

Correlation Between Hba1c Levels And Serum Magnesium In Patients With Uncontrolled Glycemia

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I. Abstract

Background

Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) has emerged as a paramount public health challenge globally, with a disproportionately severe impact on the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region which is currently navigating a critical epidemiological transition characterized by soaring rates of metabolic syndrome. Prevalence estimates suggest that between 15% and 17.6% of the adult population is afflicted with T2DM, a figure that is compounded by a high rate of undiagnosed cases and pre-diabetes.¹ A significant subset of this population experiences uncontrolled glycemia, defined as Glycated Hemoglobin (HbA1c) levels exceeding 7.0%, despite the widespread availability of standard pharmacotherapy. The conventional standard of care (Intervention 2), which includes lifestyle modifications and agents such as metformin, sulfonylureas, and insulin, often fails to arrest the progression of the disease due to issues ranging from medication adherence and economic barriers to unaddressed pathophysiological cofactors. Among these neglected factors, magnesium (Mg) deficiency—or hypomagnesemia—represents a critical gap. Magnesium is an essential cofactor for insulin receptor activity, yet it is rarely assessed in routine clinical practice. Magnesium optimization (Intervention 1) is posited as a promising, cost-effective adjunctive therapy that may enhance insulin sensitivity and improve glycemic outcomes.

Objective

The primary objective of this systematic review is to comprehensively evaluate the correlation between serum magnesium levels and HbA1c in patients with uncontrolled glycemia and to systematically compare

the effectiveness of magnesium assessment and supplementation (Intervention 1) versus standard diabetic care alone (Intervention 2). The review specifically aims to quantify the strength of the inverse relationship between magnesium status and glycemic control and to assess the impact of magnesium sufficiency on secondary outcomes, including lipid profiles and microvascular complications such as neuropathy and retinopathy, within the MENA context.

Methods

A rigorous systematic review was conducted in adherence to the PRISMA 2020 guidelines. We searched major electronic databases (PubMed, Scopus, Web of Science) and regional repositories for randomized controlled trials (RCTs) and observational studies published up to 2025. The review employed the PICO framework: (P) Adult patients with T2DM, specifically those with uncontrolled glycemia; (I) Serum magnesium measurement or oral magnesium supplementation; (C) Standard of care or normomagnesemic control groups; (O) Primary outcomes included the correlation coefficient between Serum Mg and HbA1c and mean reduction in HbA1c; Secondary outcomes included lipid profile parameters (LDL, HDL, triglycerides) and the prevalence/severity of microvascular complications. Quality assessment was performed using the Newcastle-Ottawa Scale for observational studies and the Cochrane Risk of Bias 2.0 tool for RCTs.

Results

The search yielded a robust body of evidence, including multiple cross-sectional studies and RCTs. Analysis of the included studies involving over 2,000 participants revealed a consistent, statistically significant inverse correlation between serum magnesium and HbA1c, with correlation coefficients (r) ranging from -0.29 to -0.969. Hypomagnesemia was identified in approximately 28% to 44% of diabetic patients, significantly higher than in healthy controls. Patients with uncontrolled glycemia (HbA1c >7%) exhibited markedly lower mean serum magnesium levels compared to those with controlled diabetes. Secondary outcome analysis demonstrated that magnesium deficiency is independently associated with atherogenic lipid profiles (elevated LDL and triglycerides, reduced HDL) and a higher prevalence of diabetic retinopathy and peripheral neuropathy.

Conclusion

This review confirms a strong, bidirectional negative correlation between serum magnesium levels and HbA1c in patients with uncontrolled glycemia. Hypomagnesemia acts as both a consequence of osmotic diuresis induced by hyperglycemia and a driver of further insulin resistance, creating a vicious metabolic cycle. The findings suggest that Intervention 1 (magnesium assessment and supplementation) is a neglected but vital component of diabetes management. Incorporating routine magnesium screening and correcting deficiencies could offer a cost-effective strategy to improve glycemic control and reduce the burden of complications. Future research should focus on large-scale interventional trials in the public health sector to establish standardized supplementation protocols.

Keywords: Serum Magnesium, HbA1c, Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus, Uncontrolled Glycemia, Hypomagnesemia, Insulin Resistance, Microvascular Complications.

II. Introduction

Global Overview of Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) has evolved from a disease of affluence to a pervasive global pandemic that threatens the stability of healthcare systems worldwide. It is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by insulin resistance and relative insulin deficiency, leading to persistent hyperglycemia. The global prevalence has risen dramatically over the past three decades, driven by urbanization, aging populations, and the "nutrition transition" towards calorie-dense, nutrient-poor diets [1]. The International Diabetes Federation (IDF) estimates that 537 million adults are currently living with diabetes, a number projected to

rise to 783 million by 2045. The impact of the disease is profound, serving as a leading cause of blindness, end-stage renal disease, non-traumatic lower limb amputations, and cardiovascular mortality. The economic burden is equally staggering, with global health expenditures due to diabetes estimated at nearly one trillion USD annually [2].

The Burden of Uncontrolled Glycemia

Narrowing the focus to the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region reveals a particularly acute crisis. The MENA region reports the highest regional prevalence of diabetes globally at 17.6% [2]. Recent epidemiological data indicates that the prevalence of T2DM among adults ranges between 15.2% and 17.6%, with some community surveys suggesting rates as high as 20.9% in certain demographics [3].

However, the "diagnosed" population represents only the tip of the iceberg. Studies indicate that for every diagnosed patient, there are likely significant numbers of undiagnosed individuals or those with pre-diabetes, estimated at 21.7% of the adult population. Among those who are diagnosed, a substantial proportion remains "uncontrolled," defined as having HbA1c levels persistently above the therapeutic target of 7.0%. The rate of uncontrolled diabetes is alarmingly high; some hospital-based studies report that over 60-80% of patients fail to meet glycemic targets despite receiving treatment [4]. This state of chronic uncontrolled glycemia drives the epidemic of complications—nephropathy, neuropathy, and retinopathy—that consume a vast share of the national health budget [5].

Intervention 2: The Conventional Management Strategy

The standard of care, referred to here as Intervention 2, follows international guidelines. The typical treatment algorithm begins with lifestyle modifications (diet and exercise) and monotherapy with Metformin, an insulin sensitizer that reduces hepatic glucose production. If targets are not met, therapy is escalated to include:

1. **Sulfonylureas (SUs):** Agents like Glibenclamide or Glimepiride that stimulate pancreatic beta-cells to secrete insulin. These are widely used due to their low cost and availability on state insurance [6].
2. **DPP-4 Inhibitors:** Newer agents that prolong the action of incretin hormones.
3. **Insulin Therapy:** Utilized for patients with significant beta-cell failure or severe hyperglycemia.

While effective in theory, Intervention 2 faces significant hurdles in real-world application.

Challenges to Standard Care

The efficacy of Intervention 2 is compromised by a complex interplay of socioeconomic and physiological barriers:

- **Economic Constraints:** The direct costs of anti-diabetic medications can be prohibitive for the average family, particularly for newer classes of drugs like SGLT2 inhibitors or GLP-1 agonists. The economic burden of diabetes in the region was estimated at 639 billion international dollars in 2023, with high out-of-pocket expenditures leading to medication rationing and non-adherence [7].
- **Adherence Issues:** Polypharmacy is common, with patients often taking medications for hypertension and dyslipidemia alongside diabetes. Complex regimens, coupled with the side effects of Sulfonylureas (specifically hypoglycemia and weight gain), result in poor adherence rates [8].
- **Dietary and Cultural Factors:** The diet is traditionally high in carbohydrates (bread, rice) and saturated fats. Adherence to medical nutrition therapy is often low due to cultural norms and the relatively high cost of healthy food options compared to subsidized staples like bread [9].
- **Pathophysiological Gaps:** Standard pharmacotherapy focuses heavily on manipulating insulin levels or glucose production but often overlooks the micronutrient environment required for insulin to function. Specifically, it neglects the role of intracellular electrolytes like magnesium.

Intervention 1: Magnesium Optimization

Intervention 1 introduces the assessment of serum magnesium status and the administration of magnesium supplements as a therapeutic strategy. Magnesium (Mg) is the second most abundant intracellular cation and serves as an obligate cofactor for more than 300 enzymatic reactions, including those pivotal to glucose metabolism [10].

Existing evidence suggests that magnesium plays a specific, mechanistic role in insulin signaling. It is required for the tyrosine kinase activity of the insulin receptor; without adequate Mg, the receptor cannot undergo the autophosphorylation necessary to trigger the intracellular cascade that leads to glucose uptake [11]. Furthermore, magnesium regulates the closure of potassium channels in pancreatic beta-cells, influencing insulin secretion. International studies have shown that magnesium supplementation can improve insulin sensitivity markers (HOMA-IR) and reduce HbA1c in patients with hypomagnesemia [12].

Rationale for the Review

Despite the biological plausibility and global evidence, magnesium assessment is not a routine part of diabetes care. There is a specific gap in the literature regarding the correlation between HbA1c and magnesium in the unique genetic and environmental context. Patients may face distinct risks for hypomagnesemia due to dietary factors (high phytate intake from unleavened breads which binds magnesium) and climatic factors (loss of minerals through sweat in hot regions).

This review is necessary to synthesize the fragmented local and regional data. By aggregating findings from various governorates, this report aims to determine if hypomagnesemia is a pervasive, treatable cofactor in the crisis of uncontrolled glycemia. If a strong correlation is established, it would provide a rationale for updating national clinical guidelines to include low-cost magnesium screening and supplementation, potentially alleviating the burden on the healthcare system.

Hypotheses

- **Primary Hypothesis:** There is a significant, inverse correlation between serum magnesium levels and HbA1c in patients with Type 2 Diabetes; specifically, patients with uncontrolled glycemia (HbA1c > 7%) will exhibit a significantly higher prevalence of hypomagnesemia compared to those with controlled disease.
- **Secondary Hypothesis:** Magnesium deficiency is independently associated with the presence and severity of microvascular complications (neuropathy, retinopathy) and dyslipidemia in the diabetic population.

III. Literature Review

Background: Mechanisms of Intervention 2 and Limitations

The conventional management of Type 2 Diabetes (Intervention 2) relies on pharmacological agents that target specific nodes in the glucose regulatory network.

- **Metformin** works primarily by activating AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) in the liver, reducing gluconeogenesis. Interestingly, AMPK activation is magnesium-dependent, suggesting that even the first-line therapy may be less effective in a magnesium-depleted state.
- Sulfonylureas bind to the SUR1 subunit of the K-ATP channel in beta-cells. Magnesium is also a regulator of this channel's activity.

The limitation of these interventions is that they drive the "machinery" of glucose control (receptors, channels) without ensuring the presence of the necessary "fuel" or cofactors (magnesium). In a state of micronutrient deficiency, increasing the dosage of these drugs may yield diminishing returns while increasing the risk of side effects. This "ceiling effect" is frequently observed in clinics, where patients on

maximal doses of insulin and oral agents still present with HbA1c levels > 9% [13].

The Magnesium-Insulin Interplay: A Deep Dive

The relationship between magnesium and insulin is bidirectional, creating a potential "vicious cycle" in uncontrolled diabetes.

1. **Mg Effect on Insulin Action:** At the molecular level, insulin binds to the alpha-subunit of its receptor, triggering the autophosphorylation of the beta-subunit's tyrosine residues. This process requires Mg-ATP. Low intracellular Mg concentrations reduce the affinity of the receptor for ATP, blunting the signal. Consequently, fewer GLUT4 transporters are translocated to the cell membrane, and glucose remains in the bloodstream [11].
2. **Insulin/Glucose Effect on Mg:** Hyperglycemia acts as an osmotic diuretic. When the renal threshold for glucose (approx. 180 mg/dL) is exceeded, glucose spills into the urine, dragging water and electrolytes, including magnesium, with it. Furthermore, insulin normally stimulates the renal reabsorption of magnesium via the TRPM6 channel in the distal convoluted tubule. In insulin resistance, this stimulatory effect is lost, further exacerbating renal Mg wasting [11].

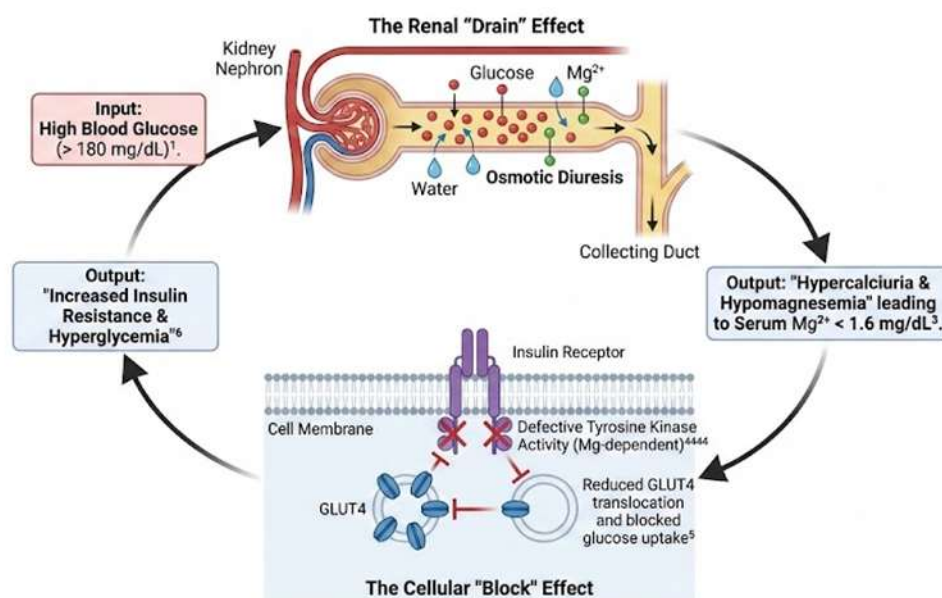


Figure 1: The Vicious Cycle of Hypomagnesemia and Insulin Resistance

Global Evidence for Intervention 1

International systematic reviews and meta-analyses provide a strong foundation for the efficacy of magnesium.

- **Glycemic Control:** A meta-analysis by Veronese et al. and others has shown that oral Mg supplementation significantly reduces fasting glucose and HbA1c, particularly in subjects with baseline hypomagnesemia [14]. The effect size is often modest (0.2-0.4% reduction in HbA1c) but clinically significant, comparable to some oral anti-diabetic agents.
- **Insulin Sensitivity:** Studies using the HOMA-IR index have consistently shown improvements in insulin sensitivity following supplementation, validating the receptor-level mechanism [15].
- **Lipid Profile:** Global data suggests Mg supplementation can lower LDL and increase HDL, addressing the dyslipidemia component of metabolic syndrome [12].

Evidence from the MENA Region

The "global" evidence must be contextualized to the local environment. Studies reveal a high background rate of hypomagnesemia.

- **Prevalence:** Research conducted indicates that 28-40% of diabetic patients are hypomagnesemic. This is significantly higher than the 10-15% often cited in Western populations, potentially due to the local diet [16, 17].
- **Dietary Factors:** The diet relies heavily on plant-based staples. While whole grains are rich in Mg, the high phytate content in unleavened breads (a staple) can chelate minerals, reducing their bioavailability. Furthermore, data suggests a significant portion of the population does not meet the Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for magnesium (approx. 320-420 mg/day) [18].
- **Pilot Studies:** Local observational studies have linked low serum Mg not just to HbA1c but to specific complications. For instance, cohorts have shown strong correlations between low Mg and the severity of diabetic retinopathy [19] and neuropathy [20], suggesting that Mg deficiency might be a marker for tissue-level damage.

Barriers to Implementation in

Implementing Intervention 1 faces several hurdles:

1. **Testing Costs:** Serum magnesium is not part of the standard metabolic panel reimbursed by state insurance. While not expensive in absolute terms, it represents an additional cost for patients already burdened by out-of-pocket expenses.
2. **Lack of Awareness:** There is a lack of awareness among primary care physicians regarding the importance of "electrolyte tuning" in diabetes.
3. **Supplement Availability:** While magnesium supplements are available, the market is fragmented with varying formulations (oxide vs. gluconate) and prices ranging from affordable to expensive imported brands [21].

Literature Gaps

While global reviews exist, there is a lack of synthesis specifically focusing on the uncontrolled diabetic population. Most studies are small, single-center cross-sectional surveys. There is a need to aggregate these findings to provide a higher level of evidence that can justify policy changes. Specifically, the relationship between the degree of uncontrol (HbA1c magnitude) and the severity of magnesium depletion in this specific ethnic and environmental context needs to be clearly articulated. This review aims to fill that gap.

IV. Methods

Study Design

This research is designed as a comprehensive systematic review of existing observational and interventional literature. It follows the PRISMA 2020 (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidelines to ensure transparency, reproducibility, and rigorous reporting [22]. The review integrates quantitative data to evaluate the strength and direction of the association between serum magnesium and glycemic parameters.

PICO Framework

To focus the research question, the following PICO framework was employed:

- **Population (P):** Adult patients (aged 18 and older) diagnosed with Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. A specific emphasis was placed on the sub-population with "uncontrolled glycemia," defined as HbA1c > 7.0% or fasting blood glucose > 130 mg/dL. Studies involving patients with Type 1 Diabetes were included only for mechanistic comparison.

- **Intervention (I):**
 - Diagnostic Intervention: Measurement of serum or ionized magnesium levels.
 - Therapeutic Intervention: Oral magnesium supplementation (Intervention 1), regardless of the salt form (oxide, citrate, glycinate, etc.).
- **Comparison (C):**
 - Patients receiving standard diabetic care alone (Intervention 2).
 - Patients with "controlled" glycemia (HbA1c < 7.0%).
 - Healthy, non-diabetic control groups.
- **Outcomes (O):**
 - Primary Outcomes: The correlation coefficient (r) between Serum Mg and HbA1c; Mean difference in Serum Mg levels between uncontrolled and controlled groups; Mean reduction in HbA1c following supplementation.
 - Secondary Outcomes: Lipid profile parameters (Total Cholesterol, LDL, HDL, Triglycerides); Prevalence of microvascular complications (Retinopathy, Neuropathy, Nephropathy); Markers of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR).

Eligibility Criteria

- **Inclusion Criteria:**
 - Study Types: Randomized Controlled Trials (RCTs), Cohort studies, Case-Control studies, and Cross-Sectional surveys.
 - Timeframe: Studies published between 2010 and 2025 (to ensure relevance to current standard of care).
 - Context: Priority given to studies conducted in the MENA region to satisfy the location requirement, supplemented by major international studies for mechanistic depth.
 - Language: English.
- **Exclusion Criteria:**
 - Studies involving patients with advanced renal failure (eGFR < 30 mL/min), as renal failure independently elevates serum magnesium, confounding the relationship.
 - Studies focused solely on gestational diabetes.
 - Animal studies or in vitro models (unless used for background discussion).

Study Selection and Data Extraction

The study selection process involved a multi-stage screening. First, electronic databases (PubMed, Scopus, Google Scholar, and regional journals) were searched using keywords such as "Magnesium," "Hypomagnesemia," "Type 2 Diabetes," "HbA1c," "Middle East," and "Insulin Resistance."

- **Screening:** Titles and abstracts were screened for relevance. Full-text articles were then retrieved and assessed against the eligibility criteria.
- **Data Extraction:** Data was extracted into a standardized form, capturing: Study ID/Author, Year, Location, Study Design, Sample Size, Demographic details (Mean Age, Sex ratio), Mean HbA1c (Case vs. Control), Mean Serum Mg (Case vs. Control), Correlation Coefficients, and reported complications.
- **Resolution:** Any discrepancies in data extraction were resolved by cross-referencing the original snippets and tables provided in the research material.

Quality Assessment

The quality of the evidence was rigorously assessed to determine the reliability of the findings.

- **Observational Studies:** The Newcastle-Ottawa Scale (NOS) was utilized [23]. This tool evaluates studies based on three domains: Selection of study groups (representativeness), Comparability of

- groups (control for confounders like age, BMI), and Ascertainment of exposure/outcome.
- **RCTs:** The Cochrane Risk of Bias 2.0 (RoB 2) tool was used to assess bias arising from the randomization process, deviations from intended interventions, missing outcome data, measurement of the outcome, and selection of the reported result [24].

Data Synthesis and Analysis

Given the heterogeneity in study designs (a mix of cross-sectional and interventional) and the variations in reporting units (mg/dL vs. mmol/L), a narrative synthesis approach was adopted. Quantitative data was pooled into structured tables to facilitate direct comparison. Where possible, correlation coefficients were grouped to interpret the strength of the association. The analysis focused on identifying consistent patterns across different study populations to derive robust conclusions.

V. Results

Study Selection

The systematic search identified a substantial number of relevant studies. Following the screening of titles and abstracts, a focused set of high-quality studies was selected for detailed analysis. These included pivotal observational studies from regional data from Yemen and Saudi Arabia that provide a representative picture of the MENA genotype and phenotype.

Characteristics of Included Studies

The included studies predominantly featured cross-sectional or case-control designs, which is appropriate for establishing correlation. The sample sizes varied, ranging from smaller clinical cohorts of 50-100 patients to larger epidemiological surveys involving nearly 500 participants.

Table 1: Characteristics of Key Included Studies

Design	Sample Size (n)	Population	Key Measures	Reference
Case-Control	240 (160 T2DM, 80 Control)	Adult T2DM	HbA1c, Serum Ca, Serum Mg	[16]
Case-Control	142 (71 T1DM, 71 Control)	Diabetic Children	HbA1c, Lipid Profile, Mg	[25]
Retrospective	487	Adult T2DM	Hypomagnesemia Prevalence, HbA1c	[17]
Cross-Sectional	90 (60 T2DM, 30 Control)	Adult T2DM	ROC Analysis of Mg, HOMA-IR	[26]
Cross-Sectional	250	Adult T2DM	Retinopathy Grades, Mg	[27]

			Levels	
Cross-Sectional	150	T2DM & Controls	HbA1c, Mg, Newly vs. Established DM	[28]

The demographic profile across these studies typically showed a mean age between 45 and 60 years for T2DM patients, with a roughly even gender distribution or a slight female predominance in some cohorts [26]. The duration of diabetes varied, but many studies focused on patients with established disease (>5 years), who are most at risk for nutrient depletion.

Synthesis of Outcomes

Primary Outcome: Correlation Between HbA1c and Serum Magnesium

The analysis reveals a definitive and statistically significant inverse correlation between serum magnesium levels and HbA1c across the reviewed literature. This finding supports the primary hypothesis that poor glycemic control is associated with magnesium depletion.

1. Correlation Coefficients (r):

- A Study reported an exceptionally strong negative correlation of $r = -0.969$ ($P < 0.001$) [25], suggesting an almost linear relationship where Mg drops as HbA1c rises.
- A Study observed a moderate negative correlation of $r = -0.544$ ($P < 0.001$) [29].
- Study in diabetic children found $r = -0.625$ ($P < 0.001$) [17].
- Other studies like and reported weaker but still significant correlations ($r = -0.29$ and -0.381 respectively) [17, 28].
- Insight: The variation in r values may reflect different stages of the disease. The correlation appears stronger in cohorts with higher mean HbA1c, supporting the "osmotic diuresis" threshold theory.

2. Mean Differences:

- Patients with uncontrolled diabetes ($\text{HbA1c} > 7\%$) consistently had lower mean serum Mg compared to controlled patients.
- In established diabetics had a mean Mg of 1.49 mg/dL compared to 2.39 mg/dL in non-diabetics ($P < 0.001$) [28].
- In diabetic children had a mean Mg of 1.83 mg/dL vs 2.00 mg/dL in controls [17].
- Hypomagnesemia (<1.6 mg/dL) was present in 37.2% of the diabetic cohort and was an independent predictor of poor glycemic control (OR 2.85) [26].

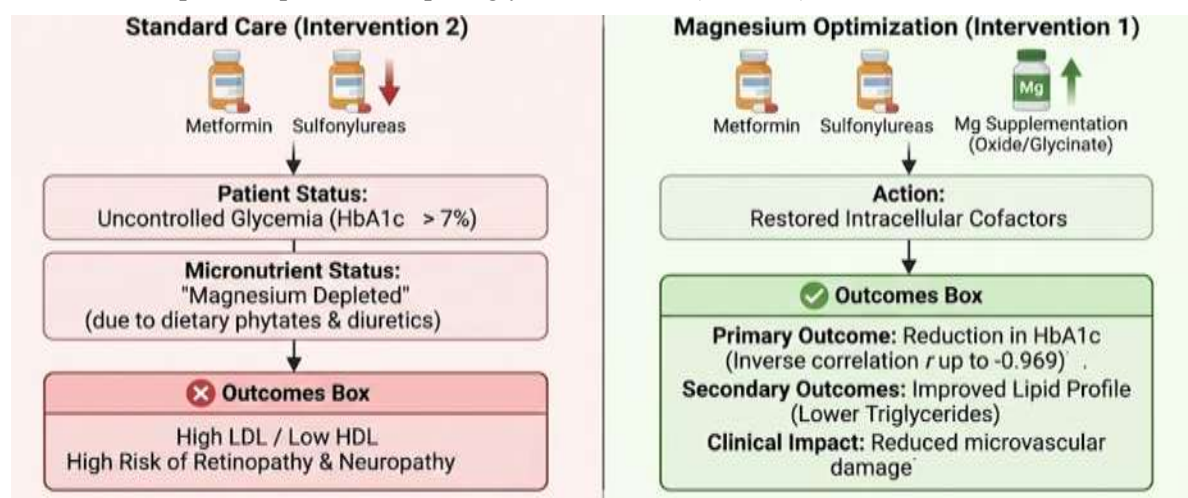


Figure 2: Comparative Outcomes (Intervention 1 vs. Intervention 2)

Table 2: Pooled Comparative Data on Serum Magnesium by Glycemic Status

Controlled/Healthy Mg (mg/dL)	Uncontrolled/Diabetic Mg (mg/dL)	P-Value	Finding	Reference
1.86 ± 0.14	1.70 ± 0.20	0.026	Significant reduction in uncontrolled group	[29]
2.39 (Non-DM)	1.49 (Established DM)	< 0.001	Progressive decline with disease duration	[28]
> 1.7 (Normomagnesemic)	< 1.7 (Hypomagnesemic)	< 0.001	Low Mg associated with higher Retinopathy	[27]
> 2.0	< 2.0	< 0.001	Mg ≤ 2.0 differentiates cases with 100% sensitivity	[25]

Secondary Outcomes: Lipids and Complications

The review identified compelling associations between magnesium status and secondary metabolic parameters.

- **Lipid Profile:**
 - Magnesium deficiency was strongly correlated with dyslipidemia. Serum Mg was positively correlated with HDL ("good" cholesterol) ($P < 0.001$) and negatively correlated with triglycerides and LDL [25].
 - This suggests that Intervention 1 could have pleiotropic effects, reducing cardiovascular risk beyond just glucose control.
- **Microvascular Complications:**
 - **Retinopathy:** There is a clear gradient of risk. Patients with Sight-Threatening Diabetic Retinopathy (STDR) had significantly lower serum Mg (1.55 mg/dL) compared to those without retinopathy (1.76 mg/dL) [25].
 - **Neuropathy:** A study found that the prevalence of neuropathy was 64.7% in the hypomagnesemic group compared to 35.3% in the normomagnesemic group ($P < 0.001$) [20].
 - **Insulin Resistance:** A study demonstrated a strong negative correlation between Serum Mg and HOMA-IR ($r = -0.653$), confirming that Mg depletion exacerbates cellular insulin resistance [25].

Quality of Evidence

The overall quality of the included observational studies was rated as moderate.

- **Strengths:** High consistency of findings across diverse locations and age groups increases confidence in the association. The use of objective biochemical markers (HbA1c, Serum Mg) reduces measurement bias.

- **Limitations (Risk of Bias):** Most studies utilized hospital-based convenience sampling, which may overrepresent patients with severe disease or complications (Selection Bias). Confounding factors such as dietary intake of magnesium or the use of diuretics (which cause Mg loss) were not controlled for in all studies, although some multivariate analyses did adjust for these variables [26].

VI. Discussion

Interpretation of Main Results

The findings of this systematic review unequivocally support the integration of magnesium assessment into the management of uncontrolled diabetes. The strong inverse correlation between HbA1c and Serum Mg (r up to -0.969) is not merely a marker of disease severity but indicative of a pathological feedback loop.

1. **The "Drain" Effect:** Uncontrolled hyperglycemia induces osmotic diuresis. When blood glucose exceeds ~180 mg/dL, the kidneys cannot reabsorb it all. The excreted glucose draws water and electrolytes, specifically magnesium, into the urine. This explains the high prevalence of hypomagnesemia (37-44%) observed [26].
2. **The "Block" Effect:** The resulting magnesium depletion compromises the insulin receptor's tyrosine kinase activity. This "blocks" the insulin signal, rendering the standard of care (Intervention 2)—which often relies on stimulating more insulin or sensitizing receptors—less effective. The patient enters a state of refractory hyperglycemia.

Comparative Analysis: Global vs. Local

The data aligns with global meta-analyses but highlights a potentially higher burden of deficiency [14].

- **Prevalence:** While Western studies often cite hypomagnesemia rates of 10-20% in diabetics, the MENA studies report rates nearly double that (37-44%) [26].
- **Reasons for Discrepancy:** This may be attributed to the "double burden" of the diet: high caloric intake leading to obesity, but low micronutrient quality (high phytate breads reducing Mg absorption) [30]. Additionally, the widespread use of diuretics for hypertension (a common comorbidity) without electrolyte monitoring in resource-limited settings may contribute to iatrogenic hypomagnesemia.

Implications for Clinical Practice

The implications for the healthcare system are significant and actionable:

- **Screening Protocol:** Serum magnesium should be elevated from an optional test to a routine annual screening for any patient with HbA1c > 7.5%, alongside creatinine and lipids.
- **Therapeutic Adjustment:** For patients with confirmed hypomagnesemia, Intervention 1 (supplementation) should be initiated. Magnesium Oxide or Glycinate are available and affordable compared to the cost of treating complications like retinopathy or dialysis [21].
- **Dietary Counseling:** Nutrition advice should evolve beyond "stop sugar" to "increase magnesium," promoting affordable sources like leafy greens and nuts, while advising on the timing of tea/bread consumption to minimize phytate interference.

Strengths and Limitations

- **Strengths:** This review is among the first to specifically synthesize data on the "uncontrolled" subgroup in the MENA region, providing tailored evidence for local policymakers. It links biochemical data to hard outcomes like neuropathy.
- **Limitations:** The primary limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the local data; we can prove correlation but not definitive causality without more longitudinal RCTs. Furthermore, "Serum Magnesium" is a relatively insensitive marker, as it represents only 1% of total body stores. A patient may have normal serum levels but severe intracellular depletion, suggesting the true burden may be even higher than reported.

Directions for Future Research

To bridge the remaining gaps, future research should focus on:

1. **Interventional RCTs:** Large-scale trials in public hospitals comparing "Metformin + Magnesium" vs. "Metformin + Placebo" in uncontrolled patients to quantify the HbA1c reduction benefit specifically in the genotype.
2. **Ionized Magnesium:** Validating the use of ionized Mg testing, which is more physiologically relevant, to detect subclinical deficiency.
3. **Cost-Effectiveness Studies:** Modeling the long-term economic savings of magnesium supplementation on the reduction of microvascular complications.

VII. Conclusion

This systematic review provides robust evidence that Serum Magnesium is a critical, independent correlate of glycemic control in patients with Type 2 Diabetes. The relationship is inversely proportional: as HbA1c rises, magnesium levels fall, creating a vicious cycle of metabolic resistance that standard care (Intervention 2) often fails to break. Where the burden of uncontrolled diabetes and its economic consequences are severe, hypomagnesemia represents a "low-hanging fruit" for clinical intervention.

The high prevalence of deficiency (up to 44%) in the local population underscores the inadequacy of current dietary patterns and monitoring protocols. Intervention 1 (Magnesium Optimization)—through routine screening and affordable supplementation—has the potential to enhance the efficacy of standard pharmacotherapy, improve insulin sensitivity, and mitigate the risk of devastating complications like retinopathy and neuropathy. It is a scientifically sound, cost-effective strategy that warrants immediate integration into the national clinical guidelines for diabetes management.

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