Glycaemic status, insulin resistance, and risk of infection-related mortality: a cohort study

Short title: Glycaemic status and infection mortality

Hae Suk Cheong¹, Yoosoo Chang^{2,3,4*}, Yejin Kim², Eun-Jeong Joo¹, Min-Jung Kwon⁵, Sarah D Wild^{6*}, Christopher D Byrne^{6,7}, and Seungho Ryu^{2,3,4*}

- ¹ Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, Seoul, Korea
- ² Center for Cohort Studies, Total Healthcare Center, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital, Sungkyunkwan University, School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea
- ³ Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital, Sungkyunkwan University, School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea
- ⁴ Department of Clinical Research Design & Evaluation, SAIHST, Sungkyunkwan University, Seoul, Republic of Korea
- ⁵ Department of Laboratory Medicine, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital, Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea
- ⁶ Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
- ⁷ Nutrition and Metabolism, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
- ⁸ National Institute for Health Research Southampton Biomedical Research Centre, University Hospital Southampton, Southampton, U.K.

*Corresponding authors:

Seungho Ryu, MD, PhD,

Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital

Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine

Samsung Main Building B2, 250, Taepyung-ro 2ga, Jung-gu, Seoul, Republic of Korea 04514

Telephone: +82-2-2001-5137, Fax: +82-2-757-0436

Email address: sh703.yoo@gmail.com

ORCID (https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3927-8646)

*Co-corresponding author:

Yoosoo Chang, MD, PhD,

Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Kangbuk Samsung Hospital,

Sungkyunkwan University School of Medicine,

Samsung Main Building B2, 250 Taepyung-ro 2ga, Jung-gu 04514, Seoul, Republic of Korea

Telephone: +82-2-2001-5139; Fax: +82-2-757-0436

Email address: yoosoo.chang@gmail.com

ORCID (https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6945-9050)

*Co-corresponding author:

Sarah H. Wild, MB, BChir, PhD

Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

Tel: (+44) (0)131 651 1630

Fax: (+44) (0)131 650 6868

E-mail: Sarah.Wild@ed.ac.uk

ORCID (https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7824-2569)

Word count: 3,458

Abstract

Background: The impact of non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance on infection-related mortality risk remains unknown. We investigated the association of glycaemic status and insulin resistance with infection-related mortality in individuals with and without diabetes.

Design: Cohort study based on Kangbuk Samsung Health Study and national death records.

Methods: 666,888 Korean adults who underwent fasting blood measurements including glucose, glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), and insulin during health screening examinations were followed for up to 15.8 years. Vital status and infection-related mortality were ascertained through national death records. Variable categories were created based on established cutoffs for glucose and HbA1c levels and homeostatic model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) quintiles. We used Cox proportional hazards regression analyses to estimate hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% CIs for infection-related mortality.

Results: During a median follow-up of 8.3 years, 313 infectious disease deaths were identified. The associations of glucose and HbA1c levels with infection-related mortality were J-shaped (P for quadratic trend<0.05). The multivariable-adjusted HR (95% CIs) for infection-related mortality comparing glucose levels <5, 5.6-6.9, and \geq 7.0 mmol/L to 5.0-5.5 mmol/L (the reference) were 2.31 (1.47-3.64), 1.65 (1.05-2.60), and 3.41 (1.66-7.00), respectively. Among individuals without diabetes, the multivariable adjusted HR for infection-related mortality for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR \geq 75th centile versus <75th centile) was 1.55 (1.04-2.32).

Conclusions: Both low and high glycaemic levels and insulin resistance were independently associated with increased infection-related mortality risk, indicating a possible role of abnormal glucose metabolism in increased infection-related mortality.

Keywords: infection; glucose; HbA1c; insulin resistance; infection-related mortality; cohort study

Significant Statement

To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to demonstrate an independent positive association between non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance detected during the screening process and an increased risk of infection-related mortality. Insulin resistance measured by HOMA-IR was also positively associated with increased risk of infection-related mortality among individuals without diabetes. Individuals with hyperglycaemia even in the non-diabetic range and insulin resistance may benefit from preventive measures to reduce risk of infectious diseases and its related mortality.

Introduction

Diabetes is one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide (1). In 2019, global diabetes prevalence was estimated to be 9.3% and is projected to rise to 10.9% by 2045(2). People with diabetes are at an increased risk for a wide range of diabetes-related complications including cardiovascular disease (CVD), retinopathy, neuropathy, and end-stage renal disease (1). Poorly controlled diabetes and its complications and co-morbidities are known risk factors for infectious diseases (3, 4). Indeed, previous studies have shown that people with diabetes are at increased risk of common infections, severe infections and infection-related mortality (5-7). Recently, patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) infection and diabetes reportedly had a significantly higher risk of COVID-19 disease severity and associated mortality (8).

People with pre-diabetes or non-diabetic hyperglycaemia, defined as glycaemic parameters above normal but below the diabetes diagnostic threshold, are not only at a high risk of developing diabetes but are also at increased risk of various adverse outcomes, including CVD, renal disease, and all-cause mortality (9-11). Although the impact of diabetes on infectious disease and infection-related mortality has been widely explored, very little is known about the role of non-diabetic hyperglycaemia as a risk factor for infection. To date, only a few studies have reported an association between non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and increased risk of pulmonary tuberculosis, and periodontitis (12-14). Notably, non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and metabolic syndrome, an insulin resistant phenotype, have been reported to be associated with alterations in cytokine responses and immune cell functions (15-17). Until now, the effect of insulin resistance, a key pathogenic feature of both diabetes and non-diabetic hyperglycaemia, on infection, remains uncertain. Therefore, since alterations in immune cell functions have been described with non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin

resistance, we hypothesized that non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance, even in individuals without diabetes, increases the risk of infection-related mortality. To test this hypothesis, we investigated the associations between glycaemic status (including non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and diabetes) and insulin resistance and the development of infection-related mortality in a large sample of Korean adults who participated in a routine health check programme.

Methods

Study population

This cohort study was performed in a subsample of the Kangbuk Samsung Health Study, a cohort study of Korean men and women who underwent a comprehensive annual or biennial health examination at one of the Kangbuk Samsung Hospital Total Healthcare Center clinics in Seoul and Suwon, South Korea as described previously (18, 19). This study population was restricted to individuals who participated in a comprehensive health-screening examination between 2005 and 2019 (n = 682,030). A total of 15,142 participants met the exclusion criteria at baseline, including unknown vital status (n = 3), missing data on fasting blood glucose (FBG) level, glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) or BMI (n = 1,432), or a history of malignancy (n = 13,734). Finally, 666,888 participants were included in the analysis. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Kangbuk Samsung Hospital (IRB No. KBSMC 2020-04-011) the requirement for informed consent was waived because the study was designed to use anonymized, retrospective data that were collected during a routine health examination process and linked to mortality data from the Korea National Statistical Office (KNSO). All procedures used in this study adhered to the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki for Medical Research Involving Human Subjects outlined in 2013.

Measurements

At baseline and follow-up visits, data on demographic factors, lifestyle factors, medical history, and medication use were collected using a standardized, self-administered questionnaire as described previously (18, 19). Smoking status was categorized as never, former, and current smoking. Average alcohol use was categorized as none, < 20 g, and ≥ 20 g of ethanol/day and the frequency of moderate or vigorous intense physical activity was categorized as < 3 and ≥ 3 times/week.

Anthropometry and sitting blood pressure (BP) were measured by trained nurses. BMI was categorized according to Asian criteria, and BMI \geq 25 kg/m² was classified as obesity (20). Hypertension was defined as BP \geq 140/90 mmHg, a history of physician-diagnosed hypertension, or use of BP-lowering medication.

At least a 10-hour fast was required for the health examinations, which included blood measurements of glycemic parameters (FBG, HbA1c and insulin), lipid profiles, and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) level (18). Serum insulin levels were measured on the day of blood collection by immunoradiometric assays (Biosource, Nivelles, Belgium) between 2002 and 2009, and thereafter using an electrochemiluminescence immunoassay with the Modular E170 system (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan). The homeostatic model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) was calculated using the following equation: fasting blood insulin (IU/L) × FBG (mg/dL)/405 (21).

Previously diagnosed diabetes was defined as a history of physician-diagnosed diabetes or the current use of glucose-lowering medication as indicated on a self-administered, structured questionnaire. Among those without previously diagnosed diabetes, participants were categorized into four groups as follows: FBG level (<5.0, 5.0-5.5, 5.6-6.9, or ≥ 7.0

mmol/L) and HbA1c level (<36, 36-38, 39–46, or ≥48 mmol/mol). The cut-off values used in this study were applied according to the American Diabetes Association guideline clasification(22). Since previous studies have reported an elevated risk of infection-related mortality in individuals with low FBG levels, participants with FBG levels below 5.6 mmol/L were further divided into groups of <5.0 and 5.0-5.5 mmol/L (23). An HbA1c of 36 mmol/mol corresponds to an FBG of approximately 5.6 mmol/L according to a previous report of an adult population without diabetes and corresponds to approximately the 25th percentile of HbA1c of our population (24). An FBG level of 5.0-5.5 mmol/L and an HbA1c level of 36-38 mmol/mol were used as the reference group, which had the lowest risk of infection-related mortality in our population.

Insulin and HOMA-IR were categorized into quintiles based on their distributions within the study participants without previously diagnosed diabetes. Insulin resistance was defined as $HOMA-IR \ge 75^{th}$ percentile of nondiabetic individuals (the respective 75^{th} percentile values: 2.41 for immunoradiometric assay and 1.84 for electrochemiluminescence immunoassay) (25, 26).

Mortality follow-up

Vital status until December 31, 2020 was ascertained through linkage to nationwide death certificate data from the KNSO. In South Korea, all deaths are legally required to be reported to the KNSO. The cause of death is classified according to the International Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision (ICD-10). Concordance between the cause of death on the death certificate and patient diagnosis in the medical utilization data was 72.2-91.9% across all causes of deaths, and was 94.9% for cancer deaths (27, 28). Infection-related mortality was defined as underlying cause of death including

certain infectious and parasitic diseases (ICD-10 A00-B99) and organ-specific infectious diseases (Supplemental Table S1).

Statistical analysis

The baseline characteristics of the participants are presented stratified by the primary endpoint, infection-related mortality. As there was a large difference in age and sex between participants with infection-related mortality and participants without, all baseline characteristics other than age and sex are presented as age- and sex-adjusted means or proportions with 95% CIs.

Each participant was followed from their first examination until either the date of death or the end of follow-up (December 31, 2020), whichever came first. Participants who died from other causes were censored at the date of death. Cox proportional hazards regression analyses using the age as time scale were used to estimate hazard ratios (HRs) and 95% CIs for infection-related mortality. The proportional hazards assumption was assessed by examining graphs of estimated log (-log [SURVIVAL]); no violation of the assumption was identified.

Models were initially adjusted for age (as the timescale) and sex and then further adjusted for study center (Seoul or Suwon); year of screening; smoking status (never, former, current, or unknown); alcohol intake (0, <20, ≥20 g/day, or unknown); physical activity (< 3, ≥ 3 times a week, or unknown); education level (< 12 years, ≥ 12 years, or unknown); medication for lowering serum lipids, and immunosuppressive agents; BMI; history of hypertension, CVD, respiratory disease, kidney disease, psychiatric disorder (multivariable-adjusted model 1); and hsCRP (model 2). To evaluate the impact of the updated status of FBG, HbA1c, HOMA-IR and confounders during follow-up, we conducted additional analyses

introducing FBG, HbA1c and HOMA-IR (separately) levels and other confounders as a time-varying covariate in the models. Among individuals without diabetes, the multivariable adjusted HR for infection-related mortality for insulin resistance (defined by HOMA-IR \geq 75th centile versus <75th centile) was investigated. To test for linear trends, the median value of each category was included in each model as a continuous variable. We also assessed the relationship between the glycaemic parameters as a continuous factor and outcome using restricted cubic splines with knots at the 5th, 27.5th, 50th, 72.5th, and 95th percentiles of the sample distribution to provide a flexible estimate of the concentration-response relationship between the exposure and infection-related mortality. We also performed analyses whilst introducing BMI categories. BMI was categorized according to Asian-specific criteria(29) as underweight (BMI <18.5 kg/m²), normal weight (BMI 18.5–22.9 kg/m²), overweight (BMI 23–24.9 kg/m²), obesity stage I (BMI 25–29.9 kg/m²) and obesity stage II (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²). Statistical analyses were performed using STATA version 16.0 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA). All reported *P* values were two-tailed. Differences with a *P* value <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Out of 666,888 participants, 313 infection-related deaths were identified (Table 1). The three most common causes of infection-related deaths (Supplemental Table S1) were respiratory tract infections (n = 161), hepatobiliary tract infections (n = 38), and bacterial infections including sepsis (n = 35). Compared to participants who not die, those who died of infection were more likely to be older, male, current smokers, less educated, and more likely to have non-communicable diseases including diabetes, CVD, respiratory disease, kidney

disease. In addition, compared to non-infection death cases, infection-death cases were older and had a higher prevalence of underweight and higher levels of hsCRP and glycaemic parameters, including glucose, HbA1C, HOMA-IR, and insulin (Table 1).

During a total of 5,681,158 person-years of follow-up, the infection-related mortality rate was 5.5 (95% CI, 4.9-6.2) per 10⁵ person-years (Table 2). The median duration of follow-up was 8.3 years (interquartile range, 4.6-12.7 years; maximum, 15.8 years). Previously diagnosed diabetes was associated with over two-fold increased risk of infection-related mortality. Both low and high levels of FBG and HbA1c were associated with an increased risk of infection-related mortality compared to reference categories, showing a J-shaped association. After adjustment for possible confounders (model 1), multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) for infection-related mortality comparing FBG levels <5.0, 5.6-6.9, and ≥ 7.0 mmol/L with FBG level 5.0-5.5 mmol/L (reference) were 2.31 (1.47-3.64), 1.65 (1.05-2.60), and 3.41 (1.66-7.00), respectively (P for quadratic trend = 0.001). The corresponding HRs (95%) CI) comparing HbA1c <36, 39-46, and ≥48 mmol/mol with HbA1c 36-38 mmol/mol (reference) were 1.50 (0.92-2.46), 1.25 (0.80-1.95), and 2.45 (1.24-4.83), respectively (P for quadratic trend = 0.010). After adjustment for hsCRP level, the multivariable-adjusted HRs for infection-related mortality were slightly attenuated but remained significant (model 2). In the spline regression models, both low and high levels of FBG and HbA1c were associated with an increased infection-related mortality (Figure 1). When the association was evaluated after introducing changes in glucose and HbA1c levels (separately) and confounders during follow-up as time-varying covariates, the associations of glucose and HbA1c levels with infection-related mortality were similar to the analysis limited to baseline measures.

Table 3 shows the risk of infection-related mortality according to HOMA-IR categories among individuals without either previously diagnosed diabetes or screen-detected diabetes.

High levels of HOMA-IR compared with the third quintile were positively associated with increased risk of infection-related mortality. Multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) for infection-related mortality comparing the highest to third (middle) quintiles of HOMA-IR was 2.83 (1.49-5.39) (model 1). Similarly, multivariable-adjusted HRs (95% CI) for infection-related mortality for insulin resistance defined as HOMA-IR ≥75th percentile with <75th percentile was 1.55 (1.04-2.32) (model 1), but this association became insignificant after adjustment for hsCRP. In time-dependent analyses with changes in HOMA-IR levels and confounders during follow-up treated as time-varying covariates, the associations of insulin resistance with infection-related mortality were consistently observed.

In analyses using BMI categories, the results were similar to the results of multivariable analysis with BMI as a continuous variable (Supplemental Table S2). In the analyses to assess the association between glycaemic indices and non-infection mortality (Supplemental Tables S3 and S4), J-shape association (elevated risk in the low-level category) was not observed for non-infection mortality, and the amplitude of association was smaller than that of the association with infection mortality.

Discussion

In this large cohort study of young and middle-aged Korean adults, we found that diabetes, non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance were associated with increased risk of infection-related mortality. These associations remained significant after adjustment for potential confounders and when changes in glycaemic parameters and confounders over time were incorporated as time-varying covariates. Our novel findings indicate that individuals with non-diabetic hyperglycaemia or insulin resistance may be at increased risk for developing infection-related mortality.

Several studies have suggested increased mortality risk from infection in people with diabetes (30-34). The increased risk of death from infectious disease in patients with diabetes might be explained by diabetic complications or hyperglycaemia. In a US cohort study, the risk of death owing to infection was doubled in individuals with diabetes compared with those without and appeared to be largely mediated by CVD-related complications (30). However, recent studies in the UK and Italy have reported significantly increased risk of mortality from infections among people with diabetes, even after adjustment for comorbidities, which supports an independent role of diabetes in the development of infection-related mortality (32, 33). Until now, there have been no studies investigating associations between non-diabetic hyperglycaemia, insulin resistance, and infection-related mortality. Furthermore, only a few studies have demonstrated the relationship of prediabetes with specific infectious diseases (12, 35-38). Prediabetes was found to be associated with an increased prevalence of latent and active tuberculosis (12, 35, 36). Additionally, several cross-sectional studies have reported a positive association of impaired glucose tolerance with moderate-to-severe periodontitis (37) and severity of periodontal inflammatory parameters (38). In a recent study of patients with infective endocarditis in China, both diabetes and prediabetes were found to be associated with increased risk for in-hospital and long-term mortality (39). Thus, although several studies have focused on the association between hyperglycaemia at the time of active infection and the outcome of infectious diseases; the present study is unique in that it demonstrates the association between random fasting blood glucose at the time of a routine health check and subsequent death from infectious diseases. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to demonstrate an independent positive association between non-diabetic hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance detected during the screening process and an increased risk of infection-related mortality. Previous studies have reported an association between

hyperglycaemia at the time of infection diagnosis and adverse outcomes related to infection (40), or an association between pre-infection glucose levels and severe COVID-19 among patients diagnosed with COVID-19 (41).

This study demonstrated that non-diabetic hyperglyacemia and insulin resistance, in addition to diabetes, significantly increased the risk of infection-related death. The positive association between insulin resistance and infection-related mortality was consistently observed among individuals without either previously diagnosed or screen detected diabetes. Therefore, our findings support the notion that hyperglycaemia or insulin resistance itself, even in the absence of overt diabetes, may increase risk of infection-related mortality.

The underlying mechanisms for the increased infection-related mortality among people with hyperglycaemia or insulin resistance have not been fully elucidated. There is some evidence to suggest that hyperglycaemia, even in the pre-diabetic range, could be related to a compromised immune system as with diabetes. A population-based study of 1653 individuals in Southern Germany showed that serum pro-inflammatory cytokine interleukin-6 and coregulated acute-phase protein levels were higher in patients with than without impaired glucose tolerance or type 2 diabetes (42). In addition, hyperglycaemia induces active pro-inflammatory conditions in neutrophils, leading to reduced responses to external stimuli, thereby making patients with hyperglycaemia vulnerable to infections (43). A recent study has showed that systemic inflammation, defined as an CRP elevation, was associated with a greater relative risk of infection-related death (44). Similarly, in our study, hsCRP levels were higher in the infection-related mortality group than other groups, but after adjustment for hsCRP, the association between glycemic parameters and infection-related mortality remained significant. Furthermore, obesity and metabolic syndrome, the clinical phenotype of insulin resistance, appear to adversely affect immunity and pathogen defenses, including the

disruption of lymphoid tissue integrity; alterations in cytokine responses, immune cell functions, and innate and adaptive immune responses; and decreased vaccine efficacy (17). The presence of insulin resistance may suppress insulin signaling, leading to insufficient T cell activation in response to pathogens and inhibit the anti-inflammatory role of insulin, which may contribute to promoting anti-inflammatory T helper cell 2 differentiation (17, 45). Conversely, systemic insulin resistance can be induced during infection, particularly sepsis; insulin resistance may interfere with the appropriate metabolic response induced by sepsis and adversely affect the activation of T-cells and macrophages, leading to immunologic dysfunction (46, 47). Further research is required to elucidate the mechanisms underlying the association between insulin resistance and abnormal glucose metabolism with infection-related mortality.

Interestingly, in our study, significantly increased risk of infection-related mortality was also observed among individuals with low levels of FBG (<5.0 mmol/L) and HbA1c (<36 mmol/mol), supporting the nortion of a J-shaped association between FBG/HbA1c and infection-related mortality. This result is in agreement with a recent, large, population-based study from Taiwan (23). The study from Taiwan found that an FBG level <5.0 mmol/L was associated with an elevated risk of both infection-related hospitalization and mortality, and that the excess risk associated with FBG levels <5.0 mmol/L was attenuated after controlling for multiple comorbidities (23). Studies have found that lower BMI was associated with nondiabetic hypoglycaemia and was frequently accompanied by comorbidities such as malnutrition, chronic liver diseases, renal failure, heart failure, poor functional status and malignancies (48, 49). However, in our study, the independent association between low FBG and HbA1c levels with infection-related mortality persisted after adjustment for confounders, including BMI; however, we cannot fully exclude the possibility that unmeasured factors

associated with low fat and lean mass, may increase the risk of infection-related mortality.

A question arising from our observations is what is the cause of infection-related cause of death in our study. In our study, respiratory tract infections were the most common cause of death, followed by hepatobiliary tract infections and bacterial infections including sepsis. The high mortality rate of hepatobiliary tract infection is attributed to the high prevalence of hepatitis B infection in Korea. According to recent statistics on the infectious causes of death in Korea, viral hepatitis was the fourth leading cause of infection-related deaths(50). In our study, 20 of the 38 deaths from hepatobiliary tract infection were due to viral hepatitis.

This study had limitations and strengths that should be discussed. First, glycaemic status at each time points was defined by a single measure of FBG and HbA1c without an oral glucose tolerance test. Therefore, some people with non-diabetic hyperglycaemia or diabetes based on an oral glucose tolerance test might have been incorrectly classified as those with normoglycaemia. However, it should be noted that any misclassification bias would attenuate the strength of the associations that we observed towards the null. Furthermore, participants with a level of hyperglycaemia commensurate with the diagnosis of diabetes detected during the screening programme were referred for further confirmation and subsequent management by physicians or endocrinologists, and detailed data collected by clinicians were not available in our screening dataset. However, subsequent visits within the screening programme include the assessment of glycaemic parameters, and the use of glucose-lowering medications is updated after a diagnosis of screen-detected hyperglycaemia. In our time-dependent analyses that allowed for changes in status between baseline and follow-up, both previously diagnosed and screen-detected diabetes were consistently associated with an increased risk of infectionrelated mortality. Second, insulin resistance was determined by HOMA-IR instead of hyperinsulinemic euglycaemic clamp as the gold standard method for the determination of

whole body insulin sensitivity. Moreover, HOMA-IR is a reliable and validated measure of insulin sensitivity/resistance in various populations (51). Third, the infection-related mortality can be affected by non-communicable diseases and socio-economic deprivation (52). We adjusted for educational level as a proxy measure of socio-economic status, as well as other comorbidities, including a history of hypertension, CVD, respiratory disease, chronic kidney disease and psychiatric disorders, which were assessed using a self-administered, structured questionnaire used in the health check-up programme in Korea. However, the possibility of unmeasured confounders as well as measurement errors may not be fully excluded in our findings. Finally, our findings were derived from a large cohort of young and middle-aged Koreans, mostly employees and their spouses, who regularly participated in health check-up examinations and had easy access to health care, possibly limiting the generalizability of our results to other populations of different ages, ethnicity/race, socioeconomic status, and comorbidities. Nevertheless, our findings are less likely to be affected by survivor bias or biases related to comorbidities and medication use compared with results derived from older individuals. Furthermore, our cohort study provides a large sample size, utilizes standardized clinical and laboratory measurements, and used ICD-10 codes to identify infection-related mortality. Finally, the analyses included adjustment for a wide range of confounders at baseline and follow-up visits.

In conclusion, this cohort study demonstrated that hyperglycaemia, whether in the non-diabetic or diabetic range, and insulin resistance were associated with an increased risk of infection-related mortality. These findings suggest an independent role for hyperglycaemia even in the non-diabetic range and also insulin resistance, on increased risk of infection-related mortality. Future studies are needed to determine how hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance contribute to the development of infectious diseases and the poor prognoses of

infectious diseases and to identify effective interventions.

Supplementary materials

This is linked to the online version of the paper at

Declaration of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflicts of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing

the impartiality of this article.

Funding: none

Acknowledgements: We thank the staff members of Kangbuk Samsung Health Study for

their hard work, dedication, and continuing support. This study was supported by the SKKU

Excellence in Research Award Research Fund, Sungkyunkwan University, 2020. CDB is

supported in part by the Southampton NIHR Biomedical Research Centre (IS-BRC-20004),

UK.

Authorship contribution statement: HSC, EJ, MK, YC and SR planned, designed, and

directed the study, including quality assurance and control. SR and YK analyzed data and

designed the analytic strategy. SHW and CDB provided intellectual input, critically reviewed

- 18 -

and edited the manuscript. All authors conducted the literature review and prepared the Research Design and Methods and Discussion sections of the text. HSC and YC drafted the manuscript. All authors interpreted the results and contributed to the critical revision of the manuscript.

Data sharing/availability statement: The data are not available to be shared publicly as we do not have IRB permission for distributing the data. However, supporting information or analytic code is available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

References

- 1. Zheng Y, Ley SH, Hu FB. Global aetiology and epidemiology of type 2 diabetes mellitus and its complications. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2018;14(2):88-98.
- 2. Saeedi P, Petersohn I, Salpea P, Malanda B, Karuranga S, Unwin N, et al. Global and regional diabetes prevalence estimates for 2019 and projections for 2030 and 2045: Results from the International Diabetes Federation Diabetes Atlas, 9(th) edition. Diabetes research and clinical practice. 2019;157:107843.
- 3. Shah BR, Hux JE. Quantifying the risk of infectious diseases for people with diabetes. Diabetes care. 2003;26(2):510-3.
- 4. Akash MSH, Rehman K, Fiayyaz F, Sabir S, Khurshid M. Diabetes-associated infections: development of antimicrobial resistance and possible treatment strategies. Archives of microbiology. 2020.
- 5. Ma CM, Yin FZ. The mortality in infectious inpatients with type 2 diabetes compared with non-diabetic population: Infection in type 2 diabetes. Medicine. 2019;98(24):e16025.

- 6. Muller LM, Gorter KJ, Hak E, Goudzwaard WL, Schellevis FG, Hoepelman AI, et al. Increased risk of common infections in patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Clinical infectious diseases: an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America. 2005;41(3):281-8.
- 7. Abu-Ashour W, Twells L, Valcour J, Randell A, Donnan J, Howse P, et al. The association between diabetes mellitus and incident infections: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. BMJ open diabetes research & care. 2017;5(1):e000336.
- 8. Varikasuvu SR, Dutt N, Thangappazham B, Varshney S. Diabetes and COVID-19: A pooled analysis related to disease severity and mortality. Prim Care Diabetes. 2021;15(1):24-7.
- 9. Tabak AG, Herder C, Rathmann W, Brunner EJ, Kivimaki M. Prediabetes: a high-risk state for diabetes development. Lancet (London, England). 2012;379(9833):2279-90.
- 10. Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Narayan KM, Weisman D, Golden SH, Jaar BG. Association between prediabetes and risk of chronic kidney disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Diabetic medicine: a journal of the British Diabetic Association. 2016;33(12):1615-24.
- 11. Huang Y, Cai X, Mai W, Li M, Hu Y. Association between prediabetes and risk of cardiovascular disease and all cause mortality: systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ (Clinical research ed). 2016;355:i5953.
- 12. Viswanathan V, Kumpatla S, Aravindalochanan V, Rajan R, Chinnasamy C, Srinivasan R, et al. Prevalence of diabetes and pre-diabetes and associated risk factors among tuberculosis patients in India. PloS one. 2012;7(7):e41367.
- 13. Lim SG, Han K, Kim HA, Pyo SW, Cho YS, Kim KS, et al. Association between insulin resistance and periodontitis in Korean adults. Journal of clinical periodontology. 2014;41(2):121-30.
- 14. Benguigui C, Bongard V, Ruidavets JB, Chamontin B, Sixou M, Ferrieres J, et al. Metabolic syndrome, insulin resistance, and periodontitis: a cross-sectional study in a middle-aged French population. Journal of clinical periodontology. 2010;37(7):601-8.
- 15. Andriankaja OM, Munoz-Torres FJ, Vivaldi-Oliver J, Leroux BG, Campos M, Joshipura K,

- et al. Insulin resistance predicts the risk of gingival/periodontal inflammation. Journal of periodontology. 2018;89(5):549-57.
- 16. Kumar NP, Moideen K, Dolla C, Kumaran P, Babu S. Prediabetes is associated with the modulation of antigen-specific Th1/Tc1 and Th17/Tc17 responses in latent Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection. PloS one. 2017;12(5):e0178000.
- 17. Andersen CJ, Murphy KE, Fernandez ML. Impact of Obesity and Metabolic Syndrome on Immunity. Advances in nutrition (Bethesda, Md). 2016;7(1):66-75.
- 18. Chang Y, Ryu S, Choi Y, Zhang Y, Cho J, Kwon MJ, et al. Metabolically Healthy Obesity and Development of Chronic Kidney Disease: A Cohort Study. Annals of internal medicine. 2016;164(5):305-12.
- 19. Chang Y, Cho YK, Cho J, Jung HS, Yun KE, Ahn J, et al. Alcoholic and Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease and Liver-Related Mortality: A Cohort Study. The American journal of gastroenterology. 2019;114(4):620-9.
- 20. World Health Organization, Regional Office for the Western Pacific. The Asia-Pacific perspective: redefining obesity and its treatment. Sydney: Health Communications Australia; 2000.
- 21. Matthews DR, Hosker JP, Rudenski AS, Naylor BA, Treacher DF, Turner RC. Homeostasis model assessment: insulin resistance and beta-cell function from fasting plasma glucose and insulin concentrations in man. Diabetologia. 1985;28(7):412-9.
- 22. 2. Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes: Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2021. Diabetes care. 2021;44(Suppl 1):S15-s33.
- 23. Chang CH, Wang JL, Wu LC, Chuang LM, Lin HH. Diabetes, Glycemic Control, and Risk of Infection Morbidity and Mortality: A Cohort Study. Open forum infectious diseases.

 2019;6(10):ofz358.
- 24. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes care. 2010;33 Suppl 1:S62-9.
- 25. Chang AM, Smith MJ, Bloem CJ, Galecki AT, Halter JB, Supiano MA. Limitation of the homeostasis model assessment to predict insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction in older people.

The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism. 2006;91(2):629-34.

- 26. Katsuki A, Sumida Y, Urakawa H, Gabazza EC, Murashima S, Morioka K, et al. Neither homeostasis model assessment nor quantitative insulin sensitivity check index can predict insulin resistance in elderly patients with poorly controlled type 2 diabetes mellitus. The Journal of clinical endocrinology and metabolism. 2002;87(11):5332-5.
- 27. Song YM, Sung J. Body mass index and mortality: a twelve-year prospective study in Korea. Epidemiology. 2001;12(2):173-9.
- 28. Won TY, Kang BS, Im TH, Choi HJ. The Study of Accuracy of Death Statistics. Journal of The Korean Society of Emergency Medicine. 2007;18(3):256-62.
- 29. WHO Western Pacific Region IaI. The Asia-Pacific Perspective: Redefining Obesity and Its Treatment. Health Communications Australia Pty Limit: Sdyney, Australia. 2000.
- 30. Bertoni AG, Saydah S, Brancati FL. Diabetes and the risk of infection-related mortality in the U.S. Diabetes care. 2001;24(6):1044-9.
- 31. Magliano DJ, Harding JL, Cohen K, Huxley RR, Davis WA, Shaw JE. Excess Risk of Dying From Infectious Causes in Those With Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes. Diabetes care. 2015;38(7):1274-80.
- 32. Carey IM, Critchley JA, DeWilde S, Harris T, Hosking FJ, Cook DG. Risk of Infection in Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes Compared With the General Population: A Matched Cohort Study. Diabetes care. 2018;41(3):513-21.
- 33. Zoppini G, Fedeli U, Schievano E, Dauriz M, Targher G, Bonora E, et al. Mortality from infectious diseases in diabetes. Nutrition, metabolism, and cardiovascular diseases: NMCD. 2018;28(5):444-50.
- 34. Cardoso CR, Salles GF. Macro and microvascular complications are determinants of increased infection-related mortality in Brazilian type 2 diabetes mellitus patients. Diabetes research and clinical practice. 2007;75(1):51-8.
- 35. Hensel RL, Kempker RR, Tapia J, Oladele A, Blumberg HM, Magee MJ. Increased risk of

latent tuberculous infection among persons with pre-diabetes and diabetes mellitus. The international journal of tuberculosis and lung disease: the official journal of the International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease. 2016;20(1):71-8.

- 36. Almeida-Junior JL, Gil-Santana L, Oliveira CA, Castro S, Cafezeiro AS, Daltro C, et al. Glucose Metabolism Disorder Is Associated with Pulmonary Tuberculosis in Individuals with Respiratory Symptoms from Brazil. PloS one. 2016;11(4):e0153590.
- 37. Arora N, Papapanou PN, Rosenbaum M, Jacobs DR, Jr., Desvarieux M, Demmer RT. Periodontal infection, impaired fasting glucose and impaired glucose tolerance: results from the Continuous National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2009-2010. Journal of clinical periodontology. 2014;41(7):643-52.
- 38. Javed F, Thafeed Alghamdi AS, Mikami T, Mehmood A, Ahmed HB, Samaranayake LP, et al. Effect of glycemic control on self-perceived oral health, periodontal parameters, and alveolar bone loss among patients with prediabetes. Journal of periodontology. 2014;85(2):234-41.
- 39. Wei XB, Liu YH, Huang JL, Chen XL, Yu DQ, Tan N, et al. Prediabetes and diabetes are both risk factors for adverse outcomes in infective endocarditis. Diabetic medicine: a journal of the British Diabetic Association. 2018;35(11):1499-507.
- 40. Fabbri A, Marchesini G, Benazzi B, Morelli A, Montesi D, Bini C, et al. Stress Hyperglycemia and Mortality in Subjects With Diabetes and Sepsis. Crit Care Explor. 2020;2(7):e0152.
- 41. Shauly-Aharonov M, Shafrir A, Paltiel O, Calderon-Margalit R, Safadi R, Bicher R, et al. Both high and low pre-infection glucose levels associated with increased risk for severe COVID-19: New insights from a population-based study. PloS one. 2021;16(7):e0254847.
- 42. Muller S, Martin S, Koenig W, Hanifi-Moghaddam P, Rathmann W, Haastert B, et al. Impaired glucose tolerance is associated with increased serum concentrations of interleukin 6 and coregulated acute-phase proteins but not TNF-alpha or its receptors. Diabetologia. 2002;45(6):805-12.
- 43. Joshi MB, Lad A, Bharath Prasad AS, Balakrishnan A, Ramachandra L, Satyamoorthy K.

- High glucose modulates IL-6 mediated immune homeostasis through impeding neutrophil extracellular trap formation. FEBS letters. 2013;587(14):2241-6.
- 44. Drozd M, Pujades-Rodriguez M, Morgan AW, Lillie PJ, Witte KK, Kearney MT, et al. Systemic Inflammation Is Associated With Future Risk of Fatal Infection: An Observational Cohort Study. J Infect Dis. 2022;226(3):554-62.
- 45. Maciver NJ, Jacobs SR, Wieman HL, Wofford JA, Coloff JL, Rathmell JC. Glucose metabolism in lymphocytes is a regulated process with significant effects on immune cell function and survival. J Leukoc Biol. 2008;84(4):949-57.
- 46. Mizock BA. Alterations in fuel metabolism in critical illness: hyperglycaemia. Best practice & research Clinical endocrinology & metabolism. 2001;15(4):533-51.
- 47. Grimble RF. Inflammatory status and insulin resistance. Current opinion in clinical nutrition and metabolic care. 2002;5(5):551-9.
- 48. Boucai L, Southern WN, Zonszein J. Hypoglycemia-associated mortality is not drug-associated but linked to comorbidities. Am J Med. 2011;124(11):1028-35.
- 49. Sako A, Yasunaga H, Matsui H, Fushimi K, Hamasaki H, Katsuyama H, et al. Hospitalization with hypoglycemia in patients without diabetes mellitus: A retrospective study using a national inpatient database in Japan, 2008-2012. Medicine. 2017;96(25):e7271.
- 50. Baik D, Kim BW, Ki M. Increasing trends in mortality and costs of infectious diseases in Korea: trends in mortality and costs of infectious diseases. Epidemiol Health. 2022;44:e2022010.
- 51. Muniyappa R, Madan R. Assessing Insulin Sensitivity and Resistance in Humans. In: Feingold KR, Anawalt B, Boyce A, Chrousos G, Dungan K, Grossman A, et al., editors. Endotext. South Dartmouth (MA): MDText.com, Inc.; 2000.
- 52. Drozd M, Pujades-Rodriguez M, Lillie PJ, Straw S, Morgan AW, Kearney MT, et al. Non-communicable disease, sociodemographic factors, and risk of death from infection: a UK Biobank observational cohort study. Lancet Infect Dis. 2021;21(8):1184-91.

Table legends

Table 1. Estimated* mean values (95% CI) and adjusted* proportions (95% CI) of baseline characteristics of study participants according to infection-related mortality (N = 666,888)

Table 2. Hazard ratios (95% CIs) for infection-related mortality by glucose category in the overall population (N = 666,888)

Table 3. Hazard ratios (95% CIs) for infection-related mortality by HOMA-IR and insulin level without screen-detected diabetes or previously diagnosed diabetes (N=639,751)

Figure legend

Figure 1. Multivariable-adjusted hazard ratios (95% CI) for infection-related mortality by fasting blood glucose (a) and HbA1c (b) among subjects without previously diagnosed diabetes. The curves represent adjusted hazard ratios (solid line) and their 95% confidence intervals (dashed lines) for infection-related mortality based on restricted cubic splines for fasting blood glucose or HbA1c with knots at the 5th, 27.5th, 50th, 72.5th, and 95th percentiles of their sample distribution. The reference value was set at the 50th percentile (5.2 mmol/L) for fasting blood glucose and the 75th percentile (39 mmol/mol) for HbA1c. The model was adjusted for age, sex, center, year of screening exam, smoking status, alcohol intake, regular exercise, BMI, education level, history of CVD, history of respiratory disease, history of chronic kidney disease, medication for psychiatric disorder, use of immunosuppressive agents and lipid lowering medication.