesis ⁽⁸²⁾ increase myocardial contractility ⁽⁸³⁾ and is involved in insulin production ⁽⁸⁴⁾. It also acts as an immunemodulator, as it dampens systemic inflammatory responses through functional vitamin D receptors present on all major immune cell. ⁽⁸⁵⁾ As shown in figure 1.3.

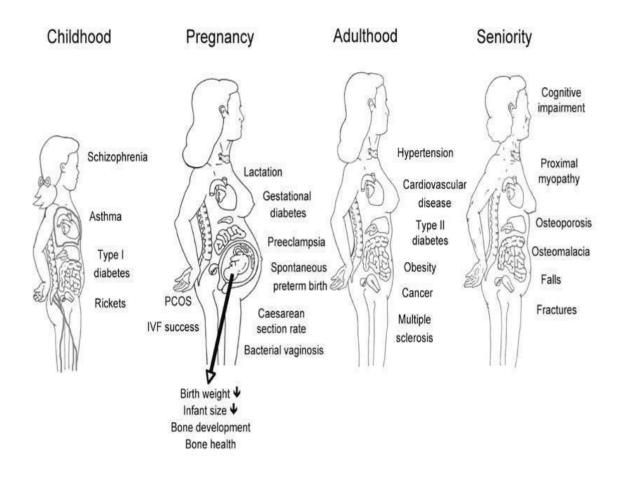


Figure 1.3: Proposed health implications of vitamin D deficiency from infancy to seniority ⁽⁷⁹⁾

1.2 The vitamin D receptor

VDR is a member of the steroid / thyroid hormone receptor family $^{(86)}$ that binds calcitriol and acts as a transcription factor during gene expression $^{(87)}$, after the VDR is bound to calcitriol, the complex dimerizes with the retinoid x receptor (RXR).The Calcitriol – VDR –

RXR heterodimer translocates into the nucleus and binds to vitamin D responsive elements in the promoter regions of vitamin D responsive genes, inducing their expression ⁽⁷⁶⁾, VDR has been identified in most of body's tissues including pancreatic islets, myocardium ^(88,89), placenta, brain, gonads, lung, prostate, skin, breast, small intestine, colon, immune system. ^(90,91,92)

The presence of the VDR in this wide variety of tissue types suggests that vitamin D's role in physiology is more multifaceted than previously recognized.

The function of this nuclear receptor is influenced by the presence of several genetic polymorphism. ^(93,94) The VDR gene, located on chromosome 12q12-q14, includes eight protein coding exons (exons 2-9) and one un translated exon ^(95,96), over 200 polymorphisms have been discovered in the VDR gene in different individuals. ^(97,98)

The most commonly investigated VDR polymorphisms are Fokl (rs10735810) located in exon 2 of VDR , Bsml (rs 1544410) and Apal (rs 7975232) , located in intron 8 , and Taql (rs 731236) located in exon 9 of VDR. $^{(95)}$

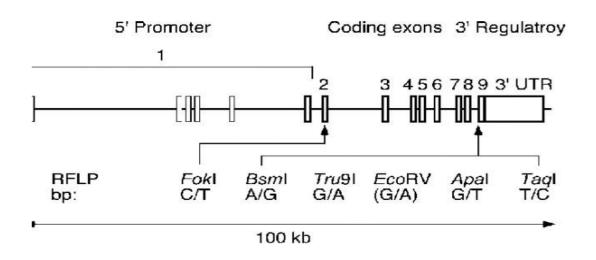


Figure 1.4: Location of the vitamin D receptor gene located on chromosome 12.⁽⁹⁵⁾

Genetic alterations of the VDR gene may lead to defects in gene activation or changes in the protein structure of the VDR, both of which could affect the cellular functions of vitamin D.⁽⁹⁹⁾

VDR genetic mutations can confer susceptibility to bone demineralization , particularly in the context of other risk factors such as age , suboptimal calcium intake , and physical inactivity. ^(100,101,102) Genetic mutations in the VDR have also been associated with increased risk of developing cancers ^(103,104,105). There is a study proved that the rs 1544410 polymorphism may be a risk factor for susceptibility to type 1 diabetes mellitus in the East Asian population , and the rs10735810 polymorphism is associated with an increased risk of type 1 diabetes mellitus in the west Asian population. ⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ The role of VDR polymorphisms in the pathogenesis of type 1 diabetes mellitus was not clear , large number of studies has investigated the association between the aforementioned SNPs and the risk of T1 DM , but the results were inconsistent ^(95,107-114).

1.3 Diabetes mellitus (DM)

Diabetes mellitus is a metabolic disorder, which is characterized by high blood sugar (glucose) levels due to insulin deficiency. People who suffer from diabetes can't produce energy from sugar in a sufficient way. Insulin plays a crucial role in this disease. Insulin is a hormone produced by the pancreas. This hormone regulates carbohydrates and fat metabolism.

Glycated hemoglobin (Hb A1c) can be measured in the blood to find out the amount of sugar in the blood ⁽¹¹⁵⁾.

General symptoms of marked hyperglycemia include weight loss , polydipsia , polyphagia , and polyuria are more frequent in type 1 than type 2 DM.⁽¹¹⁶⁾ Diabetes prevalence is estimated to rise in all age groups , the ratio continues to increase with the increase in the number of individuals with diabetes ⁽¹¹⁷⁾.

The prevalence is similar in men and women throughout most age ranges but is slightly greater in men > 60 years. Diabetes increased markedly with a prevalence rate 25.3 per 1000 persons in the 30-49 age group, further increases in the rates are seen after age 50, with a prevalence rate of 143.8 per 1000 persons ⁽¹¹⁸⁾.

Diabetes is likely to be underreported as a cause of death simply because diabetes leads to many complications that ultimately cause death⁽¹¹⁹⁾.

The complications of diabetes become one of the major causes of morbidity and mortality in most countries related to increased risk of stroke , cardiovascular disease , autoimmune disease , metabolic disease , obesity , hypertension , nephropathy , neuropathy , retinopathy and skin lesions ⁽¹²⁰⁾.

In a year, more than 231,000 individuals in the united states and more than 3.96 million individuals worldwide die from diabetes and its complications $^{(121)}$.

Numerous cross – sectional studies have reported a significant inverse association between serum vitamin D and the presence of diabetes mellitus.^(122,123) Where Gorham ,et al explained that most case – control studies have also found that patients with type 2 diabetes or impaired glucose tolerance are significantly more likely to have a lower serum vitamin D concentration than those without diabetes⁽¹²⁴⁾. Almost all prospective studies have assessed vitamin D status at baseline and reported a significant inverse association of baseline serum vitamin D with the occurrence of diabetes ^(125,126).

15

1.4 Classification of Diabetes Mellitus

There are numerous types of diabetes mellitus, the world health organization (WHO) and the American Diabetes Association (ADA) classify these types according to the etiology of the disease, and not according to the form of treatment, into : type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) and other specific types of diabetes mellitus ⁽¹²⁷⁾.

1.4.1 Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus

Type 1 DM is a multifactorial disease caused by interactions between many genetic and environmental factors. It is caused by autoimmune destruction of pancreatic β -cells ⁽¹²⁸⁾, and characterized by deficiency of insulin secretion and ketosis-prone hyperglycemia ⁽¹²⁹⁾.

It is diagnosed during infancy requiring exogenous insulin for survival, often the loss of β -cells begins in infancy and continues for several months or years. Diagnosis of the type 1 DM may occur when 80% of the β -cells have been destroyed ⁽¹²⁾, whereas studies suggested that 40-50% of the viability β - cells may be present at the onset of hyperglycemia, and a condition that may be related to the age of the person, body mass and physical activity ^(130,131).

Type 1 DM has the fourth highest hospitalization rate of all chronic disorders diagnosed in infancy after asthma , infancy cancer and epilepsy⁽¹³²⁾.

Type 1 DM usually occurs in childhood or early adulthood and also could occur late in some individuals. The percentage of this type represents about 5 to 10 of all those with diabetes ⁽¹³³⁾.

1.4.2 Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

Type 2 diabetes mellitus accounts for approximately 90 percent of all diabetes cases. It is characterized by hyperglycemia , and thus its diagnosis is determined based on a fasting plasma glucose level or oral glucose tolerance test.^(134,135)

Type 2 diabetes is a progressive disease , where individuals with normal glucose tolerance progress to impaired fasting glucose and impaired glucose tolerance and then to overt type 2 diabetes .Prediabetes encompasses either impaired fasting glucose , impaired glucose tolerance or both , as blood glucose levels are higher than normal but not high enough for a diagnosis of type 2 diabetes ⁽¹³⁶⁾.

The development or diagnosis of type 2 DM occurs in younger adults even during childhood but usually occurs in people after the age of 40 years⁽¹²¹⁾.

Type 2 DM is a multifactorial metabolic disorder which arises from two primary underlying pathophysiological disorders : insulin resistance and pancreatic β -cell dysfunction. Insulin resistance refers to decreased insulin action at the level of the liver , adipose tissue and muscle.⁽¹³⁷⁾ β -cell dysfunction is defined as the suboptimal secretion of Insulin from the β -cells to meet the needs of the body in maintaining glucose homeostasis⁽¹³⁸⁾.

Both insulin resistance and β -cell dysfunction have been shown to predict the development of incident type 2 DM independently of other risk factors for the disease.⁽¹³⁹⁻¹⁴²⁾ In most cases , early in the progression to type 2 DM , insulin resistance is established but glucose tolerance remains normal due to compensatory response from pancreatic β -cells which will increase insulin secretion to maintain

17

glucose homeostasis. However , this compensatory response is impaired and that resulting β -cell dysfunction eventually leads to the elevation of blood glucose concentrations into the diabetes range^(134,135).

1.4.3 Gestational Diabetes Mellitus (GDM)

GDM usually reveals itself in the latter half of pregnancy and it is identified by carbohydrate in tolerance of variable severity.⁽¹⁴⁾ Data from western countries suggest that the prevalence of GDM is increasing , being almost 10% of pregnancies and probably reflecting the global obesity epidemic ⁽¹⁴⁵⁾.

The pathophysiology of GDM is parallel to that of T2DM in many aspects including insulin resistant and relative insulin insufficiency. Women with previous GDM are of increase risk for developing T2DM in their later life⁽¹⁴⁶⁾.

Vitamin D deficiency has reappeared as an important public health problem in developed and developing countries , and vitamin D deficiency during pregnancy becomes increasingly common. In recent studies in the united states , Canada , Australia , Iran , Sweden , and Pakistan , 24 -95.8% of pregnancy women were deficient and 54-100% were insufficient for vitamin D, with a general trend towards increased prevalence of vitamin D deficiency or insufficiency in women with darker skin pigmentation, serum 25(OH)D levels were negatively correlated with fasting glucose and insulin level⁽¹⁷⁾.

Risk factors for GDM include : glucose urea , age over 30 years , obesity , family history of diabetes , past history of GDM and previous macrosomic child.⁽¹⁶⁾ Furthermore , females who have a history of GDM have a 40-60% chance of developing diabetes in the following 10 years. Therefore , changes in lifestyle implemented to normalize blood

glucose during gestation become essential preventive measures against the development of preventive measures against the development of type 2 diabetes ^(147,148).

1.4.4 Other specific types

Other etiologies for specific types are presently less common causes of diabetes mellitus but are those in which the underlying defect or disease process. Such as genetic (genetic defects of β -cell function, genetic defects in insulin action) diseases of the exocrine pancreas (pancreatitis , trauma , pancreatectomy , cystic fibrosis), endocrinopathies (acromegaly, glucagonoma, hyperthyroidism), drug or chemical induce vacor , pentamidine , nicotinic acid , infections (congenital rubella, cytomegalovirus)⁽¹⁴⁹⁾.

1.5 Insulin

Insulin is a polypeptide hormone ⁽¹⁵⁰⁾. which is synthesized in the β cells of the islets of Langerhans in the endocrine pancreas and consists of two dissimilar polypeptide chains, A and B. Insulin is derived from pro-insulin and consists of the A- chain (21 amino acids) and the B. chain (30 amino acids) linked by two inter disulfide bonds.⁾¹⁵¹⁾ Proinsulin is structurally correlated to Insulin –like growth factors which bind weakly to the Insulin receptor and make the cells in the muscle, liver and adipose tissue to assume the glucose from the bloodstream, storing as glycogen inside this tissue.⁽¹⁵²⁾ The end effect of these actions is a reduction in blood glucose level. With regard to protein metabolism, insulin stimulates transfer of amino acids via membranes, stimulates protein synthesis, and inhibits proteolysis. Incorporation of fatty acids from circulating triglyceride into adipose triglyceride and lipid synthesis are stimulated by insulin, Insulin contributes to nucleic acid synthesis by stimulating the formation of ATP, DNA and RNA.⁽¹⁵³⁾

Palomer et al have been found that vitamin D is necessary for normal insulin release in response to glucose (154).

Insulin also affects other body functions like the cognition and vascular and it is considered the most important significant regulator of metabolic equilibrium. When insulin arrived the human brain it improves memory and learning and helps verbal memory in particular.⁽¹⁴³⁾ If the amount of available insulin is insufficient, if cells respond poorly to the effects of insulin (Insulin insensitivity or insulin resistance), and if the Insulin itself is defective, then glucose will not be absorbed properly by the body cells that require it and it will not be stored appropriately in the liver and muscles. The net effect is persistently high levels of blood glucose, low protein synthesis, and other metabolic derangements, such as acidosis.⁽¹⁵⁵⁾

1.6 Insulin Resistance (IR)

IR is a failure in the function of insulin targets cells like fat cells , liver cells and muscle cells to react to the insulin action⁽¹⁵⁶⁾, Also it is referred to as metabolic syndrome which has been postulated to comprise hyper insulinemia , glucose intolerance , low high density lipoprotein, high triglycerides and obesity ⁽¹⁵⁷⁾. Several reasons contribute to the occurrence of insulin resistance and these reasons are involved in the functioning of insulin which can be either at the stage of the binding of insulin to the receptor of after the level of downstream signaling .⁽¹²⁰⁾ These defects are caused by mutations in the insulin receotor gene which may include changes in the receptor number ,structure and function in signaling resulting in insulin resistance.⁽¹⁵⁸⁾ Vitamin D may effect on insulin sensitivity either directly by stimulating the expression of insulin receptor in bone marrow cells , or indirectly via its role in regulating extracellular and intracellular calcium through the membranes of cells.⁽¹⁵⁹⁾ In a study with healthy adults , there was a positive correlation between 25 (OH) D level with insulin sensitivity and a negative effect between vitamin D deficiency on β cell function, even after correction for confounding factors such as body composition⁽⁸⁴⁾.

1.7 Insulin- like growth factor-1 (IGF-1)

IGF-1 is a 70 amino acid single – chain polypeptide with a molecular weight of 7-7.5 kDa.⁽¹⁶⁰⁾ The sequence of amino acids is very similar to that of pro-insulin, The synthesis of IGF-1 is controlled by a number of endogenous (genetic and hormonal) and exogenous (nutrition and physical activity) factors. The peptide is produced by a number of tissues , including adipose tissue ⁽¹⁶¹⁾ , but its main source is the liver , where the dominating regulators of IGF-1 synthesis are insulin ⁽¹⁶²⁾ and growth hormone (GH) ⁽¹⁶³⁾.

Insulin shortage in diabetes mellitus type 1 is characterized by low IGF-1 levels. Further factors are involved in the control of homeostasis of the IGF-1 system, IGF-1 production is significantly stimulated by sex hormones, Serum IGF-1 levels in childhood, similarly as GH levels, are very low and they rise during puberty. Later, the IGF-1 levels decline very slowly.⁽¹⁶⁴⁾ In the osseous tissue, the production of IGF-1 is stimulated by the parathyroid hormone (PTH)⁽¹⁶⁵⁾.

The production of IGF-1 in human osteoblasts is also stimulated by $1,25(OH)_2 D_3$ and calcitonin.⁽¹⁶⁶⁾ Although IGF-1 is linked mainly to its own specific receptors, where it activated, similarly to insulin, insulin

receptors of many tissues , including the adipose tissue, can thus be activated by $IGF^{(167)}$.

Moreover, the distribution of receptors for insulin in the mammalian organism differs somewhat from the distribution of receptors for IGF-1, while the classical target organ of insulin is the liver and adipose tissue, receptors for IGF-1 are not present in these tissue. Conversely, muscular tissue possesses both these types of receptors ⁽¹⁶⁸⁾.

1.8 Parathyroid hormone (PTH)

PTH also called para thormone or parathyrin is a hormone secreted by the chief cells of the parathyroid glands as a polypeptide containing 84 amino acids. PTH half-life is approximately 4 minutes⁽¹⁶⁹⁾, it has a molecular mass of approximately 9500 Da.⁽¹⁷⁰⁾ Data indicate that PTH is also possibly secreted in small amounts from the brain and thymus.⁽¹⁷¹⁾ While PTH acts to increase the concentration of ionic calcium (Ca^{+2}) in the blood , calcitonin , a hormone produced by the para follicular cells of the thyroid gland , PTH essentially acts to increase the concentration of calcium in the blood by acting upon the parathyroid hormone 1 receptor , which is present at high levels in bone and kidney , and parathyroid hormone 2 receptor which is present at high levels in the central nervous system , pancreas, testis and placenta.⁽¹⁷²⁾

PTH increases the activity of 25- hydroxy cholecalciferol-1-ahydroxylase enzyme, which converts 25-hydroxy cholecalciferol, the major circulating form of inactive vitamin D, into 1,25-dihydroxy chole calciferol, the active form of vitamin D^(173,174). PTH levels are related to diabetes ⁽¹⁶¹⁾ and also to depression.⁽¹⁷⁵⁾ A number of previous studies have reported significant associations of low vitamin D and elevated Parathyroid Hormone with increased risk of metabolic syndrome⁽¹⁷⁷⁻¹⁷⁹⁾.

Aims of the study

This study investigates the association of VDR together with 25 (OH) D serum levels, and biochemical parameters (Fasting Blood Glucose, Glycated hemoglobin, Lipid profile, Para Thyroid Hormone, Insulin Hormone, Insulin Resistance, Insulin – like Growth Factor I, Calcium ion, Phosphorus ion)

An association between the level of vitamin D and the risk of pregnancy –related complications remains unclear. The aim of this study is to examine concentrations of 25 (OH) vitamin D in Iraqi women with normal pregnancies and pregnancies complicated by gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) and with two Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNP G / A rs #1544410, SNP C / T rs # 10735810) in vitamin D receptor to the susceptibility to gestational diabetes in the Iraqi women.

Chapter Two Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 : Equipment

The equipment used in the present study are listed in table 2.1 with the producing company and the country .

Equipment	Company	Origin
AURA TM PCR cabinet		Italy
Bio TDB -100 ,Dry blok thermostat built	Biosan	Germany
Centrifuge	Hettich	Germany
Clover A1c	Infopia	Korea
Cobas e 411	Roche	U.S.A
Deep freeze	Sanyo	Japan
Document system	Labnet	U.S.A
Electronic balance	Ohaus	U.S.A
ELISA device washer	Universal	U.S.A
ELISA devise Reader	Universal	U.S.A
Gel electrophoresis	Consort	U.S.A
Incubator	Memmert	Germany
Micropipettes	Gilson	France
Microspin	Lative	Biosan
Microspin 12, High- speed Mini-centrifuge	Biosan	Germany
Microwave oven	White – Westinghouse	U.S.A
Mini –powder supply 300V ,200V		Chain

 Table 2.1 The equipment used in the present study

Multi Gene optim ax Gradient thermal cycler	Labnet	U.S.A
Pipette variable volume 2-20 ml		Germany
Spectrophotometer	Apple PD303	Japan
V -1 plus, personal vortex for tube	Digsystem	Germany
Water bath	Grand	England
Water distiller	GFL	Germany

2.1.2 Chemical materials and kits

The chemical materials and kits used in this study are listed in table **2.2** with the producing company and the country .

 Table 2.2 Chemical material and kits used in the study

Material	Company	Country
25-OH Vitamin D total –Kit	Demeditec	Germany
6 X loading dye	Intron	Korea
Absolute ethanol	Fluka	Switzerland
Agarose powder	Promega	U.S.A
Calcium – kit	Biolabo	France
Cholesterol – kit	Spinreact	Spain
Glucose – kit	Biolabo	France
HbA1c – kit	Human	Germany
HDL- cholesterol – kit	Biosystem	Spain
Insulin – like growth factor 1 – kit	Demeditec	Germany
Insulin hormone – kit	Demeditec	U.S.A
Ladder 100 bp	Kopa	U.S.A
Para thyroid hormone – kit	Demeditec	Germany
Phosphorus – kit	Biolabo	France
Premix PCR	Intron	Korea
Primers (forward and revers of BsmI and Fok1)	Integrated DNA technologies	U.S.A
Quick – 9DNA TM blood mini prep	Zymo	U.S.A
Red safe staining solution	Intron	Korea
Triglyceride – kit	Spinreact	Spain

2.2 Subjects

2.2.1 Patients and controls

The cases samples collected from Iraqi women. This study include three groups:-

- Group I included 40 cases pregnant with gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).

- Group II included 30 cases pregnant without gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM).

- Group III included 30 cases control who had normal vitamin D and non pregnant.

This study covered the period from September, 2017 to April 2018.

The diagnosis of GDM was made on the basis of the recommended criteria by ADA. ⁽¹⁸⁰⁾

2.2.2 Collection of blood samples

From each patient and healthy human (5ml) of blood were obtained by vein puncture using 5ml disposable syringes after 10-12 hours fasting. The blood sample was divided into two aliquots. The first aliquot (2ml) was transferred into EDTA tube for HbA1c determination and then used for DNA extraction. The second aliquot (3ml) of separated serum was used for assays of fasting blood glucose , lipid profile , calcium, phosphorus, insulin hormone, parathyroid hormone, insulinlike growth factor1 and vitamin D.

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Calculation Of Body Mass Index (BMI)

BMI was calculated by dividing a person's weight (kg) by length squared (M^2). The weight was measured by electronic sensitive balance, while the height was measured in meters using standard metric bar⁽¹⁸¹⁾.

BMI = weight (kg) / length² (M) ²

Table 2.3 : The body mass index and weight status (18)	81)
--	-----

$BMI (kg/m^2)$	Wight status
< 18.5	Under weight
18.5 to 24.9	Healthy weight
25.0 to 29.9	Over weight
30.0 to 39.9	Obese
> 40	Highly obese

2.3.2 Laboratory investigation

The following parameters were measured in all patients and controls.

- 1- Fasting blood glucose (FBG).
- 2- Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c).
- 3- Lipid profile.
- 4- 25-OH total vitamin D.
- 5- Para thyroid hormone (PTH).
- 6- Insulin hormone.
- 7- Insulin Resistance (IR).
- 8- Insulin-like Growth Factor1 (IGF1).
- 9- Calcium Ion.
- 10- Phosphorus Ion.

2.3.2.1 Measurement of Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG)

The determination of glucose level in serum is based on enzymatic reaction. ⁽¹⁸²⁾

A. Principle of test

The serum glucose was oxidized by glucose oxidase (GOD) to gluconate with the formation of hydrogen peroxide (H2O2). In the presence of peroxidase (POD), a mixture of phenol and 4-amino antipyrin(4-AA) is oxidized by hydrogen peroxide , to form a red quinoneimine dye proportional to the concentration of glucose in the

Glucose + H₂O + O₂
$$\xrightarrow{\text{GOD}}$$
 Gluconate + H₂O₂
4-AA + phenol $\xrightarrow{\text{H2O2}}$ Quinoneimine + H₂O
POD

B. Procedure

1- Bring reagent consisting of phosphate buffer PH 7.5 ,glucose oxidase, peroxidase , 4-aminoantipyrine and phenol with samples to room temperature .

Tubes	Blank	Sample	Standard
Reagent	1.0 ml	1.0 ml	1.0 ml
Sample	-	10µl	-
Standard	-	-	10 µl

3- Mix and let the tubes stand 5 minutes at 37 °C.

4- Read the absorbance (A) of the sample and the standard at 500nm against the reagent blank.

The concentration of glucose in sample was calculated according to the equation:-

Conc. Of Glucose mg/dl =
$$\frac{A \text{ sample}}{A \text{ standard}} * C_{\text{ standard}}$$

2.3.2.2 Determination of Glycated Hemoglobin (HbA1c)

HbA1c was measured by Clover A1c system

A. Principle of test

The clover A1c system is fully automated boronate affinity assay for the determination of the percentage of hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c%) in whole blood . The clover A1c test cartridge includes a cartridge and reagent pack. "The reagent pack is pre-filled with reagent solution and rinsing solution ". The reagent solution contains agents that lyse erythrocytes and bind hemoglobin as well as boronate resin that bind cisdiols of glycated hemoglobin. A blood sample size of 4μ l is obtained with capillary tip of the reagent pack , the hemoglobin and boronate resin binding the glycated hemoglobin. The blood sample mixture is rotated to the determination zone of the cartridge ,where the amount of total hemoglobin in the blood sample is measured by the reflectance of the photo sensor which consists of light emitting diode (LED) and aphotodiode (PD). The cartridge is then rotated so that the rinsing solution washes out non-glycated hemoglobin from the blood sample, thus the amount of glycated hemoglobin can be photometrically measured.

The ratio of glycated hemoglobin with respect to total hemoglobin is calculated ⁽¹⁸³⁾.

HbA1c % = A × {
$$\frac{\text{HbA1c}}{\text{total hemoglobin}}$$
 × 100} ÷ B

HbA1c and total hemoglobin are values obtained from the clover A1c system and B which are the slope and intercept factor to correct value for the calibration standard of National Glycol hemoglobin Standardization Program (NGSP).

B. Procedures

1- The cover of clover A1c analyzer was opened and inserted a new test cartridge .

2- The reagent pack was mixed 5-6 times before applying sample.

3- 4μ l of sample were taken into the built-in capillary tip on the reagent pack.

4- The reagent pack was put into test cartridge and the lid was closed.

5- The test started automatically when the lid was closed.

6- The measuring time was 5 minutes and the test result would be displayed in % or mmol/ mol.

7- The cartridge was removed after the test was completed.



Figure 2.1: The clover A1c analyzer

2.3.2.3 Determination of serum total cholesterol

Serum total cholesterol was determined by the enzymatic colorimetric method ⁽¹⁸⁴⁾.

A. Principle of test

The method for the measurement of total cholesterol in serum involves the use of three enzymes : cholesterol esterase (CE) , cholesterol Oxidase (CO) and peroxidase (POD) . In the presence of the former , the mixture of phenol and 4- amino anti pyrine (4-AA) are condensed by hydrogen peroxide to form a quinoneimine dye proportional to the concentration of cholesterol in the sample .

B. Procedures

1- Bring reagent consisting of PIPES pH 7.0, Sodium cholate, 4- amino antipyrine and phenol . with samples to room temperature .

Tubes	Blank	Sample	Standard
Reagent	1.0 ml	1.0 ml	1.0 ml
Sample	-	10 µl	-
Standard	-	-	10 µl

2- Pipette into labeled tube :-

- 3- Mix and incubate the tubes 5 minutes at 37° c.
- 4- Read the absorbance (A) of the sample and the standard at 500 nm against the reagent blank .

The concentration of cholesterol in sample calculate according to the equation

Conc. of cholesterol mg/ dl =
$$\frac{A \text{ sample}}{A \text{ standard}} * C_{\text{standard}}$$

2.3.2.4 Determination of Serum Triglycerides (S.TG)

Serum triglyceride was determined by the enzymatic method ⁽¹⁸⁵⁾.

A. Principle of test

The method is based on the enzymatic hydrolysis of serum triglyceride to glycerol and free fatty acids (FFA) by lipoprotein lipase (LPL) . The glycerol is phosphorylated by adenosine triphosphate (ATP) in the present of glycerol kinase (GK) to form glycerol -3 - phosphate (G-3-p) and adenosine diphosphate (ADP) . G-3-p is oxidized by glycerol phosphate oxidase (GPO) to form dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) and hydrogen peroxide .

A red chromogen is produced by the peroxidase (POD) catalyzed coupling of 4-aminoantipyrine (4-AA) and phenol with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , proportional to the concentration of triglyceride in the sample

LPLTriglycerides + 3 H₂O \rightarrow Glycerol + 3 FFA GK Glycerol + ATP \rightarrow Glycerol-3-p + ADP Glycerol -3-P + O₂ \rightarrow DHAP + H₂O₂ 4-AA + 4 phenol \rightarrow H2O2 POD POD Quinoneimine + H₂O

B. Procedures

1- Bring reagent consisting of pipes PH 6.8 , Lipoprotein Lipase , Glycerol Kinase , Glycerol -3-phosphate oxidase , Peroxidase , 4-Aminoantipyrine , Adenosin triphosphate and phenol with samples to room temperature .

Tubes	Blank	Sample	Standard
Reagent	1.0 ml	1.0 ml	1.0 ml
Sample	-	10 µl	-
Standard	-	-	10 µl

2- Pipette into labeled tube

3- Mix and let the tubes stand 5 minutes at 37° C.

4- Read the absorbance (A) of the samples and the standard at 500 nm against the regent blank .

The concentration of Triglycerides in sample was calculated according to the equation

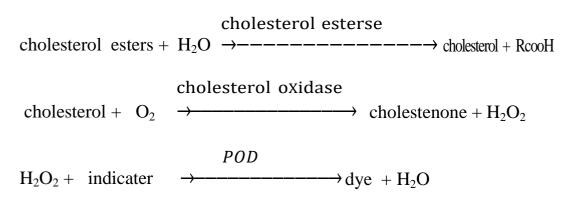
Conc. of triglycerides
$$mg/dl = \frac{A \text{ sample}}{A \text{ standard}} * C_{\text{ standard}}$$

2.3.2.5 Determination of serum High Density Lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C)

Serum HDL-cholesterol was determined by Reflotron system .

A. Principle of test

The reflotron plus clinical chemistry analyzer is in a vitro diagnostic device designed for the quantitative determination of clinical chemistry parameter using reflotron test reagent strips . After the application of sample to the reagent carrier (strip) , LDL fraction and chylomicrons are precipitated by means of magnesium ions and dextran sulphate. ⁽¹⁸⁶⁾



B. Procedures

1- Thirty-two μ l of sample material were drawn into the pipette and applied adrop to the center of the yellow application zone.

2- The flap or sliding cover of reflotron device was opened .

3- The test strip was put into the guide within 15 sec and slid forward horizontally until it locks into place .

4- The sliding cover was closed then reading the result after 85 sec .



Figure 2.2 : Reflotron analyzer

2.3.2.6 Calculation of low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C)

Concentration of LDL-C was calculated mathematically from the total cholesterol , the triglycerides , and the HDL-C concentration using Fried Wald's formula equation .⁽¹⁸⁷⁾

LDL-C = Total cholesterol – (HDL-C + triglycerides / 5)

2.3.2.7 Calculation of very low density lipoprotein cholesterol (VLDL-C)

Concentration of VLDL-C was calculated as one – fifth of the serum TG $^{(188)}$.

$$VLDL - C (mg/dL) = TG / 5$$

2.3.2.8 Determination of serum level 25 (OH) D₃

Concentration of 25 (OH) D_3 was determined by using cobas analyzer .

A. Principle of procedure of test

Total duration of assay 27 minutes

- First incubation is by incubating 15 μ l of the sample with pretreatment regent 2 (sodium hydroxide), bounded 25 (OH) D₃ is released from the vitamin D binding protein .

- Second incubation is by incubation the pretreated sample with ruthenium labeled vitamin D binding protein , a complex between the vitamin D and the ruthenylated vitamin D binding protein is formed .

- Third incubation is after addition of streptavidin coated microparticles and 25 (OH) D_3 labeled with biotin , unbound ruthenium labeled vitamin D binding proteins become occupied . A complex consisting of the ruthenylated vitamin D binding protein and the biotinylated 25(OH)₃ D is formed and becomes bound to the solid phase via interaction of biotin and streptavidin . - The reaction mixture is aspirated into the measuring cell where the micro particles are magnetically captured onto the surface of the electrode . Unbound substances are then removed with procell . Application of a voltage to the electrode then induces chemiluminescent emission which is measured by a photomultiplier ⁽¹⁸⁹⁾. Results are determined via a calibration curve which is instrument specifically generated by 2 – point calibration and a master curve provided via the reagent barcode .



Figure 2.3 : Cobas e 411

2.3.2.9 Determination of serum Para Thyroid Hormone (PTH) level

Concentration of (PTH) was determined by using cobas analyzer.

A- Principle and procedure test

The total duration of assay is 18 minutes

- First incubation is 50 μ l of sample , abiotinylated monoclonal PTH – specific antibody and monoclonal PTH-specific antibody labeled with aruthenium complex from a sandwich complex .

- Second incubation is after addition of streptavidin – coated microparticles, the complex becomes bound to the solid phase via interaction of biotin and streptavidin.

- The reaction mixture is aspirated into the measuring cell where the microparticles are magnetically captured onto the surface of the electrode . Unbound substances are then removed with pro cell . Application of a voltage to the electrode then induces chemiluminescent emission which is measured by aphotomultiplier .⁽¹⁹⁰⁾

- Results are determined via a calibration curve which is instrument – specifically generated by 2.point calibration and a master curve provided via the reagent barcode .

2.3.2.10 Determination of serum Insulin level

A- Principle of test

According to the assay procedure of www. Demeditec .com , the Demeditec insulin ELISA kit was a solid phase Enzyme – Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) based on the sandwich principle . The microtiter wells were coated with amono clonal antibody directed towards a unique antigenic site on the insulin molecule . An aliquot of a patient sample containing endogenous insulin was incubated in the coated well with enzyme conjugate , which was an anti-insulin antibody conjugated with biotin. After incubation , the unbound conjugate was washed off . During the second incubation step, streptavidin – peroxidase Enzyme complex binds to the biotin – anti insulin antibody . The amount of bound HRP complex was proportional to the concentration of insulin in the sample . Added the substrate solution , the intensity of color developed was proportional to the concentration of insulin in the patient sample ⁽¹⁹¹⁾.

B-Procedures

Insulin was measured by using the (ELISA) kit.

1- Twenty - five μl of each standard , control and sample was added per well .

2- Twenty - five μ l of enzyme conjugate was added to each well and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature .

3- Microwell strip was washed 3 time with 400 μ l per well of wash solution and aspirated .

43

4- Fifty μ l of enzyme complex was added to each well and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature .

5- Microwell strip was washed 3 times with 400 μ l per well of wash solution and aspirated .

6- Fifty μ l of substrate was added to each well and incubated for 15minutes at room temperature .

7- The enzyme reaction stopped by adding 50 μl of stop solution to each well .

8- The absorbance of each well was determined at 450 nm with a microtiter plate reader .

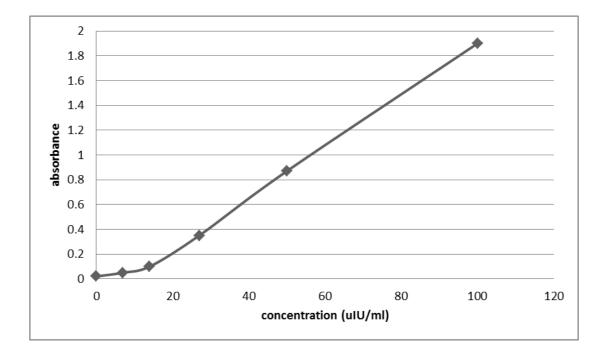


Figure 2.4 : Standard curve of Insulin

2.3.2.11 Calculation of Insulin resistance (IR)

HOMA –IR was calculated using the equation (192)

HOMA - IR = (FPI * FPG) / 405

2.3.2.12 Determination of Insulin – like Growth Factor (IGF1)

Concentration of IGF-1 was determined by using ELISA kit.

A. Principle of test

The kit assay Human IGF-1 level in the sample uses purified Human IGF-1 antibody to coat microtiter plate wells , make solid – phase antibody , then we add IGF-1 to the wells , combined antibody with which HRP labeled , become antibody –antigen –enzyme –antibody complex , after washing completely .We add TMB substrate solution . TMB substrate becomes blue color at HRP enzyme – catalyzed , reaction is terminated by the addition of a sulphuric acid solution and the color change is measured spectrophotometerically at a wave length of 450 nm. The concentration of IGF-1 in the sample is then determined by comparing the O.D of the sample to the standard curve ⁽¹⁹³⁾.

B. Procedures

1- Serum – coagulation at room temperature 10 - 20 minutes , centrifugation 20 minutes at the speed of 2000 r.p.m remove supernatant.

2- Sample dilution 40μ l was added to $10\ \mu$ l of testing sample (sample final dilution is 5- fold.

3- This was incubated for 60 min and 37 °C.

4- Twenty fold wash solution was diluted 20 fold with distilled water and reserved.

5- Washing buffer was added to well, still for 30 sec then drain, repeated 5 times, and dried by pat.

6- Chromogen solution A 50 μ l and chromogen solution B were added to well, the light preservation was evaded for 15 min at 37 °C.

7- Stop solution 50 μ l was added to well , stop the reaction (the blue color changed to yellow color).

8- Read absorbance at 450nm after adding stop solution and with 15 min.

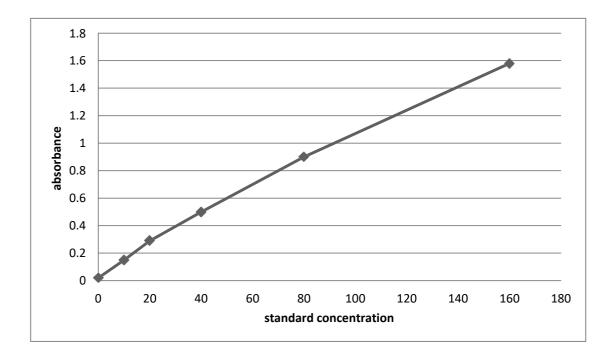


Figure 2.5: Standard curve of Insulin Like Growth Factor 1 (IGF 1)

2.3.2.13 Determination of serum Calcium level

The serum level of calcium was determined by enzymatic colorimetric method .

A- Pinciple of test

The method is based on the specific binding of O - Cresolftalein Complexone (OCC), a metallochromic indicator and calcium at alkaline pH with the resulting shift in the absorption wave length of the complex. The intensity of the cromophore formed is proportional to the concentration of total calcium in the sample. ⁽¹⁹⁴⁾

 $OCC + Calcium \rightarrow ---- \rightarrow OCC - Calcium complex$

B-Procedures

1- Bring reagents consisting of OCC indicator (O - Cresolftalein Complexone ,HCL, 8-quinolinol) and OCC buffer PH10.7 and sample at room temperature.

2- Pipette into labeled test tube.

Tubes	Blank	Sample	Standard
Reagent	1.0 ml	1.0 ml	1.0 ml
Sample	-	10 µl	-
Standard	-	-	10 µl

3- Mix and let the tubes stand 2 minutes at room temperature.

4- Read the absorbance (A) of the sample and the standard at 570 nm against the blank . the concentration of calcium in sample calculate according to the equation :

Conc. Of calcium (mg/dl) =
$$\frac{A \text{ sample}}{A \text{ standard}} * C_{\text{ standard}}$$

2.3.2.14 Determination of serum inorganic Phosphorus level

Serum level of inorganic phosphorus was determined by using enzymatic colorimetric method.

A- Principle of test

Inorganic phosphate reacts with molybdic acid forming phosphomolybdic complex. Its sub sequent reaction in alkaline medium originates a blue molybdenum color which its intensity is proportional to the amount of phosphorus present in the sample ⁽¹⁹⁵⁾.

 $PO_4^{3-} + H^+ + (NH_4)_6 MO_7 O_{24} \rightarrow --- \rightarrow phosphmolybdic complex$

PH >10 phosphmolybdic complex $\rightarrow --- \rightarrow$ Molybdenum blue

B-Procedures

1- Bring reagents consisting of molybdate reagent, reducting solution (hydroxylamine) and color developer (sodium hydroxide) with sample at room temperature.

2- Pipette into labeled test tubes.

Tubes	Blank	Sample	Standard
Reagent	1.0 ml	1.0 ml	1.0 ml
Sample	-	50µl	-
Standard	-	-	50µ1

3- Mix and let stand for 1 minute and than addition of 0.5ml of color reagent to each tube.

4- Mix and let the tubes stand 10 minutes at room temperature .

5- Read the absorbance (A) of the sample and the standard at 740 nm against the blank.

The concentration of phosphorus in the sample was calculated according to the equation:

Conc. of inorganic phosphorus (mg /dl) = $\frac{\text{Asample}}{\text{A standard}} * C_{\text{standard}}$

2.3.3 Molecular analysis

2.3.3.1 DNA extraction

The following is for the purification of DNA from 100μ L whole blood ⁽¹⁹⁶⁾.

1- Added 400 μ l of genomic lysis buffer to 100 μ l of blood (4:1). Mixed completely by vortexing 4-6 seconds ,then let stand 5-10 minutes at room temperature .

2- Transferred the mixture to a zymo-spin column in a collection tube and centrifuge at xg rpm , discarded the collection tube with the flow through.

3- Transferred the zymo-spin column to a new collection tube. Added 200 μ l of DNA pre wash buffer to the spin column. It centrifuges at xg rpm.

4- Added 500μl of DNA wash buffer to the spin column. It centrifuges at 10000 rpm.

5- Transferred the spin column to a clean micro centrifuge tube , and added \geq 50µl DNA elution buffer or water to the spin column . In

50

cubated 2-5 minutes at room temperature and the centrifuge at top speed for 30 second to elute the DNA.

2.3.3.2 Determination of DNA concentration and purity

Electrophoresis has been done to determine DNA pieces after the process of extraction.

2.3.3.2.1 Prepare of the agarose gel

The agarose gel has been made in 1.5 % concentration by melting 1.5 gm of agarose in 100 ml of previously made tris –borate EDTA (TBE) buffer . Agarose has been heated to boil then left to cool down at (45-50 °C). The gel has been poured in the pour plate in which the plate of agarose support has been prepared after fixing the comb to make holes that would hold the samples. The gel has been poured gently not to make air bubbles and left 30 minutes to cool down . The comb has been removed gently of the solid agarose . The plate has been fixed to its stand in the electrophoresis horizontal unite represented by the tank used in the electrophoresis. The tank has been filled with TBE buffer in which it covers the gel surface ⁽¹⁹⁷⁾.

2.3.3.2.2 Preparation of samples

The processor loading buffer ($3 \ \mu$ l) has been mixed with 5 μ l of the supposed DNA to be electrophoresis (loading dye), after the mixing process, the process of loading is now to the holes of the gel. An electric current of 5 v /c² has been exposed for 1: 15 hours till the tincture has reached to the other side of the gel.

The gel has been tested by a source of the UV with 336nm after putting the gel in pool which contains 30μ l red safe nucleic acid staining solution and 500 ml from distilled water⁽¹⁸⁰⁾.

2.3.3.3 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a scientific technique in molecular biology to amplify a single or a small number of copies of a piece of DNA ⁽¹⁹⁸⁾.

There are three main steps involved in the PCR technique : denaturation, annealing and extension ⁽¹⁹⁷⁾.

2.3.3.3.1 preparation of primers

The primers were lyophilized , they dissolved in the free ddH₂O to give a final concentration of 100 p mol $\setminus \mu$ l as stock solution and kept at -20°c to prepare 10 pmol $\setminus \mu$ l concentration as work primer suspended , 10 μ l of the stock solution in 90 μ l of the free ddH₂O water to reach a final volume 100 μ l .

2.3.3.3.1.1 The specific primer rs (10735810) of gene

The sequencing of primer which used to identification the rs (10735810) fragment is illustrated in table 2.4.⁽¹⁹⁹⁾

Table 2.4: Sequence of primer rs (10735810) of gene (199)

Primer	Sequence	Tm	GC	Product
		(°C)	(%)	size
Forward	5-AGTGGCCCTGGCACTGACTCTGGCTCT-3	68.6	63	270
Reverse	5-ATGGAAACACCTTGCTTCTTCTCCCCTC-3	60.5	48.1	Base pair

2.3.3.1.2 The specific primer rs (1544410) of gene

The sequencing of primers which used to identification the f rs (1544410) ragment is illustrated in table $2.5^{(199)}$.

 Table 2.5: Sequence of primer rs (1544410) of gene

Primer	Sequence	Tm	GC	Product
		(°C)	(%)	size
Forward	5- CAACCAAGACTACAAGTACCGCGTCAGTGA-3	62.8	50	820
Reverse	5- AACCAGCGGGAAGAGGTCAAGGG-3	63.3	60.9	base pair

A- Maxime PCR pre mix kit (i-Taq)

Maxime PCR premix kit has not only various kinds of premix kit according to experience purpose , but also a 2X master mix solution . Maxime PCR premix kit (i-Taq) is the product which is mixed every component : i-Taq DNA polymerase , dNTP mixture , reaction buffer and so on – in one tube for 1 rxn PCR .⁽²⁰⁰⁾

Table 2.6: The components of Maxime PCR premix kit (I – Taq)

Material	Volume
i-Taq DNA polymeras	5 U/µl
DNTPs	2.5 Mm
Reaction buffer (10x)	1x
Gel loading buffer	1x

B-Diagnosis of Gene

Optimization of Polymerase Chain Reaction was accomplished after several trials .

The following mixtures were adopted table 2-7

Components	Volume
Taq PCR premix	5µl
Forward primer	10 picomols/µl
Reverse primer	10 picomols / µl
DNA	1.5 μl
Distill water	16.5 μl
Final volume	25µl

The optimal condition has identified for initial denaturation and annealing after doing several experiments to gain this condition . The temperature has changed through the work for all samples to select the optimal condition , and also changed the concentration for DNA template between ($1.5 - 2 \mu l$) since we considered these two factors as important factors in primer annealing with complement .

Table 2-8: The optimum condition of detection rs (10735810) and rs(1544410).

NO	Phase	Tm (°C)	Time	No. of cycle
1	Initial denaturation	95 °C	3 min	1 cycle
2	Denaturation 2	95 °C	45 sec	
3	Annealing	68 °C	45 sec	35 cycle
4	Extension . 1	72 °C	45 sec	
5	Extension . 2	72 °C	7 min	1 cycle

The PCR products from amplification of rs (10735810) and rs (1544410) was electrophoresed on 2% agarose gel stained with red safe stain.

2.3.3.4 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (PFLP)

Restriction fragment length polymorphism (PFLP) is a popular technique for genetic analysis. RFLP is used to simultaneously detect the presence of rs (10735810) and rs (1544410) polymorphism.

The PCR product was subjected to RFLP using a rs (10735810) restriction endonuclease and rs (1544410) restriction endonuclease. The digestion reaction is carried out in a 0.5 ml sterile eppendrof tube , where 5µl of product PCR is mixed with 0.5 µl of Restriction Enzyme (R.E), 4.5 µl buffer. Tables 2.9 , 2.10.⁽²⁰¹⁾

 Table 2.9 : Reaction condition of restriction enzyme rs (10735810) .

Protocol	Volume
Product PCR	5 μl
R.E	0.5 μl
Buffer	4.5 μl
Temperature	37 °C /30 min

Table 2.10: Reaction condition of the restriction enzyme rs(1544410).

Protocol	Volume
Product PCR	5 μl
R.E	0.5µl
Buffer	4.5µl
Temperature / Time	65 °C / 40 min

The digestion products electrophoretically separated on a 3% agaros gel stained with Red Safe .

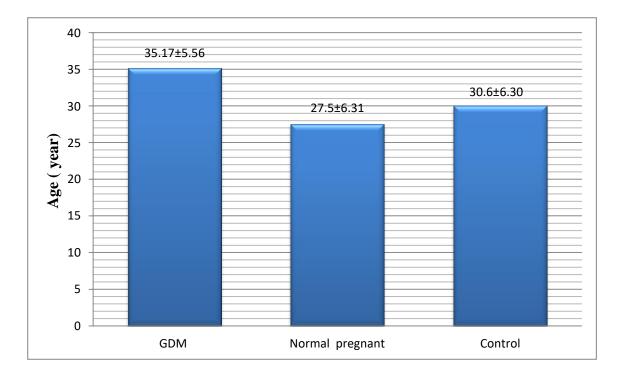
Chapter Three Results and Discussion

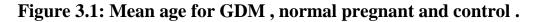
Results and Discussion

This study included the changes in some clinical parameters in Gestational Diabetes Mellitus patients with controls and genotyping of vitamin D receptor rs (10735810) and rs (1544410).

3.1 Age and Body Mass Index

The mean value of age for Gestational Diabetes Mellitus (GDM), normal pregnant and controls is shown in figure 3.1.





The mean (\pm SD) value of age of GDM (35.175 \pm 5.56) years was significantly higher than that of pregnant without GDM (27.5 \pm 6.31) years and control (30.6 \pm 6.30) years. The last significant difference LSD _{p \leq 0.05} was 2.95. The diagnosis of GDM usually occurs after the age of 30 years⁽¹⁴⁵⁾.

The mean value of BMI was significantly different between the study groups. It was significantly higher in GDM (30.723 ± 4.108) kg/m² compared to pregnant without GDM (26.569 ± 2.438) kg/m² and control (24.196 ± 3.298) kg/m² LSD _{P ≤ 0.05} = 1.686 shown in figure 3.2 below :

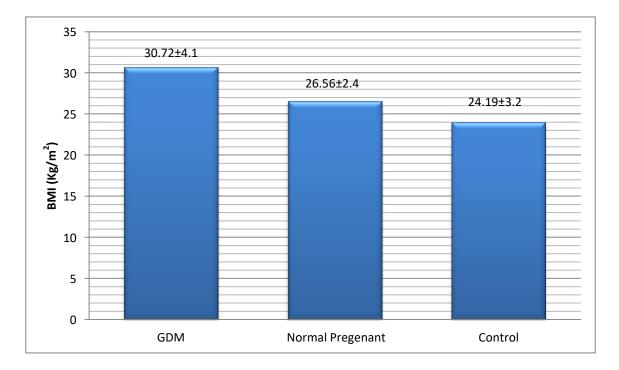


Figure 3.2: The mean value of BMI for GDM, normal pregnant and control.

BMI provides a reliable indicator of body fatness for most individuals and BMI is used as a screen for weight categories that may lead to health problems ⁽²⁰²⁾. In the present study, BMI was significantly associated with GDM compared to normal pregnant. Increasing maternal BMI is a significant risk factor for the development of GDM ⁽²⁰³⁻²⁰⁵⁾.

Even though the association between BMI and GDM can still be used to counsel women about their risk of developing GDM, BMI as a screening tool does not have high enough sensitivity and specificity to identify a group of women that should not receive GDM diagnostic testing. This continues to support the notion for continuing universal screening programs for pregnant women rather than stratifying by BMI⁽²⁰⁶⁾.

3.2 Glucose index in study groups.

The average mean of Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG), Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), Insulin hormone and Insulin Resistance (HOMA IR) was obviously higher in GDM compared with controls.

3.2.1 Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG)

The mean (\pm SD) value of FBG was significantly different between the study groups. It was significantly higher in GDM (145.950 \pm 35.88) mg/dl compared to pregnant without GDM (89.400 \pm 9.03) mg/dl and control (86.24 \pm 7.69) mg/dl LSD _{p \leq 0.05} = 11.6,as shown in figure 3.3.

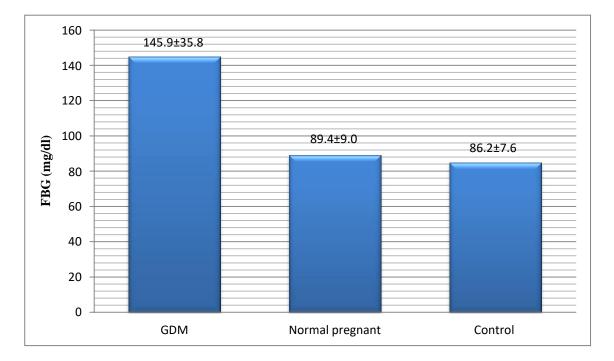


Figure 3.3: Mean of FBG in GDM and normal pregnant compared with control.

The results correspond with the findings of previous studies. FBG values tend to stay constant throughout the entire period of pregnancy . FBG values have less individual variation compared to other glucose values, therefore, abnormal FBG level is a significant indicator in diagnosing GDM. FBG is a good screening test for GDM with advantages such as simple procedure, reasonable cost, reproducibility, easy access, and acceptance⁽²⁰⁷⁾.

Other studies have reported that abnormal FBG alone is capable of detecting 50% of pregnant women who had already been diagnosed with DM with another screening method $^{(208)}$.

3.2.2 Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c)

The mean value of HbA1c was obviously higher in GDM (7.082 ± 1.667 %) respectively as compared with normal pregnant (5.04 ± 0.430%) and control (3.014 ± 0.362 %), LSD $_{p \le 0.05} = 0.539$ as shown in figure 3.4

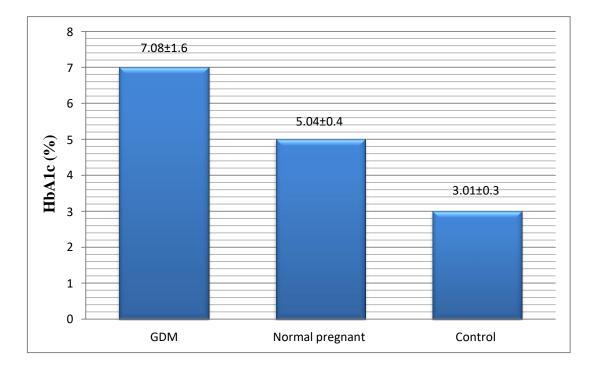


Figure 3.4: Mean of HbA1c in GDM, normal pregnant and control.

This result is in agreement with the previous studies which proved that concentration of HbA1c was higher in GDM ^(145,209).

HbA1c test is currently considered to be the best measure and the gold standard for assessing glycemic control, it measures the amount of glucose that is bound to hemoglobin molecule, reflects average plasma glucose over the previous 2-3 months in a single measure which can be performed at any time of the day and does not require any special preparation such as fasting ⁽²¹⁰⁾.

3.2.3 Insulin hormone

Serum Insulin lever was higher in GDM (14.783 \pm 9.296) µIU/ml compared to normal pregnant (9.293 \pm 4.636) µIU/ml and control (10.707 \pm 4.245) µIU/ml, LSD _{p≤0.05} = 3.346 as shown in figure 3.5 below :

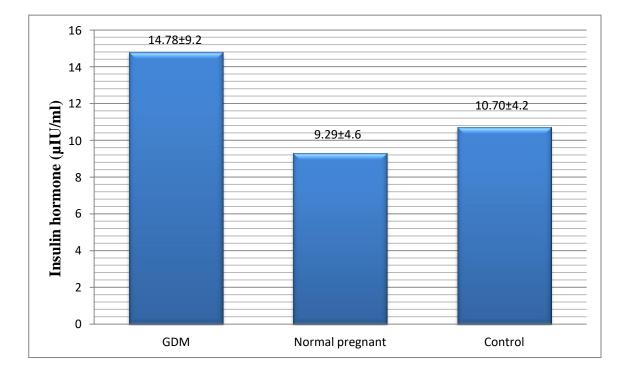


Figure 3.5: Mean of Insulin level in GDM, normal pregnant and control .

This result is agreement with the previous studies which proved that concentration of Insulin hormone was higher in GTM than in a normal pregnancy ⁽²¹¹⁾, women with GDM have an increase in Insulin production in the β-cell of the pancreas ⁽²¹²⁾.

 β -cell adaption refers to the change that pancreatic islet cells undergo during pregnancy in response to maternal hormones in order to compensate for the increased physiological needs for mother and baby. These changes in the β -cells cause increased Insulin secretion as a result of increased β -cell proliferation⁽²¹³⁾.

Pregnancy causes increased Insulin resistance and so higher Insulin demand. The β -cell must compensate this by either increasing insulin production or proliferating ⁽²¹⁴⁾.

3.2.4. Insulin Resistance (HOMA -IR)

Homeostatic model assessment insulin resistance (HOMA- IR) was found of higher significance in gestational diabetes mellitus compared with controls group, and with mean $4.9123 \pm 2.835\%$ for GDM, $2.048 \pm 1.0686\%$ for normal pregnant and $2.2457 \pm 0.875\%$ for control, LSD $_{\leq 0.05} = 0.956$ as shown in figure 3.6.

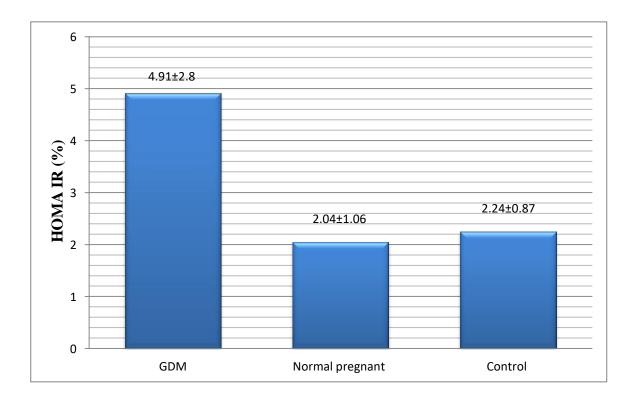


Figure 3.6: Mean of HOMA- IR in GDM, normal pregnant and control.

GDM can be regarded as the early pathogenesis of T2DM and it shares some physiological characterize ⁽²¹⁵⁾.

Insulin resistance in pregnancy is consequent to the physiological adaption necessary to provide glucose to the growing fetus ⁽²¹⁶⁾.

HOMA IR in women with GDM increased significantly during pregnancy ⁽²¹⁷⁾, mainly in 2nd and 3rd trimesters of pregnancy ⁽²¹⁸⁾. These findings are in agreement with a study performed in south Asians and Middle Eastern that showed gestational women were more insulin resistant as compared with western Europeans ⁽²¹⁹⁾.

3.3 Lipid profile

3.3.1 Total serum cholesterol

In our study the results showed that the total serum cholesterol was significantly higher in GDM as compared with both normal pregnant without diabetes mellitus and control.

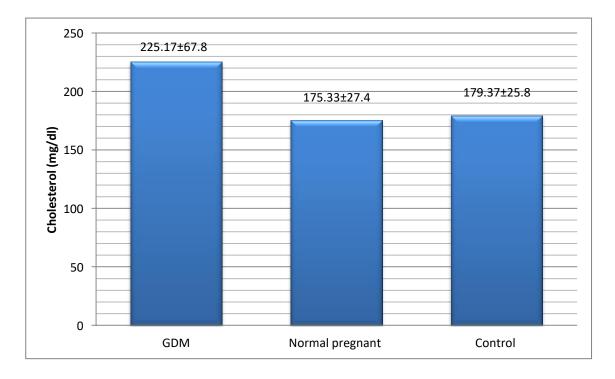


Figure 3.7: The mean of serum total cholesterol in GDM, normal pregnant and control.

The mean serum T-cholesterol was significantly higher in GDM (225.17 \pm 67.82) mg/dl , than in pregnant without GDM (175.33 \pm 27.40) mg/dl, and controls (179.37 \pm 25.84) mg/dl LSD _{p<0.05} = 23.38.

The significant increase in total cholesterol concentration in GDM compared with controls in the study is a result of the fact that GDM significantly alters cholesterol metabolism leading to dyslipidaemia. These findings are consistent with reports by Amraei and Azemati⁽²²⁰⁾, who

reported significant difference in total cholesterol levels between pregnancy complicated by GDM and normal pregnancy. In a study done in Pakistan on the lipid profile and serum insulin levels in gestational diabetes mellitus ⁽²²¹⁾, reported significantly higher total cholesterol levels in women with GDM than the controls. The results of this study are in agreement with reports by Asare- Anane ,et al ⁽²²²⁾. who reported that there was increasing in levels of total cholesterol in GDM compared with controls.

3.3.2 Serum Triglycerides

The results of our study clearly indicate a high significance in the studied group, the mean of the serum concentration of triglyceride (TG) for GDM was 194.55 \pm 45.27 mg/dl , while the mean serum of TG for pregnant without GDM was 164.56 \pm 20.25 mg/dl , for control was 133.5 \pm 23.03 mg/dl LSD _{p≤0.05} = 16.3 as shown in figure 3.8

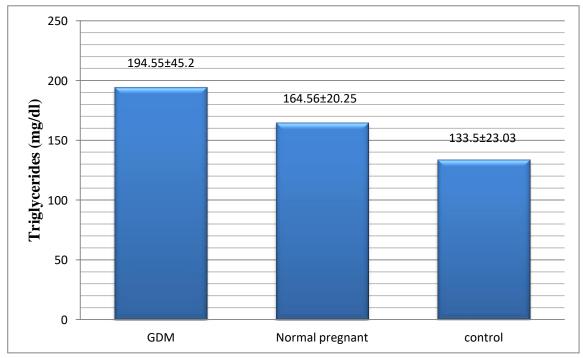


Figure 3.8: Mean of serum triglycerides in GDM ,normal pregnant and control.

Lipid profile changes in normal pregnancy are characterized by marked elevations of total serum triglyceride and total cholesterol levels as a result of increased liver synthesis of TG in response to elevated estrogen levels⁽²²³⁾.

The results of this study agreed with a study by Amraei and Azemati⁽²²⁰⁾, who reported a significant increase in the triglycerides levels in pregnancy complicated by glucose intolerance as compared to normal pregnancy and agreed with a study by Asare –Anane , et al ⁽²²²⁾.

3.3.3 Serum High Density Lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL - C)

Mean HDL-C for the GDM was significantly lower in GDM (38 \pm 8.85) mg/dl compared to control (41.83 \pm 8.01) mg/dl and did not find significance with normal pregnant women (35.567 \pm 5.78) mg/dl LSD_{p≤0.05}=3.82,figure3.9

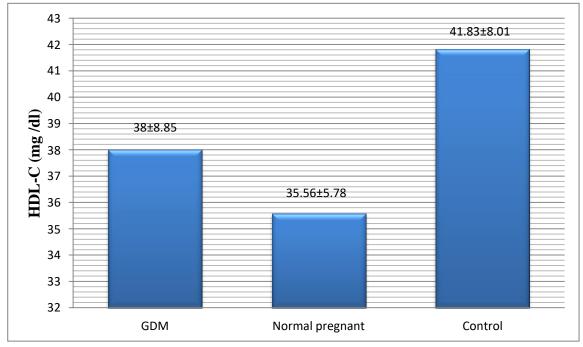


Figure 3.9: Mean of serum HDL-C in GDM, normal pregnant and control.

This result was consistent to the report by koukkou et al and Wiznitize et al ^(224,225) who did not find significant difference in HDL-C levels between GDM and normal pregnant women.

3.3.4 Serum low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL)

The results showed that the mean \pm SD value of LDL -C level for the GDM (146.78 \pm 65.49) mg/dl , was statistically significantly higher than normal pregnant (107.53 \pm 29.28) mg/dl and control (111.06 \pm 24.06) mg/d LSD _{p≤0.05}=22.76 , as shown in figure 3.10 .

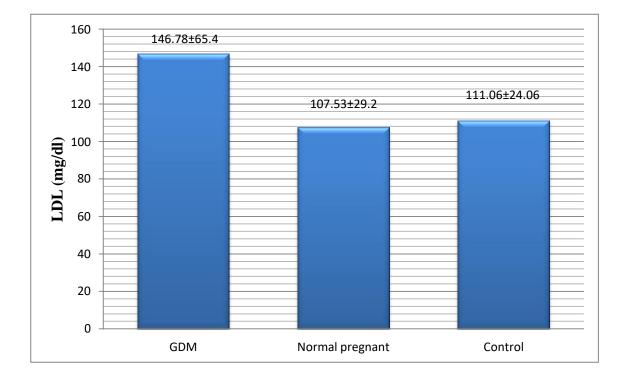


Figure 3.10: The mean of serum LDL-C in GDM as compared with normal pregnant and control.

LDL-C is formed from VLDL-C which is the principal transport form of triglyceride in the blood and so in GDM, when triglyceride concentration increases, LDL-C increases accordingly. In this study, LDL-C was significantly higher in GDM than the normal gestational. These results are in agreement with previous reports an increases in LDL-C levels significantly during pregnancy complicated by GDM^(220-222,226).

3.3.5 Serum Very Low Density Lipoprotein cholesterol (VLDL)

The results showed a mean ±SD value of VLDL-C level was 38.910 \pm 9.055 mg/dl for the GDM, 32.9 \pm 4.075 mg/dl for normal pregnant women and 26.37 \pm 4.206 mg/dl for control, respectively LSD _{p≤0.05} = 3.224, as shown in figure 3.11.

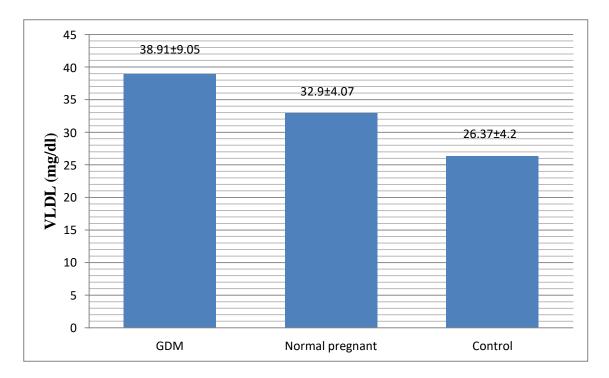


Figure 3.11: Mean of serum VLDL-C in GDM , normal pregnant and control.

VLDL-C levels for the GDM were significantly higher than in gestational without diabetes mellitus and controls. This could be as a result of the high triglycerides levels observed in this study. VLDL-C is formed from triglycerides synthesized in the liver denova or by re-esterification of free fatty acids. Therefore, VLDL-C level increases when triglyceride levels increases. The results of this study are in agreement with reports by Amraei and Azamati, Aziz and Mahbob, Asare –Anane .^(220-,222)

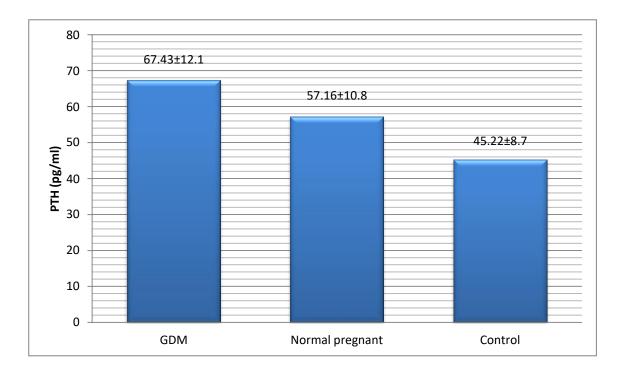
The increased levels of triglycerides, total cholesterol, LDL-C and VLDL-C observed in GDM are a result of increase fat storage ⁽²²⁷⁾ and progesterone⁽²²⁶⁾ in the second trimester of pregnancy.

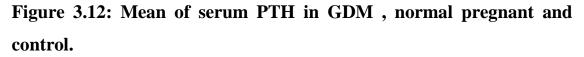
Elevation of triglyceride and decrease of HDL-C levels in diabetic patients were documented by several authers ⁽²²⁸⁻²³¹⁾.

The general increase of levels of serum lipid in diabetic may be mainly attributed to increase in the mobilization of free fatty acid from fat tissue, then excess fatty acids in serum are converted into triglycerides, phospholipids and cholesterol in liver^(232,233).

3.4 Serum level of Parathyroid Hormone (PTH)

Serum PTH level in GDM group was 67.43 ± 12.10 pg/ml and 57.16 ± 10.89 pg/ml in no diabetic gestational group, whereas in control group was 45.22 ± 8.79 pg/ml respectively, LSD _{p≤0.05}= 4.02 as shown in figure 3.12.





In our study, PTH levels was elevated in GDM group more than that in normal pregnant as compared with control . A previous study showed that PTH concentration was significantly higher in women with GDM as compared with pregnant without GDM ^(234,235). Some studies had reported that increased PTH levels were associated with impaired glucose tolerance⁽²³⁶⁻²³⁸⁾. The net effect of PTH excess on regulation of lipolysis would most likely promote an increase in fat mass. Furthermore, the up-regulation of insulin secretion associated with PTH induced that insulin resistance would be expected to potentiate this effect^(239,240).

3.5 Serum level of Vitamin D₃

In our study we have found high prevalence of deficiency in overall study sample. Given the high overall prevalence of vitamin D₃ deficiency, we did not find any statically significant difference in 25 (OH) D levels between women with GDM (6.83 \pm 3.547) ng/ml and pregnant without GDM (8.73 \pm 4.158) ng/ml LSD _{P≤0.05} =2.161 as shown in figure 3.13.

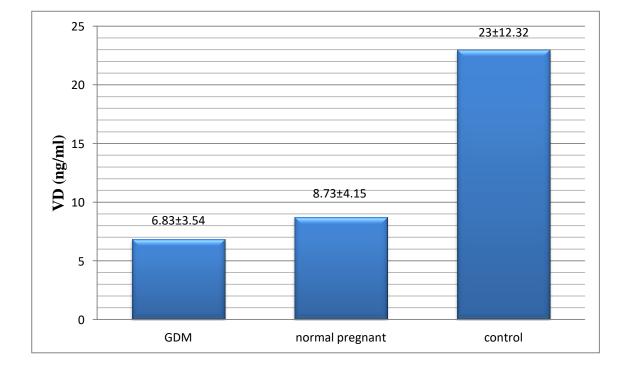


Figure 3.13: Mean of serum vitamin D₃ in GDM as compared with normal pregnant and control.

In accordance with other studies, our results imply that in a vitamin D deficiency population, the association between 25 (OH) D and GDM may not exist ⁽²⁴¹⁻²⁴³⁾. Similarity, Helena H ,et al ,⁽²⁴⁴⁾ stated that GDM status was not associated with pregnancy 25 (OH) D, GDM is a multifactorial disease involving various risk factors for example lifestyle factors, obesity, rapid weight gain and predisposing genetic factors. Furthermore, some of these factors are related with poor vitamin D

status^(245,246), which further increases the challenge when dissecting independent effect. It is possible that in previous studies no adjustment for confounding factors was performed, the association between 25 (OH) D and GDM reflects shared factors such as unhealthy lifestyle or adiposity⁽²⁴⁷⁾.

Yet, contrary to many studies, association between high 25 (OH) D and GDM have been reported ^(248,249). Although a biological mechanism between low vitamin D status and diabetes is plausible ⁽²⁵⁰⁾, only a few interventions have been conducted, and these have not proved an effect of vitamin D supplementation on risk of GDM ⁽²⁵¹⁾.

3.6 Serum level of Insulin-like Growth Factor 1 (IGF-1)

The mean (\pm SD) value of IGF-1 was not significantly different between GDM (99.350 \pm 45.05) ng/ml and pregnant without GDM (90.517 \pm 17.41) ng/ml. However, it was significantly higher than control (63.100 \pm 21.62 ng/ml), LSD_{p≤0.05}=15.86 as shown in figure 3.14.

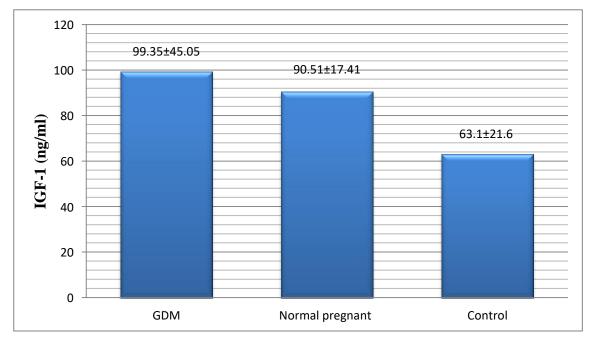


Figure 3.14: Mean of IGF-1 in GDM ,normal pregnant and control.

During pregnancy, IGF-1 is important for growth of fetal and maternal tissues ⁽²⁵²⁾. In pregnancy, placental growth hormone stimulates maternal production of IGF-1 ^(253,354), that could promote placental development and transfer of nutrients to the fetus ⁽²⁵⁵⁾. Thus, some studies have reported that low maternal IGF-1 is associated with low birth weight ⁽²⁵⁶⁾, but the association could not conformed by others ^(253,257,258). The biologic activity of IGF-1 is influenced by IGF binding proteins that leave only a fraction of IGF-1 in its biologically active form. Maternal insulin-like growth factor binding protein (IGFBp-1) increases early in pregnancy⁽²⁵⁸⁻²⁶⁰⁾.

3.7 Serum level of Calcium ion (Ca⁺²)

The data of this study shows that there is significant differences in Ca⁺² level between various groups. The mean \pm SD for GDM was 7.855 \pm 0.834 mg/dl , for normal pregnant was 8.503 \pm 0.735 ng/d, while for control was 9.136 \pm 0.630 ng/dl, LSD _{p \leq 0.05} = 0.367. as shown in figure 3.15.

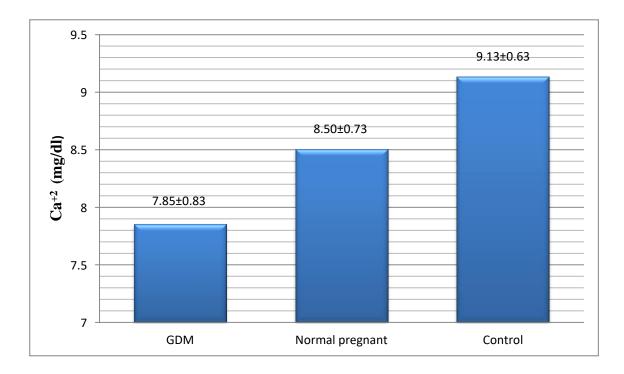


Figure 3.15: Mean of serum Calcium ion level in GDM, normal pregnant and control.

As indicated in the current study, we found an association between Ca^{+2} and gestation ⁽²⁶¹⁻²⁶³⁾. Calcium is actively transported across the placenta, with the transfer from mother to fetus beginning by week 12 of gestation and peaking at weak 36 ⁽²⁶⁴⁾.

Placental calcium transport is dependent upon transport protein located in the syncyiotropholblast, which forms a barrier between the mother and fetus ⁽²⁴⁸⁾.

Serum Ca⁺² in GDM is lower than normal pregnant, this result agrees with another study performed by Yanez CO et al ⁽²⁶⁶⁾, that proves higher levels of maternal periconceptional dietary calcium intake which are associated with lower GDM risk. Previous studies focused on dairy foods instead of calcium intake in GDM risk ^(267,268). Our findings are largely consistent with existing literature reporting associations of calcium intake with lower risk of incident type2 diabetes in non-pregnant women^(269,270). The biological mechanisms underlying associations of diabetes risk and dietary calcium might involve regulation of intracellular calcium affecting both insulin sensitivity and insulin release ⁽²⁷¹⁾, as well as appetite regulation and related fat intake ⁽²⁷²⁾.

3.8 Serum level of inorganic phosphorus ion (PO₄)⁻²

Serum phosphorus ion value was lower in each of GDM (3.672 \pm 0.626) mg/dl and normal pregnant (3.51 \pm 0.342) mg/dl compared to control (4.183 \pm 0.743) mg/dl, There was statically significant difference between pregnant and control at LSD _{p≤ 0.05} = 0.2931 that is shown in figure 3.16.

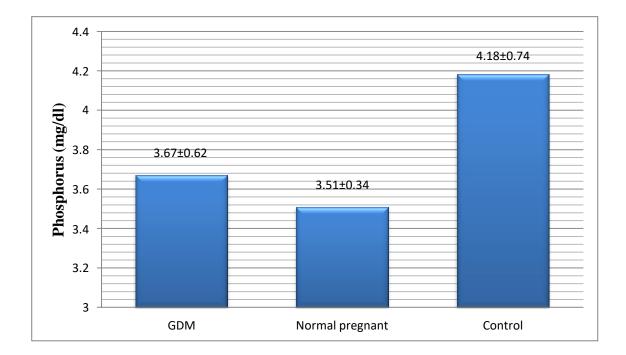


Figure 3.16: Mean of serum inorganic phosphorus ion in GDM, normal pregnant and control

This result agreed with the findings of Khastiga G ⁽²⁷³⁾, who also noted a significant decrease in the later state of pregnancy between seven and eight months. These findings could also be explained by the fact that most of the mineral transfer from the maternal circulation into the developing fetus occurs during the second and third trimesters of pregnancy. The increase in fetal requirement as it progressively matures is met from the mother's plasma pool and this brings about a decrease in the mean material level of phosphate ⁽²⁷⁴⁾.

3.9:Correlation between 25 (OH) D and variance biochemical parameters studied.

The correlation of 25(OH)D level with demographic and clinical parameters for diabetic and non-diabetic pregnant women is shown in table 3.1.

Table3.1: Correlation of 25-hydroxy vitamin D level withanthropomorphic and biochemical parameters of study

Demographic and clinical	25(OH)D (ng/ ml)				
parameters	GDM		Normal	pregnant	
	R	Р	R	Р	
Age (years)	0.153	0.173	-0.389	0.017	
BMI (Kg /m ²⁾	0.088	0.295	-0.420	0.010	
FBG(mg/dl)	-0.148	0.181	-0.144	0.223	
HbA1c(%)	-0.049	0.385	0.024	0.450	
Cholesterol (mg/dl)	-0.079	0.313	-0.479	0.004	
TG(mg/dl)	-0.193	0.166	-0.263	0.080	
LDL-C (mg/dl)	-0.014	0.467	-0.450	0.006	
VLDL-C (mg/dl)	-0.193	0.116	-0.273	0.072	
Ca^{+2} (mg/dl)	-0.010	0.476	0.220	0.122	
$(PO_4)^{-2} (mg/dl)$	0.111	0.247	0.394	0.016	
Insulin hormone(µIU/ml)	-0.232	0.075	0.130	0.247	
PTH (pg/ml)	-0.198	0.111	0.391	0.016	
IGF(ng/ml)	-0.177	0.138	-0.091	0.316	
HOMA IR	-0.384	0.014	0.108	0.285	

In the GDM group , serum 25(OH) D had a significant negative correlation with HOMA IR (P=0.014) , and tendency towards significant negative correlation with insulin hormone (P=0.075) . There was no association between GDM and low 25(OH)D.

Previous reports showed the association between vitamin D deficiency and GDM ^(275,276). and in other studies performed in several countries like Australia ⁽²⁷⁷⁾, Iran ⁽²⁷⁸⁾ and the United state ⁽²⁷⁹⁾. On the contrary and similar to our results, no significant association was reported by flood – Nichols et al ⁽²⁸⁰⁾. and Rodriguez et al ⁽²⁸¹⁾. and in different countries too, like India ⁽²⁴⁹⁾ and the United kingdom ⁽²⁸²⁾. On the other hand, an association of vitamin D deficiency with impaired insulin secretion has been observed in different studies ^(283,284). In addition, a significant correlation was described between 25(OH) D level and insulin sensitivity in pregnant women with GDM ⁽²⁸⁵⁾. Our study and many other studies reported no significant association between vitamin D and BMI^(285,286).

In agreement with Farrant et al and Torloni M ^(249,287), the present study showed no association between vitamin D and HbA1c . Despite this, other studies showed a potential interaction between 25(OH)D and blood glucose in pregnancy ⁽²⁸⁸⁻²⁹⁰⁾.

3.10 Molecular analyses

3.10.1 DNA detect

The purity and concentration of the nucleic acid were detected by nanodrop UV spectrophotometer . (figure 3.17)

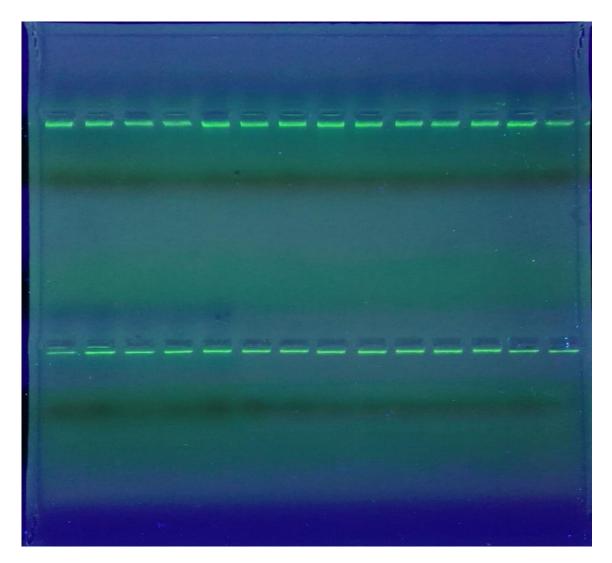


Figure 3.17: Gel electrophoresis of genomic DNA extraction from blood ,1.5% agarose gel at 5 vol / cm for 1:15 hour.

3.10.2 polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

3.10.2.1 rs (10735810) polymorphism .

To analyse the rs (10735810) polymorphism (exon 2 of VDR), it was amplified using the PCR technique. After PCR, a 270 bp fragment of genomic DNA was obtained to view the fragment, the PCR product was loaded on to a 1.5% agarose gel and electrophoresis at 5 volt/cm² was performed (Figure 3.18).

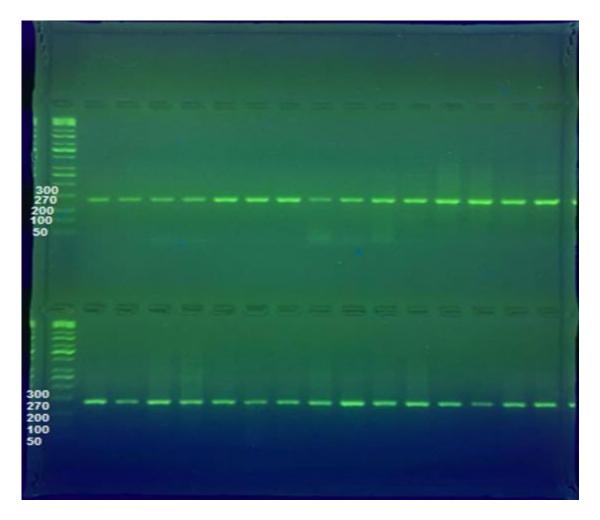


Figure 3.18: PCR product of the VDR gene rs (10735810) at the band size 270 bp, at 1.5 % agarose gel at 5 volt/cm²

3.10.2.2 rs (1544410) polymorphism

The rs (1544410) polymorphis located in intron 8 of VDR , was also amplified through the PCR technique .

The amplified fragment, with a size 820 bp, could be viewed in the 1.5 % agarose gel after electrophoresis at 5 volt/cm2. (Figure 3.19)

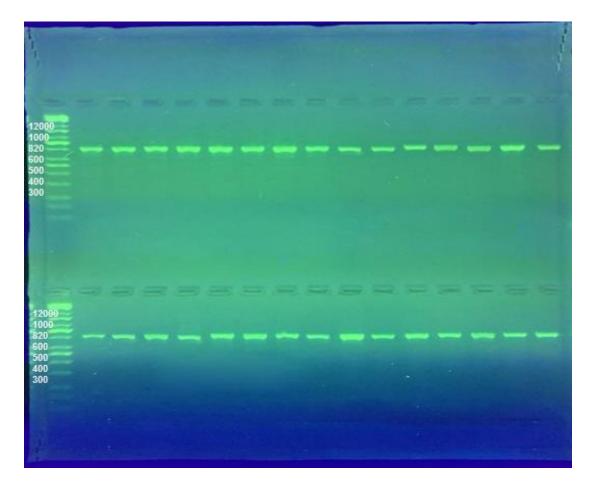


Figure 3.19: PCR product of the VDR gene rs (1544410) at the band size 820 bp, at 1.5 % agarose gel at 5 volt/cm²

3.10.3 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP).

3.10.3.1 rs (10735810) polymorphism

Amplified PCR product was digested with rs (10735810) restriction enzyme. Genotype which was determined according to the fragments length homozygote CC remained undigested in 270 pb . Homozygote TT genotype was digested to 210 and 60 bp , and heterozygote CT digested to 270, 210 and 60bp as shown in figure 3.20

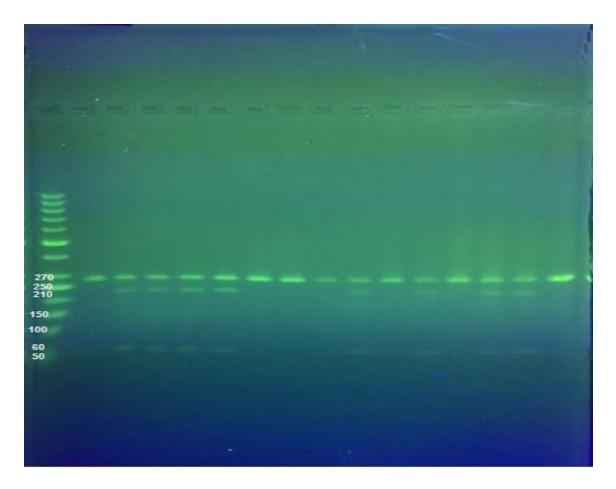


Figure 3.20: Electrophoresis pattern of PCR product digested with rs (10735810) restriction enzyme

Genotype and allele frequency of VDR rs (10735810) gene polymorphism in GDM, normal pregnants and controls showed no significant differences (p>0.05). These findings are in agreement with results of the study that showed VDR rs (10735810) and rs (1544410) polymorphism which are not associated with Saudi GDM ⁽¹⁹⁹⁾.

An indian study suggested that VDR gene polymorphism is associated with type 2 diabetes mellitus ⁽²⁹¹⁾.

Genotyping analyzing results by using RFLP-PCR technique and hardy Weinberg equilibrium offer three genotyping patterns in studying groups (CC, TT, CT).

Results elucidated variation in genotyping frequency, where ratio of CC genotype in controls was higher than GDM and normal pregenants (60%), no significant difference was observed between controls, GDM and normal pregenants OR < 1 which represents the pattern as preventive factor from GDM . TT genotype ratio in patients with GDM was higher than controls, non significant differences are observed between studying groups (p > 0.05), OR > 1, which represent genotype pattern which increases GDM risk factor. CT genotype showed ratio top of a little in GDM in comparison with control, OR = 1.07, also CT pattern appears as genotype related with risk of GDM as shown in table 3.2.

Gene	Genotype	Gestational No. (%)	Control samples No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
	CC	14 (45.45%)	18 (60.00%)	0.56 (0.18 - 1.73)	0.241
<i>VDR</i> rs (10735810)	СТ	16 (54.55%)	11 (36.00%)	2.13 (0.68 - 6.71)	0.163
	TT	0 (0.00%)	1 (4.00%)	0.36 (0.02 - 8.75)	0.532

Gene	Genotype	GDM No. (%)	Control samples No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
	CC	22 (54.17%)	18 (60.00%)	0.79 (0.26 - 2.39)	0.451
<i>VDR</i> rs(10735810)	СТ	15 (37.50%)	11 (36.00%)	1.07 (0.34 - 3.33)	0.574
	TT	3 (8.33%)	1 (4.00%)	2.18 (0.19 - 24.50)	0.484

Gene	Genotype	Gestational No. (%)	GDM No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
<i>VDR</i> rs(10735810)	CC	14 (45.45%)	22 (54.17%)	0.71 (0.23 - 2.20)	0.812
	СТ	16 (54.55%)	15 (37.50%)	2.00 (0.63 - 6.33)	0.928
	TT	0(0.00%)	3 (8.33%)	0.20 (0.01 - 4.12)	1.000

The above results showed that CT and TT genotypes are associated with risk and development of GDM . However , the correlation between TT genotype and the risk of GDM was higher than that of CT genotype , so it was found that the TT genotype can be used as an indicator with the risk of GDM . The results also showed that homozygous CC is important as preventive genotype of GDM . These results were confirmed by many studies and agreed with them ^{(199,292).}

Results of allele frequency for found T showed that the results are closed between GDM and normal pregnant.

Table 3.3 also shows that frequency distribution dose not have significant differences between patients with GDM and control samples (p > 0.05).

 Table 3.3 : Allele frequency of rs (10735810) polymorphism .

Gene	Allele	Gestational	Control samples	OR	Dyvalue
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
VDR	С	22(72.73%)	23(78.0%)	0.75 (0.30- 1.91)	0.361
rs(10735810)	Т	8 (27.27%)	7(22.0%)	1.33 (0.52- 3.38)	0.361

Gene	Allele	GDM	Control sample	OR	<i>P</i> value
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
	С	29(72.92%)	23(78.0%)	0.76 (0.30-	0.363
VDR	C	2)(12.9270)	23(70.070)	1.89)	0.505
rs (10735810)	Т	11(27.08%)	7(22.0%)	1.32 (0.53-	0.363
15 (10755010)	I	11(27.0070)	7(22.070)	3.29)	0.505

Gene	Allele	Gestational	GDM	OR	Р
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	value
VDR	С	22(72.73%)	29 (72.9%)	0.99 (0.40-	0.601
				2.46)	
rs(10735810)	Т	8(27.27%)	11 (27.1%)	1.01 (0.41-	0.601
	I	0(27.2770)	11 (27.170)	2.51)	0.001

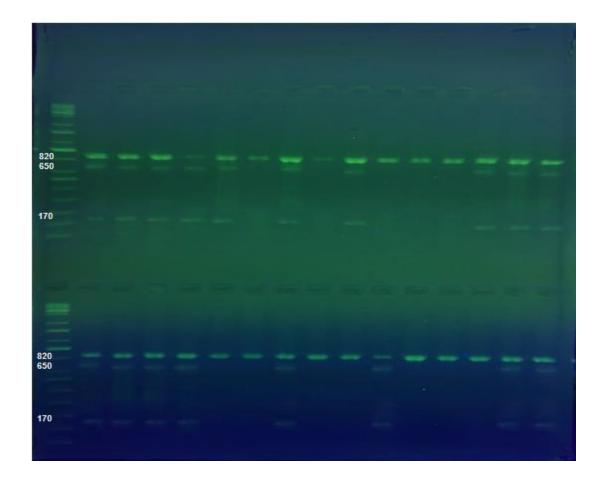
Where odds ratio (OR) to allele C < 1, this ratio represents the allele C as a preventive allele (preventive factor).

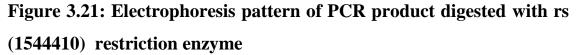
The results of our study are consistent with those arrived at by Aslani S and Alzaim M ^(293,294), who suggested that C allele may have a role in

decreased incidence of GDM . T allele was higher in patients with GDM compared to the control, but it is not significant stastically . The value of OR >1 and high allele frequency T in patients shows the extent of the role of this allele with the risk of GDM . These finding were confirmed by several studies ⁽²⁹⁵⁾. Another study showed significant frequency similar to our study for C and T allele which showed that C allele appears as preventive factor (OR <1) while T allele acts as etiological fact (OR >1) ⁽²⁹⁶⁾.

3.10.3.2 rs (1544410) polymorphism

Amplified PCR product was digested with rs (1544410) restriction enzyme. Genotype was determined according to fragment length . Homozygote GG genotype remained undigested in 820bp . Homozygote AA genotype was digested to three band 820 , 650 and 170 bp . There was not band for genotype GA in 650 and 170 bp in our studying as shown in figure 3.21





Genotype frequency of VDR rs (1544410) gene polymorphism in GDM , normal pregnant and controls are non stastically significant (p > 0.05).

Results obtained by different investigators who studied rs (1544410) polymorphism varied among diabetics, rs (1544410) polymorphism has been linked to susceptibility to diabetes in several countries $^{(111,297)}$, however, studies in other countries could not establish association between rs (1544410) and existence of diabetes $^{(110,199,298)}$.

Results elucidated variation in genotyping frequency between studying groups . GG genotype in healthy control was higher than patients with GDM , but no significant difference was observed , where odds ratio was equal to 0.76 with confidence intervals 95 % CI (0.25-2.34) , which represents preventive factor from GDM . While ratio of GA pattern appears as genotype related with risk of GDM (OR=1.31) with confidence intervals 95% (0.43 - 4.01) as shown in table 3.4 .

Gene	Genotype	Gestational No. (%)	Control samples No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
	GG	11(36.36%)	13 (44.00%)	0.73 (0.23 - 2.29)	0.408
<i>VDR</i> rs (1544410)	GA	19(63.64%)	17 (56.00%)	1.37 (0.44 - 4.34)	0.408
	AA	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	1.00 (0.07 - 18.27)	1.000

Gene	Genotype	GDM No. (%)	Control samples No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
	GG	15 (37.50%)	13(44.00%)	0.76 (0.25 - 2.34)	0.432
<i>VDR</i> rs (1544410)	GA	25(62.50%)	17 (56.00%)	1.31 (0.43 - 4.01)	0.432
	AA	0 (0.00%)	0(0.00%)	1.00 (0.07 - 18.27)	1.000

Gene	Genotype	Gestational No. (%)	GDM No.(%)	OR (95% CI)	<i>P</i> value
<i>VDR</i> rs (1544410)	GG	11(36.36%)	15 (37.50%)	0.95 (0.29 - 3.08)	0.649
	GA	19(63.64%)	25 (62.50%)	1.05 (0.33 - 3.39)	0.649
	AA	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	1.00 (0.07 - 18.27)	1.000

Results of allele frequency for G and A showed variable results between studying groups . The allele G represents as preventive factor from GDM (odds ratio less than one) . The value of odds ratio >1.0 and high allele frequency A in patients shows the extent of the role played by this allele with the risk of GDM . Table 3.5 .

Gene	Allele	Gestational	Control samples	OR	P value
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	
	G	20(68.18%)	22 (78.0%)	0.83 (0.35	0 429
VDR	U	20(00.1070)	22 (70.070)	- 2.00)	0.429 0.361
rs (1544410)	А	10(31.82%)	8 (22.0%)	1.33 (0.52	0 361
	Λ	10(31.0270)	0 (22.070)	- 3.38)	0.301

Gene	Allele	GDM	Control samples	OR	P value
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	
	G	28(68.75%)	22(78.0%)	0.76 (0.30	0 363
VDR	U	28(08.73%)	22(78.0%)	- 1.89)	P value 0.363 0.538
rs (1544410)	А	12(31.25%)	8(22.0%)	1.06 (0.44	0.538
	A	12(31.2370)	8(22.070)	- 2.52)	0.558

Gene	Allele	Gestational	GDM	OR	P value
		No. (%)	No.(%)	(95% CI)	
	G	20(68.18%)	28(68.75%)	0.97 (0.41	0.612
VDR	U	20(00.1070)	20(00.7570)	- 2.33)	0.012
rs (1544410)	А	10(31.82%)	12(31.25%)	1.03 0.43 -	0.612
	17	10(31.8270)	12(31.2370)	2.45	0.012

Hong YJ, et al showed that G allele in VDR may be a protective factor in the development of diabetic retinopathy ⁽²⁹⁹⁾. El-Beshbishy, et al reported no evidence of allelic association of the rs (1544410) of VDR gene with GDM in Saudi women ⁽¹⁹⁹⁾.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

- 1. Vitamin D deficiency was more prevalent among Iraqi women.
- 2. There was a relationship between age and gestational diabetes mellitus and also between body mass index and gestational diabetes mellitus .
- 3. The results showed s showed that vitamin D receptor FokI and BsmI polymorphisms not associated with Iraqi gestational dibetes mellitus.
- 4. Homozygous FF and homozygous BB turned out to be as a prenetive genotype of gestational diabetes mellitus ,while Ff ,ff ,Bb and bb turned out to be related with risk of GDM.
- 5. The allele F and allele B represent a preventive allele (preventive factor), while the allele f and allele b act as etiological factor.

Recommendation

1. In take vitamin D as supplement for people and for all ages .

2. Risk of gestational diabetes mellitus(GDM) may be reduced by knowing the allele that acts as preventive factor and the allele represented as etiological factor.

3. Using more than single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) for another receptor to see the effect of all SNP on GDM .

References

References:-

- 1- Holick, M. F. (2002). Vitamin D: the underappreciated D-lightful hormone that is important for skeletal and cellular health. Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity, 9(1), 87-98.
- 2- Holick, M. F. (2007). Vitamin D deficiency. New England Journal of Medicine, 357(3), 266-281.
- 3- Houghton, L. A., & Vieth, R. (2006). The case against ergocalciferol (vitamin D2) as a vitamin supplement. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 84(4), 694-697.
- 4- Hart, G. R., Furniss, J. L., Laurie, D., & Durham, S. K. (2006). Measurement of vitamin D status: background, clinical use, and methodologies. Clinical laboratory, 52(7-8), 335-343.
- 5- Armas, L. A., Hollis, B. W., & Heaney, R. P. (2004). Vitamin D2 is much less effective than vitamin D3 in humans. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 89(11), 5387-5391.
- 6- Relationship between serum parathyroid hormone levels. Vitamin D sufficiency, and calcium intake. JAMA (2005). 294 (18): 2336 2341.
- 7- Venning, G. (2005). Recent developments in vitamin D deficiency and muscle weakness among elderly people. BMJ: British Medical Journal, 330(7490), 524.
- 8- International Diabetes Federation IDE , Diabetes Atlas update poster ,
 6th ed.Brussels , Beljium (2014) .
- 9- Zmuda, J. M., Cauley, J. A., & Ferrell, R. E. (2000). Molecular epidemiology of vitamin D receptor gene variants. Epidemiologic reviews, 22(2), 203-217.

- Seshadri, K. G., Tamilselvan, B., & Rajendran, A. (2011). Role of vitamin D in diabetes. Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism, 1(2), 47-56.
- 11- Daković, D., Mileusnić, I., Hajduković, Z., Čakić, S., & Hadži-Mihajlović, M. (2015). Gingivitis and periodontitis in children and adolescents suffering from type 1 diabetes mellitus. Vojnosanitetski pregled, 72(3), 265-273.
- 12-Zipitis, C. S., & k Akobeng, A. (2008). Vitamin D supplementation in early childhood and risk of type 1 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Archives of disease in childhood.
- 13-Holt, R. I., & Hanley, N. A. (2012). Essential endocrinology and diabetes (Vol. 41). John Wiley & Sons.
- 14- Shukla P, Mishra R, Huang W, Hu N.(2015). pharmacological Role of vitamin D supplementation in the prevention of Diabetes and Gestational diabetes . J Diabetes Res Ther, 1(1): 1-6.
- 15-American Diabetes Association (ADA) . Expert committee on the Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Mellitus (2003) .
- 16-Working group on gestational diabetes . National guidelines for gestational diabetes Duodecim (2008) . 124 : 1556 1569 .
- 17-Bodnar, L. M., Simhan, H. N., Catov, J. M., Roberts, J. M., Platt, R. W., Diesel, J. C., & Klebanoff, M. A. (2014). Maternal vitamin D status and the risk of mild and severe preeclampsia. Epidemiology (Cambridge, Mass.), 25(2), 207.
- 18- American Diabetes Association . Diagnosis and of diabetes mellitus.Diabetes Care (2012) a ; 3(7) : 64 -71 .
- 19- University of California . Berkeley . vitamin D deficiency (2000).

- 20- Holick, M. F., MacLaughlin, J. A., Clark, M. B., Holick, S. A., Potts, J. T., Anderson, R. R., ... & Elias, P. (1980). Photosynthesis of previtamin D3 in human skin and the physiologic onsequences. Science, 210(4466), 203-205.
- 21-Washington D.C .Institute of Medicine , food and Nutrition Board .Dietary Reference Intakes : Calcium , Phosphorus , magnesium , vitamin D and fluoride .: National Academy Press 1997 .
- 22- Norman, A. W. (1998). Sunlight, season, skin pigmentation, vitamin D, and 25-hydroxyvitamin D: integral components of the vitamin D endocrine system.
- 23- Wang, T. J., Pencina, M. J., Booth, S. L., Jacques, P. F., Ingelsson, E., Lanier, K., ... & Vasan, R. S. (2008). Vitamin D deficiency and risk of cardiovascular disease. Circulation, 117(4), 503-511.
- 24- Houghton, L. A., & Vieth, R. (2006). The case against ergocalciferol (vitamin D2) as a vitamin supplement. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 84(4), 694-697.
- 25-Holick, M. F., Chen, T. C., Lu, Z., & Sauter, E. (2007). Vitamin D and skin physiology: AD-lightful story. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research, 22(S2), V28-V33.
- 26-F Holick, M. (2011). Vitamin D: evolutionary, physiological and health perspectives. Current drug targets, 12(1), 4-18.
- 27- JUN, J. G. H., & Hahn, T. J. (1973). Natural and synthetic sources of circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D in man. Nature, 244(5417), 515..
- 28- Inouye, K., & Sakaki, T. (2001). Enzymatic studies on the key enzymes of vitamin D metabolism; 1α-hydroxylase (CYP27B1) and 24hydroxylase (CYP24).

- 29- Francis, R. M., Anderson, F. H., Patel, S., Sahota, O., & Van Staa, T. P. (2006). Calcium and vitamin D in the prevention of osteoporotic fractures. Journal of the Association of Physicians, 99(6), 355-363.
- 30- Trivedi, D. P., Doll, R., & Khaw, K. T. (2003). Effect of four monthly oral vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol) supplementation on fractures and mortality in men and women living in the community: randomised double blind controlled trial. Bmj, 326(7387), 469.
- 31- Armas, L. A., Hollis, B. W., & Heaney, R. P. (2004). Vitamin D2 is much less effective than vitamin D3 in humans. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 89(11), 5387-5391.
- 32-Autier, P., Gandini, S., & Mullie, P. (2012). A systematic review: influence of vitamin D supplementation on serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 97(8), 2606-2613.
- 33-Holick, M. F., Biancuzzo, R. M., Chen, T. C., Klein, E. K., Young, A., Bibuld, D., & Tannenbaum, A. D. (2008). Vitamin D2 is as effective as vitamin D3 in maintaining circulating concentrations of 25hydroxyvitamin D. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 93(3), 677-681.
- 34-Vieth, R. (2005). The pharmacology of vitamin D, including fortification strategies. Vitamin D, 2, 995-1015.
- 35-Holick, M. F. (2004). Vitamin D: importance in the prevention of cancers, type 1 diabetes, heart disease, and osteoporosis. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 79(3), 362-371.
- 36- El Baba, K., Zantout, M. S., Akel, R., & Azar, S. T. (2011). Seasonal variation of vitamin D and HbA1c levels in patients with type 1 diabetes

mellitus in the Middle East. International journal of general medicine, 4, 635.

- 37-Baz-Hecht, M., & Goldfine, A. B. (2010). The impact of vitamin D deficiency on diabetes and cardiovascular risk. Current Opinion in Endocrinology, Diabetes and Obesity, 17(2), 113-119.
- 38- MacLaughlin, J. A., Anderson, R. R., & Holick, M. F. (1982). Spectral character of sunlight modulates photosynthesis of previtamin D3 and its photoisomers in human skin. Science, 216(4549), 1001-1003.
- 39- Holick, M. F., MacLaughlin, J. A., & Doppelt, S. H. (1981). Regulation of cutaneous previtamin D3 photosynthesis in man: skin pigment is not an essential regulator. Science, 211(4482), 590-593.
- 40-Buffenstein, R., Laundy, M. T., Pitcher, T., & Pettifor, J. M. (1995). Vitamin D3 intoxication in naked mole-rats (Heterocephalus glaber) leads to hypercalcaemia and increased calcium deposition in teeth with evidence of abnormal skin calcification. General and comparative endocrinology, 99(1), 35-40.
- 41-DeLuca, H. F. (2004). Overview of general physiologic features and functions of vitamin D. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 80(6), 1689S-1696S.
- 42- Strushkevich, N., Usanov, S. A., Plotnikov, A. N., Jones, G., & Park, H.
 W. (2008). Structural analysis of CYP2R1 in complex with vitamin
 D3. Journal of molecular biology, 380(1), 95-106.
- 43-Holick, M. F. (2004). Sunlight and vitamin D for bone health and prevention of autoimmune diseases, cancers, and cardiovascular disease. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 80(6), 1678S-1688S.

- 44- Vieth, R. (1999). Vitamin D supplementation, 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations, and safety. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 69(5), 842-856.
- 45-Sakaki, T., Kagawa, N., Yamamoto, K., & Inouye, K. (2005).
 Metabolism of vitamin D3 by cytochromes P450. Front Biosci, 10, 119-134.
- 46-Holick, M. F. (2006). Resurrection of vitamin D deficiency and rickets. The Journal of clinical investigation, 116(8), 2062-2072.
- 47-Breslau, N. A. (1988). Southwestern Internal Medicine Conference: Normal and abnormal regulation of 1, 25-(OH) 2D synthesis. The American journal of the medical sciences, 296(6), 417-425.
- 48- Segersten, U., Correa, P., Hewison, M., Hellman, P., Dralle, H., Carling, T.,& Westin, G. (2002). 25-Hydroxyvitamin D3-1αhydroxylase expression in normal and pathological parathyroid glands. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 87(6), 2967-2972.
- 49- Shimada, T., Hasegawa, H., Yamazaki, Y., Muto, T., Hino, R., Takeuchi, Y., & Yamashita, T. (2004). FGF-23 is a potent regulator of vitamin D metabolism and phosphate homeostasis. Journal of Bone and Mineral Research, 19(3), 429-435.
- 50-Lips, P. (2006). Vitamin D physiology. Progress in biophysics and molecular biology, 92(1), 4-8.
- 51-Bischoff-Ferrari, H. A., Giovannucci, E., Willett, W. C., Dietrich, T., & Dawson-Hughes, B. (2006). Estimation of optimal serum concentrations of 25-hydroxyvitamin D for multiple health outcomes–. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 84(1), 18-28.

- 52-Townsend, K., Evans, K. N., Campbell, M. J., Colston, K. W., Adams, J. S., & Hewison, M. (2005). Biological actions of extra-renal 25hydroxyvitamin D-1α-hydroxylase and implications for chemoprevention and treatment. The Journal of steroid biochemistry and molecular biology, 97(1-2), 103-109.
- 53- Heaney, R. P. (2003). Long-latency deficiency disease: insights from calcium and vitamin D. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 78(5), 912-919.
- 54-Fuleihan, G. E. H., & Vieth, R. (2007). Vitamin D insufficiency and musculoskeletal health in children and adolescents. In International Congress Series (Vol. 1297, pp. 91-108). Elsevier.
- 55-Lehmann, B., & Meurer, M. (2010). Vitamin D metabolism. Dermatologic therapy, 23(1), 2-12.
- 56-Henry, H. L. (1992). Vitamin D hydroxylases. Journal of cellular biochemistry, 49(1), 4-9.
- 57- Snellman, G., Melhus, H., Gedeborg, R., Byberg, L., Berglund, L., Wernroth, L., & Michaelsson, K. (2010). Determining vitamin D status: a comparison between commercially available assays. PloS one, 5(7), e11555.
- 58-D Carter, G. (2011). Accuracy of 25-hydroxyvitamin D assays: confronting the issues. Current drug targets, 12(1), 19-28.
- 59- Weaver, C. M., & Fleet, J. C. (2004). Vitamin D requirements: current and future. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 80(6), 1735S-1739S.
- 60- Whiting, S. J., & Calvo, M. S. (2005). Dietary recommendations for vitamin D: a critical need for functional end points to establish an

estimated average requirement. The Journal of nutrition, 135(2), 304-309.

- 61- Seamans, K. M., & Cashman, K. D. (2009). Existing and potentially novel functional markers of vitamin D status: a systematic review–. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 89(6), 1997S-2008S.
- 62-Holick, M. F., Binkley, N. C., Bischoff-Ferrari, H. A., Gordon, C. M., Hanley, D. A., Heaney, R. P., ... & Weaver, C. M. (2011). Evaluation, treatment, and prevention of vitamin D deficiency: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 96(7), 1911-1930.
- 63- Arabi, A., Baddoura, R., El-Rassi, R., & Fuleihan, G. E. H. (2012).PTH level but not 25 (OH) vitamin D level predicts bone loss rates in the elderly. Osteoporosis International, 23(3), 971-980.
- 64- Marwaha, R. K., Tandon, N., Garg, M. K., Kanwar, R., Narang, A., Sastry, A., & Mithal, A. (2011). Bone health in healthy Indian population aged 50 years and above. Osteoporosis international, 22(11), 2829-2836.
- 65-Washington DC . Committee to review dietary reference intakes for vitamin D and calcium , dietary reference intakes for calcium and vitamin D .The National Academies Press (2010) .
- 66-Bouillon, R., Van Cromphaut, S., & Carmeliet, G. (2003). Intestinal calcium absorption: molecular vitamin D mediated mechanisms. Journal of cellular biochemistry, 88(2), 332-339.
- 67-Heaney, R. P., Dowell, M. S., Hale, C. A., & Bendich, A. (2003).
 Calcium absorption varies within the reference range for serum 25hydroxyvitamin D. Journal of the American college of nutrition, 22(2), 142-146.

- 68- Narchi, H., El Jamil, M., & Kulaylat, N. (2001). Symptomatic rickets in adolescence. Archives of disease in childhood, 84(6), 501-503.
- 69- Ladhani, S., Srinivasan, L., Buchanan, C., & Allgrove, J. (2004). Presentation of vitamin D deficiency. Archives of disease in childhood, 89(8), 781-784.
- 70-Cooper, C., Javaid, K., Westlake, S., Harvey, N., & Dennison, E. (2005). Developmental origins of osteoporotic fracture: the role of maternal vitamin D insufficiency. The Journal of nutrition, 135(11), 2728S-2734S.
- 71- Exton-Smith, A. N., Hodkinson, H. M., & Stanton, B. R. (1999).Nutrition and metabolic bone disease in old age. Lancet, 2, 999-1001.
 - 72-Passeri, G., Pini, G., Troiano, L., Vescovini, R., Sansoni, P., Passeri, M., ..& Franceschi, C. (2003). Low vitamin D status, high bone turnover, and bone fractures in centenarians. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 88(11), 5109-5115.
 - 73- Munger, K. L., Zhang, S. M., O'reilly, E., Hernan, M. A., Olek, M. J., Willett, W. C., & Ascherio, A. (2004). Vitamin D intake and incidence of multiple sclerosis. Neurology, 62(1), 60-65.
 - 74- Eyles, D., Burne, T., & McGrath, J. (2011). Vitamin D in fetal brain development. In Seminars in cell & developmental biology (Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 629-636). Academic Press.
 - 75- Chang, E. T., Smedby, K. E., Hjalgrim, H., Porwit-MacDonald, A., Roos, G., Glimelius, B., & Adami, H. O. (2005). Family history of hematopoietic malignancy and risk of lymphoma. Journal of the National Cancer Institute, 97(19), 1466-1474.

- 76-Aranow C. (2011). Vitamin D and the immune system. J Inves Med; 59(6):881_886.
- 77- Kerkhof, V. D. (1998). Calcipotriol cream with or without concurrent topical corticosteroid in psoriasis: tolerability and efficacy. British Journal of Dermatology, 139(4), 649-654.
- 78-Halhali, A., Tovar, A. R., Torres, N., Bourges, H., Garabedian, M., & Larrea, F. (2000). Preeclampsia is associated with low circulating levels of insulin-like growth factor I and 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D in maternal and umbilical cord compartments. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 85(5), 1828-1833.
- 79- McGrath, J., Saari, K., Hakko, H., Jokelainen, J., Jones, P., Järvelin, M. R., ... & Isohanni, M. (2004). Vitamin D supplementation during the first year of life and risk of schizophrenia: a Finnish birth cohort study. Schizophrenia research, 67(2-3), 237-245.
- 80-Gilbert-Diamond, D., Baylin, A., Mora-Plazas, M., Marin, C., Arsenault, J. E., Hughes, M. D., ... & Villamor, E. (2010). Vitamin D deficiency and anthropometric indicators of adiposity in school-age children: a prospective study–. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 92(6), 1446-1451.
- 81- Nagpal, S., Na, S., & Rathnachalam, R. (2005). Noncalcemic actions of vitamin D receptor ligands. Endocrine reviews, 26(5), 662-687.
- 82-Li, Y. C. (2003). Vitamin D regulation of the renin–angiotensin system. Journal of cellular biochemistry, 88(2), 327-331.
- 83-Zittermann, A. (2006). Vitamin D and disease prevention with special reference to cardiovascular disease. Progress in biophysics and molecular biology, 92(1), 39-48.

- 84- Chiu, K. C., Chu, A., Go, V. L. W., & Saad, M. F. (2004).
 Hypovitaminosis D is associated with insulin resistance and β cell dysfunction. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 79(5), 820-825.
- 85-Penna, G., Roncari, A., Amuchastegui, S., Daniel, K. C., Berti, E., Colonna, M., & Adorini, L. (2005). Expression of the inhibitory receptor ILT3 on dendritic cells is dispensable for induction of CD4+ Foxp3+ regulatory T cells by 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D3. Blood, 106(10), 3490-3497.
- 86- Speer, G., Cseh, K., Winkler, G., Vargha, P., Braun, E., Takacs, I., & Lakatos, P. (2001). Vitamin D and estrogen receptor gene polymorphisms in type 2 diabetes mellitus and in android type obesity. European journal of endocrinology, 144(4), 385-389.
- 87-Ding, C., Gao, D., Wilding, J., Trayhurn, P., & Bing, C. (2012).
 Vitamin D signalling in adipose tissue. British Journal of Nutrition, 108(11), 1915-1923.
- 88- Chuang, J. C., Cha, J. Y., Garmey, J. C., Mirmira, R. G., & Joyce J, J. J. (2008). Research resource: nuclear hormone receptor expression in the endocrine pancreas. Molecular endocrinology, 22(10), 2353-2363.
- 89- Chen, S., Glenn, D. J., Ni, W., Grigsby, C. L., Olsen, K., Nishimoto, M., ... & Gardner, D. G. (2008). Expression of the vitamin d receptor is increased in the hypertrophic heart. Hypertension, 52(6), 1106-1112.
- 90- Carlberg, C., & Seuter, S. (2009). A genomic perspective on vitamin D signaling. Anticancer research, 29(9), 3485-3493.
- 91-Haussler, M. R., Jurutka, P. W., Mizwicki, M., & Norman, A. W. (2011). Vitamin D receptor (VDR)-mediated actions of 1α, 25 (OH) 2vitamin D3: genomic and non-genomic mechanisms. Best practice & research Clinical endocrinology & metabolism, 25(4), 543-559.

- 92-Bouillon, R., Eelen, G., Verlinden, L., Mathieu, C., Carmeliet, G., & Verstuyf, A. (2006). Vitamin D and cancer. The Journal of steroid biochemistry and molecular biology, 102(1-5), 156-162.
- 93- Gyorffy, B., Vásárhelyi, B., Krikovszky, D., Madácsy, L., Tordai, A., Tulassay, T., & Szabó, A. (2002). Gender-specific association of vitamin D receptor polymorphism combinations with type 1 diabetes mellitus. European journal of endocrinology, 147(6), 803-808.
- 94-Buttigliero, C., Monagheddu, C., Petroni, P., Saini, A., Dogliotti, L., Ciccone, G., & Berruti, A. (2011). Prognostic role of vitamin d status and efficacy of vitamin D supplementation in cancer patients: a systematic review. The oncologist, theoncologist-2011.
- 95-Lemos, M. C., Fagulha, A., Coutinho, E., Gomes, L., Bastos, M., Barros, L., ... & Carvalheiro, M. (2008). Lack of association of vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms with susceptibility to type 1 diabetes mellitus in the Portuguese population. Human immunology, 69(2), 134-138.
- 96-Raimondi, S., Johansson, H., Maisonneuve, P., & Gandini, S. (2009). Review and meta-analysis on vitamin D receptor polymorphisms and cancer risk. Carcinogenesis, 30(7), 1170-1180.
- 97-Engel, L. S., Orlow, I., Sima, C. S., Satagopan, J., Mujumdar, U., Roy, P., ... & Alavanja, M. C. (2012). Vitamin D receptor gene haplotypes and polymorphisms and risk of breast cancer: a nested case–control study. Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention Biomarkers.
- 98-Rollison, D. E., Cole, A. L., Tung, K. H., Slattery, M. L., Baumgartner, K. B., Byers, T., ... & Giuliano, A. R. (2012). Vitamin D intake, vitamin D receptor polymorphisms, and breast cancer risk among women living

in the southwestern US. Breast cancer research and treatment, 132(2), 683-691.

- 99- Zhang, J., Li, W., Liu, J., Wu, W., Ouyang, H., Zhang, Q., ... & Meng, Q. (2012). Polymorphisms in the vitamin D receptor gene and type 1 diabetes mellitus risk: an update by meta-analysis. Molecular and cellular endocrinology, 355(1), 135-142.
- 100- Viitanen, A. M., Kärkkäinen, M., Laitinen, K., Lamberg-Allardt, C., Kainulainen, K., Räsänen, L., ... & Kontula, K. (1996). Common polymorphism of the vitamin D receptor gene is associated with variation of peak bone mass in young Finns. Calcified tissue international, 59(4), 231-234.
- 101-Gong, G., Stern, H. S., Cheng, S. C., Fong, N., Mordeson, J., Deng, H. W., & Recker, R. R. (1999). The association of bone mineral density with vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms. Osteoporosis International, 9(1), 55-64..
- 102-Ralston, S. H. (2003). Genetic determinants of susceptibility to osteoporosis. Current opinion in pharmacology, 3(3), 286-290..
- 103- Slattery, M. L., Neuhausen, S. L., Hoffman, M., Caan, B., Curtin, K., Ma, K. N., & Samowitz, W. (2004). Dietary calcium, vitamin D, VDR genotypes and colorectal cancer. International journal of cancer, 111(5), 750-756..
- 104- Uitterlinden, A. G., Fang, Y., van Meurs, J. B., van Leeuwen, H., & Pols, H. A. (2004). Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms in relation to Vitamin D related disease states. The Journal of steroid biochemistry and molecular biology, 89, 187-193..

- 105- John, E. M., Schwartz, G. G., Koo, J., Van Den Berg, D., & Ingles, S. A. (2005). Sun exposure, vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms, and risk of advanced prostate cancer. Cancer research, 65(12), 5470-5479..
- 106-Wang, G., Zhang, Q., Xu, N., Xu, K., Wang, J., He, W., & Yang, T. (2014). Associations between two polymorphisms (FokI and BsmI) of vitamin D receptor gene and type 1 diabetes mellitus in Asian population: a meta-analysis. Plos one, 9(3), e89325..
- 107-Panierakis, C., Goulielmos, G., Mamoulakis, D., Petraki, E., Papavasiliou, E., & Galanakis, E. (2009). Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms and susceptibility to type 1 diabetes in Crete, Greece. Clinical immunology, 133(2), 276-281..
- 108- Chang, T. J., Lei, H. H., Yeh, J. I., Chiu, K. C., Lee, K. C., Chen, M. C., ... & Chuang, L. M. (2000). Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms influence susceptibility to type 1 diabetes mellitus in the Taiwanese population. Clinical Endocrinology, 52(5), 575-580..
- 109- Ramos-Lopez, E., Brück, P., Jansen, T., Herwig, J., & Badenhoop, K. (2007). CYP2R1 (vitamin D 25-hydroxylase) gene is associated with susceptibility to type 1 diabetes and vitamin D levels in Germans. Diabetes/metabolism research and reviews, 23(8), 631-636..
- 110-Turpeinen, H., Hermann, R., Vaara, S., Laine, A. P., Simell, O., Knip, M., ... & Ilonen, J. (2003). Vitamin D receptor polymorphisms: no association with type 1 diabetes in the Finnish population. European Journal of Endocrinology, 149(6), 591-596..
- 111- Motohashi, Y., Yamada, S., Yanagawa, T., Maruyama, T., Suzuki, R., Niino, M., ... & Shimada, A. (2003). Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphism affects onset pattern of type 1 diabetes. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 88(7), 3137-3140..

- 112- Mohammadnejad, Z., Ghanbari, M., Ganjali, R., Afshari, J. T., Heydarpour, M., Taghavi, S. M., ... & Rafatpanah, H. (2012). Association between vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms and type 1 diabetes mellitus in Iranian population. Molecular biology reports, 39(2), 831-837..
- 113-Zemunik, T., Škrabić, V., Boraska, V., Diklić, D., Terzić, I. M., Čapkun, V., ... & Terzić, J. (2005). FokI polymorphism, vitamin D receptor, and interleukin-1 receptor haplotypes are associated with type 1 diabetes in the Dalmatian population. The Journal of molecular diagnostics, 7(5), 600-604..
- 114- Abd-Allah, S. H., Pasha, H. F., Hagrass, H. A., & Alghobashy, A. A. (2014). Vitamin D status and vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms and susceptibility to type 1 diabetes in Egyptian children. Gene, 536(2), 430-434..
- 115-Balhara, Y. P. S., & Sagar, R. (2011). Correlates of anxiety and depression among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus. Indian journal of endocrinology and metabolism, 15(Suppl1), S50..
- 116-Cooke, D. W., & Plotnick, L. (2008). Type 1 diabetes mellitus in pediatrics. Pediatr Rev, 29(11), 374-84..
- 117- Adiseshiah, M. (2005). Effective care of patients with type 2 diabetes and dyslipidemia: A nurse's perspective. Diabetes research and clinical practice, 68, S23-S27..
- 118-Ministry of Health / Iraq (MOH). Iraq family Healthy Survey (2006).
- 119- Deshpande, A. D., Harris-Hayes, M., & Schootman, M. (2008).Epidemiology of diabetes and diabetes-related complications. Physical therapy, 88(11), 1254-1264..

- 120- Kumer P J, Clark M. Diabetes mellitus and other disorders of metabolism. In. Kumar P J, Clark M, editors. Textbook of Medicine. Saunders. London (2007); 1069_1122.
- 121- Atlas, I. D. (2012). International Diabetes Federation: IDF Diabetes Atlas..
- 122- Dalgård, C., Petersen, M. S., Weihe, P., & Grandjean, P. (2011).Vitamin D status in relation to glucose metabolism and type 2 diabetes in septuagenarians. Diabetes care, 34(6), 1284-1288.
- 123- Djalali M , Taheri E , Saedisomeolia A , Djazayeri A , Rahemi A , Hashemi M , Larijani B . (2013), Vitamin D status of type 2 diabetic patients compared with healthy subjects in the Islamic Republic of Iran . Journal of Eastern Mediterranean Health .19 (3) :1 – 6 .
- 124- Gorham, E. D., Garland, C. F., Burgi, A. A., Mohr, S. B., Zeng, K., Hofflich, H., ... & Ricordi, C. (2012). Lower prediagnostic serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration is associated with higher risk of insulin-requiring diabetes: a nested case–control study. Diabetologia, 55(12), 3224-3227.
- 125- González-Molero, I., Rojo-Martínez, G., Morcillo, S., Gutiérrez-Repiso, C., Rubio-Martín, E., Almaraz, M. C., ... & Soriguer, F. (2012).
 Vitamin D and incidence of diabetes: a prospective cohort study. Clinical nutrition, 31(4), 571-573.
- 126- Pittas, A. G., Sun, Q., Manson, J. E., Dawson-Hughes, B., & Hu, F. B. (2010). Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration and risk of incident type 2 diabetes in women. Diabetes care, 33(9), 2021-2023.
- 127- Oliveira, J. E. P. D., & Vencio, S. (2014). Diretrizes da Sociedade Brasileira de Diabetes: 2013-2014/Sociedade Brasileira de Diabetes. São Paulo: AC Farmacêutica, 1-360..

- 128- Chen, H., Sun, C., Guo, W., Meng, R., Du, H., Qi, Q., ... & Wang, Y. (2011). AluYb8 insertion in the MUTYH gene is related to increased 8-OHdG in genomic DNA and could be a risk factor for type 2 diabetes in a Chinese population. Molecular and cellular endocrinology, 332(1-2), 301-305..
- 129-Barrett, J. C., Clayton, D. G., Concannon, P., Akolkar, B., Cooper, J. D., Erlich, H. A., ... & Plagnol, V. (2009). Genome-wide association study and meta-analysis find that over 40 loci affect risk of type 1 diabetes. Nature genetics, 41(6), 703..
- 130- Akirav, E., Kushner, J. A., & Herold, K. C. (2008). β-cell mass and type 1 diabetes: going, going, gone?. Diabetes, 57(11), 2883-2888..
- 131- Matveyenko, A. V., & Butler, P. C. (2008). Relationship between β-cell mass and diabetes onset. Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism, 10, 23-31..
- 132- Australian Institute of Health And Welfara (AIHW). Incidence of Type 1 diabetes in Australian children 2000-2008. Diabetes Series (2010); 13. 51.
- 133- National Center for Health Statistics. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2011).
- 134- Cheng, A. Y., Woo, V., Booth, G., Clement, M., Harper, W., & Knip, A. (2013). Canadian Diabetes Association Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee: Canadian diabetes association 2013 clinical practice guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes in Canada. Can J Diabetes, 37(Suppl 1), S1-S212..
- 135-World Health Organization. (2006). Definition and diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and intermediate hyperglycaemia: report of a WHO/IDF consultation..

- 136- Canadian Diabetes Association. An economic tsunami, the cost of diabetes in Canada 2009.
- 137- DeFronzo, R. A., Bonadonna, R. C., & Ferrannini, E. (1992).
 Pathogenesis of NIDDM: a balanced overview. Diabetes care, 15(3), 318-368..
- 138- Ferrannini, E. (1998). Insulin resistance versus insulin deficiency in non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus: problems and prospects. Endocrine Reviews, 19(4), 477-490..
- 139- Lillioja, S., Mott, D. M., Spraul, M., Ferraro, R., Foley, J. E., Ravussin, E., ... & Bogardus, C. (1993). Insulin resistance and insulin secretory dysfunction as precursors of non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus: prospective studies of Pima Indians. New England Journal of Medicine, 329(27), 1988-1992..
- 140- Rader, D. J. (2007). Effect of insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and intra-abdominal adiposity on the development of cardiovascular disease and diabetes mellitus. The American journal of medicine, 120(3), S12-S18..
- 141-Weyer, C., Bogardus, C., Mott, D. M., & Pratley, R. E. (1999). The natural history of insulin secretory dysfunction and insulin resistance in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes mellitus. The Journal of clinical investigation, 104(6), 787-794..
- 142- Weyer, C., Tataranni, P. A., Bogardus, C., & Pratley, R. E. (2001). Insulin resistance and insulin secretory dysfunction are independent predictors of worsening of glucose tolerance during each stage of type 2 diabetes development. Diabetes care, 24(1), 89-94..

- 143- Maedler, K. (2008). Beta cells in type 2 diabetes–a crucial contribution to pathogenesis. Diabetes, obesity and metabolism, 10(5), 408-420..
- 144- Lencioni C, Lupi R, Del Prato S. (2008) ; Beta-cell failure in type 2 diabetes mellitus. Curr Diab Rep, 8(3): 179_184.
- 145- Kaaja, R., & Rönnemaa, T. (2008). Gestational diabetes: pathogenesis and consequences to mother and offspring. The review of diabetic studies: RDS, 5(4), 194..
- 146- Tuorkey, M. J., & Abdul-Aziz, K. K. (2010). Strategies for diabetes and pathways of vitamin D. Diabetes & Metabolic Syndrome: Clinical Research & Reviews, 4(2), 101-110..
- 147- Renosky, R. J., Hunt, B., Hill-Briggs, F., Wray, L., & Ulbrecht, J. S. (2008). Counseling people living with diabetes. Journal of Rehabilitation, 74(4), 31..
- 148- Cash J. Family practice Guidelines. Springer (2014): 396.
- 149-World Health Organization. (1999). Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications: report of a WHO consultation. Part 1, Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus (No. WHO/NCD/NCS/99.2). Geneva: World health organization..
- 150- American Diabetes Association (ADA). Pathophysiology of type1 diabetes mellitus (2014).
- 151-Hussain K. Diagosis and management of hyper insulinaemic, hyper glycaemia of infancy. Horm Res (2008); 69(1): 2-13.
- 152- Benedict, C., Hallschmid, M., Hatke, A., Schultes, B., Fehm, H. L., Born, J., & Kern, W. (2004). Intranasal insulin improves memory in humans. Psychoneuroendocrinology, 29(10), 1326-1334..

- 153- Cahil GF, Boston MD.(2016). Physiology of insulin in man. Diabetes , 20(12): 785-799.
- 154- Palomer, X., González-Clemente, J. M., Blanco-Vaca, F., & Mauricio,
 D. (2008). Role of vitamin D in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism, 10(3), 185-197..
- 155- David G, Dobres Sh. Basic and clinical endocrinology (9th Ed). New York Mc Graw-Hill Medical 2011.
- 156- Schinner S, Scherbaun WA, Bornstein SR. (2005). Molecular mechanisms of insulin resistance. Diabet Med. 22: 674 682.
- 157- Reaven GM . Role of insulin resistance in human disease . Diabetes .1988 ; 37 : 1595 1607 .
- 158-Nigro, J., Osman, N., Dart, A. M., & Little, P. J. (2006). Insulin resistance and atherosclerosis. Endocrine reviews, 27(3), 242-259..
- 159- Al-Shoumer, K. A., & Al-Essa, T. M. (2015). Is there a relationship between vitamin D with insulin resistance and diabetes mellitus?. World journal of diabetes, 6(8), 1057..
- 160- Rinderknecht, E., & Humbel, R. E. (1987). The amino acid sequence of human insulin-like growth factor I and its structural homology with proinsulin. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 253(8), 2769-2776..
- 161- Wabitsch, M., Heinze, E., Debatin, K. M., & Blum, W. F. (2000). IGF-I-and IGFBP-3-expression in cultured human preadipocytes and adipocytes. Hormone and Metabolic Research, 32(11/12), 555-559..
- 162- Hong, Y., Brismar, K., Hall, K., Pedersen, N. L., & De Faire, U. (1997). Associations between insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I), IGFbinding protein-1, insulin and other metabolic measures after controlling for genetic influences: results from middle-aged and elderly monozygotic twins. Journal of Endocrinology, 153(2), 251-257..

- 163- Sjögren, K., Liu, J. L., Blad, K., Skrtic, S., Vidal, O., Wallenius, V., ... & Ohlsson, C. (1999). Liver-derived insulin-like growth factor I (IGF-I) is the principal source of IGF-I in blood but is not required for postnatal body growth in mice. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 96(12), 7088-7092..
- 164- Helle, S. I., Anker, G. B., Meadows, K. A., Holly, J. M., & Lønning,P. E. (1998). Alterations in the insulin-like growth factor system during the menstrual cycle in normal women. Maturitas, 28(3), 259-265..
- 165- Pereira, R. C., & Canalis, E. (1999). Parathyroid hormone increases mac25/insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-related protein-1 expression in cultured osteoblasts. Endocrinology, 140(5), 1998-2003..
- 166-Farley, J., Dimai, H. P., Stilt-Coffing, B., Farley, P., Pham, T., & Mohan, S. (2000). Calcitonin increases the concentration of insulin-like growth factors in serum-free cultures of human osteoblast-line cells. Calcified tissue international, 67(3), 247-254..
- 167- Froesch, E. R., Hussain, M. A., Schmid, C., & Zapf, J. (1996). Insulinlike growth factor I: physiology, metabolic effects and clinical uses. Diabetes/metabolism reviews, 12(3), 195-215..
- 168- Andress, D. L. (2001). IGF-binding protein-5 stimulates osteoblast activity and bone accretion in ovariectomized mice. American Journal of Physiology-Endocrinology and Metabolism, 281(2), E283-E288..
- 169-Bieglmayer, C., Prager, G., & Niederle, B. (2002). Kinetic analyses of parathyroid hormone clearance as measured by three rapid immunoassays during parathyroidectomy. Clinical chemistry, 48(10), 1731-1738..
- 170-Brewer, H. B., Fairwell, T., Ronan, R., Sizemore, G. W., & Arnaud,C. D. (1992). Human parathyroid hormone: amino-acid sequence of the

amino-terminal residues 1-34. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 69(12), 3585-3588..

- 171- Günther, T., Chen, Z. F., Kim, J., Priemel, M., Rueger, J. M., Amling, M., ... & Karsenty, G. (2000). Genetic ablation of parathyroid glands reveals another source of parathyroid hormone. Nature, 406(6792), 199..
- 172- Canaff, L., & Hendy, G. N. (2002). Human calcium-sensing receptor gene Vitamin D response elements in promoters P1 and P2 confer transcriptional responsiveness to 1, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 277(33), 30337-30350..
- 173-Lee, D. M., Rutter, M. K., O'Neill, T. W., Boonen, S., Vanderschueren, D., Bouillon, R., ... & Giwercman, A. (2009). Vitamin D, parathyroid hormone and the metabolic syndrome in middle-aged and older European men. European Journal of Endocrinology, 161(6), 947-954..
- 174- Lu, L., Yu, Z., Pan, A., Hu, F. B., Franco, O. H., Li, H., ... & Lin, X. (2009). Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentration and metabolic syndrome among middle-aged and elderly Chinese individuals. Diabetes care, 32(7), 1278-1283..
- 175- Murakami, R., Murakami, S., Tsushima, R., Ueda, C., Mikami, K., Ebina, T., ... & Okumura, K. (2007). Glycaemic control and serum intact parathyroid hormone levels in diabetic patients on haemodialysis therapy. Nephrology Dialysis Transplantation, 23(1), 315-320..
- 176- Hoogendijk, W. J., Lips, P., Dik, M. G., Deeg, D. J., Beekman, A. T., & Penninx, B. W. (2008). Depression is associated with decreased 25-hydroxyvitamin D and increased parathyroid hormone levels in older adults. Archives of general psychiatry, 65(5), 508-512..

- 177- Kayaniyil, S. C. (2012). The Association of Vitamin D with Metabolic Disorders Underlying Type 2 Diabetes (Doctoral dissertation)..
- 178- Reis, J. P., Von Mühlen, D., & Miller, E. R. (2008). Relation of 25hydroxyvitamin D and parathyroid hormone levels with metabolic syndrome among US adults. European Journal of Endocrinology, 159(1), 41-48..
- 179- Hjelmesæth, J., Hofsø, D., Aasheim, E. T., Jenssen, T., Moan, J., Hager, H., ... & Bollerslev, J. (2009). Parathyroid hormone, but not vitamin D, is associated with the metabolic syndrome in morbidly obese women and men: a cross-sectional study. Cardiovascular diabetology, 8(1), 7..
- 180- American Diabetes Association (ADA). Standards of medical care in diabetes. Diabetes care 2015; 38(1): S1_S93.
- 181- Swanton, K., & Frost, M. (2007). Lightening the Load: Tackling Overweight and Obesity: a Toolkit for Developing Local Strategies to Tackle Overweight and Obesity in Chldren and Adults. National Heart Forum..
- 182- Trinder, P. (1996). Determination of blood glucose using 4-amino phenazone as oxygen acceptor. Journal of clinical pathology, 22(2), 246..
- 183- Geistanger A, Arends S, Berding C, Hoshino T, Jappsson JO, Little R, Siebelder C, Weykamp C. (2008), Stational method for monitoring the relationship between the IFCC refrence measurement procedure for hemoglobin A1c and the designated methods in the United State, Japan and Swede. Clin Chem 54(8): 1379_1385.
- 184-Richmond W. Proceedings in the development of an enzymatic technique for the assay of cholesterol in biologicalfluids. 1974; 46: 6_7.

- 185-Fassati, P., & Prencipe, L. (1982). Serum triglycerides determined colorimetrically with an enzyme that produces hydrogen peroxide. Clin Chem, 28(10), 2077-2080..
- 186- Price, C. P., & Koller, P. U. (1988). A Multicentre Study of the New Reflotron® Systemfor the Measurement of Urea, Glucose, Triacylglycerols, Cholesterol, γ-Glutamyltransferase and Haemoglobin..
 187- Friedewald, W. T., Levy, R. I., & Fredrickson, D. S. (1992). Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. Clinical chemistry, 18(6), 499-502..
- 188- Fiancis S, Green S, David G. (2001). Basic and clinical endocrinology,6th Ed. Chapter 20. Disorder of lipoprotein metabolic. Mary J, MalloyM D, John P, Kane MD7230.
- 189- Vogeser, M., Kyriatsoulis, A., Huber, E., & Kobold, U. (2004). Candidate reference method for the quantification of circulating 25hydroxyvitamin D3 by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. Clinical chemistry, 50(8), 1415-1417..
- 190- Roch Diagnostics GmbH, Standhofer Strasses 116, D-68305Mannheim. Parathyroid hormone. 2014; 12: 1-4.
- 191- Judzewitsch, R. G., Pfeifer, M. A., Best, J. D., Beard, J. C., HALTER, J. B., & Porte Jr, D. (1982). Chronic chlorpropamide therapy of noninsulin-dependent diabetes augments basal and stimulated insulin secretion by increasing islet sensitivity to glucose. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 55(2), 321-328..
- 192- Wallace, T. M., Levy, J. C., & Matthews, D. R. (2004). Use and abuse of HOMA modeling. Diabetes care, 27(6), 1487-1495..
- 193-Salim, N. H. (2012). IGF-1 ELISA. ALPCO, 96 (22), 1-15.

- 194- Anderegg G, Flashka H, Sallman R, Schwatzenbach G. Metallindikatoren VII, Fasciculus; 1994; (37).
- 195- Drewes PA. Clin Chim 1972; 81.
- 196- Miller, S. A., Dykes, D. D., & Polesky, H. F. R. N. (1988). A simple salting out procedure for extracting DNA from human nucleated cells. Nucleic acids research, 16(3), 1215..
- 197- Rasmussen, H. B. (2012). Restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis of PCR-amplified fragments (PCR-RFLP) and gel electrophoresis-valuable tool for genotyping and genetic fingerprinting. In Gel electrophoresis-principles and basics. InTechopen..
- 198-Karahalil B, Emerce E, Kocer B, Han S, Alkis N, Karakaya A. (2008), The association of OGG1 Ser 326 cys polymorphism and urinary 8-OHdG leves with lung cancer susceptibility: a hospital-based case-control study in Turkey. Archives of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology .59(4), 241_250.
- 199- El-Beshbishy, H. A., Tawfeek, M. A., Taha, I. M., FadulElahi, T., Shaheen, A. Y., Bardi, F. A., & Sultan, I. I. (2015). Association of vitamin D receptor gene BsmI (A> G) and FokI (C> T) polymorphism in gestational diabetes among Saudi Women. Pakistan journal of medical sciences, 31(6), 1328..
- 200- www. Intronbio . com .
- 201- Abdeltif E, Benrahma H, Charoute H, Brakat H, Kandil M, Rouba H. (2014), Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms and vitamin D status and susceptibility to type 2 diabetes mellitus in Moroccans patients. International Journal of Scientific and Research publications. 4(8): 1_7.
- 202- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Body Mass Index.(2007). Page last reviewed and updated.

- 203- Martin, K. E., Grivell, R. M., Yelland, L. N., & Dodd, J. M. (2015).The influence of maternal BMI and gestational diabetes on pregnancy outcome. Diabetes research and clinical practice, 108(3), 508-513..
- 204- McIntyre, H. D., Gibbons, K. S., Lowe, J., & Oats, J. J. (2018). Development of a risk engine relating maternal glycemia and body mass index to pregnancy outcomes. Diabetes research and clinical practice..
- 205-Wei, Y., Guo, Q., Sun, W., & Yang, H. (2015). Characteristics of oral glucose tolerance test in 9803 pregnant women of different prepregnancy body mass index and its relationship with the incidence of gestational diabetes mellitus. Zhonghua fu chan ke za zhi, 50(11), 830-833..
- 206- Shah, A., Stotland, N. E., Cheng, Y. W., Ramos, G. A., & Caughey,
 A. B. (2011). The association between body mass index and gestational diabetes mellitus varies by race/ethnicity. American journal of perinatology, 28(07), 515-520..
- 207- Cho, H. Y., Jung, I., & Kim, S. J. (2016). The association between maternal hyperglycemia and perinatal outcomes in gestational diabetes mellitus patients: A retrospective cohort study. Medicine, 95(36)..
- 208-Zawiejska, A., Wender-Ozegowska, E., Radzicka, S., & Brazert, J. (2014). Maternal hyperglycemia according to IADPSG criteria as a predictor of perinatal complications in women with gestational diabetes: a retrospective observational study. The Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine, 27(15), 1526-1530..
- 209- El-Sagheer G M, Kasem A, Shawky IM, Abdel-Fadeel A. (2016), Vitamin D deficiency and gestational diabetes mellitus in Egyption women open Journal of Endocrine and Metabolic Diseses . 6: 109_119.

- 210- Delong L , Burkhart N .In general and oral pathology ; Philadelphia .Lippincott Williams and Wilkins . Endocrine disorders . 2008 : 147-178.
- 211-Carr DB, Gabbe S. Gestational diabetes: Detection, Management and Implication. Clin Diabetes. 2007; 16(1): 4.
- 212- Gabbe, S. G., Niebyl, J. R., Simpson, J. L., Landon, M. B., Galan, H. L., Jauniaux, E. R. M., & Driscoll, D. A. (2012). Obstetrics: Normal and Problem Pregnancies, chapter 3. Churchill Livingstone, Philadelphia, Pa, USA,..
- 213- Sorenson, R. L., & Brelje, T. C. (1997). Adaptation of islets of Langerhans to pregnancy: β-cell growth, enhanced insulin secretion and the role of lactogenic hormones. Hormone and metabolic research, 29(06), 301-307..
- 214- Alvarez-Perez, J. C., Ernst, S., Demirci, C., Casinelli, G. P., Mellado-Gil, J. M. D., Rausell-Palamos, F., ... & Garcia-Ocaña, A. (2014). Hepatocyte growth factor/c-Met signaling is required for β-cell regeneration. Diabetes, 63(1), 216-223..
- 215-Wang, Y., Wang, O., Li, W., Ma, L., Ping, F., Chen, L., & Nie, M. (2015). Variants in vitamin D binding protein gene are associated with gestational diabetes mellitus. Medicine, 94(40)..
- 216- Das, S., Behera, M. K., Misra, S., & Baliarsihna, A. K. (2010). B-cell function and insulin resistance in pregnancy and their relation to fetal development. Metabolic syndrome and related disorders, 8(1), 25-32..
- 217- Endo, S., Maeda, K., Suto, M., Kaji, T., Morine, M., Kinoshita, T., ...
 & Irahara, M. (2006). Differences in insulin sensitivity in pregnant women with overweight and gestational diabetes mellitus. Gynecological endocrinology, 22(6), 343-349..

- 218-Barbour, L. A., McCurdy, C. E., Hernandez, T. L., Kirwan, J. P., Catalano, P. M., & Friedman, J. E. (2007). Cellular mechanisms for insulin resistance in normal pregnancy and gestational diabetes. Diabetes care, 30(Supplement 2), S112-S119..
- 219- Jenum, A. K., Richardsen, K. R., Berntsen, S., & Mørkrid, K. (2013). Gestational diabetes, insulin resistance and physical activity in pregnancy in a multi-ethnic population–a public health perspective. Norsk epidemiologi, 23(1)..
- 220- Amraei, A., & Azemati, M. (2007). Metabolic status of women with gestational diabetes mellitus six months after delivery. Research Journal of Biological Sciences, 2(1), 104-107..
- 221- Aziz R, Mahboob T. (2008) . Lipid profile and serum insulin levels in in gestational diabetes. Journal of the Dow University of Health Science. 2(3): 102_106.
- 222- Asare-Anane, H., Bawah, A. T., Osa-Andrews, B., Adanu, R., Ofori, E. K., Tagoe, S. B. R. A. E., & Nyarko, A. K. (2013). Lipid profile in Ghanaian women with gestational diabetes mellitus. International Journal Of Scientific & Technology Research, 2(4), 168-175..
- 223- Salameh, W. A., & Mastrogiannis, D. S. (1994). Maternal hyperlipidemia in pregnancy. Clinical obstetrics and gynecology, 37(1), 66-77..
- 224- Koukkou, E., Watts, G. F., & Lowy, C. (1996). Serum lipid, lipoprotein and apolipoprotein changes in gestational diabetes mellitus: a cross-sectional and prospective study. Journal of clinical pathology, 49(8), 634-637..
- 225-Wiznitzer, A., Mayer, A., Novack, V., Sheiner, E., Gilutz, H., Malhotra, A., & Novack, L. (2009). Association of lipid levels during

gestation with preeclampsia and gestational diabetes mellitus: a population-based study. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology, 201(5), 482-e1..

- 226- Mankuta, D., Elami-Suzin, M., Elhayani, A., & Vinker, S. (2010). Lipid profile in consecutive pregnancies. Lipids in health and disease, 9(1), 58..
- 227- Rössner, S., & Öhlin, A. (1995). Pregnancy as a risk factor for obesity: lessons from the Stockholm Pregnancy and Weight Development Study. Obesity research, 3(S2), 267s-275s..
- 228- Ahmed, S. E., Mustafa, E., & AbdulRaheem, E. M. (2013).
 Assessment of Plasma Levels of Fasting Blood Glucose, Triglycerides, Total Cholesterol, and HbA1c in patients with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. Diabetes, 13, 16..
- 229- Uttra, K. M., Devrajani, B. R., Shah, S. Z. A., Devrajani, T., Das, T., Raza, S., & Naseem, M. (2011). Lipid profile of patients with diabetes mellitus (a multidisciplinary study). World Appl Sci J, 12(9), 1382-1384..
- 230- Ratna MS, Siddhartha K, Sudhaka K. (2013) . Lipid profile in Type 2 diabetes mellitus with obesity. A peer Reviewed International Journal. 1. Issue2.
- 231- Yassin, M. M., Lubbad, A. M. M., & Saadallah, N. M. (2014). Biochemical and hematological parameters in relation to Helicobacter pylori infection among type 2 diabetic patients in Gaza Strip. Biochemical and hematological parameters in relation to Helicobacter pylori infection among type 2 diabetic patients in Gaza Strip, 4(1)..

- 232- Robciuc, M. R., Maranghi, M., Lahikainen, A., Rader, D., Bensadoun, A., Öörni, K., ... & Montali, A. (2013). Angptl3 deficiency is associated with increased insulin sensitivity, lipoprotein lipase activity, and decreased serum free fatty acids. Arteriosclerosis, thrombosis, and vascular biology, 33(7), 1706-1713..
- 233- Scheen AJ. (2003). Pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. Acta Clinica Belgica.; 58(6): 335_341.
- 234-Zuhur, S. S., Erol, R. S., Kuzu, I., & Altuntas, Y. (2013). The relationship between low maternal serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D levels and gestational diabetes mellitus according to the severity of 25-hydroxyvitamin D deficiency. Clinics, 68(5), 658-664..
- 235- Siddiqi, S. S., Borse, A. G., Pervez, A., & Anjum, S. (2017). A study of bone turnover markers in gestational diabetes mellitus. Indian journal of endocrinology and metabolism, 21(1), 38..
- 236- Danescu, L. G., Levy, S., & Levy, J. (2009). Vitamin D and diabetes mellitus. Endocrine, 35(1), 11-17..
- 237- McCarty, M. F., & Thomas, C. A. (2003). PTH excess may promote weight gain by impeding catecholamine-induced lipolysis-implications for the impact of calcium, vitamin D, and alcohol on body weight. Medical hypotheses, 61(5-6), 535-542...
- 238- Wareham, N. J., Byrne, C. D., Carr, C., Day, N. E., Boucher, B. J., & Hales, C. N. (1997). Glucose intolerance is associated with altered calcium homeostasis: a possible link between increased serum calcium concentration and cardiovascular disease mortality. Metabolism, 46(10), 1171-1177..

- 239- Zemel, M. B., Shi, H., Greer, B., Dirienzo, D., & Zemel, P. C. (2000).Regulation of adiposity by dietary calcium. The FASEB Journal, 14(9), 1132-1138..
- 240- Shi, H., Norman, A. W., Okamura, W. H., Sen, A., & Zemel, M. B. (2001). 1α, 25-Dihydroxyvitamin D3 modulates human adipocyte metabolism via nongenomic action. The FASEB journal, 15(14), 2751-2753..
- 241- Loy, S. L., Lek, N., Yap, F., Soh, S. E., Padmapriya, N., Tan, K. H., ... & Godfrey, K. M. (2015). Association of maternal vitamin D status with glucose tolerance and caesarean section in a multi-ethnic Asian cohort: the growing up in Singapore towards healthy outcomes study. PloS one, 10(11), e0142239..
- 242- Burris, H. H., Rifas-Shiman, S. L., Kleinman, K., Litonjua, A. A., Huh, S. Y., Rich-Edwards, J. W., ... & Gillman, M. W. (2012). Vitamin D deficiency in pregnancy and gestational diabetes mellitus. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology, 207(3), 182-e1..
- 243- Schneuer, F. J., Roberts, C. L., Guilbert, C., Simpson, J. M., Algert, C. S., Khambalia, A. Z., ... & Nassar, N. (2013). Effects of maternal serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations in the first trimester on subsequent pregnancy outcomes in an Australian population. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 99(2), 287-295..
- 244- Hauta-alus, H. H., Viljakainen, H. T., Holmlund-Suila, E. M., Enlund-Cerullo, M., Rosendahl, J., Valkama, S. M., ... & Andersson, S. (2017).
 Maternal vitamin D status, gestational diabetes and infant birth size. BMC pregnancy and childbirth, 17(1), 420..

- 245- Pereira-Santos, M., Costa, P. R. D. F., Assis, A. M. O., Santos, C. A. D. S. T., & Santos, D. B. D. (2015). Obesity and vitamin D deficiency: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Obesity reviews, 16(4), 341-349..
- 246- Vimaleswaran, K. S., Berry, D. J., Lu, C., Tikkanen, E., Pilz, S., Hiraki, L. T., ... & Wood, A. R. (2013). Causal relationship between obesity and vitamin D status: bi-directional Mendelian randomization analysis of multiple cohorts. PLoS medicine, 10(2), e1001383..
- 247- Autier, P., Boniol, M., Pizot, C., & Mullie, P. (2014). Vitamin D status and ill health: a systematic review. The lancet Diabetes & endocrinology, 2(1), 76-89..
- 248- Nobles, C. J., Markenson, G., & Chasan-Taber, L. (2015). Early pregnancy vitamin D status and risk for adverse maternal and infant outcomes in a bi-ethnic cohort: the Behaviors Affecting Baby and You (BABY) Study. British Journal of Nutrition, 114(12), 2116-2128..
- 249- Farrant, H. J., Krishnaveni, G. V., Hill, J. C., Boucher, B. J., Fisher, D. J., Noonan, K., ... & Fall, C. H. (2009). Vitamin D insufficiency is common in Indian mothers but is not associated with gestational diabetes or variation in newborn size. European journal of clinical nutrition, 63(5), 646..
- 250- Mathieu, C. (2015). Vitamin D and diabetes: where do we stand?. Diabetes research and clinical practice, 108(2), 201-209..
- 251- De-Regil, L. M., Palacios, C., Lombardo, L. K., & Peña-Rosas, J. P. (2016). Vitamin D supplementation for women during pregnancy. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, (1)..
- 252-Gibson, J. M., Aplin, J. D., White, A., & Westwood, M. (2001). Regulation of IGF bioavailability in pregnancy. Molecular human reproduction, 7(1), 79-87..

- 253- Chellakooty, M., Vangsgaard, K., Larsen, T., Scheike, T., Falck-Larsen, J., Legarth, J., ... & Juul, A. (2004). A longitudinal study of intrauterine growth and the placental growth hormone (GH)-insulin-like growth factor I axis in maternal circulation: association between placental GH and fetal growth. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 89(1), 384-391..
- 254- Asvold BO, Eskild A, Jenum PA, Vatten LJ.(2011) Maternal concentration of Insulin-like growth factor 1 and Insulin-like growth factor binding protein 1 during pregnancy and birth weght of pffspring. Amerrican Journal of Epidemiology. 174(2): 129_135.
- 255- Holmes, R. P., Holly, J. M. P., & Soothill, P. W. (1998). A prospective study of maternal serum insulin-like growth factor-I in pregnancies with appropriately grown or growth restricted fetuses. BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology, 105(12), 1273-1278..
- 256- Caufriez, A. N. N. E., Frankenne, F. R. A. N. C. I. S., Hennen, G. E. O. R. G. E. S., & Copinschi, G. E. O. R. G. E. S. (1993). Regulation of maternal IGF-I by placental GH in normal and abnormal human pregnancies. American Journal of Physiology-Endocrinology And Metabolism, 265(4), E572-E577..
- 257- Hills, F. A., English, J., & Chard, T. (1996). Circulating levels of IGF-I and IGF-binding protein-1 throughout pregnancy: relation to birthweight and maternal weight. Journal of Endocrinology, 148(2), 303-309..
- 258-Olausson, H., Lof, M., Brismar, K., Lewitt, M., Forsum, E., & Sohlstrom, A. (2008). Longitudinal study of the maternal insulin-like growth factor system before, during and after pregnancy in relation to

fetal and infant weight. Hormone Research in Paediatrics, 69(2), 99-106..

- 259- Clapp Iii, J. F., Schmidt, S., Paranjape, A., & Lopez, B. (2004). Maternal insulin-like growth factor-I levels (IGF-I) reflect placental mass and neonatal fat mass. American journal of obstetrics and gynecology, 190(3), 730-736.
- 260- Monaghan, J. M., Godber, I. M., Lawson, N., Kaur, M., Wark, G., Teale, D., & Hosking, D. J. (2004). Longitudinal changes of insulin-like growth factors and their binding proteins throughout normal pregnancy. Annals of clinical biochemistry, 41(3), 220-226..
- 261- Katung, G. K., & Akande, T. S. (2016). The prevalence of hypocalcemia in pregnancy and peurperium in northwestern Nigeria. Tropical Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, 33(1), 27-31..
- 262- Hatswell BL, Milat F. (2015) . Management of hypoparathyroididsmin in pregnancy and location-A-report of 10 cases. 3: 15_19.
- 263-Benali, I., & Demmouche, A. (2014). Calcium deficiency among pregnant women and their newborns in Sidi Bel Abbes Region, Algeria. Nutrition & Food Sciences.4(6): 318.
- 264- Hacker, A. N., Fung, E. B., & King, J. C. (2012). Role of calcium during pregnancy: maternal and fetal needs. Nutrition reviews, 70(7), 397-409..
- 265-Ganpule, A., Yajnik, C. S., Fall, C. H. D., Rao, S., Fisher, D. J., Kanade, A., ... & Deshpande, V. (2006). Bone mass in Indian children—Relationships to maternal nutritional status and diet during pregnancy: The Pune Maternal Nutrition Study. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, 91(8), 2994-3001..

- 266- Osorio-Yáñez, C., Qiu, C., Gelaye, B., Enquobahrie, D. A., & Williams, M. A. (2017). Risk of gestational diabetes mellitus in relation to maternal dietary calcium intake. Public health nutrition, 20(6), 1082-1089..
- 267-Bao, W., Bowers, K., Tobias, D. K., Hu, F. B., & Zhang, C. (2013). Prepregnancy dietary protein intake, major dietary protein sources, and the risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: a prospective cohort study. Diabetes Care, 36(7), 2001-2008..
- 268- Schoenaker, D. A., Soedamah-Muthu, S. S., Callaway, L. K., & Mishra, G. D. (2015). Pre-pregnancy dietary patterns and risk of gestational diabetes mellitus: results from an Australian populationbased prospective cohort study. Diabetologia, 58(12), 2726-2735..
- 269- Liu, S., Choi, H. K., Ford, E., Song, Y., Klevak, A., Buring, J. E., & Manson, J. E. (2006). A prospective study of dairy intake and the risk of type 2 diabetes in women. Diabetes care, 29(7), 1579-1584..
- 270- Villegas, R., Gao, Y. T., Dai, Q., Yang, G., Cai, H., Li, H., ... & Shu, X. O. (2009). Dietary calcium and magnesium intakes and the risk of type 2 diabetes: the Shanghai Women's Health Study. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 89(4), 1059-1067..
- 271-Fujita, T., & Palmieri, G. M. (2000). Calcium paradox disease: calcium deficiency prompting secondary hyperparathyroidism and cellular calcium overload. Journal of bone and mineral metabolism, 18(3), 109-125..
- 272- Jones, K. W., Eller, L. K., Parnell, J. A., Doyle-Baker, P. K., Edwards,A. L., & Reimer, R. A. (2013). Effect of a dairy-and calcium-rich diet on weight loss and appetite during energy restriction in overweight and

obese adults: a randomized trial. European journal of clinical nutrition, 67(4), 371..

- 273- Khastiga G, Studd John WW. (1996). Pregnancy associated osteoporosis. British Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, 101(10): 836_838.
- 274- Ukaegbu, C. I. (2014). Effects of pregnancy on serum calcium, magnesium and inorganiuc phosphate ions in relation to osteodiseases. Journal of Biotechnology Science Research, 1(2)..
- 275-Bener, A., Al-Hamaq, A. O., & Saleh, N. M. (2013). Association between vitamin D insufficiency and adverse pregnancy outcome: global comparisons. International journal of women's health, 5, 523.
- 276-Wei, S. Q., Qi, H. P., Luo, Z. C., & Fraser, W. D. (2013). Maternal vitamin D status and adverse pregnancy outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. The Journal of Maternal-Fetal & Neonatal Medicine, 26(9), 889-899..
- 277- Clifton-Bligh, R. J., McElduff, P., & McElduff, A. (2008). Maternal vitamin D deficiency, ethnicity and gestational diabetes. Diabetic Medicine, 25(6), 678-684..
- 278-Hossein-Nezhad, A., Maghbooli, Z., Vassigh, A. R., & Larijani, B. (2007). Prevalence of gestational diabetes mellitus and pregnancy outcomes in Iranian women. Taiwanese Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, 46(3), 236-241..
- 279- Zhang, C., Qiu, C., Hu, F. B., David, R. M., Van Dam, R. M., Bralley, A., & Williams, M. A. (2008). Maternal plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D concentrations and the risk for gestational diabetes mellitus. PloS one, 3(11), e3753.

- 280- Flood-Nichols, S. K., Tinnemore, D., Huang, R. R., Napolitano, P. G.,
 & Ippolito, D. L. (2015). Vitamin D deficiency in early pregnancy. PLoS One, 10(4), e0123763..
- 281-Rodriguez, A., García-Esteban, R., Basterretxea, M., Lertxundi, A., Rodríguez-Bernal, C., Iniguez, C., ... & Morales, E. (2015).
 Associations of maternal circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D3 concentration with pregnancy and birth outcomes. BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics & Gynaecology, 122(12), 1695-1704..
- 282- Makgoba, M., Nelson, S. M., Savvidou, M., Messow, C. M., Nicolaides, K., & Sattar, N. (2011). First-trimester circulating 25hydroxyvitamin D levels and development of gestational diabetes mellitus. Diabetes care, 34(5), 1091-1093..
- 283- Mathieu C, Gysemans C, Giulietti A, Boullon R.(2005) Vitamin D and diabetes. Diabetologia. 48: 1247_1257.
- 284- Liu, E., Meigs, J. B., Pittas, A. G., McKeown, N. M., Economos, C. D., Booth, S. L., & Jacques, P. F. (2008). Plasma 25-hydroxyvitamin D is associated with markers of the insulin resistant phenotype in nondiabetic adults. The Journal of nutrition, 139(2), 329-334..
- 285-Maghbooli, Z., Hossein-nezhad, A., Karimi, F., Shafaei, A. R., & Larijani, B. (2008). Correlation between vitamin D3 deficiency and insulin resistance in pregnancy. Diabetes/metabolism research and reviews, 24(1), 27-32..
- 286- Soheilykhah, S., Mojibian, M., Rashidi, M., Rahimi-Saghand, S., & Jafari, F. (2010). Maternal vitamin D status in gestational diabetes mellitus. Nutrition in Clinical Practice, 25(5), 524-527..

- 287- Torloni, M. R., Betran, A. P., Horta, B. L., Nakamura, M. U., Atallah, A. N., Moron, A. F., & Valente, O. (2009). Prepregnancy BMI and the risk of gestational diabetes: a systematic review of the literature with meta-analysis. Obesity reviews, 10(2), 194-203..
- 288- Lau, S. L., Gunton, J. E., Athayde, N. P., Byth, K., & Cheung, N. W. (2011). Serum 25-hydroxyvitamin D and glycated haemoglobin levels in women with gestational diabetes mellitus. Medical Journal of Australia, 194(7), 334-337..
- 289- Ou, W., Min, N., HU, Y. Y., Zhang, K., Wei, L. I., Fan, P. I. N. G., ...
 & Xing, X. P. (2012). Association between vitamin D insufficiency and the risk for gestational diabetes mellitus in pregnant Chinese women. Biomedical and Environmental Sciences, 25(4), 399-406..
- 290-Joergensen JS, Lamont RF, Torloni MR. (2014) .Vitamin D and gestational diabetes. Current Opinion in Clinical Nutrition and Metabolic Care. 17: 360_367.
- 291-Bid, H. K., Konwar, R., Aggarwal, C. G., Gautam, S., Saxena, M., Nayak, V. L., & Banerjee, M. (2009). Vitamin D receptor (FokI, BsmI and TaqI) gene polymorphisms and type 2 diabetes mellitus: a North Indian study. Indian journal of medical sciences, 63(5)..
- 292- Al, G. M. (2014). Association of vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms with gestational diabetes in pregnant women. Wulfenia J, 21(9), 302-308..
- 293- Aslani, S., Hossein-Nezhad, A., Mirzaei, K., Maghbooli, Z., Afshar, A. N., & Karimi, F. (2011). VDR FokI polymorphism and its potential role in the pathogenesis of gestational diabetes mellitus and its complications. Gynecological Endocrinology, 27(12), 1055-1060..

- 294- Alzaim, M. (2018). FokI Vitamin D Receptor Gene Polymorphisms and Metabolic Health in Pregnant Saudi Women.
- 295-Pendeloski, K. P. T., Lobo, T. F., Ohki, C. M. Y., Siqueira, T. W., Fantasia, J. F., Torloni, M. R., ... & Daher, S. (2015). Vitamin D and gestational diabetes mellitus: Phenotype and genotype analysis. Placenta, 4(36), 519..
- 296-Mahjoubi, I., Kallel, A., Sbaï, M. H., Ftouhi, B., ben Halima, M., Jemaa, Z., ... & Kaabachi, N. (2016). Lack of association between FokI polymorphism in vitamin D receptor gene (VDR) & type 2 diabetes mellitus in the Tunisian population. The Indian journal of medical research, 144(1), 46..
- 297-Ban, Y., Taniyama, M., Yanagawa, T., Yamada, S., Maruyama, T., Kasuga, A., & Ban, Y. (2001). Vitamin D receptor initiation codon polymorphism influences genetic susceptibility to type 1 diabetes mellitus in the Japanese population. BMC medical genetics, 2(1), 7..
- 298- Angel, B., Santos, J. L., Carrasco, E., Albala, C., & Perez-Bravo, F. (2004). Vitamin D receptor polymorphism and susceptibility to type 1 diabetes in Chilean subjects: a case-parent study. European journal of epidemiology, 19(12), 1085-1087..
- 299- Hong, Y. J., Kang, E. S., Ji, M. J., Choi, H. J., Oh, T., Koong, S. S., & Jeon, H. J. (2015). Association between Bsm1 polymorphism in vitamin D receptor gene and diabetic retinopathy of type 2 diabetes in Korean population. Endocrinology and Metabolism, 30(4), 469-474..

الخالصة

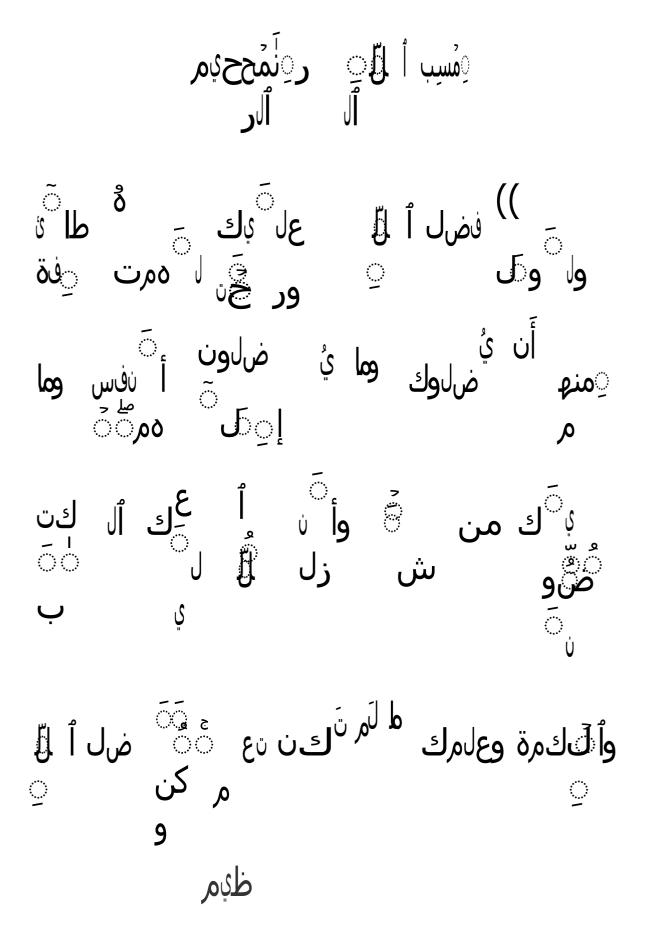
سكري الحمل هو احد انواع السكري ويعرف بعدم الؤدرة على تحمل الكلوكوز اثناء الحمل, ويوصف بأن افراز خاليا β في البنكرياس غير كانية لللبية حاجة الجسم من االنسولين ربما بسبب امراض المناعة الذائية او مقاومة االنسولين او بسبب نشوهات ورائية .

وَد بِنراوح انتشار مرض سكري الحمل بنسبة 1 % الى 14 % بين النساء الحوامل, اعتمادا على المعايير السكانية ومعايير التشخيص المدروسة . من امم العوامل المسببة لسكري الحمل مي البدانة والحمل في عمر متأخر . وَد بِننج عن حالة االنبض غير الطبيعية اثناء الحمل واالصابة بسكري الحمل الى النائير على نمو الجزين وصحة اللم في المسنويل . بِنم تشخيص حالة الصابة السكري الحمل بأجراء الخبار تحمل الكلوكوز عن طريق اخذ 75 غرام من الكلوكوز ولمدة ساعتين .

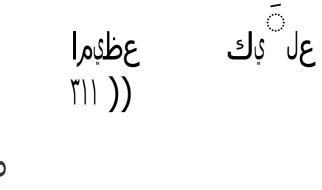
جمعت نماذج الدم التي استخدمت في الدراسة من مستشفى الرمادي التعليمي للنسائية واالطفال ومن مختبر المولى للتطيلت المرضية, واجريت التحاليل البايولوجية في مختبر المولى واجريت الدراسة الجيزية في مكتب ومج الدنا العلمي للفترة من اللول من شهر ايلول 2017 الى نهاية شهر نسان 2018 الجيزية في مكتب ومج الدنا مصابة بسكري الحمل و30 حالة لحوامل اصحاء وغير مصابات بسكري الحمل و30 حالة لنساء غير حوامل وفي عمر االنجاب ولديهن تراكيز طبيعية من نيتامين D , وجمعت نماذج الدم)5 مل (عزد الصباح بعد 10- 12 ساعة من الصيام ,ونم حفظ 2 مل من الدم ني

انبوب يعنوي على للألئين ثنائي امين رباعي حامض الخليك (EDTA) ونم استخدامه لؤياس السكر النراكمي (HbA1c(والستخالص ال DNA الذي اجريت عليه الدراسة الجيزية , و3 مل من الدم استخلص من ها المصل واجريت عليها التحليل البابولوجية . أظهرت النائايج ان معدالت تراكيز نيت امين D كانت من فضن لدى الحوامل االصحاء (والتحوامل المصابات بسائري الحمل) 8.73±4.158 (والتحوامل المصابات بسائري الحمل) 6.83±4.158 (والتحوامل المصابات بسائري الحمل) معزوي بين المجموعتين , بينما كشف اختبار االنحدار اللوجستي عن وجود فروق معنوية في نراكيز الكلوكوز والسكر النراكمي و هرمون النسولين و هرمون الغدة الجار الدرؤية وتركيز الكلس يوم ونسبة مقاومة االنسولين والكوليس نرول بين المجاميع المدروسة, واظهرت الدراسة عدم وجود فروق معنوية في تراكيز مرمون النمو شبيه النسولين وتراكيز البرونيات الدونية عالية الخانة وكذلك تركيز ايون الفوسفور بين المجاميع المدروسة بكانت مناك عالقة عكسية بين تركيز نينامين D ومقاومة النسولين (لفوسفرور بين المجاميع المدروسة بكانت مناك عالقة عكسية بين تركيز فينامين D ومقاومة النسولين (لفوسفرور بين مجموعة الحوامل المصابات بسائري الحمل إن الاراسة بينت ان مناك عالقة بين السونة والصابة بسائري المحامي الحدلي مناك عالقة بين الحمل عنه بين تركيز فينامين D ومقاومة النسولين (لماسابة بسائري

بيزيت الدراسة الجيزية ان مسئقبالت نيت امزين D (1544410 و rs (10735810 و rs لي س له اعالية بيزيت الدراسة الجيزية ان مسئقبالت نيت امزين D و GG يمثالن عوامل وقاية من المصابة بداء سكري الحمل عزد النساء العراؤيات وبيزيت ان CC و GG يمثالن عوامل وقاية من اللصابة بسكري الحمل (1>O) بيزما OR (1) بيزما CT , TT, GA يمثالون عوامل خطورة ومسببات لسكري الحمل (1≤O) لكن الليل C والليل G يمثالن عاما وقاية من اللصابة بداء سكري الحمل (1) مع اللي المصابة العراؤيات وبيزيت ان OR (1) بيزما O



للع



صد ق اَّلل

سورة النساء

جم مور بة العراق وزارة النعل بم العال والبحث العلمي جامعة النبار -للية العلوم قسم الكيمياء



العالقة بين مستقبالت جين فينامين D₃ وبعض المتغيرات الكيموحيوية للعراقيات المصابات بسكر الحمل

من قبل

بإشراف

أ.د.وجيه يونس العاني

أ.م.د.حميد حسين علي



جم مورية العراق وزارة النعليم العالي والبحث العلمي جامعة االنبار الخلية العلوم قسم الكيمياء