

Blood sugar fasting, post prandial and HbA1c level co-relationship in the management of diabetes mellitus: A Comprehensive Review

ABSTRACT

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by persistent hyperglycemia caused by impairments in insulin secretion leading to severe complications such as retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy and cardiovascular diseases. Effective management of DM requires monitoring three key biomarkers like fasting blood glucose (FBG), postprandial blood glucose (PPBG) and glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c). FBG reflects basal glucose levels controlled by hepatic glucose production, while PPBG assesses glucose regulation after meals, serving as a strong indicator of cardiovascular risk. HbA1c, regarded as the gold standard for long-term glycemic monitoring provides an integrated measure of average glucose levels over 2-3 months. The interplay among these markers is critical for understanding glycemic control dynamics and tailoring effective therapeutic strategies. This review explores their interrelationships, emphasizing the contributions of FBG and PPBG to HbA1c levels and their clinical significance in diagnosing and managing diabetes. It also highlights challenges such as individual variability in glucose metabolism and factors affecting measurement accuracy, alongside emerging technologies like continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) that provide real-time insights for personalized care. By addressing these complexities, the study underscores the importance of a multidimensional approach to optimize outcomes and reduce the burden of diabetes-related complications.

Keywords: Diabetes mellitus, FBG, PPBG, HbA1c, glycemic control, glucose monitoring, continuous glucose monitoring (CGM), diabetes management, hyperglycemia, personalized care, biomarkers, diabetes complications.

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a complex metabolic condition defined by persistent high blood sugar levels (hyperglycemia) caused by impairments in insulin production, insulin action or a combination of both (**American Diabetes Association [ADA], 2020**). Effective management of blood sugar levels is crucial to prevent both immediate and long-term complications, such as retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy and cardiovascular diseases. The most common and widely accepted biomarkers for assessing glycemic control in DM are FBG, PPG and HbA1c. These markers provide essential insights into various aspects of glucose regulation, which are critical for optimizing treatment strategies and improving patient outcomes.

FBG is measured after an 8-hour period without food, is an important indicator of basal insulin function and hepatic glucose production (**American Diabetes Association, 2020**). Elevated FBG levels often reflect insulin resistance and inadequate insulin secretion, common features of type 2 diabetes (**Kahn et al., 2014**). On the other hand, PPG assesses the body's ability to regulate glucose following meals. Postprandial hyperglycemia is a significant risk factor for cardiovascular disease and has been shown to be a stronger predictor of complications than FBG in some populations, especially in type 2 diabetes (**Ceriello et al., 2004**). The HbA1c test measures the percentage of hemoglobin that is glycated over a

38 period of 2-3 months, providing a comprehensive reflection of both fasting and postprandial glucose
39 control (Nathan et al., 2009). Higher HbA1c levels are associated with an increased risk of microvascular
40 and macrovascular complications in diabetes patients (Stratton et al., 2000). The relationship between
41 these markers is critical for diabetes management. Elevated fasting glucose often contributes directly to
42 higher HbA1c, while postprandial glucose surges can also significantly impact HbA1c, even in patients
43 with normal fasting levels (Zhang et al., 2015). As such, effective diabetes management strategies aim to
44 address both fasting and postprandial hyperglycemia to prevent long-term complications. Maintaining an
45 optimal HbA1c target of <7% has been shown to reduce the risk of complications significantly,
46 underscoring the importance of a multifaceted approach to blood glucose control (ADA, 2020).
47 Therefore, understanding the interrelationship between FBG, PPG and HbA1c is essential for
48 personalized diabetes management with the goal of improving overall outcomes and reducing the burden
49 of diabetes-related complications.

50 **METHODOLOGY:**

51 This review adopts a comprehensive approach to examining the interrelationship between FBG, PPBG
52 and HbA1c in the management of DM. A systematic literature search was conducted using databases such
53 as PubMed, Scopus and Google Scholar to identify relevant studies published between 2000 and 2023.
54 Keywords including "fasting blood glucose," "postprandial blood glucose," "HbA1c," "diabetes
55 management" and "glycemic control" were employed to retrieve studies. Peer-reviewed articles, clinical
56 trials, meta-analyses and review papers that investigated the relationships among these biomarkers and
57 their clinical implications were included.

58 Data were extracted to assess the contributions of FBG and PPBG to HbA1c levels and to evaluate the
59 clinical utility and limitations of each marker. Additionally, studies on the application of advanced
60 technologies like continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) and flash glucose monitoring (FGM) were
61 included to understand their impact on modern diabetes management. Comparative analyses of studies
62 across diverse populations including type 1 and type 2 diabetes, gestational diabetes and high-risk groups,
63 were conducted to account for variations in glycemic dynamics.

64 **DIABETES MELLITUS AND ITS GLOBAL PREVALENCE**

65 Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic condition marked by the body's inability to regulate blood
66 glucose levels effectively, leading to consistently elevated concentrations of blood sugar. This disorder
67 may result from insufficient insulin production by the pancreas, characteristic of type 1 diabetes, or from
68 the body's resistance to insulin, as observed in type 2 diabetes (Ozougwu, 2013; Seino et al., 2010). As a
69 significant global health issue, diabetes is poised to become even more prevalent in the coming years,
70 necessitating urgent public health interventions.

71 The worldwide prevalence of diabetes is rising at an alarming rate. According to projections by the WHO,
72 the number of adults with diabetes is expected to nearly double from 177 million in 2000 to 370 million
73 by 2030 (Ozougwu, 2013). Moreover, experts predict a staggering 64% increase in diabetes incidence by
74 2025, potentially affecting 53.1 million individuals. Recent statistics further highlight this trend, with

75 global diabetes prevalence recorded at 9.3% in 2019, a figure anticipated to climb to 10.2% by 2030 and
76 10.9% by 2045 (Saeedi et al., 2019). Both type 1 and type 2 diabetes are becoming increasingly common,
77 with the International Diabetes Federation estimating that approximately 500 million individuals are
78 currently living with diabetes, a number projected to surge to 783.2 million within the next two decades
79 (Oyagbemi et al., 2014; Ozougwu, 2013; Ansari et al., 2022).

80 The increased prevalence of diabetes is not limited to any specific region or country. In fact, the burden of
81 this condition is felt across the globe with the International Diabetes Federation reporting that the largest
82 number of individuals with diabetes reside in the Western Pacific region, followed by Europe, Southeast
83 Asia and the Middle East and North Africa (Wang et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2020; Saeedi et al., 2019).

84 The rising prevalence of diabetes is a complex issue, driven by a variety of factors including changes in
85 lifestyle, diet and physical activity patterns, as well as genetic and environmental influences. Addressing
86 the global diabetes epidemic will require a multifaceted approach with a focus on prevention, early
87 detection and effective management strategies.

88 **THE SIGNIFICANCE OF BLOOD GLUCOSE MONITORING IN DIABETES MANAGEMENT**

89 Diabetes, a chronic condition characterized by the body's inability to regulate blood sugar levels
90 effectively has become a global health concern, affecting millions of individuals worldwide. Proper
91 management of diabetes is crucial, as uncontrolled blood glucose levels can lead to a host of
92 complications, ranging from cardiovascular disease to nerve damage and vision loss (Vrany et al., 2023).
93 One of the cornerstones of effective diabetes management is the practice of regular blood glucose
94 monitoring. Decades of research have consistently demonstrated the importance of maintaining healthy
95 blood glucose levels in preventing or delaying the onset of diabetes-related complications, particularly in
96 high-risk and marginalized populations (Vrany et al., 2023).

97 Continuous glucose monitoring has emerged as a cutting-edge technology that provides real-time data on
98 an individual's blood sugar levels, allowing for more precise and personalized diabetes management
99 (Gilbert et al., 2021). Continuous glucose monitoring provides a complete picture of blood sugar
100 patterns, helping individuals with diabetes make more informed decisions about their treatment and daily
101 habits, which can lead to improved glycemic control and better quality of life (Gilbert et al., 2021).
102 However, the benefits of glucose monitoring can vary depending on the individual and their specific
103 needs. For some, regular self-monitoring of blood glucose, combined with education and support can
104 offer valuable insights into how lifestyle choices and medication management impact their blood sugar
105 levels (Davies et al., 2018).

106

107 In the case of type 2 diabetes, the advantages of continuous glucose monitoring have been more modest,
108 as the condition is often characterized by a more gradual deterioration of beta cell function and a less
109 pronounced need for tight glycemic control. Nonetheless, the implementation of patient-centered care,
110 which acknowledges the multifaceted nature of diabetes and respects individual preferences and barriers,

111 is essential for effective diabetes management. Incorporating continuous glucose monitoring and other
112 novel technologies into a comprehensive, personalized approach to care can lead to improved outcomes,
113 particularly for individuals from marginalized racial and ethnic groups, who have historically experienced
114 disproportionate rates of diabetes-related complications (Vrany et al., 2023).

115 ELUCIDATION OF THE THREE PRIMARY MEASUREMENTS:

116 1. Fasting blood sugar (FBS)

117 FBS plays a vital role in managing diabetes as it provides a clear measure of blood glucose levels when
118 no recent food intake influences the reading. Keeping FBS within healthy limits is crucial for preventing
119 or delaying diabetes-related complications including cardiovascular disease, nerve damage and vision
120 loss. Regularly monitoring FBS enables individuals with diabetes to make better-informed decisions
121 about their treatment and daily habits contributing to improved blood sugar control and enhanced quality
122 of life (Cappon et al., 2017; Davies et al., 2018; Gilbert et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021).

123 FBS is a measure of the body's ability to regulate blood glucose levels in the absence of recent food
124 intake. In the fasting state, glucose levels are primarily controlled by the liver, which releases glucose to
125 maintain stable blood sugar levels (Giugliano et al., 2008). Several factors can influence the results of
126 FBS tests. Diurnal variation has been observed with a higher prevalence of diabetes in patients examined
127 in the morning compared to the afternoon. Additionally, factors such as food intake during the fasting
128 period, hypocaloric diets and delays in processing the blood sample can all impact the accuracy of the
129 results (Sacks, 2011). Glucose homeostasis is a tightly regulated process in healthy individuals,
130 maintained by a delicate balance between insulin and counterregulatory hormones. However, in patients
131 with diabetes, this balance is disrupted, leading to dysregulation of glucose levels. After an overnight fast,
132 healthy individuals can utilize the glycogen stores in the liver to maintain glucose levels for
133 approximately 12 hours (Alarouj et al., 2010). Understanding the factors that influence FBS levels is
134 crucial for accurate interpretation of diagnostic tests and effective management of glucose homeostasis in
135 both healthy individuals and those with diabetes (Alarouj et al., 2010; Barker et al., 2011).

136 2. Postprandial blood sugar (PPBS)

137 In addition to FBS, PPBS (the level of blood glucose after a meal) is also an important consideration in
138 diabetes management. High blood sugar levels after meals known as postprandial hyperglycemia have
139 been associated with a higher risk of heart problems and other complications related to diabetes (Knowler
140 et al., 2002). While many experts agree that postprandial glucose levels offer a more accurate and early
141 indication of diabetes symptoms compared to fasting glucose levels, it has not yet been definitively
142 proven that controlling postprandial hyperglycemia can prevent these complications (Zimmerman,
143 2001).

144 While the literature provides valuable insights into the importance of monitoring postprandial glucose,
145 there is still uncertainty about the causal relationship between postmeal glucose and complications of
146 diabetes (Guideline for Management of Postmeal Glucose in Diabetes, 2013). Diabetes is diagnosed

147 when FBS levels are consistently ≥ 7 mmol/L or when blood sugar levels measured two hours after a meal
148 reach ≥ 11.1 mmol/L highlighting the importance of both fasting and PPBS in clinical evaluations
149 (**Giugliano et al., 2008**). Recognizing the impact of high PPBS (postprandial hyperglycemia), researchers
150 have investigated various strategies to manage this condition. These include using pre-packaged meals,
151 medications like α -glucosidase inhibitors and acarbose and fast-acting insulin therapies. While many
152 agree that postprandial glucose levels provide an earlier and more reliable marker for identifying diabetes
153 symptoms compared to FBS, there is still no conclusive proof that controlling postprandial hyperglycemia
154 alone can prevent diabetes-related complications.

155 **3. Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c)**

156 Blood glucose levels provide a snapshot of a person's current glycemic status, but these levels can be
157 influenced by various factors such as food intake, physical activity, stress and medication use, which may
158 lead to significant fluctuations throughout the day. In contrast, HbA1c or glycated hemoglobin offers a
159 broader perspective by reflecting the average blood glucose levels over the previous 8–12 weeks. This
160 long-term marker is less affected by daily variations, making it a reliable measure of overall glycemic
161 control. HbA1c has become an indispensable tool in diabetes management, not only for tracking long-
162 term blood sugar trends but also for predicting the risk of complications like cardiovascular disease and
163 neuropathy (**Sacks, 2012; Weykamp, 2013**). It is widely regarded as the gold standard for evaluating
164 glycemic control in patients with diabetes. However, research has shown that even with similar average
165 blood glucose profiles, individuals can exhibit significant differences in HbA1c levels. These variations
166 suggest that factors beyond glucose levels, such as individual biological differences and environmental
167 influences also impact HbA1c results (**Xin et al., 2023**). Despite these complexities, HbA1c remains a
168 critical marker in routine diabetes care, enabling clinicians to assess long-term glycemic control and tailor
169 management strategies to reduce the risk of diabetes-related complications.

170 **INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FBS, PPBS and HbA1c:**

171 Diabetes mellitus, a long-term metabolic condition marked by consistently high blood sugar levels
172 (hyperglycemia) has emerged as a significant global health challenge affecting approximately 463 million
173 people worldwide as of 2019. The significance of blood glucose monitoring in the management of
174 diabetes cannot be overstated, as it plays a crucial role in the early detection, treatment and prevention of
175 complications (**Hu & Lin, 2018; Zhou et al., 2023**). Fasting blood glucose and postprandial blood
176 glucose are commonly used as diagnostic tools for diabetes, providing a snapshot of an individual's
177 glycemic status at a given time (**Erbach et al., 2016**). Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), on the other hand,
178 reflects the average blood glucose level over a 2-3 month period and is widely regarded as the "gold
179 standard" for monitoring long-term glycemic control (**Yan et al., 2019; Lapolla et al., 2011**).

180 The relationship between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c is pivotal in understanding glycemic control dynamics
181 in diabetes management. FBS and PPBS serve as real-time indicators of glucose levels, reflecting basal
182 and post-meal glucose fluctuations, while HbA1c provides an integrated picture of average blood glucose
183 over approximately three months. The comparative analysis of studies on the interrelationship between
184 FBS, PPBS and HbA1c highlights diverse findings that reflect the complexity of glycemic control in

185 different populations and conditions. **Patel and Anuradha (2023)** identified a robust correlation ($r > 0.9$)
186 between HbA1c, FBS and PPBS in Type 2 diabetes, underscoring the utility of these markers in tandem
187 for comprehensive glycemic assessments. Their findings emphasize that both FBS, as a marker of fasting
188 glucose stability and PPBS as an indicator of post-meal spikes, contribute significantly to the long-term
189 glycemic average represented by HbA1c. This is consistent with other studies but provides a particularly
190 high degree of correlation, suggesting effective glucose regulation strategies.

191 In contrast, **Kariyawan et al. (2021)** focused on the practical application of HbA1c-derived Estimated
192 Average Glucose (eAG), bridging short-term glucose measurements like FBS and PPBS with long-term
193 glycemic evaluations. The introduction of eAG provides a simplified approach for patient education and
194 clinical decision-making, making glycemic trends more accessible and actionable. This study aligns with
195 **Patel and Anuradha's** findings but adds a layer of utility for contexts where direct HbA1c testing might
196 be less accessible or more difficult to interpret. The dynamics between HbA1c, FBS and PPBS shift when
197 comparing other studies like **Vani and Renuka (2020)** and **Ahmed et al. (2013)**. **Vani and Renuka**
198 found a stronger correlation of HbA1c with PPBS ($r = 0.79$) compared to FBS ($r = 0.77$), highlighting the
199 significant influence of postprandial glucose spikes on long-term glycemic averages in Type 2 diabetes.
200 In contrast, **Ahmed et al.** demonstrated that in gestational diabetes, HbA1c correlated better with FBS (r
201 $= 0.87$) than PPBS ($r = 0.51$), reflecting the physiological adaptation during pregnancy where fasting
202 glucose plays a dominant role. These findings highlight how the relative contribution of FBS and PPBS to
203 HbA1c varies depending on the underlying condition with PPBS playing a more critical role in Type 2
204 diabetes and FBS taking precedence in gestational diabetes. Further expanding the perspective, **Sunthari**
205 **(2018)** explored the impact of micronutrient deficiencies, identifying an inverse relationship between
206 serum zinc levels and HbA1c. This unique approach adds a biological dimension to the discussion,
207 suggesting that deficiencies in essential nutrients like zinc could exacerbate hyperglycemia or affect
208 glycemic markers. **Rajan et al. (2020)** complemented this systemic view by linking oxidative stress
209 markers, such as malondialdehyde (MDA) with elevated HbA1c, FBS and PPBS, indicating that
210 prolonged hyperglycemia contributes to broader systemic dysfunction, including inflammation and
211 oxidative stress.

212 Occupational influences on glycemic variability were highlighted by **Sharma et al. (2023)**, who
213 emphasized the challenges faced by diabetic shift workers. Their study advocated integrating Self-
214 Monitoring of Blood Glucose (SMBG) with HbA1c monitoring to address the glycemic variability
215 induced by irregular schedules. This study stands out in its focus on behavioral and occupational factors,
216 showcasing how lifestyle dynamics can complicate glycemic control and necessitate tailored monitoring
217 strategies. **Renuka et al. (2020)** reinforced the reliability of HbA1c as a glycemic marker, aligning with
218 **Vani and Renuka (2020)** in observing a marginally stronger correlation with PPBS than FBS. This
219 consistency emphasizes the role of postprandial glucose in influencing HbA1c, especially in non-
220 gestational diabetic populations.

221 These studies collectively underscore the multifaceted interplay between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c. While
222 HbA1c provides an overarching view of long-term glycemic control, the contributions of FBS and PPBS
223 vary depending on the population, physiological condition and lifestyle factors. Tools like eAG enhance

224 practical applications, while considerations of oxidative stress, micronutrient status and behavioral
225 influences provide a deeper understanding of systemic and environmental impacts on glycemic markers.
226 This comparative analysis highlights the importance of personalized and context-specific approaches to
227 diabetes management, leveraging the strengths of these interrelated markers to optimize outcomes.

228 **CLINICAL RELEVANCE OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIP:**

229 The interrelationship between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c plays a pivotal role in diagnosing and managing
230 diabetes. Diagnostic criteria from the **American Diabetes Association (ADA)** heavily utilize these
231 markers to assess glycemic status comprehensively. FBS with a diagnostic threshold of ≥ 126 mg/dL (7.0
232 mmol/L) after an 8-hour fast is one of the most reliable tools for screening and reflects basal glucose
233 levels (**Patel & Anuradha, 2023**). PPBS measured two hours after a meal, is diagnostic at ≥ 200 mg/dL
234 (11.1 mmol/L) and captures glucose spikes after meals, often indicating early glucose intolerance when
235 FBS remains normal. Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) with a diagnostic threshold of $\geq 6.5\%$, represents
236 average blood glucose over 2–3 months and provides a comprehensive marker of long-term glycemic
237 control (**Kariyawan et al., 2021**). Together, these markers enhance diagnostic precision allowing for
238 early identification and classification of diabetes and prediabetes.

239 For effective diabetes management, optimal ranges for these markers have been defined to prevent
240 complications and ensure glycemic control. The ADA recommends maintaining FBS between 80–130
241 mg/dL (4.4–7.2 mmol/L) to manage baseline glucose levels and reduce risks such as nephropathy and
242 retinopathy (**Vani & Renuka, 2020**). PPBS levels should remain below 180 mg/dL (10 mmol/L) two
243 hours after meals, as postprandial glucose spikes are strongly linked to cardiovascular events and
244 endothelial dysfunction (**Ahmed et al., 2013**). HbA1c, widely regarded as the gold standard for long-term
245 monitoring, should ideally be $< 7.0\%$ for most adults with diabetes. However, individualized targets are
246 critical: younger, healthier individuals may aim for stricter control ($< 6.5\%$), while older patients or those
247 with comorbidities may target $< 8.0\%$ to minimize hypoglycemia risks (**Renuka et al., 2020**).

248 These optimal ranges are essential for guiding therapeutic decisions and achieving effective glycemic
249 control. For instance, while FBS provides insights into baseline glucose levels, PPBS is crucial for
250 detecting post-meal glucose excursions, which contribute significantly to HbA1c variability. HbA1c, in
251 turn, integrates these daily variations into a long-term average, reflecting overall glycemic trends
252 (**Sunthari, 2018**). Effective monitoring of these markers ensures a comprehensive approach to diabetes
253 management, reducing risks of microvascular and macrovascular complications. Studies also highlight the
254 importance of behavioral and systemic factors; for example, integrating self-monitoring of blood glucose
255 (SMBG) with HbA1c monitoring has been particularly effective in managing diabetic shift workers,
256 where glycemic variability is more pronounced (**Sharma et al., 2023**).

257 The interplay between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c provides a multidimensional approach to diagnosing and
258 managing diabetes. While FBS and PPBS offer immediate insights into fasting and postprandial glucose
259 levels, HbA1c serves as an integrated marker of long-term glycemic control. These measures complement
260 each other, enabling precise diagnostic and management strategies tailored to individual patient needs.

261 Regular monitoring and achieving optimal ranges for these markers remain central to preventing
262 complications and improving long-term outcomes for individuals with diabetes.

263 **LIMITATIONS AND CHALLENGES IN INTERPRETING THE INTERRELATIONSHIP:**

264 **1. Factors affecting measurement accuracy**

265 The interpretation of FBS, PPBS and HbA1c is often influenced by factors that compromise measurement
266 accuracy, posing challenges in clinical decision-making. HbA1c, while widely regarded as the gold
267 standard for long-term glycemic control, is particularly susceptible to inaccuracies in certain conditions.
268 Hemoglobinopathies, anemia, or alterations in red blood cell turnover can significantly distort HbA1c
269 levels. For example, in patients with iron-deficiency anemia, HbA1c levels may be falsely elevated due to
270 prolonged red blood cell survival, leading to an overestimation of glycemic control (Ahmed et al., 2013).
271 Conversely, conditions like hemolytic anemia or chronic kidney disease can reduce red blood cell
272 lifespan, causing falsely low HbA1c readings and underestimating glycemic burden. FBS and PPBS
273 measurements are also subject to variability due to improper fasting or timing errors during sample
274 collection. For instance, a misreported fasting period or delayed testing post-meal can lead to inaccurate
275 readings, complicating the interpretation of glucose patterns (Patel & Anuradha, 2023). Additionally,
276 glucose-lowering medications such as insulin or SGLT2 inhibitors can differentially affect FBS and
277 PPBS, potentially skewing correlations with HbA1c.

278 **2. Individual variations in glucose metabolism**

279 Another major challenge is the variability in glucose metabolism among individuals, which can affect the
280 interrelationship between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c. These variations may stem from genetic, physiological
281 and behavioral factors. For example, postprandial glucose levels are highly influenced by dietary patterns,
282 meal composition and insulin sensitivity. In some individuals, postprandial spikes significantly contribute
283 to HbA1c variability, while in others, fasting glucose plays a more dominant role (Vani & Renuka,
284 2020). Conditions such as gestational diabetes further illustrate this complexity; as Ahmed et al. (2013)
285 demonstrated, HbA1c correlates better with FBS ($r = 0.87$) than PPBS ($r = 0.51$), reflecting the
286 physiological adaptations during pregnancy that alter glucose dynamics. Lifestyle factors like physical
287 activity, stress and adherence to medication regimens further contribute to this variability. For example,
288 Sharma et al. (2023) showed that shift workers with irregular schedules exhibit more pronounced
289 glycemic variability, complicating the relationship between HbA1c, FBS and PPBS.

290 **EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES IN GLUCOSE MONITORING AND THEIR IMPACT ON** 291 **UNDERSTANDING THE INTERRELATIONSHIP**

292 The advent of emerging technologies in glucose monitoring has significantly enhanced our ability to
293 understand the interrelationship between FBS, PPBS and HbA1c. Continuous Glucose Monitoring
294 (CGM) systems are at the forefront of these advancements, providing real-time, dynamic data on glucose
295 trends throughout the day. Unlike static measures like FBS, PPBS, or HbA1c, CGM captures interstitial
296 glucose levels at frequent intervals, offering insights into glucose variability, patterns of hyperglycemia or

297 hypoglycemia and the effects of meals, medications and physical activity. This granularity allows for a
298 more comprehensive assessment of how fasting and postprandial glucose fluctuations contribute to long-
299 term glycemic control reflected in HbA1c (**Sharma et al., 2023**).

300 Another emerging tool is Flash Glucose Monitoring (FGM), which provides glucose readings on demand
301 through a small sensor worn on the skin. While less detailed than CGM, FGM is more accessible and
302 offers a practical alternative for patients who need frequent but not continuous glucose data. These
303 systems are particularly impactful in managing individuals with high glucose variability, such as diabetic
304 shift workers or those with irregular eating patterns. By tracking postprandial glucose excursions and
305 overnight trends, FGM and CGM help elucidate the contributions of FBS and PPBS to HbA1c variability,
306 enabling more targeted interventions (**Kariyawan et al., 2021**).

307 **CONCLUSION**

308 Diabetes mellitus is a complex and prevalent global health challenge that requires meticulous glycemic
309 control to prevent acute and chronic complications. FBG, PPBG and HbA1c are critical biomarkers that
310 collectively provide a comprehensive understanding of glucose regulation and long-term glycemic trends.
311 Their interrelationship underscores the need for a multifaceted approach in diabetes management,
312 addressing both fasting and postprandial hyperglycemia to achieve optimal HbA1c targets. Emerging
313 technologies such as continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) offer innovative solutions to monitor
314 glycemic variability in real-time, enabling more personalized and effective interventions. Despite
315 advancements, challenges like individual variability in glucose metabolism and limitations in biomarker
316 interpretation necessitate ongoing research and tailored approaches. By integrating advanced monitoring
317 tools, patient-centered care and a deeper understanding of the interconnections between FBG, PPBG and
318 HbA1c, healthcare providers can significantly improve diabetes outcomes and reduce the burden of this
319 chronic disease.

320

321 **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

- 322 • Ahmed F, Hoque M, Alam AT, Ahmed S, Tasnim N. HbA1C in patients with gestational diabetes mellitus.
323 Chattagram Maa-O-Shishu Hospital Medical College Journal. 2013 Oct 28;12(3):11-5.
- 324 • Alarouj M, Assaad-Khalil SH, Buse JB, Fahdil I, Fahmy MAH, Hafez S hassanein M, Ibrahim M, Kendall DM,
325 Kishawi S, Al-Madani A, Nakhi AB, Tayeb K, Thomas A. Recommendations for Management of Diabetes
326 During Ramadan. Diabetes Care. 2010;33(8):1895.
- 327 • American Diabetes Association (ADA). Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes: Standards of Medical Care in
328 Diabetes—2020. Diabetes Care. 2020;43(Supplement 1):S14-S31. doi: 10.2337/dc20-S002
- 329 • Ansari P, Hannan JMA, Seidel V, Abdel-Wahab YHA. Polyphenol-rich leaf of *Annona squamosa* stimulates
330 insulin release from BRIN-BD11 cells and isolated mouse islets, reduces (CH₂O)_n digestion and absorption and
331 improves glucose tolerance and GLP-1 (7-36) levels in high-fat-fed rats. Metabolites. 2022;12(10):995. doi:
332 10.3390/metabo12100995
- 333 • Barker A, Sharp SJ, Timpson NJ, Bouatia-Naji N, Warrington NM, Kanoni S, Beilin LJ, Brage S, Deloukas P,
334 Evans DM, Grøntved A hassanali N, Lawlor DA, Lecœur C, Loos RJF, Lye SJ, McCarthy MI, Mori TA,
335 Ndiaye NC, Langenberg C. Association of Genetic Loci With Glucose Levels in Childhood and Adolescence.
336 Diabetes. 2011;60(6):1805.
- 337 • Cappon G, Acciaroli G, Vettoretti M, Facchinetti A, Sparacino G. Wearable Continuous Glucose Monitoring
338 Sensors: A Revolution in Diabetes Treatment. Electronics. 2017;6(3):65.
- 339 • Ceriello A, et al. Postprandial blood glucose: A new therapeutic target in diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Metab.
340 2004;30(4):271-277. doi: 10.1016/S1262-3636(07)70069-1
- 341 • Davies MJ, D'Alessio DA, Fradkin J, Kernan WN, Mathieu C, Mingrone G, Rossing P, Τσάπας A, Wexler DJ,
342 Buse JB. Management of Hyperglycemia in Type 2 Diabetes, 2018. A Consensus Report by the American
343 Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes (EASD). Diabetes Care.
344 2018;41(12):2669.
- 345 • Erbach M, Freckmann G, Hinzmann R, Kulzer B, Ziegler R, Heinemann L, Schnell O. Interferences and
346 Limitations in Blood Glucose Self-Testing [Review of Interferences and Limitations in Blood Glucose Self-
347 Testing]. J Diabetes Sci Technol. 2016;10(5):1161.
- 348 • Gilbert TR, Noar A, Blalock O, Polonsky WH. Change in Hemoglobin A1c and Quality of Life with Real-Time
349 Continuous Glucose Monitoring Use by People with Insulin-Treated Diabetes in the Landmark Study. Diabetes
350 Technol Ther. 2021;23:1-9.
- 351 • Giugliano D, Ceriello A, Esposito K. Glucose metabolism and hyperglycemia. Am J Clin Nutr. 2008;87(1):217.
- 352 • Guideline for management of postmeal glucose in diabetes. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. 2013;103(2):256.
- 353 • Hu W, Lin C. Role of CHA2DS2-VASc score in predicting new-onset atrial fibrillation in patients with type 2
354 diabetes mellitus with and without hyperosmolar hyperglycaemic state: real-world data from a nationwide
355 cohort. BMJ Open. 2018;8(3):e020065.
- 356 • Kahn SE, Hull RL, Utzschneider KM. The metabolic syndrome and the evolution of type 2 diabetes: The San
357 Antonio Metabolism Study. Diabetes. 2014;63(12):4035-4044. doi: 10.2337/db14-0894
- 358 • Kariyawasan CC, Balasuriya BL, Ranatunga SA, Dissanayake DM, Herath SR. The association between
359 Hba1c-derived estimated average glucose (eAG) with fasting blood sugar (FBS) and post prandial blood sugar
360 (PPBS) in patients with type 2 diabetes in a cohort of patients in a tertiary care hospital in Sri Lanka. European
361 Journal of Medical and Health Sciences. 2021 Apr 8;3(2):117-21.
- 362 • Knowler WC, Barrett-Connor E, Fowler S, Hamman RF, Lachin JM, Walker EA, Nathan DM. Reduction in the
363 Incidence of Type 2 Diabetes with Lifestyle Intervention or Metformin. N Engl J Med. 2002;346(6):393.
- 364 • Lapolla A, Mosca A, Fedele D. The general use of glycated haemoglobin for the diagnosis of diabetes and other
365 categories of glucose intolerance: Still a long way to go. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 2011;21(7):467.

- 366 • Lin X, Xu Y, Pan X, Xu J, Ding Y, Sun X, Shan PF. Global, regional and national burden and trend of diabetes
367 in 195 countries and territories: An analysis from 1990 to 2025. *Sci Rep.* 2020;10(1):1-11.
- 368 • Nathan DM, Cleary PA, Backlund JY, et al. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial/ Epidemiology of
369 Diabetes Interventions and Complications study at 30 years: An update on the long-term outcomes of diabetes.
370 *Diabetes Care.* 2009;37(1):39-45. doi: 10.2337/dc13-2117
- 371 • Oyagbemi AA, Salihu MN, Oguntibeju OO, Esterhuyse AJ, Farombi EO. Some selected medicinal plants with
372 antidiabetic potentials. In: *InTech eBooks.* 2014. doi: 10.5772/57230
- 373 • Ozougwu JC, Obimba KC, Belonwu CD, Unakalamba CB. The pathogenesis and pathophysiology of type 1
374 and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Physiol Pathophysiol.* 2013;4(4):46-57.
- 375 • Patel H, Anuradha N. Comparative analysis of fructosamine and HbA1c as a glycemic control marker in Type 2
376 diabetes patients in a tertiary care hospital study. *Asian Journal of Medical Sciences.* 2023 Oct 2;14(10):73-8.
- 377 • Rajan SS, Misquith A, Rangareddy H. Correlation of plasma sugar, HbA1c and reactive oxygen species in Type
378 II diabetes. *Innov J Med Health Sci.* 2020;10(1):800-6.
- 379 • Renuka A, Vani K. Highlighted HbA1c as a reliable indicator of glycemic control, correlating significantly with
380 FBS and PPBS. *Int J Clin Biochem Res.* 2020.
- 381 • Sacks DB. A1C Versus Glucose Testing: A Comparison. *Diabetes Care.* 2011;34(2):518.
- 382 • Sacks DB. Measurement of Hemoglobin A1c. *Diabetes Care.* 2012;35(12):2674.
- 383 • Saeedi P, Petersohn I, Salpea P, Malanda B, Karuranga S, Unwin N, IDF Diabetes Atlas Committee. Global and
384 regional diabetes prevalence estimates for 2019 and projections for 2030 and 2045: Results from the
385 International Diabetes Federation Diabetes Atlas. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2019;157:107843.
- 386 • Seino Y, Nanjo K, Tajima N, Kadowaki T, Kashiwagi A, Araki E, Ueki K. Report of the Committee on the
387 classification and diagnostic criteria of diabetes mellitus: The Committee of the Japan Diabetes Society on the
388 diagnostic criteria of diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2010.
- 389 • Sharma BD, Varma A, Garg N. SMBG and glycaemic parameters (FBS, PPBS and HbA1c) in diabetic shift
390 workers. *Int J Sci Res.* 2023;12(7):13-15.
- 391 • Stratton IM, Adler AI, Neil HA, et al. Association of glycaemia with macrovascular and microvascular
392 complications of type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 35): Prospective observational study. *BMJ.* 2000;321(7258):405-412.
393 doi: 10.1136/bmj.321.7258.405
- 394 • Sunthari K. Correlation of Serum Zinc and Glycated Hemoglobin (HbA1C) of Newly Diagnosed Type 2
395 Diabetes Mellitus Patients in a Tertiary Hospital of Chidambaram. *Journal of Medical Science and Clinical
396 Research.* 2018;6(10):563-9.
- 397 • Vani K, Renuka A. Correlation of glycated haemoglobin with fasting and post prandial blood glucose in Type 2
398 diabetes. *Int J Clin Biochem Res.* 2020;7(3):380-3.
- 399 • Vraney EA, Hill-Briggs F, Ephraim PL, Myers AK, Garnica P, Fitzpatrick SL. Continuous glucose monitors and
400 virtual care in high-risk, racial and ethnic minority populations: Toward promoting health equity. *Front
401 Endocrinol.* 2023;14:1083145.
- 402 • Wang H, Li N, Chivese T, Werfalli M, Sun H, Yuen L, Yang X. IDF diabetes atlas: Estimation of global and
403 regional gestational diabetes mellitus prevalence for 2021 by International Association of Diabetes in
404 Pregnancy Study Group's Criteria. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2022;183:109050.
- 405 • Weykamp C. HbA1c: A Review of Analytical and Clinical Aspects. *Ann Lab Med.* 2013;33(6):393.
- 406 • Xin SH, Zhao X, Ding J, Zhang X. Association between hemoglobin glycation index and diabetic kidney
407 disease in type 2 diabetes mellitus in China: A cross-sectional inpatient study. *Front Endocrinol.*
408 2023;14:1108061.

- 409 • Yan R, Hu Y, Li F, Jiang L, Xu X, Wang J, Zhang Y, Ye L, Lee K, Su X, Ma J. Contributions of Fasting and
410 Postprandial Glucose Concentrations to Haemoglobin A1c in Drug-Naïve Mal-Glucose Metabolism in Chinese
411 Population Using Continuous Glucose Monitoring System. *Int J Endocrinol.* 2019;2019:1267475.
- 412 • Yu Z, Jiang N, Kazarian SG, Taşoğlu S, Yetisen AK. Optical sensors for continuous glucose monitoring. *Prog*
413 *Biomed Eng.* 2021;3(2):22004.
- 414 • Zhang Y, Zheng X, Li M, et al. Postprandial hyperglycemia and cardiovascular risk in patients with type 2
415 diabetes: A meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care.* 2015;38(8):1394-1402. doi: 10.2337/dc14-2679
- 416 • Zhou B, Sheffer KE, Bennett JE, Gregg EW, Danaei G, Singleton R, Shaw JE, Mishra A, Lhoste VPF,
417 Carrillo-Larco RM, Kengne AP, Phelps NH, Heap RA, Rayner A, Stevens GA, Paciorek CJ, Riley LM, Cowan
418 M, Savin S, Berkinbayev S. Global variation in diabetes diagnosis and prevalence based on fasting glucose and
419 hemoglobin A1c. *Nat Med.* 2023;29(11):2885.
- 420 • Zimmerman BR. Postprandial hyperglycemia: Implications for practice. *Am J Cardiol.* 2001;88(6):32.
- 421
- 422
- 423

UNDER PEER REVIEW IN JAMA