



## DIABETES AND CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES

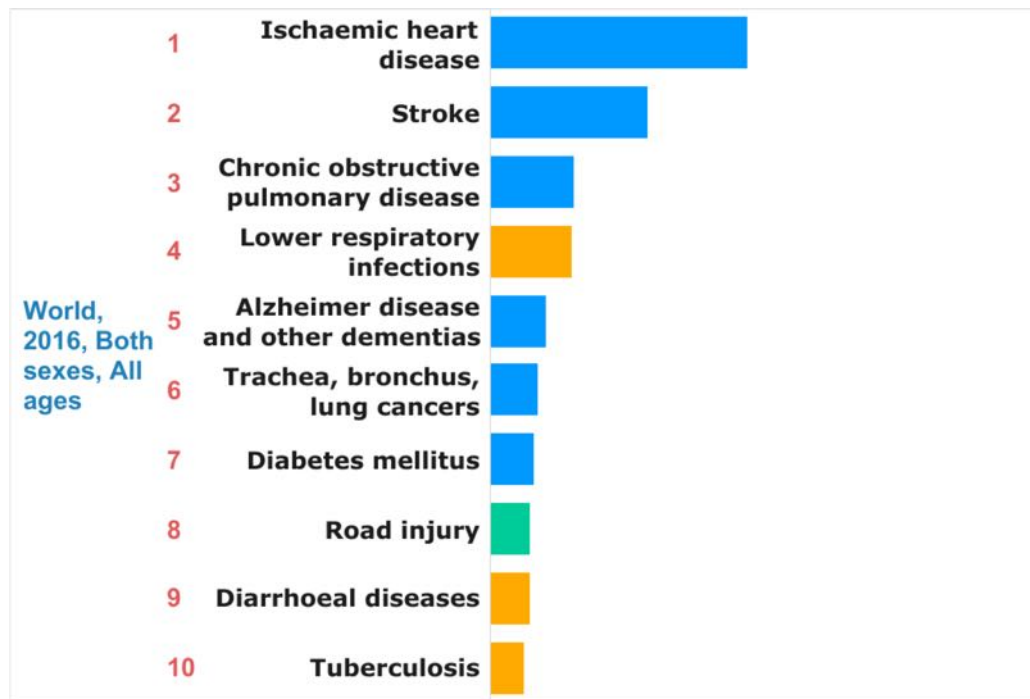
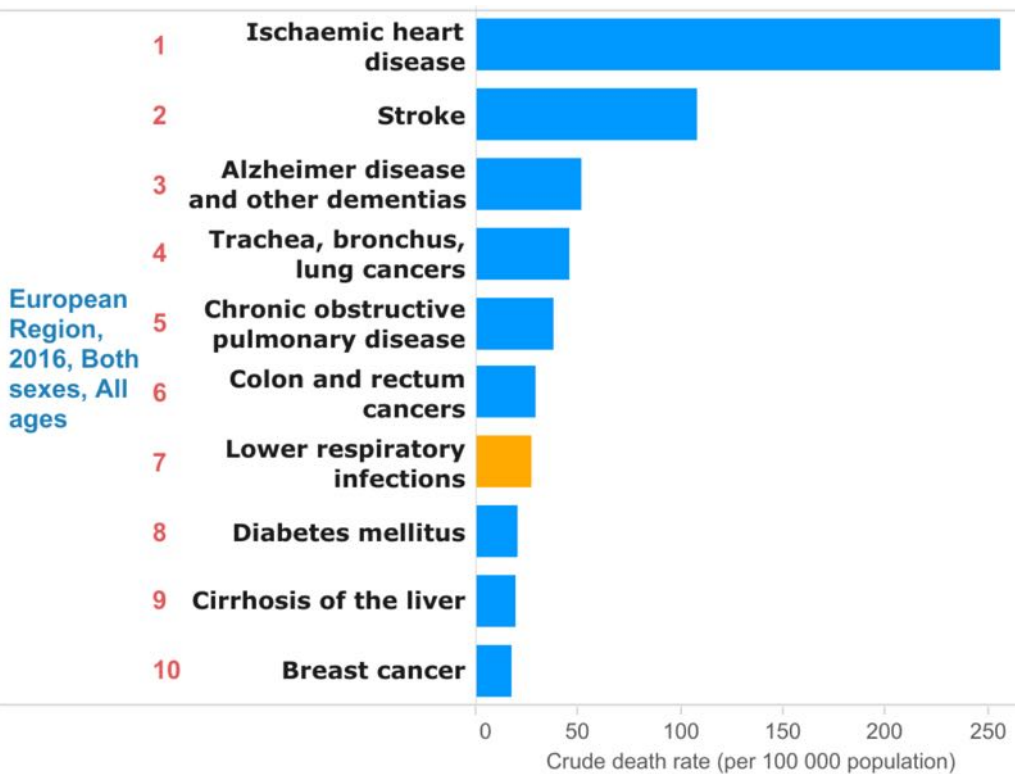
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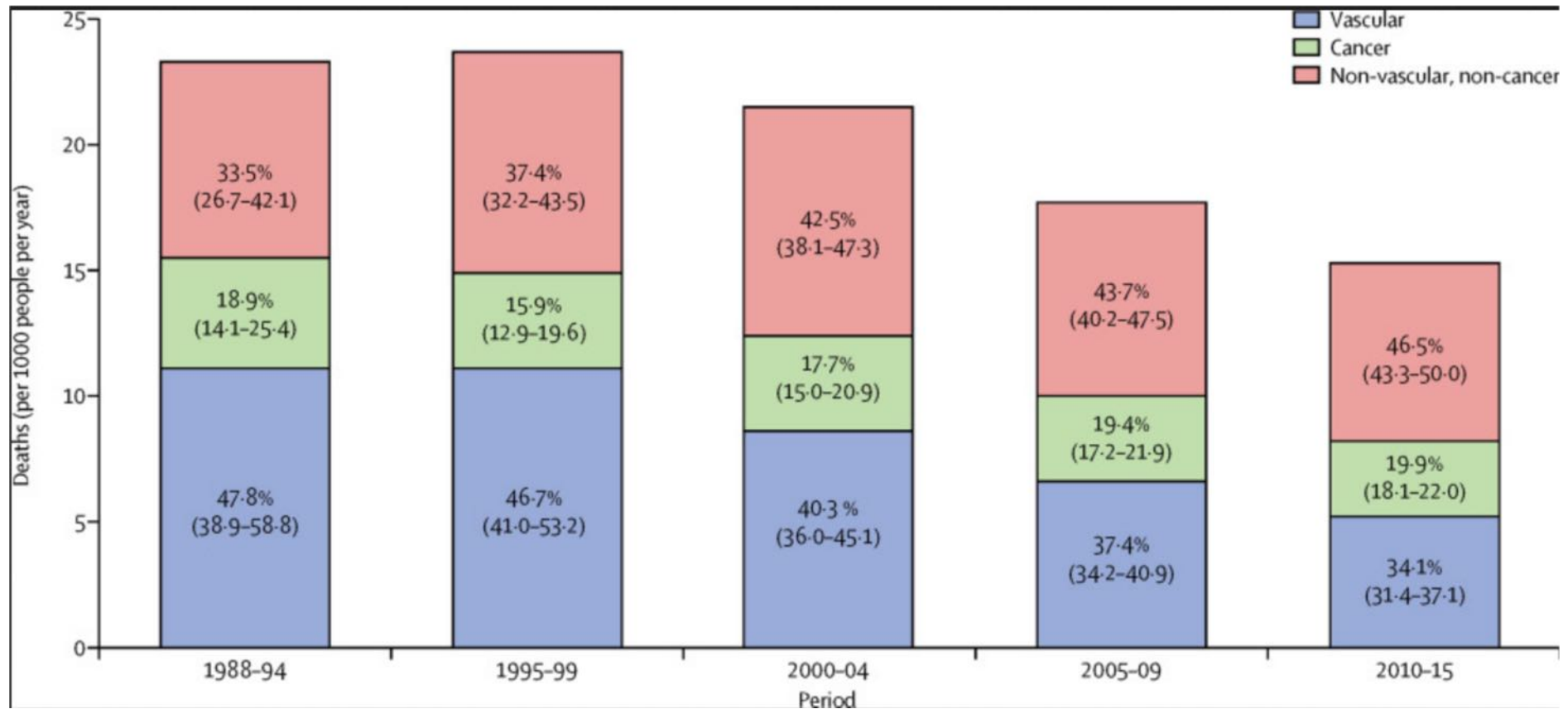
# Global causes of death - 2016 (WHO)



## Cause group

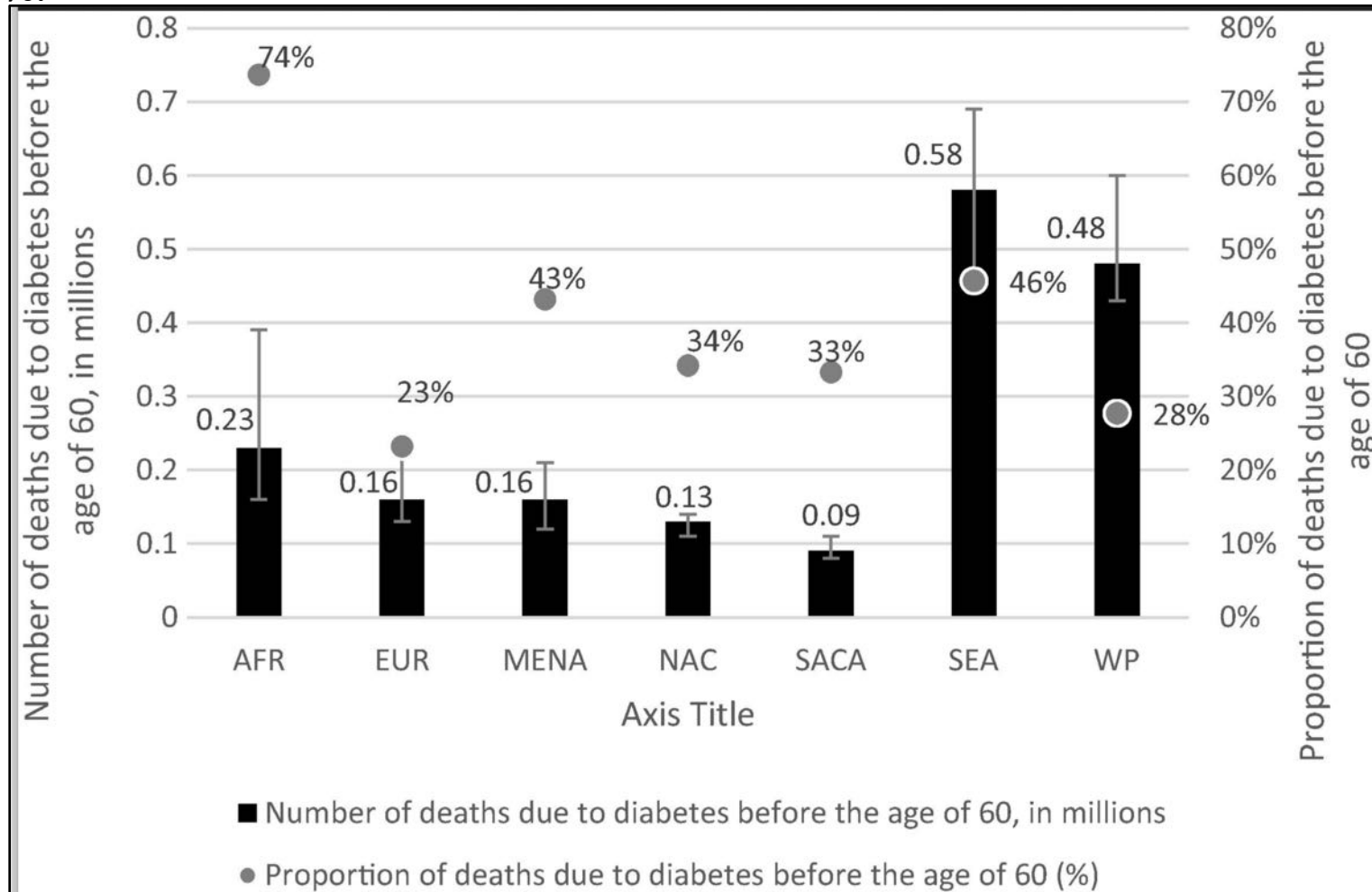
- Communicable, maternal, perinatal and nutritional conditions
- Noncommunicable diseases
- Injuries

The reduction in deaths caused by vascular disease is consistent with previous reports of improved [cardiovascular](#) mortality rates, [myocardial infarction](#), and stroke, which have been attributed to improvements in [revascularisation](#), acute care, risk factor management, and behavioural changes;

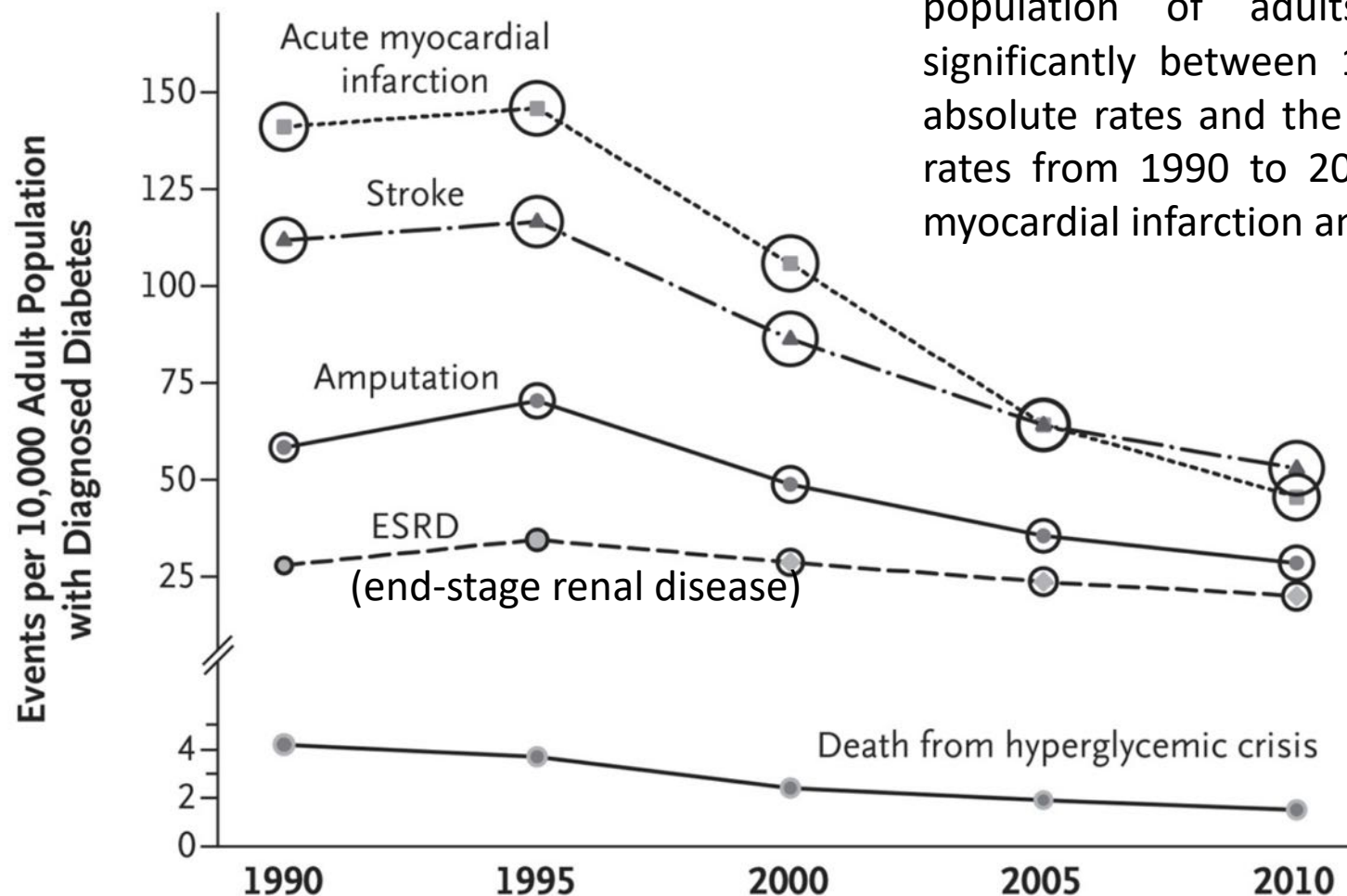


# The Diabetes epidemic

Diabetes accounted for 9.9% of the global all-cause mortality among people within 20-99 years (2017). Over one third of deaths attributable to diabetes occurred in people under the age of 60 years. The highest proportion of all deaths attributable to diabetes occurring before the age of 60 is in the Africa region, at 73.7%.

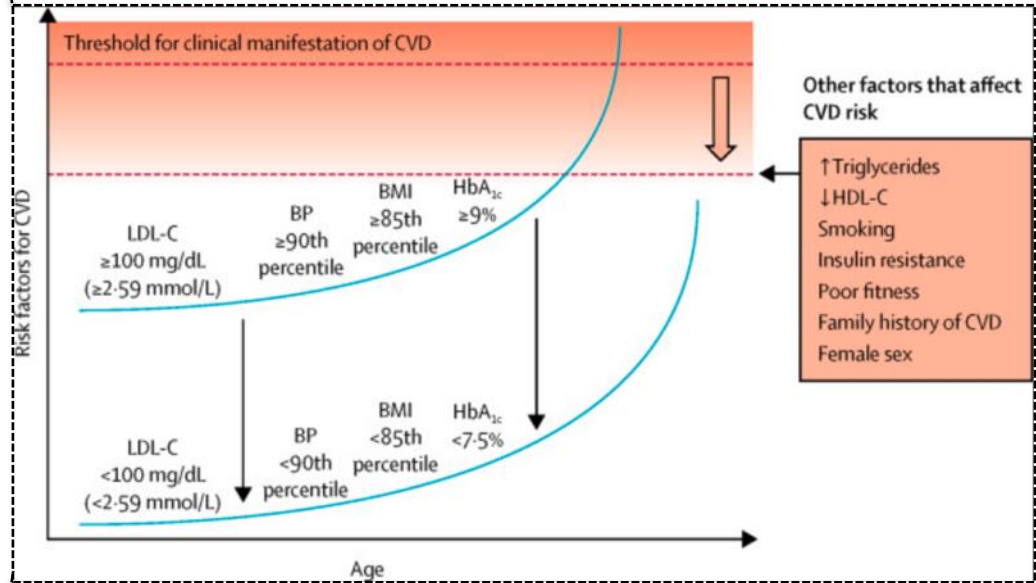
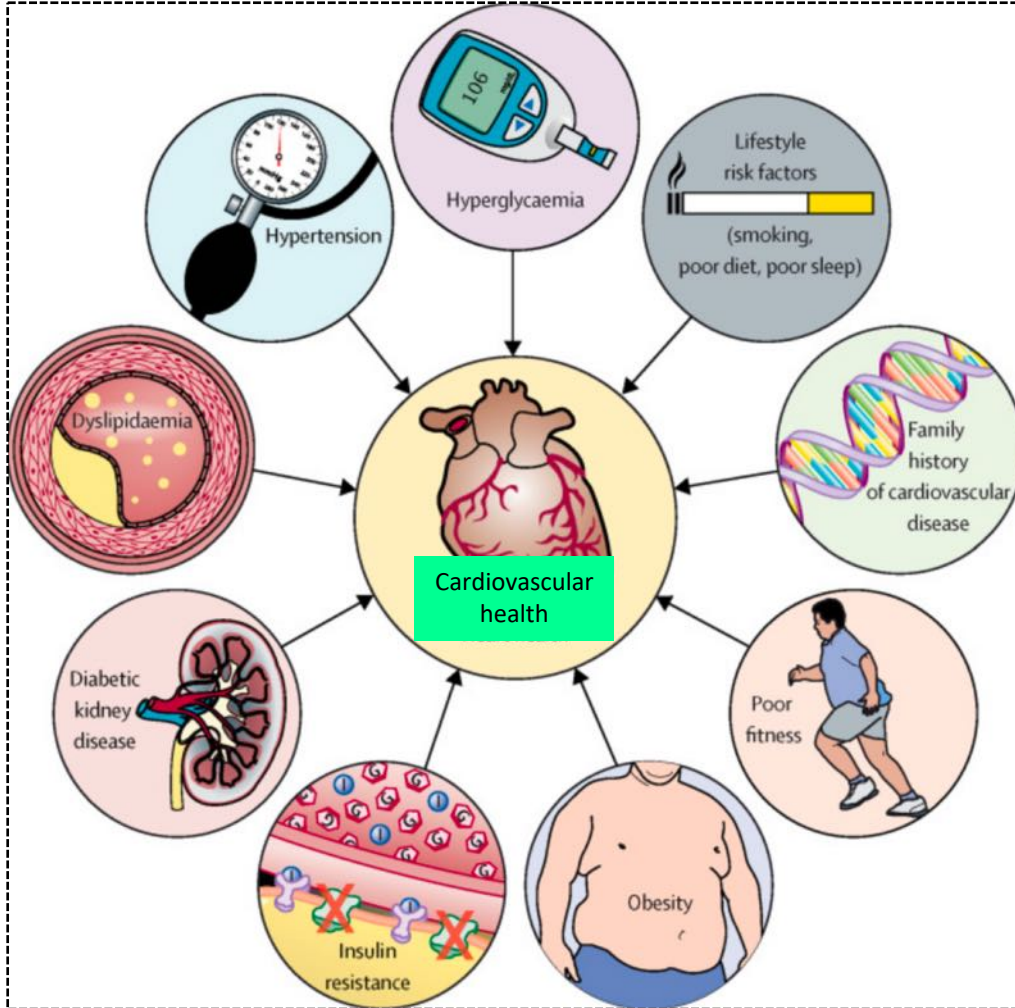


## A Population with Diabetes



The rates of all five major complications in the population of adults with diabetes declined significantly between 1990 and 2010. The highest absolute rates and the greatest absolute declines in rates from 1990 to 2010 were observed for acute myocardial infarction and stroke.

# Cardiovascular risk factors in diabetic patients



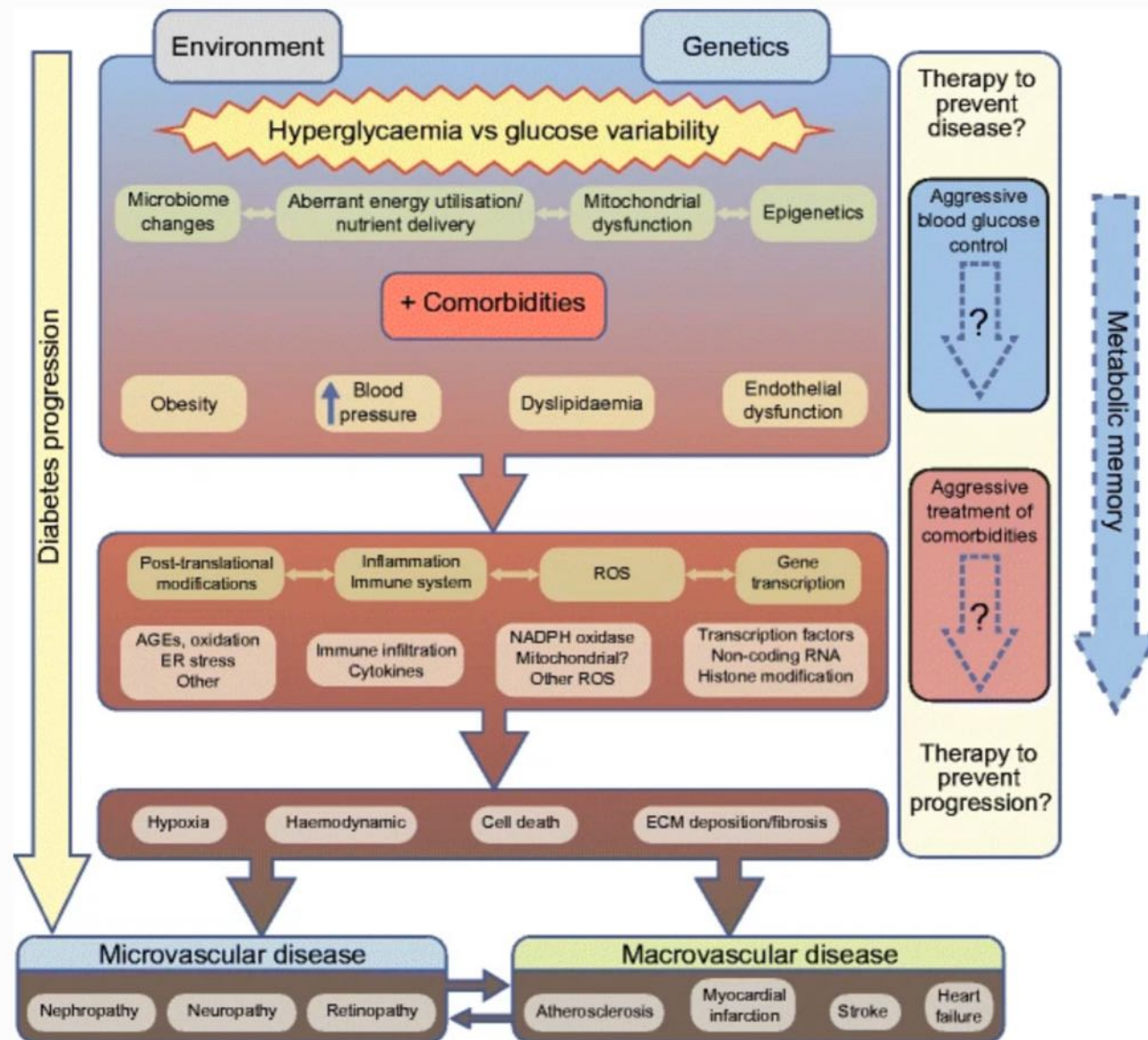
**A close link exists between DM and cardiovascular disease (CVD). CVD is the most prevalent cause of mortality and morbidity in diabetic populations.**

√ CVD death are higher among adults (> 18 years) with diabetes (Type 2) than those without diagnosed diabetes, largely due to an increased risk of stroke and myocardial infarction (MI). This increased risk of CVD mortality in diabetic patients is found in both men and women.

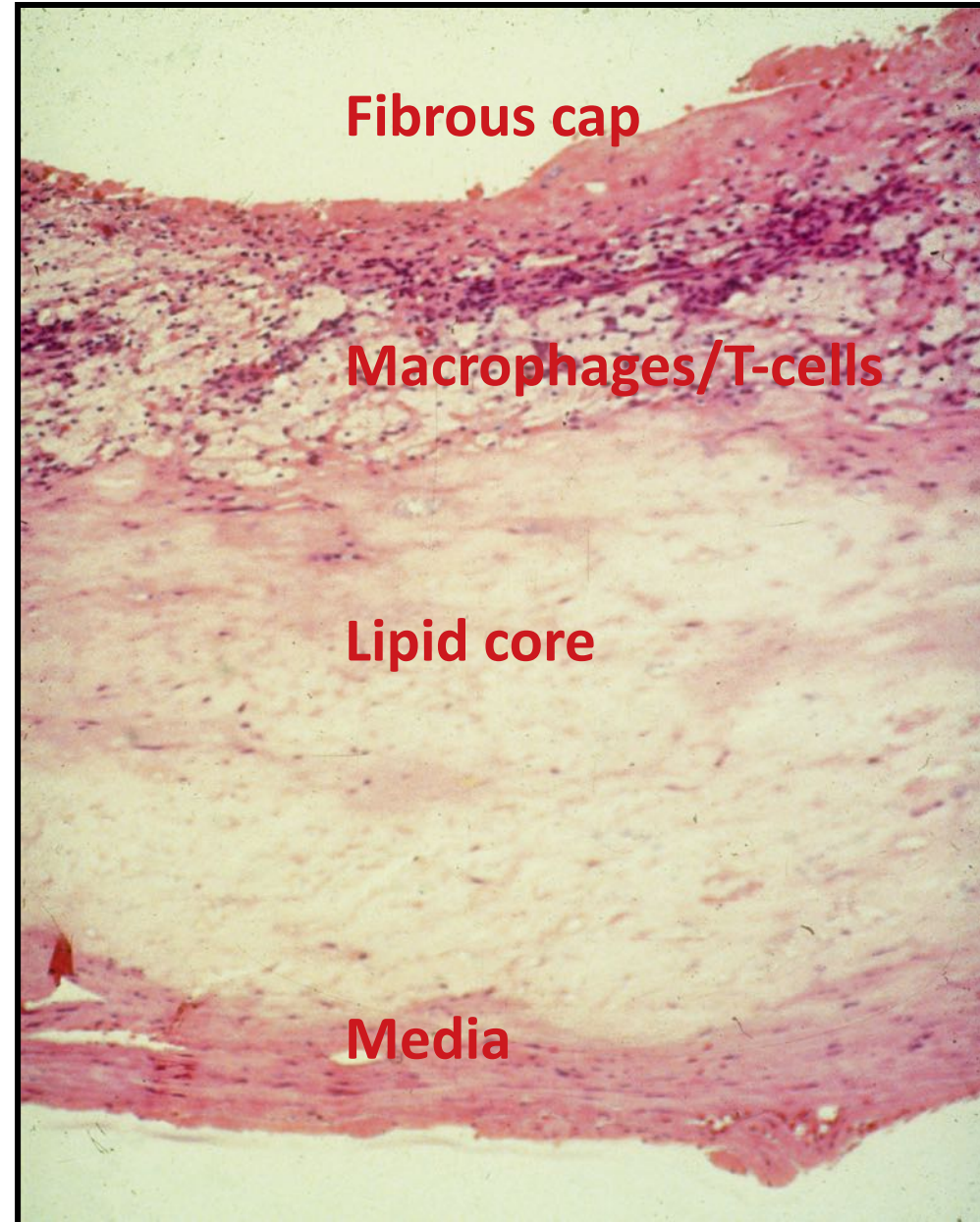
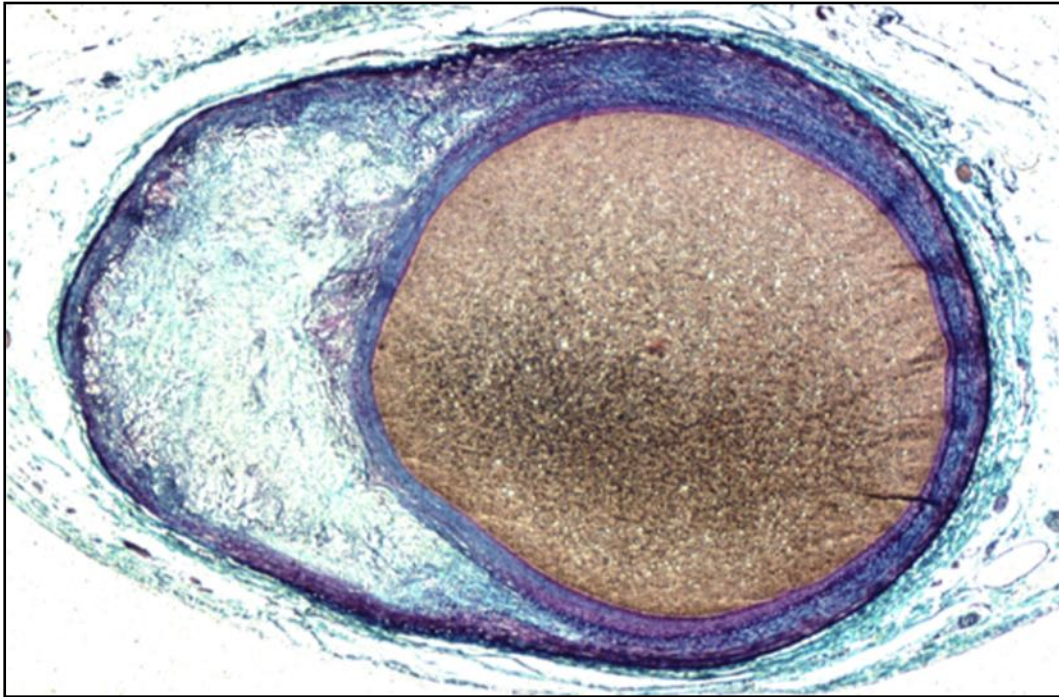
√ CV risk factors including obesity, hypertension and dyslipidemia are common in patients with diabetes, particularly those with T2 diabetes.

**Collectively, the high rates of CV risk factors and direct biological effects of diabetes on the CV system place diabetic patients at increased risk of developing CVD, and contribute to the increased prevalence of MI, revascularization, stroke and CHF.**

# I- Diabetes and vascular complications

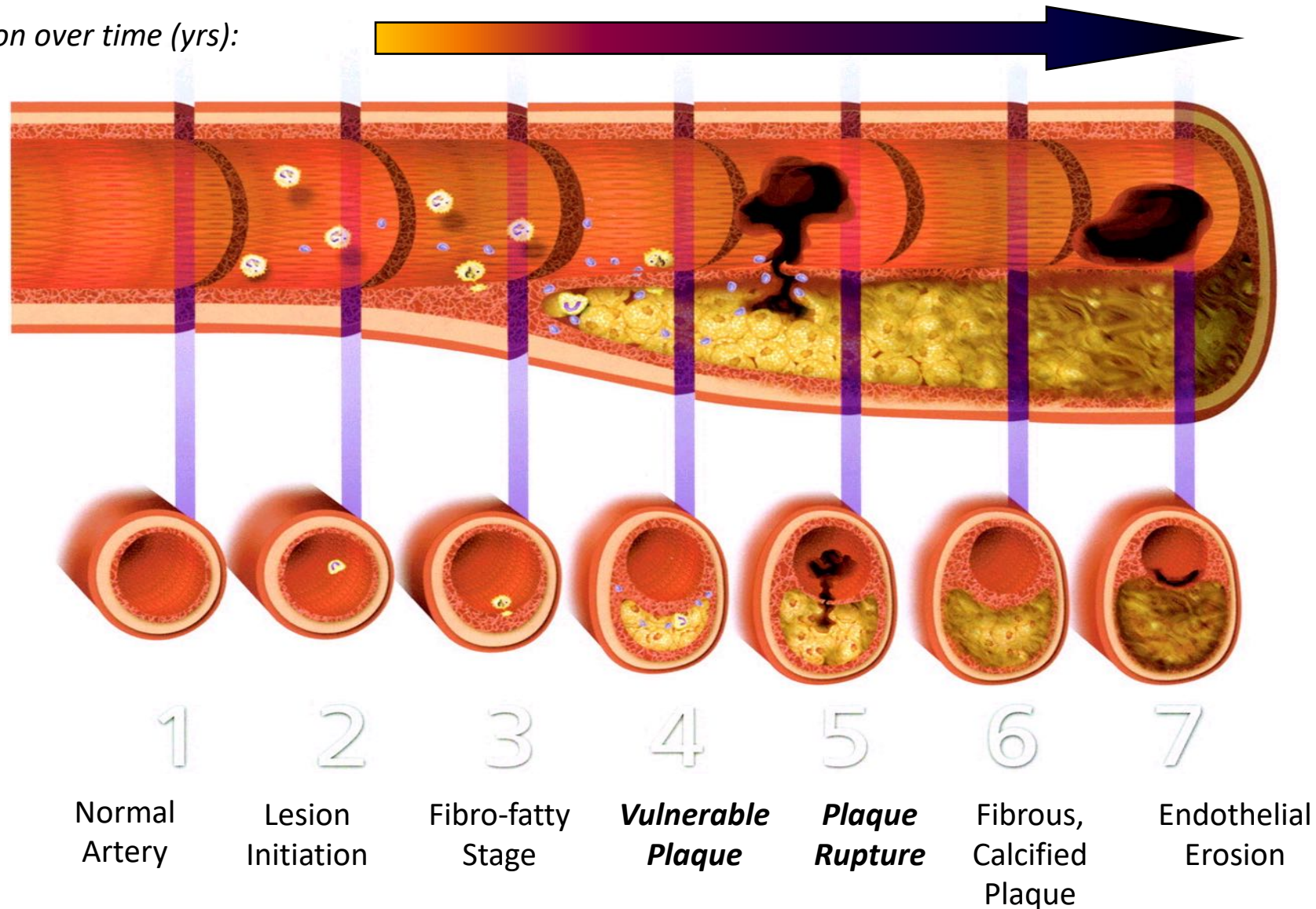






# Atherosclerotic plaque progression

Progression over time (yrs):





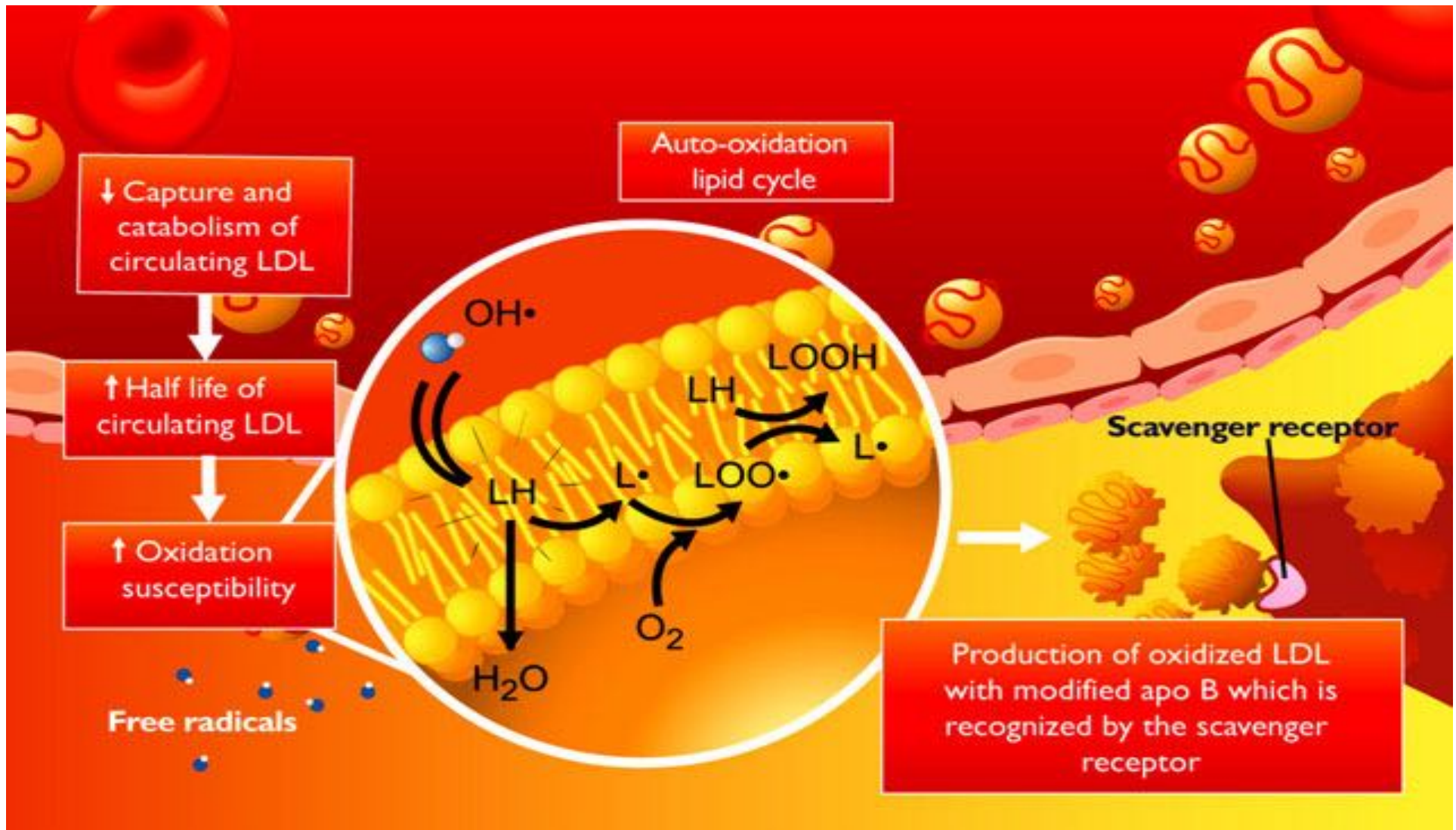
- Intra- and extracellular accumulation of lipids
- Formation of lipid core

Development of  
fibrosis surrounding  
lipid core

- Plaque growth
- Atherothrombosis
- Plaque rupture

Asymptomatic

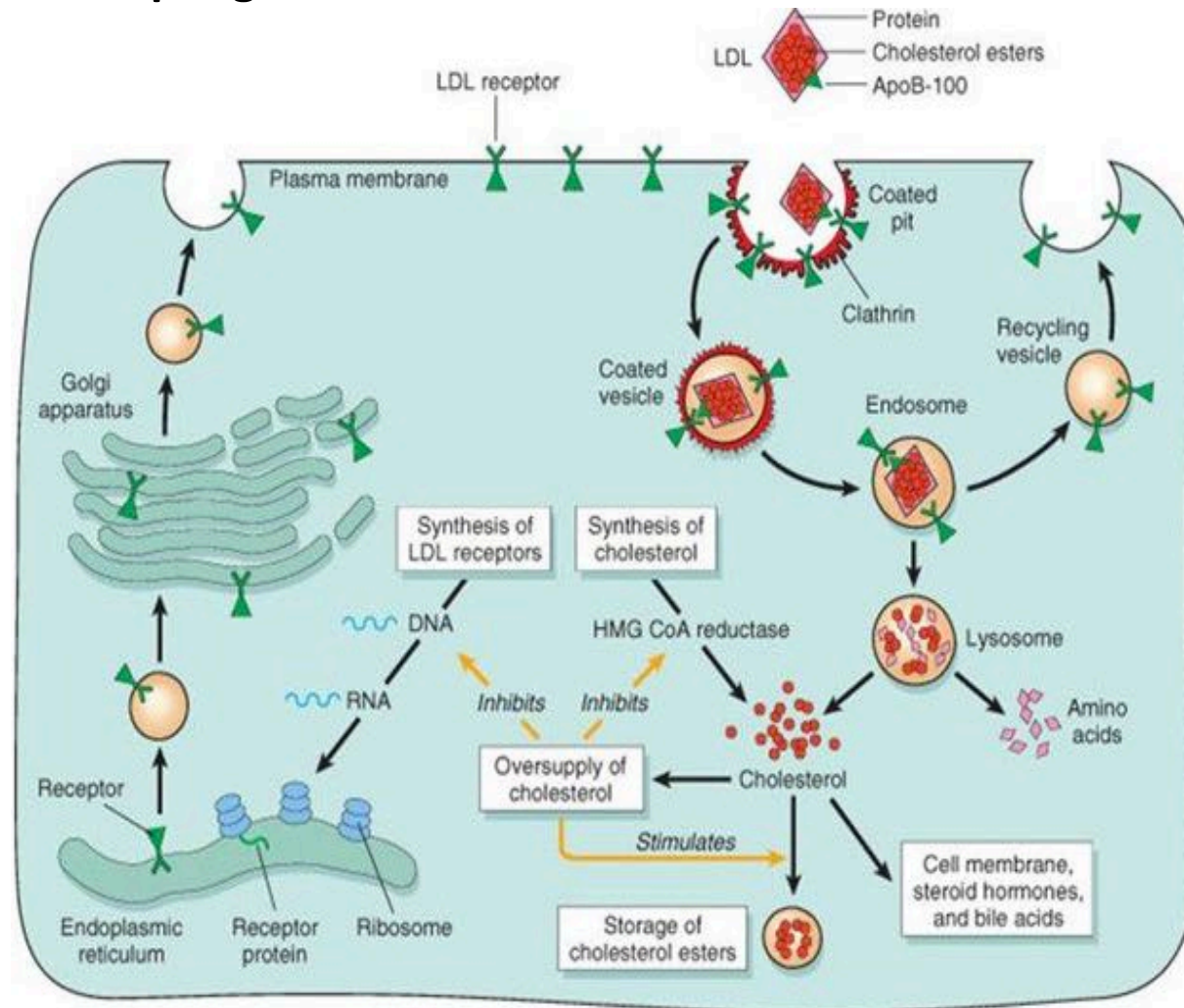
Eventual clinical events



## Oxidation of LDL and transformation of macrophages into foam cells

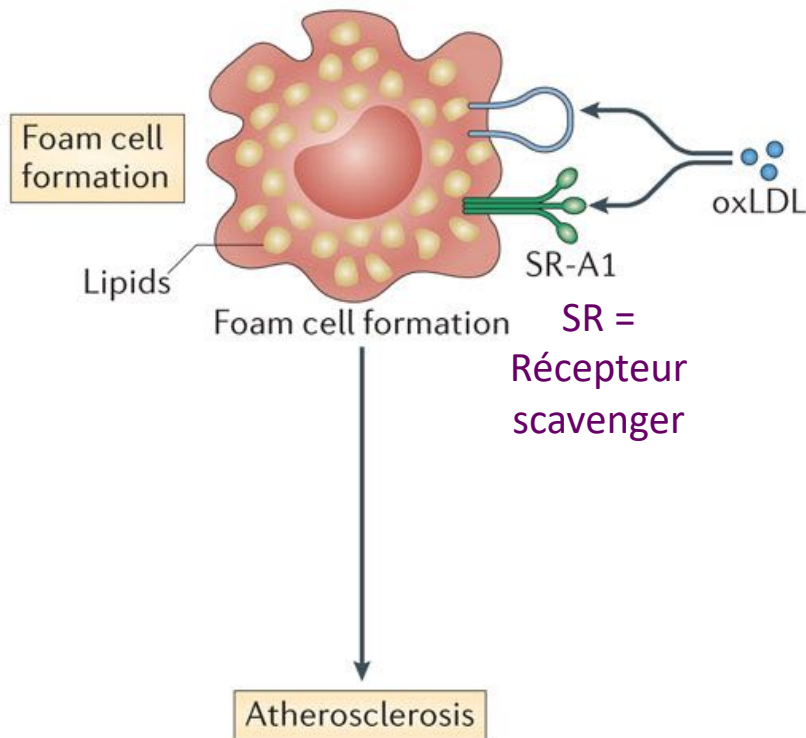
LDL / R-LDL interaction results in:  
-Internalization of LDL, its degradation and its transformation into cholesterol  
-Internalization of LDL-R and its recycling to the membrane

**If intracellular cholesterol levels increase, intracellular LDL-R synthesis and cholesterol synthesis stop**



## Oxidation of LDL and transformation of macrophages into foam cells

**foam cell**

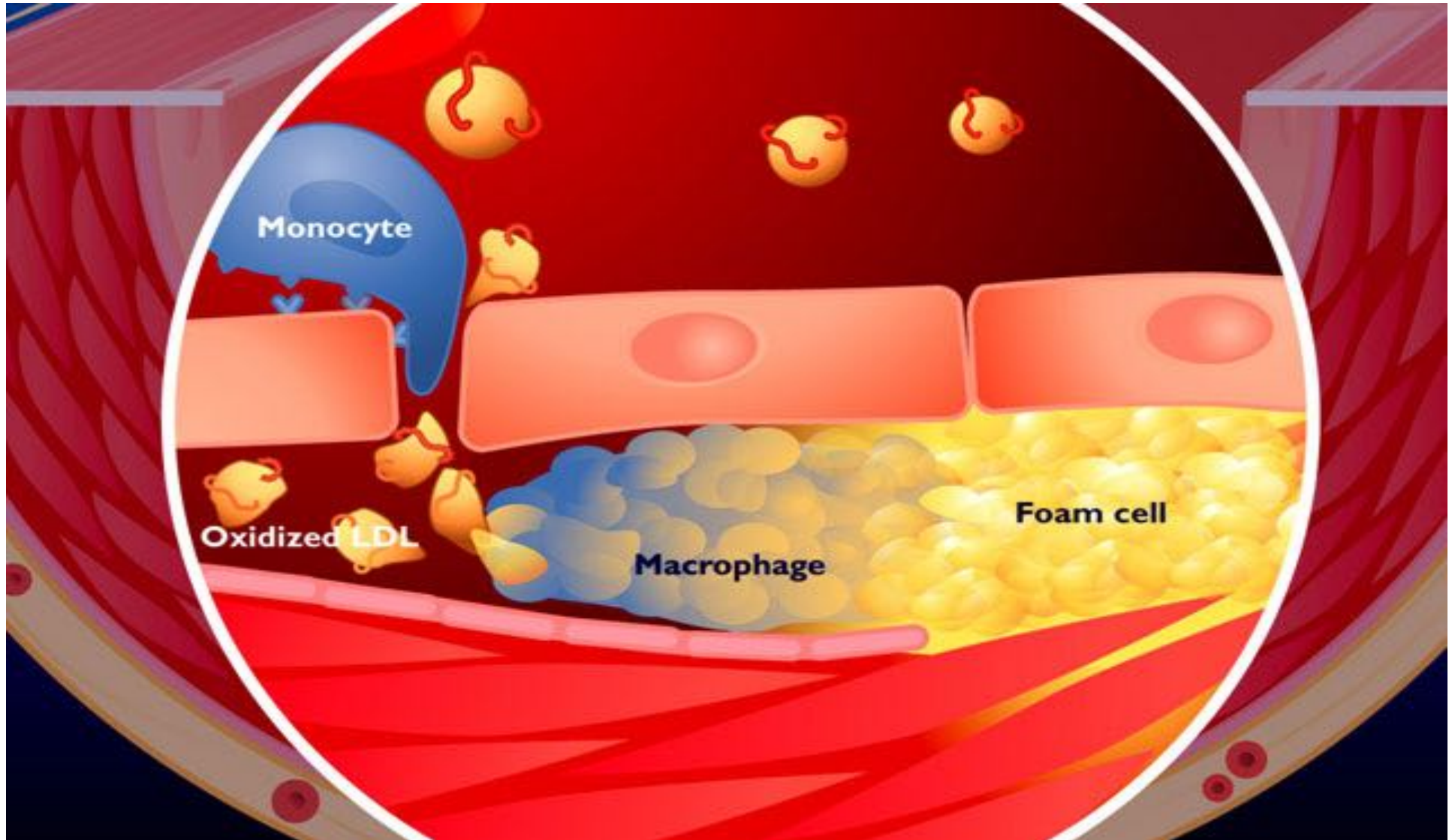


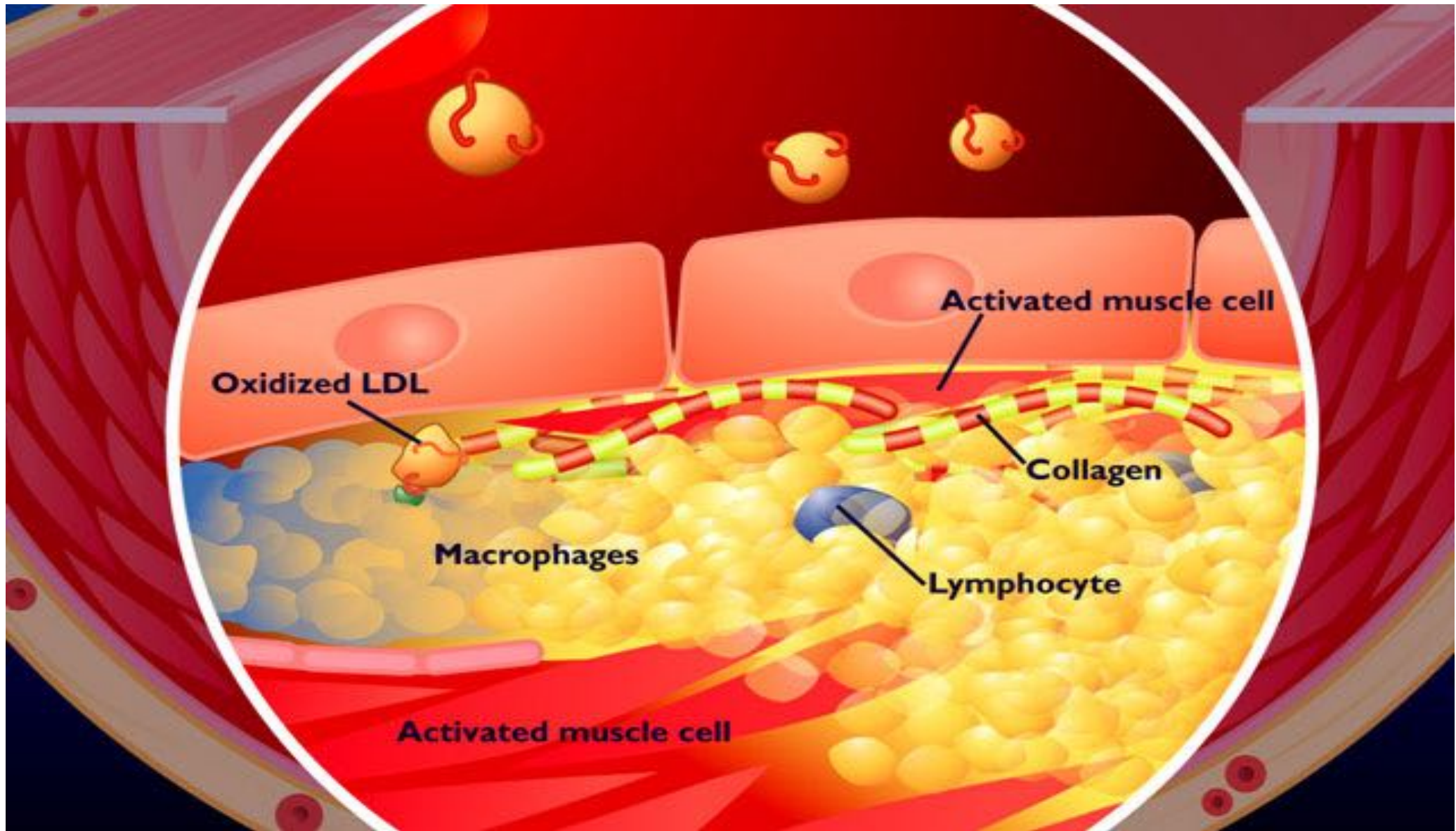
Malondialdehyde  
ROS  
Smoking

oxLDL are not recognized by LDL-R but by scavenger receptors .

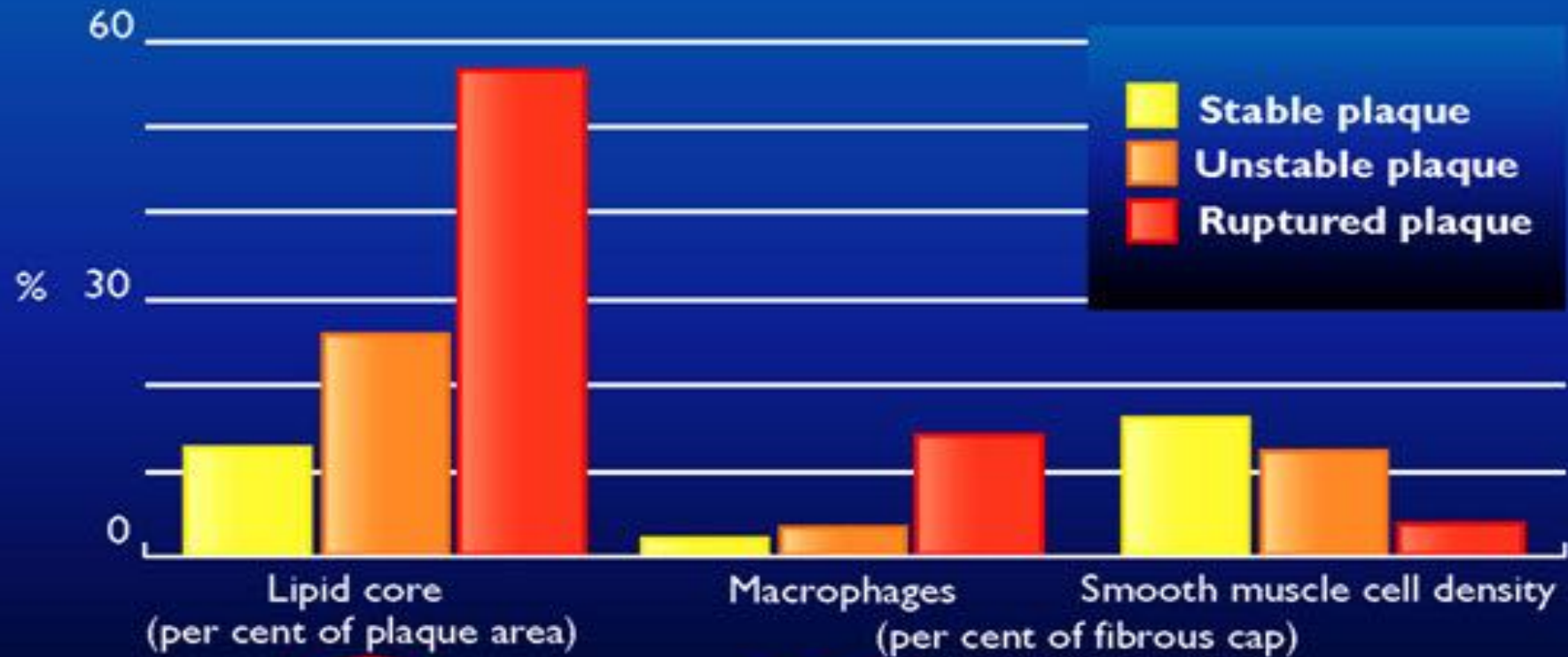
Receptor scavenger (SR-AI, SR-AII, CD36, CD68) are not under the negative control of intracellular [cholesterol]

Very high accumulation of cholesterol in macrophages



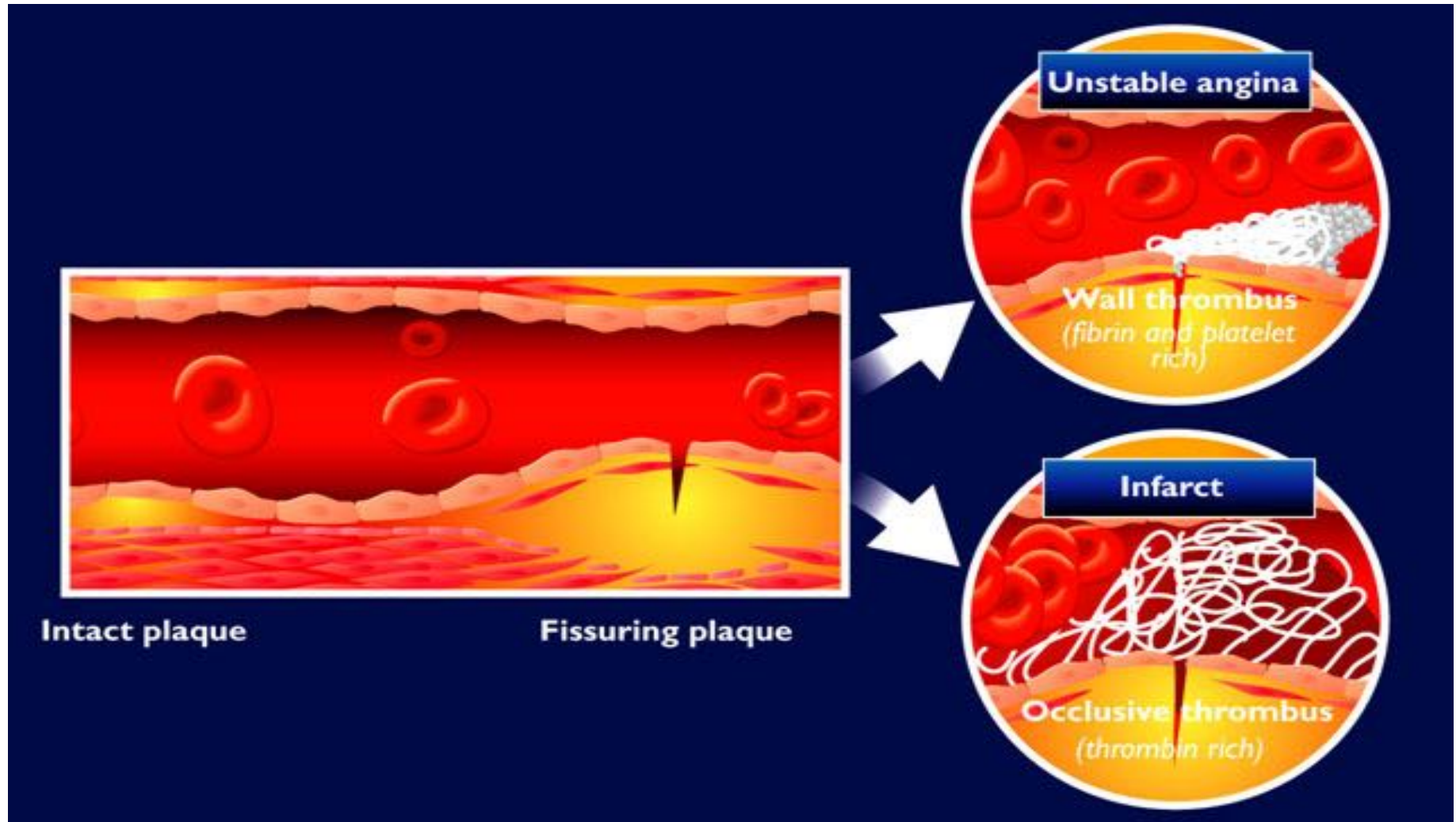




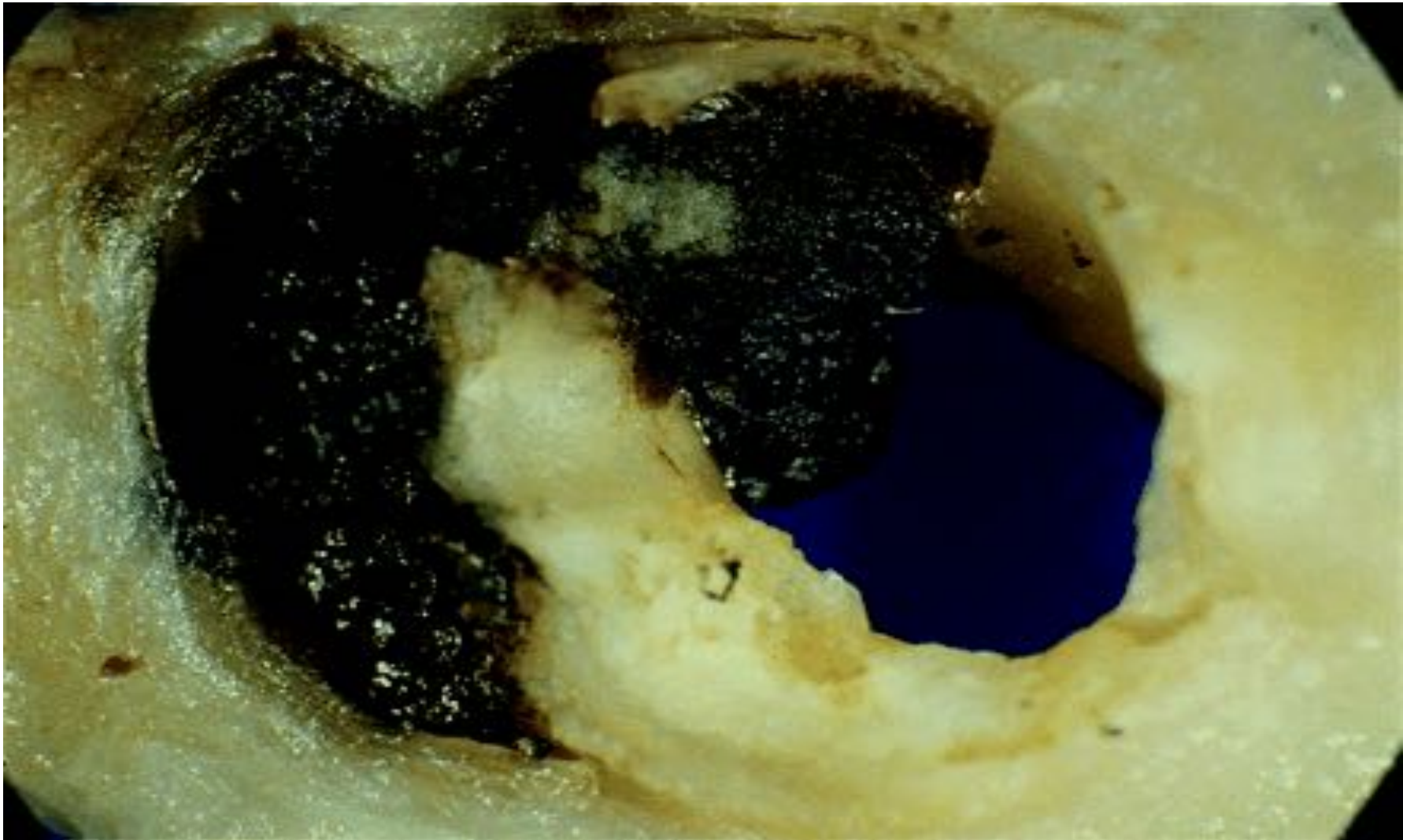


# Thromboembolic complications of atherosclerotic plaque rupture

Main clinical manifestations: acute coronary syndromes (myocardial infarction, unstable angina, sudden death), stroke and acute ischemia of the lower limbs

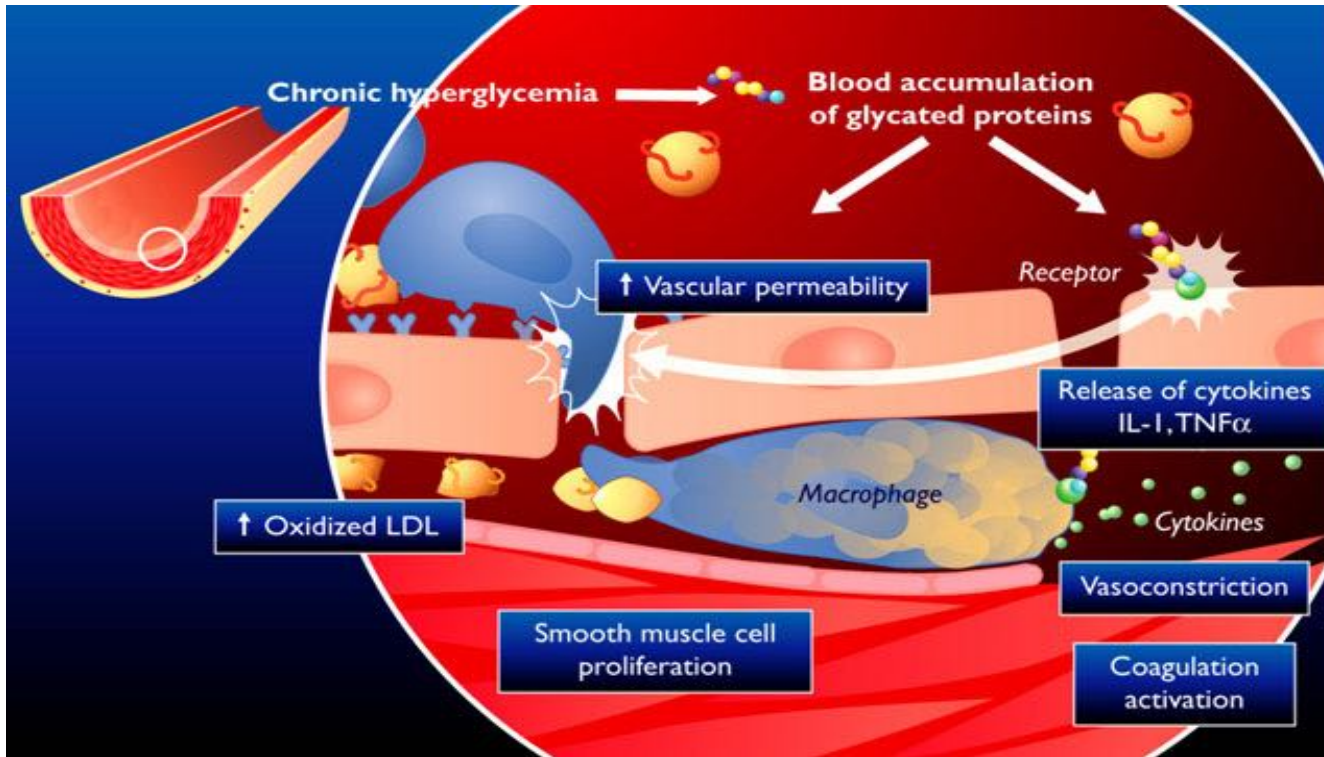


Formation of a thrombus with total or partial obstruction and appearance of clinical symptoms



# Atherosclerotic plaque development





√ Blood flow abnormalities :  
eNOS dysfunction

√ Vascular permeability: VEGF

√ Capillary occlusion: Reduction  
in fibrinolysis

√ Inflammation

√ Reactive oxygen species  
overproduction

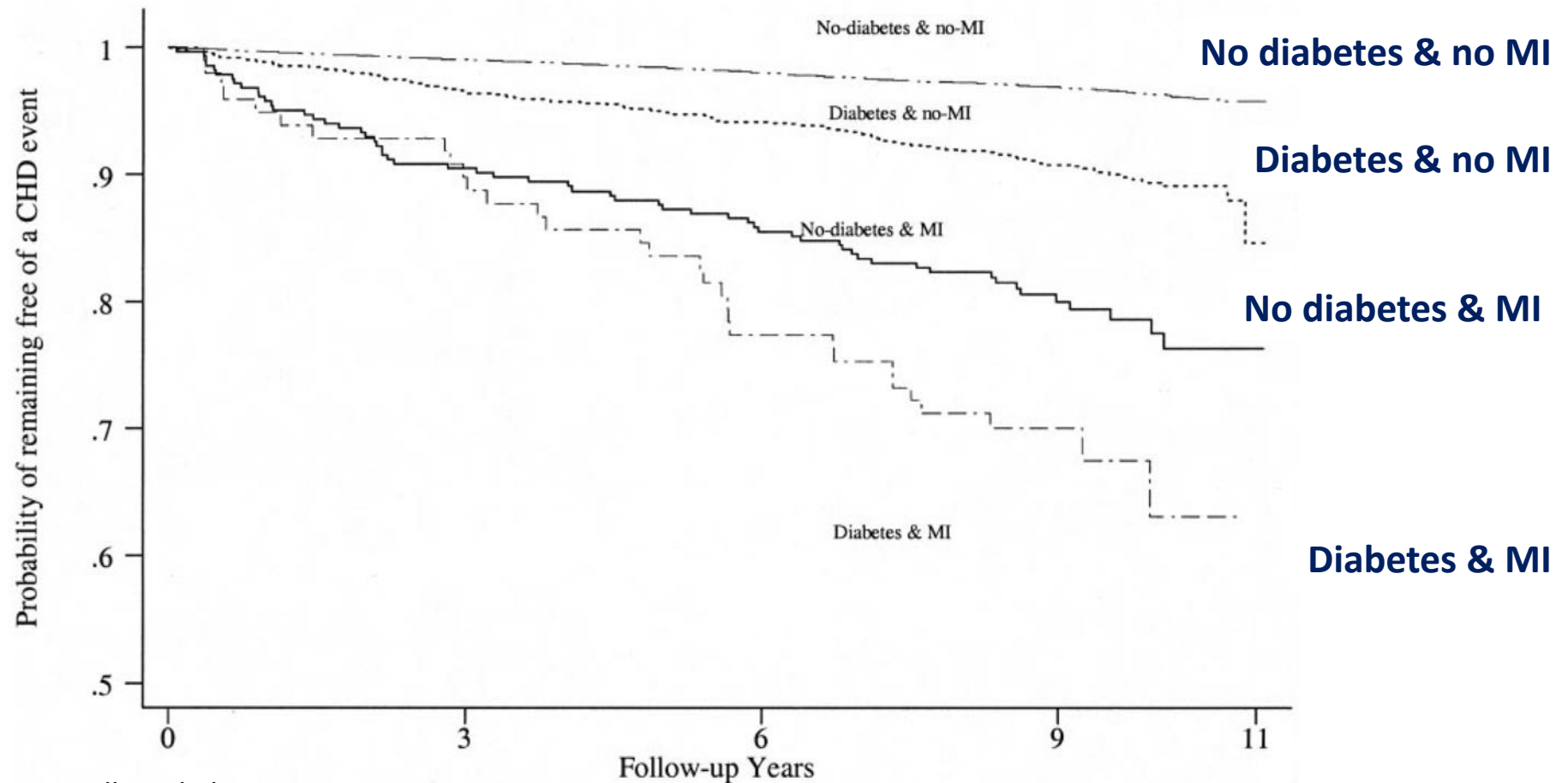
√ Advanced glycation end-  
products

Diabetes was associated with a greater atherosclerotic burden and impaired compensatory remodeling of the artery wall. Furthermore, atheroma progression, despite the high use of established medical therapies, was more rapid in patients with diabetes. This highlights the important mechanistic links that underscore the aggressive nature of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease in patients with diabetes.

Parameter	Nondiabetic Patients (n = 1,821)	Diabetic Patients (n = 416)	p Value
Percent atheroma volume	38.1 ± 9.3	40.7 ± 9.9	<0.001
Adjusted percent atheroma volume*	37.5 ± 0.8	40.2 ± 0.9	<0.0001
Total atheroma volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )*	192.3 ± 84.1	203.8 ± 90.4	0.03
Adjusted total atheroma volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )	189.4 ± 7.1	199.4 ± 7.9	0.03
Atheroma volume most diseased 10-mm segment (mm <sup>3</sup> )	62.3 ± 28.8	65.4 ± 30.6	0.06
Atheroma volume least diseased 10-mm segment (mm <sup>3</sup> )	43.0 ± 25.9	45.4 ± 27.1	0.12
Percentage of images containing plaque	73.8 ± 27.5	76.0 ± 27.7	0.15
External elastic membrane volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )	498.8 ± 167.2	494.9 ± 166.9	0.61
Lumen volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )	306.5 ± 108.2	291.1 ± 104.8	0.005

✓ Diabetic patients with MI had higher risk of CHD events and mortality from CVD over 11 years compared with nondiabetic patients with MI.

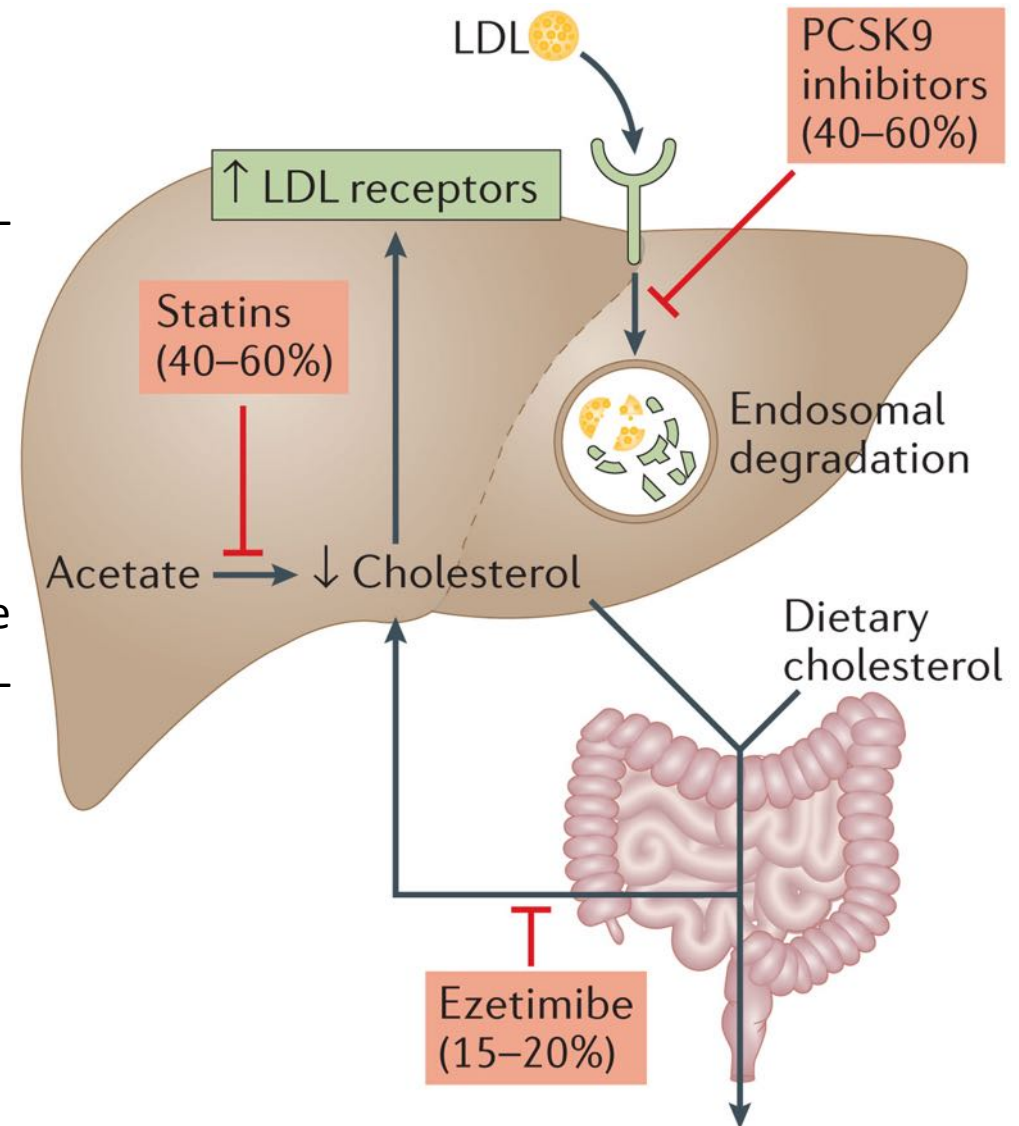
✓ Diabetic patients without MI had lower risk of CHD events and mortality from CVD over 11 years compared with nondiabetic patients with MI.



## Treatment strategy for dyslipidemia

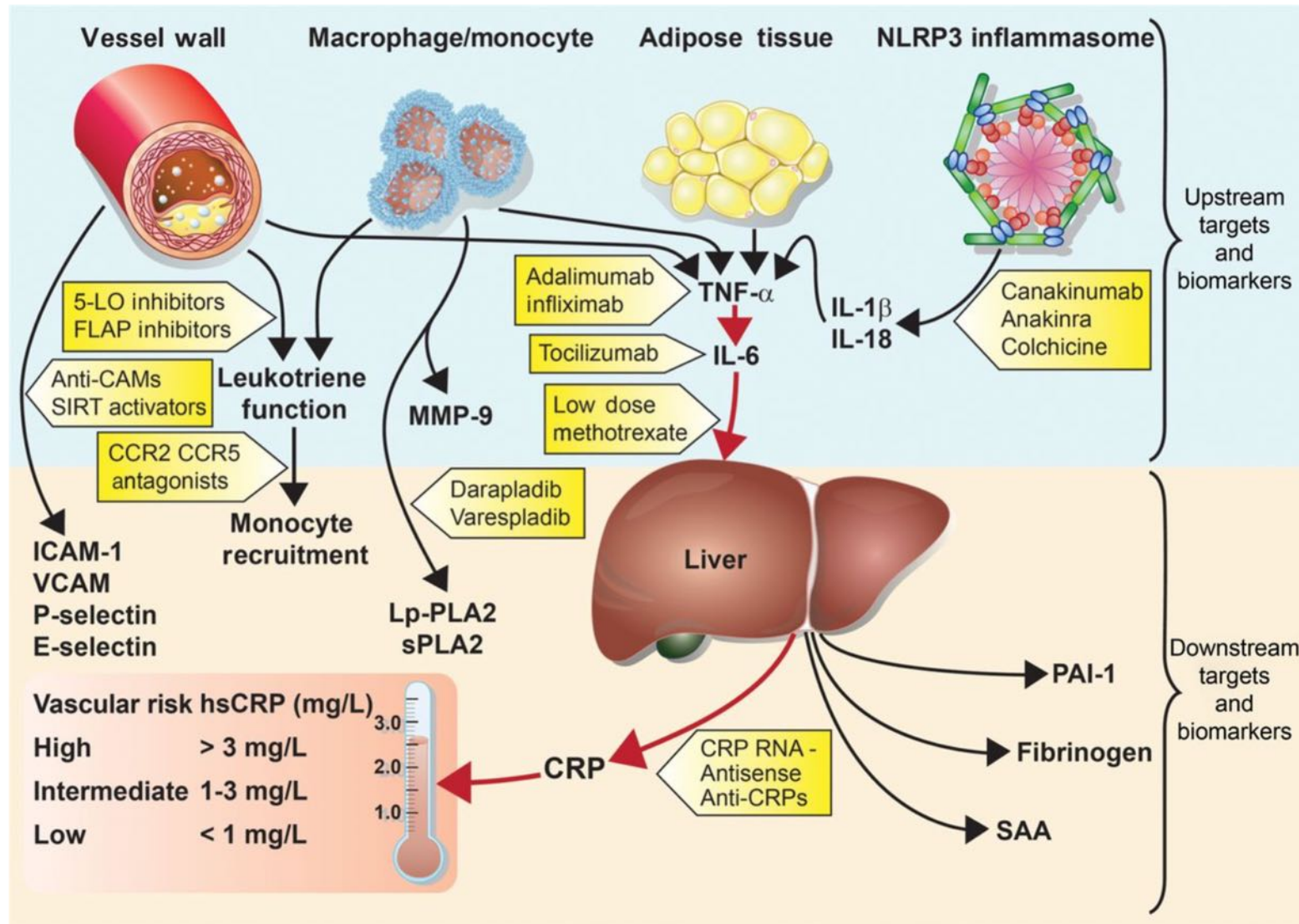
Statins, ezetimibe, et PCSK9 inhibitors increase R-LDL expression and reduce intracellular LDL-cholesterol:

- Statins inhibit cholesterol synthesis in the liver
- Ezetimibe inhibits intestinal cholesterol uptake
- PCSK9 inhibitors (proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9) abrogate R-LDL degradation

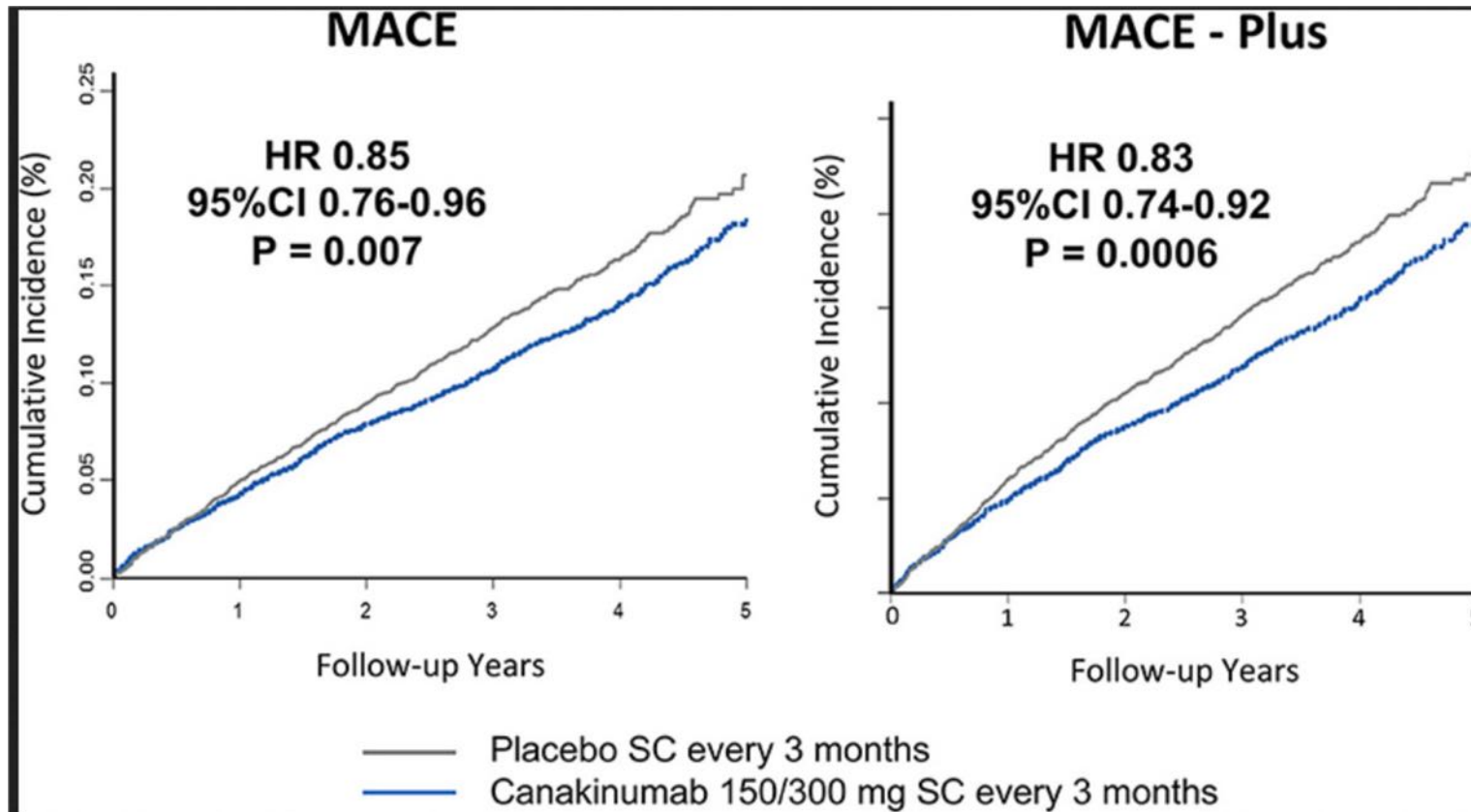




## Anti-inflammatory treatment



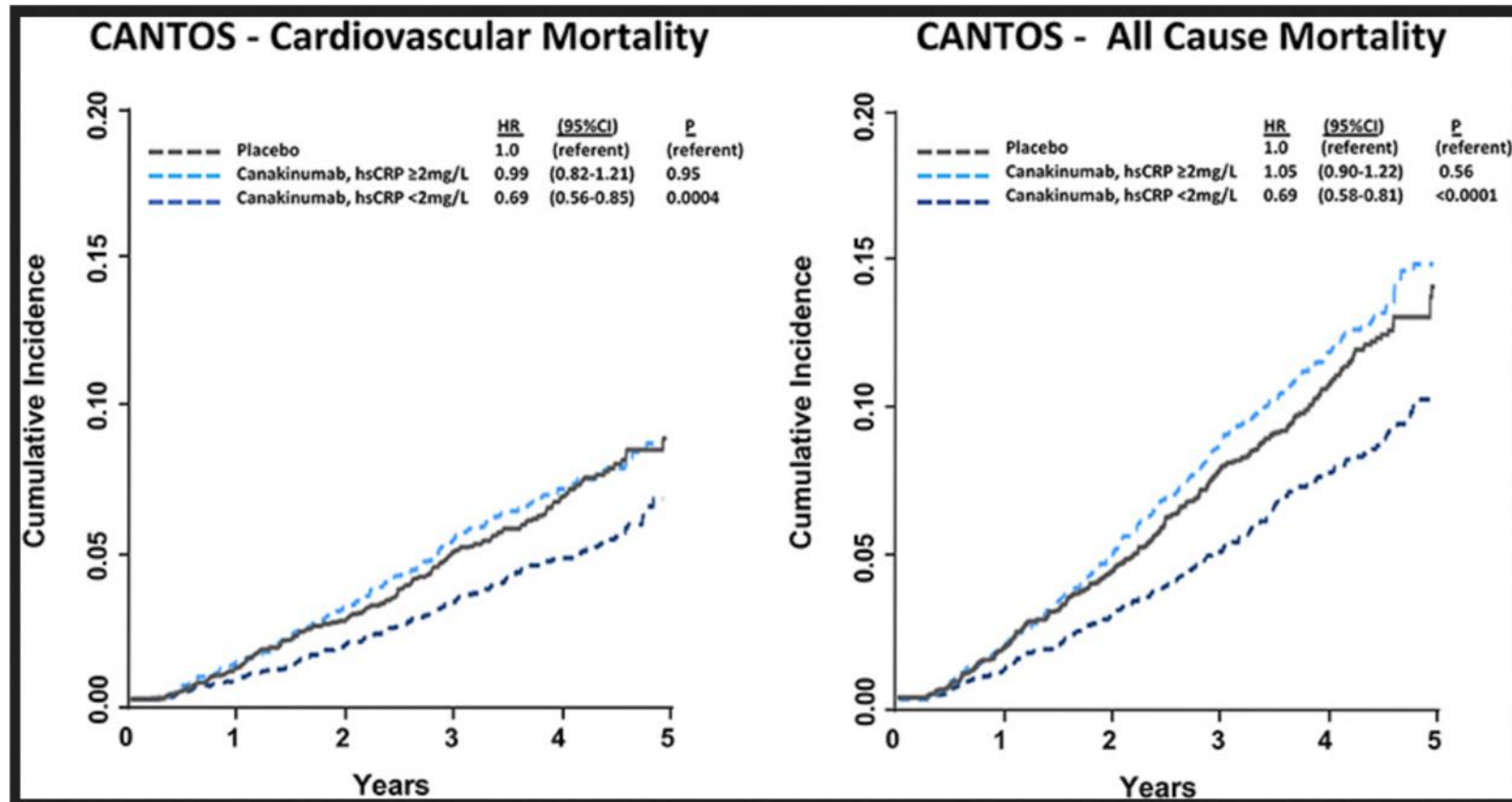
CANTOS was a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of canakinumab in 10,061 patients with a history of MI and hsCRP  $\geq 2$  mg/L; such patients with “residual inflammatory risk” rather than “residual cholesterol risk” are a common and very high risk group

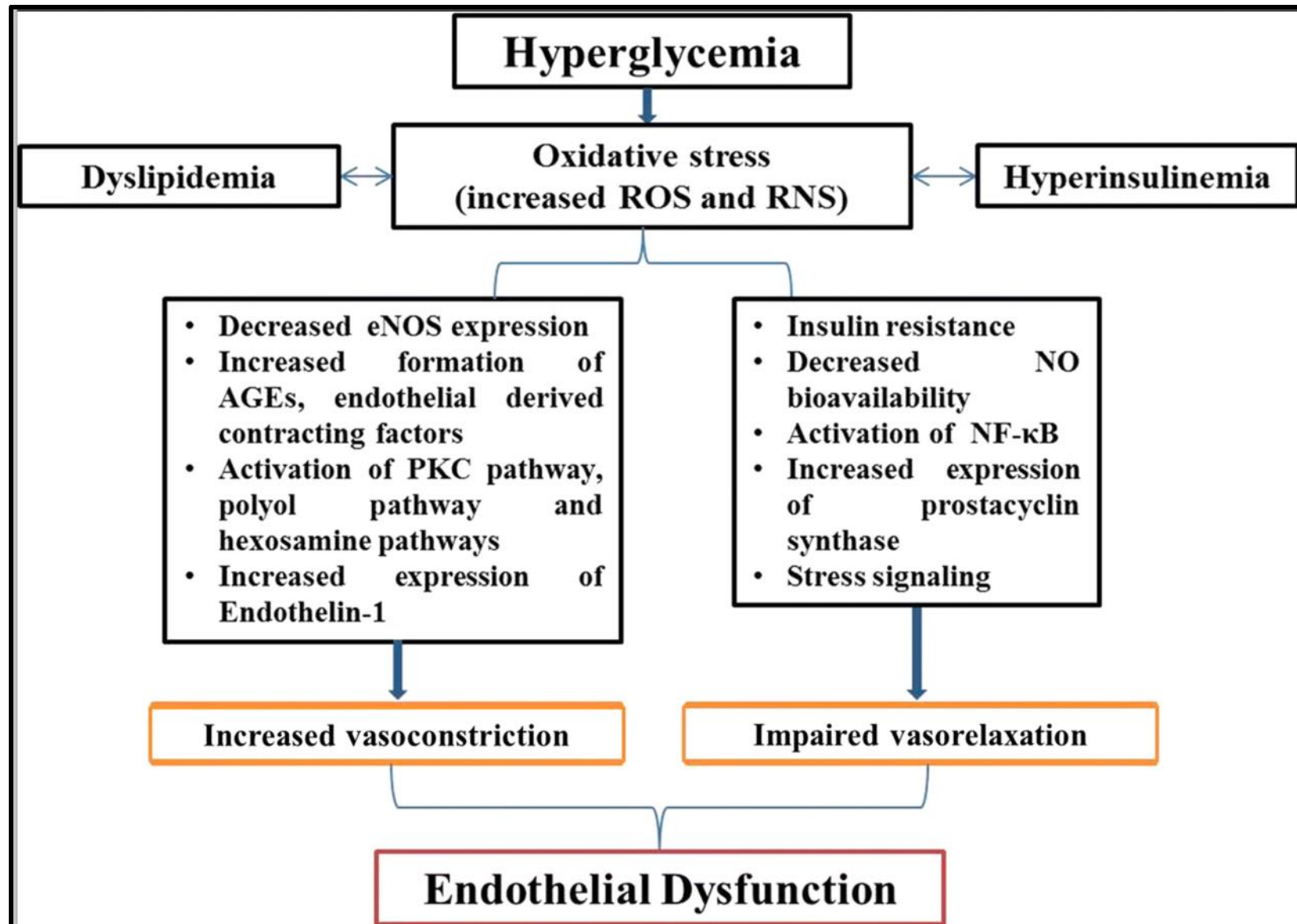


Primary endpoint of myocardial infarction, stroke, or cardiovascular death (MACE).

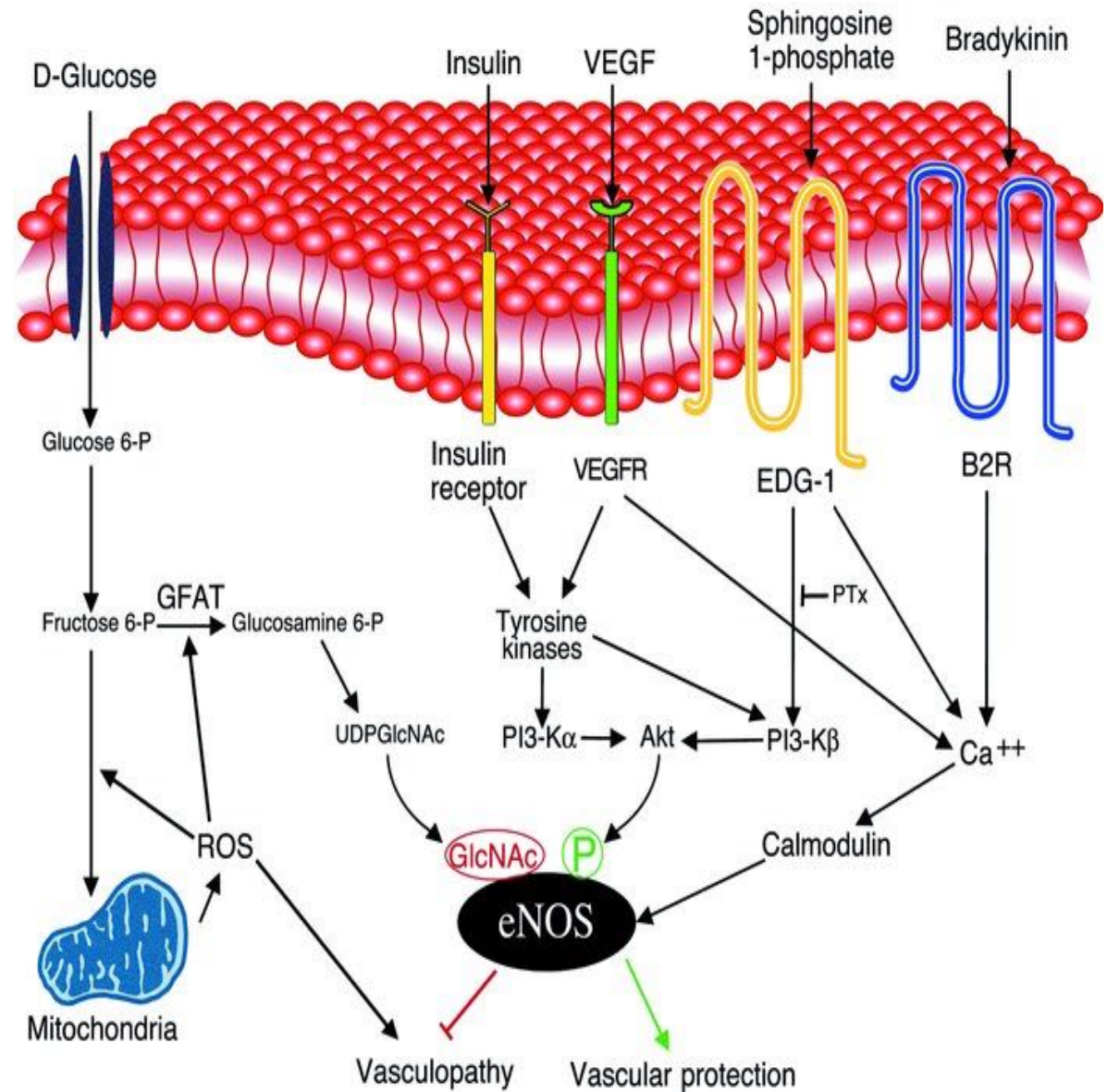
Secondary endpoint additional including hospitalization for unstable angina requiring urgent revascularization

Cumulative incidence and hazard ratios of cardiovascular mortality and all-cause mortality among CANTOS participants allocated to either placebo or canakinumab according to whether post-randomization on-treatment hsCRP levels were above or below 2 mg/L. Hazard ratios are adjusted for age, sex, smoking status, hypertension, diabetes, body mass index, baseline concentration of hsCRP, and baseline concentration of LDL-C.

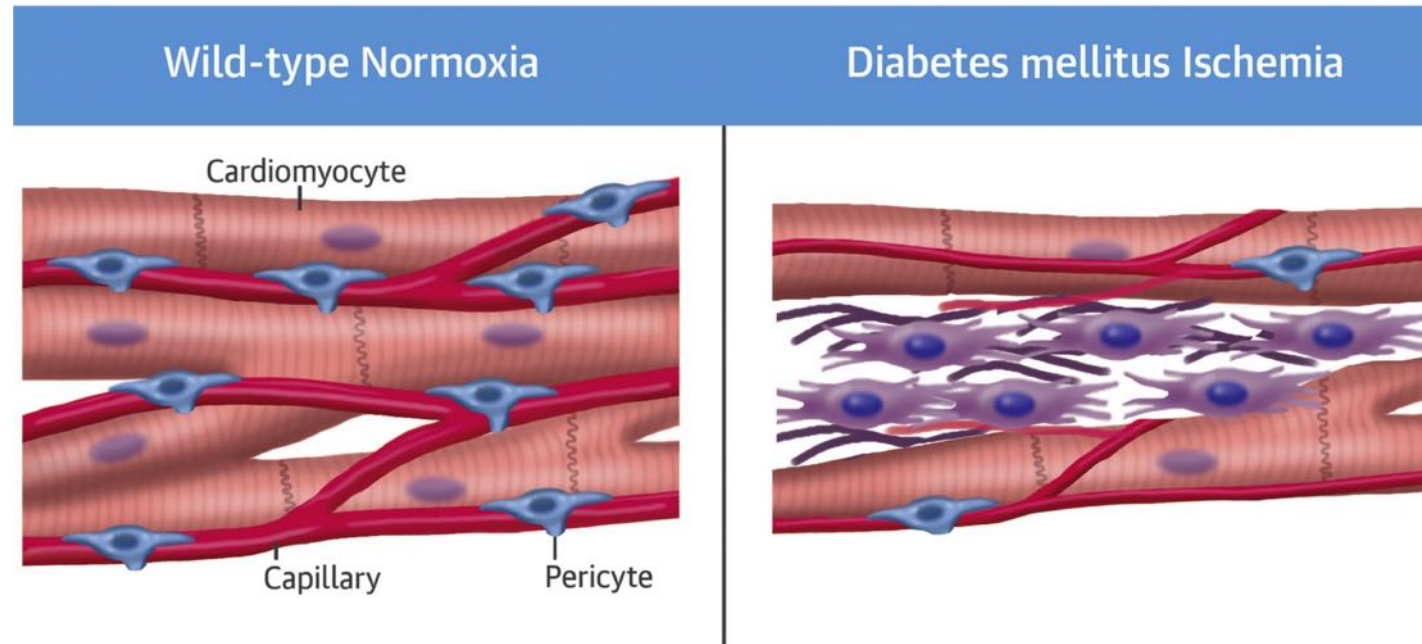




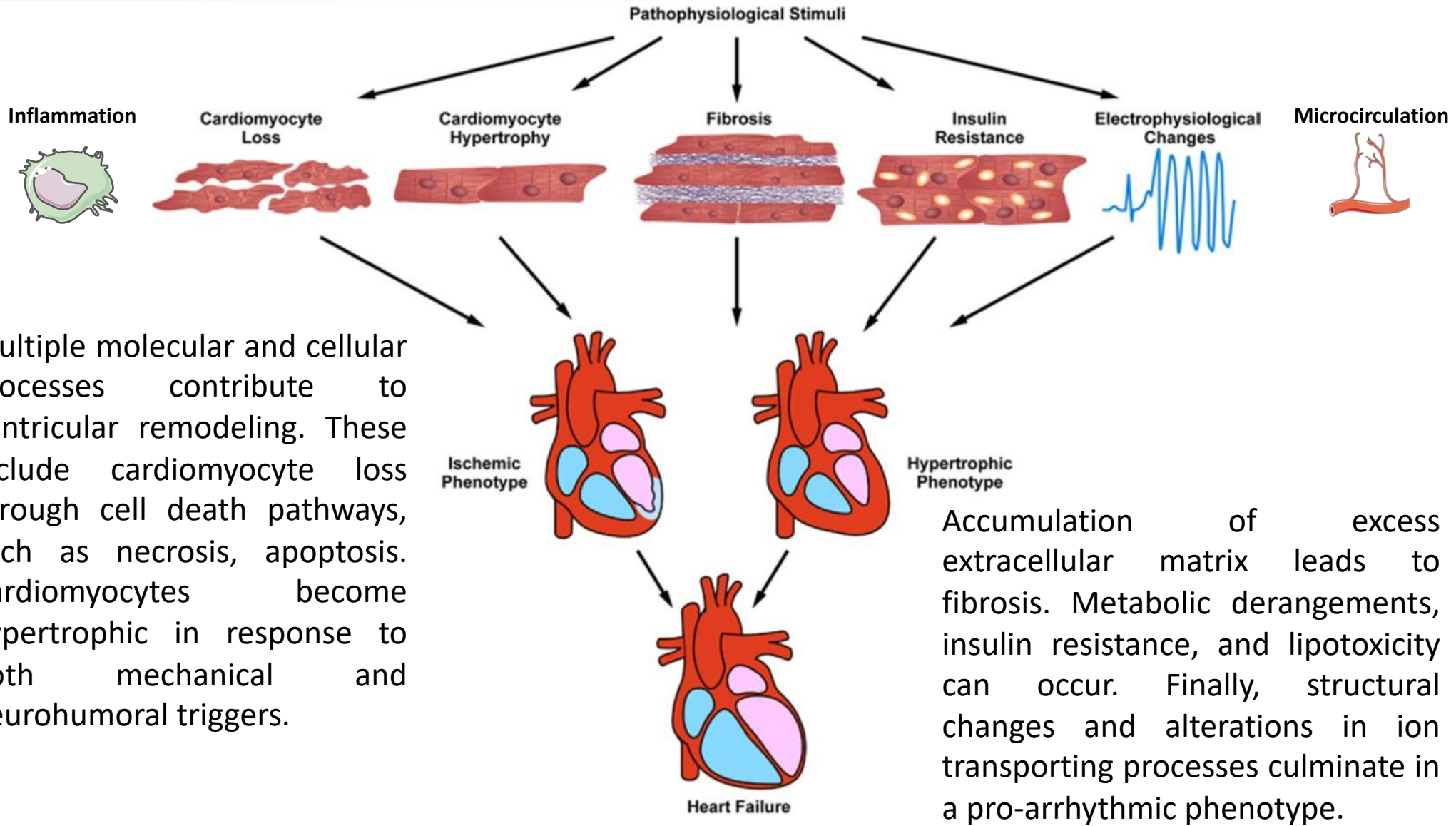
High-glucose treatment of endothelial cells is suggested to lead to the augmentation of ROS from mitochondria, leading to the activation of the glucosamine pathway by the activation of glutamine:fructose-6-phosphate amidotransferase (GFAT, the key enzyme in this pathway), ultimately increasing eNOS O-glycosylation. Basal levels of eNOS phosphorylation (green) at serine 1179 may be reciprocally attenuated by eNOS O-glycosylation with N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc; red).



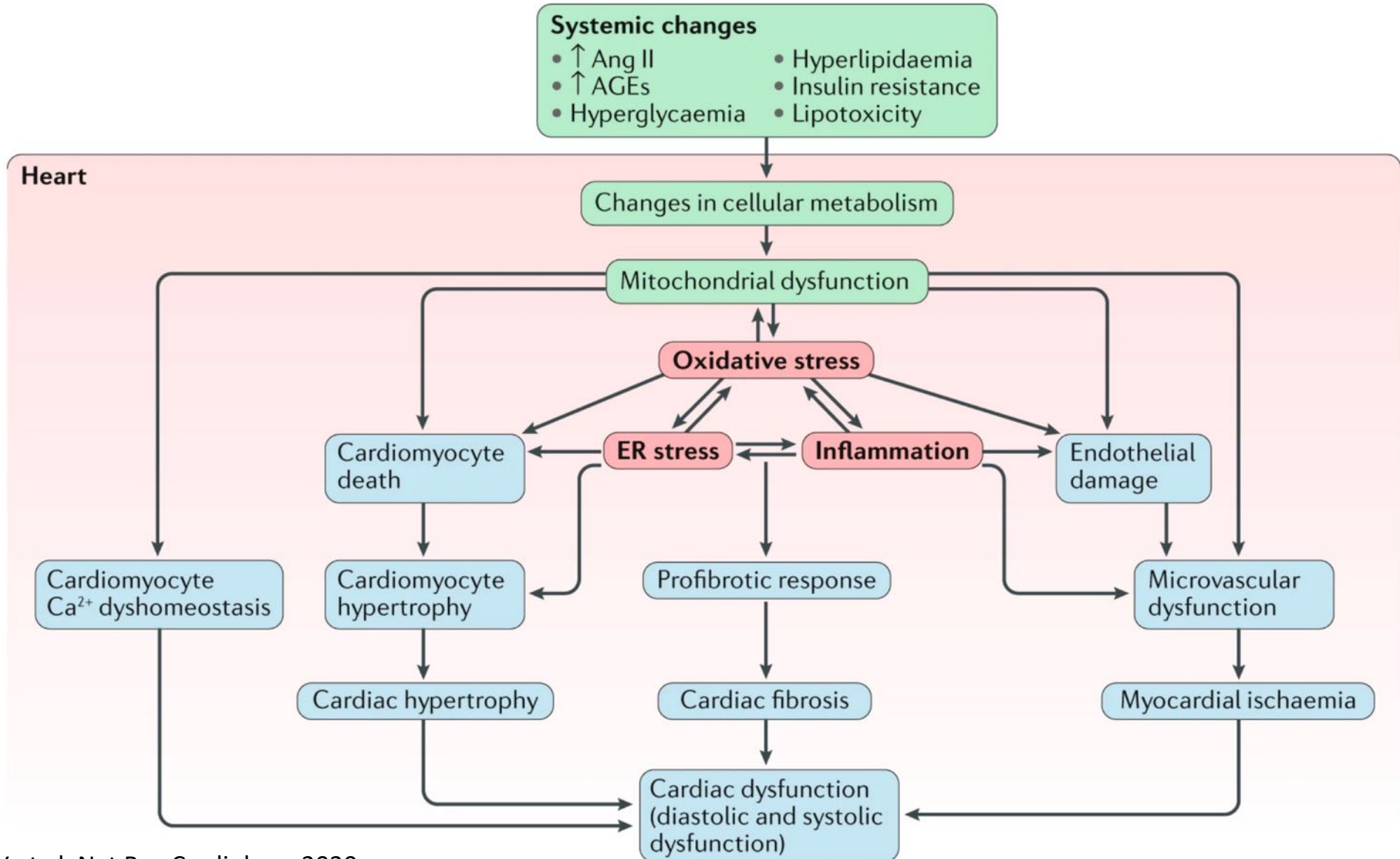
- √ Microvascular disorganization
- √ Alteration of key pro-angiogenic pathways
- √ Increase in capillary permeability
- √ Cell death



# III- Diabetes and cardiomyopathy

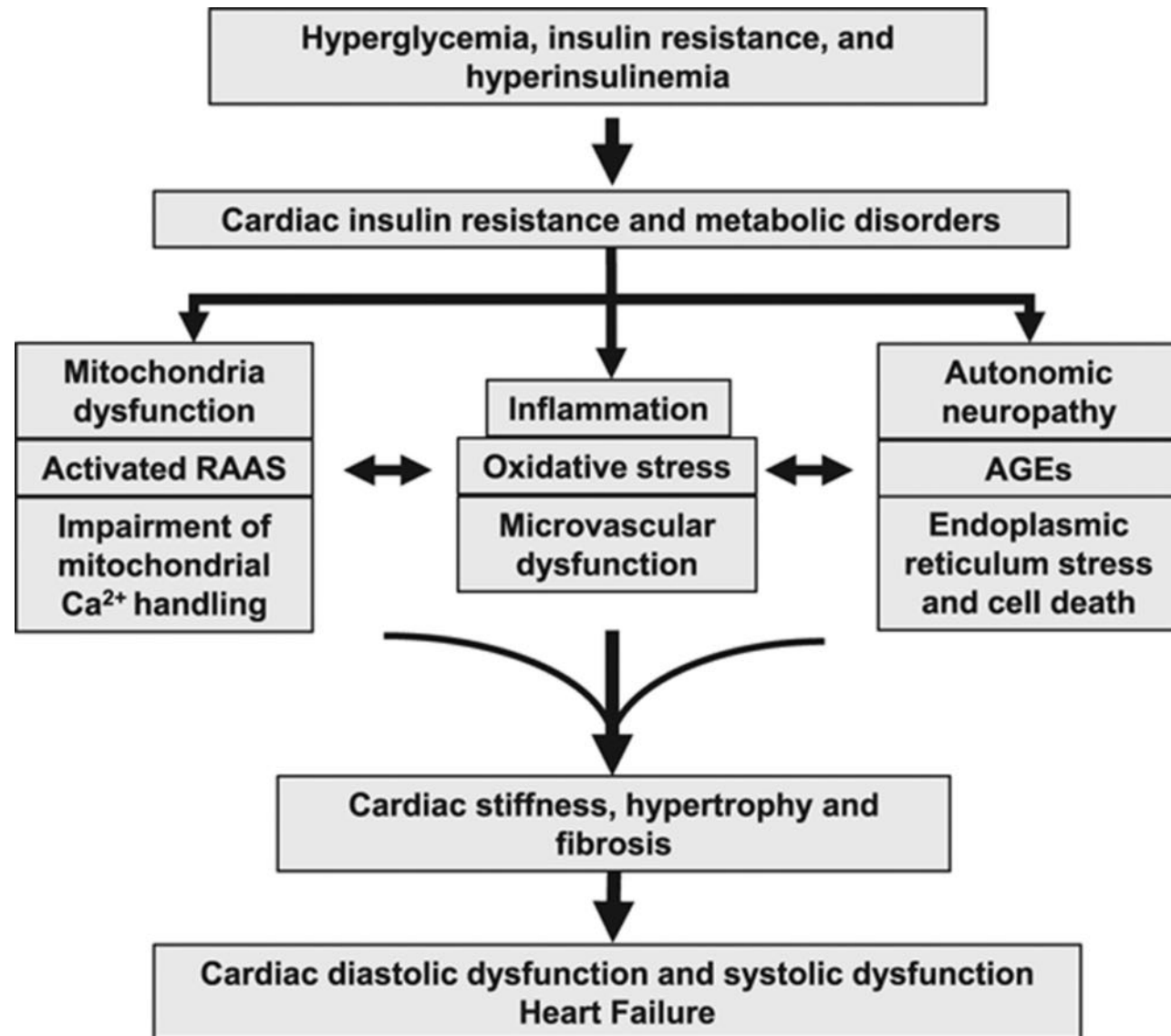


# Mechanisms of diabetic cardiomyopathy

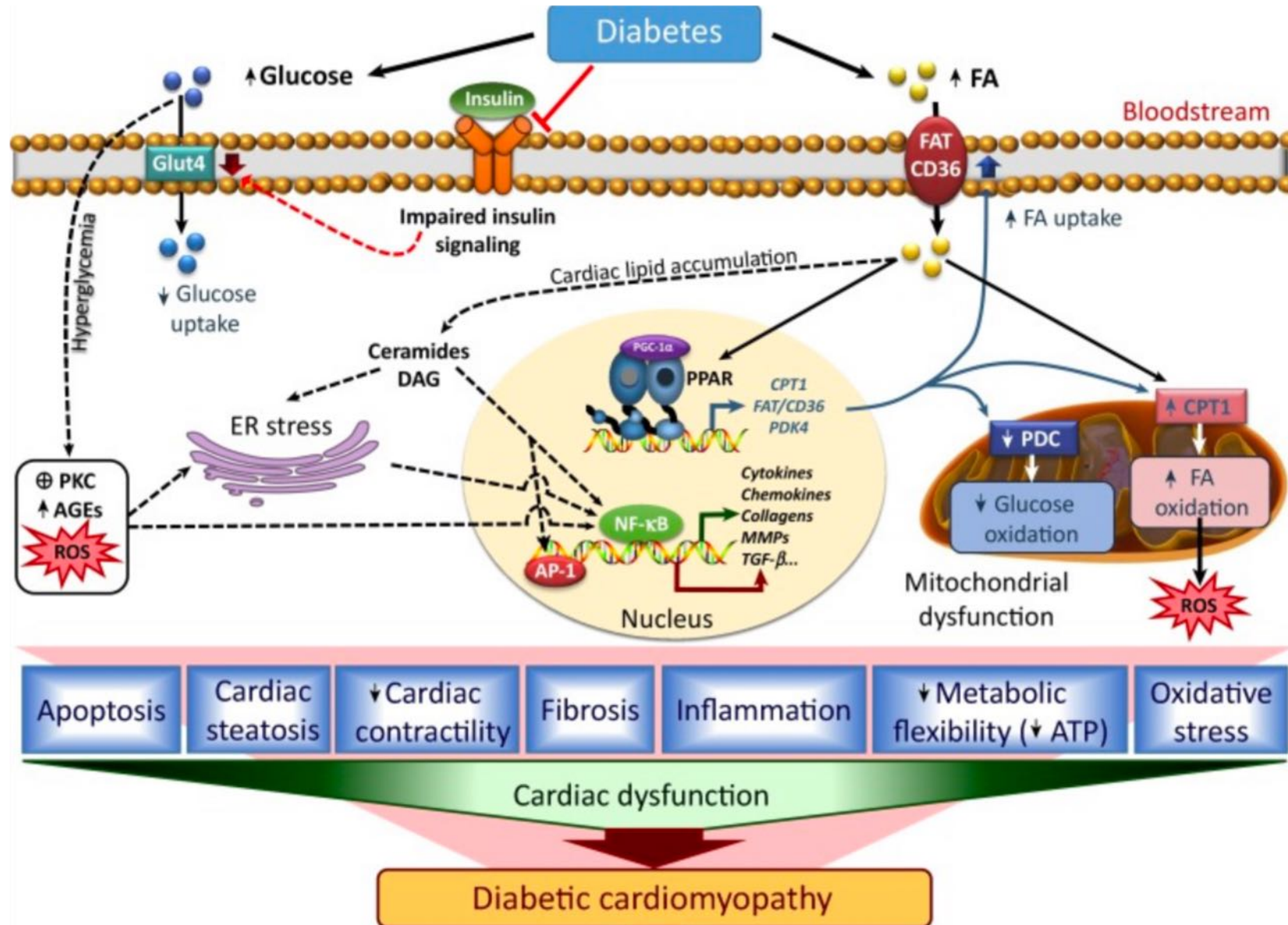




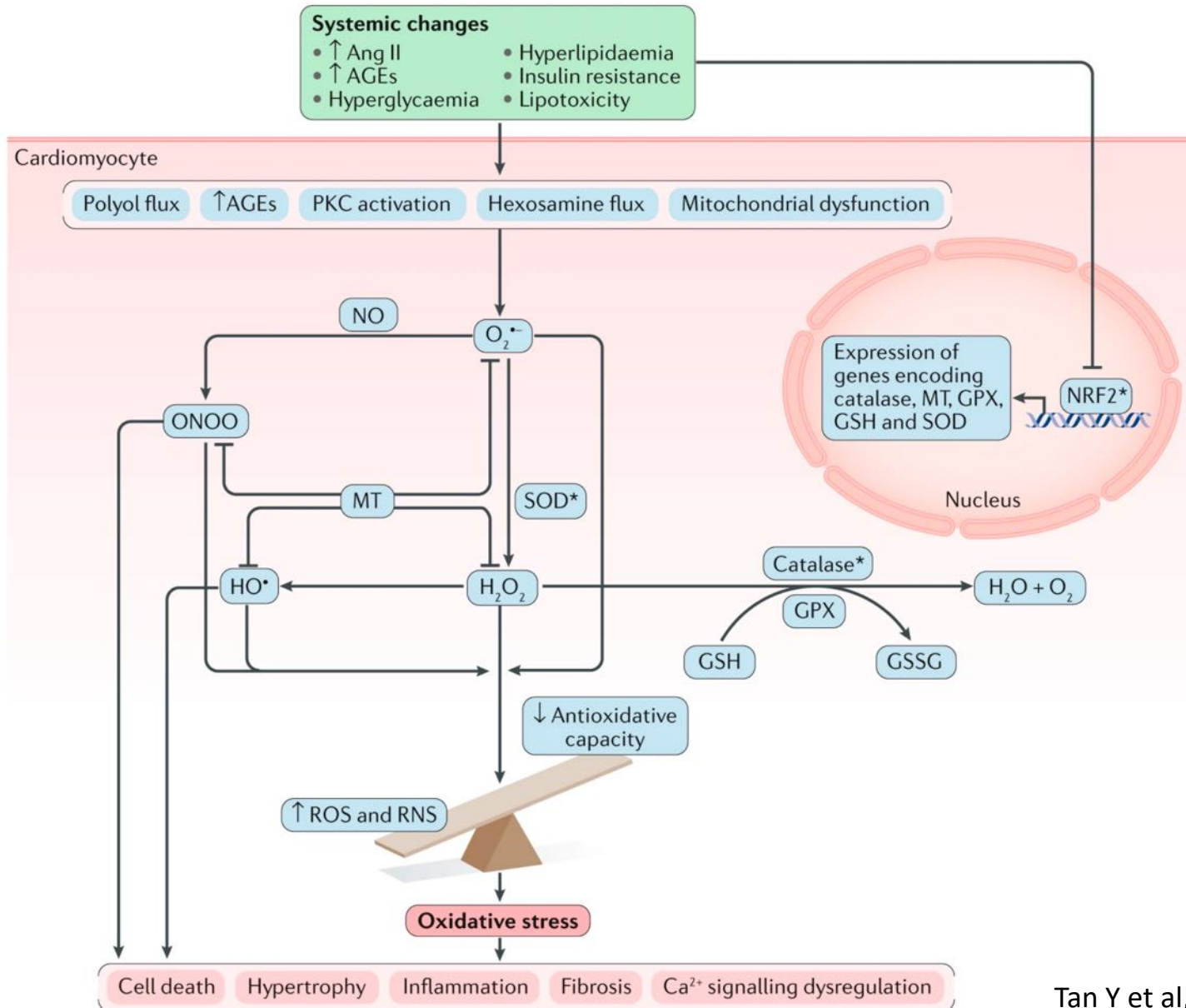
Hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, and hyperinsulinemia induce cardiac insulin resistance and metabolic disorders that increase mitochondria dysfunction, oxidative stress, advanced glycation end products (AGEs), impairment of mitochondria  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  handling, inflammation, activation of renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS), autonomic neuropathy, endoplasmic reticulum stress, cardiomyocyte death, as well as microvascular dysfunction. These pathophysiological abnormalities promote cardiac stiffness, hypertrophy, and fibrosis, resulting in cardiac diastolic dysfunction, systolic dysfunction, and heart failure.



# Diabetes and cardiomyopathy: lipotoxicity

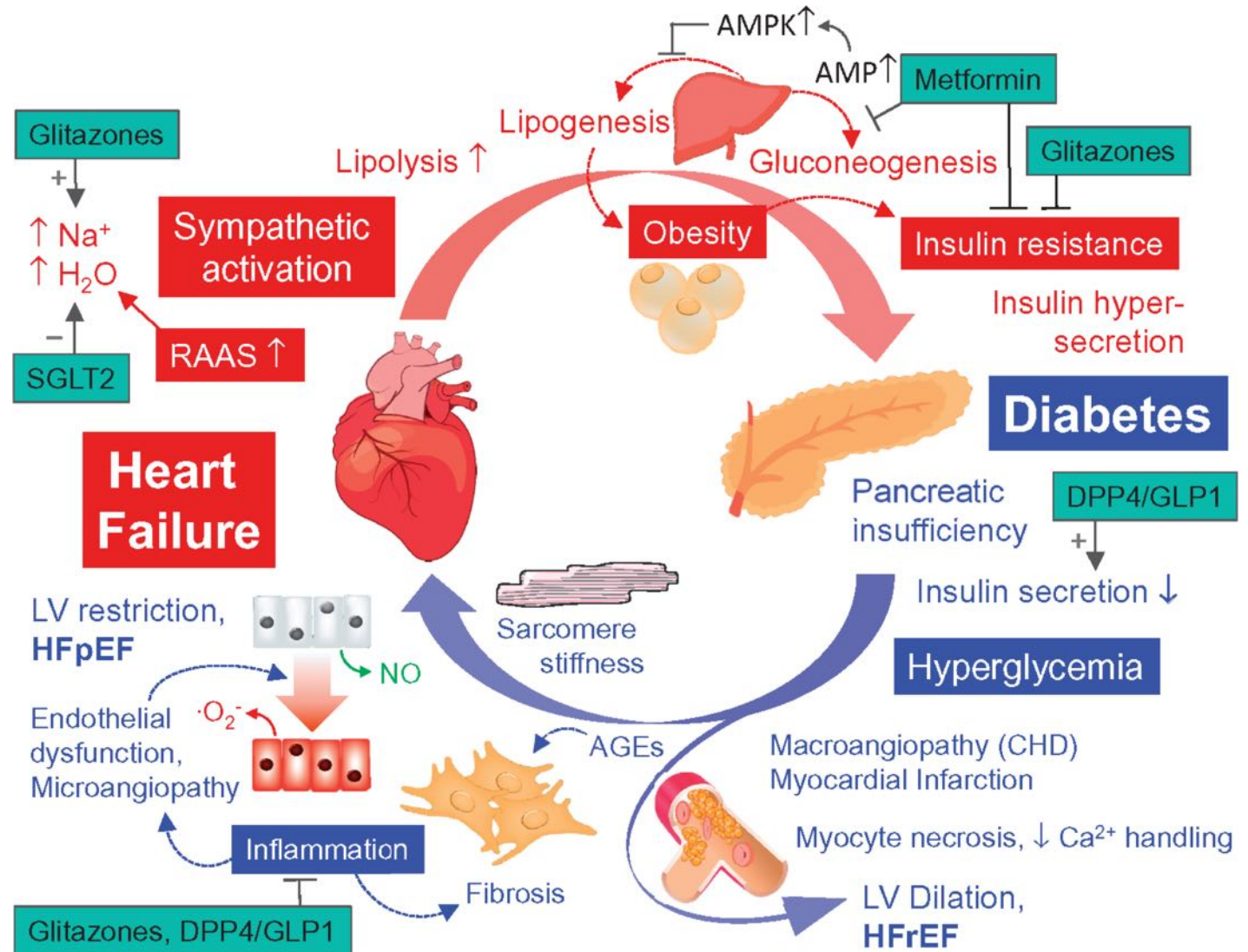


# Diabetes and cardiomyopathy: Oxidative stress

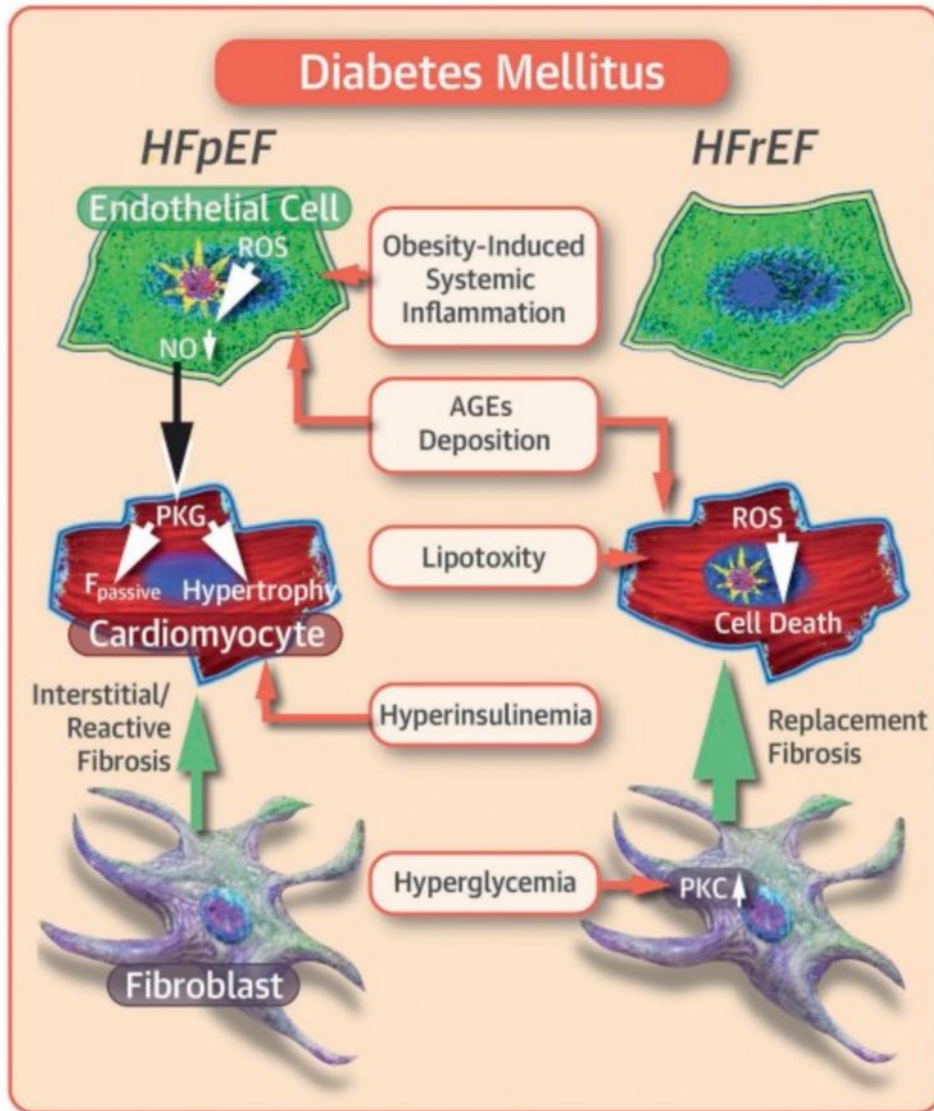


# Systemic interdependance of heart failure and diabetes

In diabetes, hyperglycaemia induces macro- and microvascular dysfunction, and myocardial ischaemia and/or infarction bias towards systolic dysfunction (heart failure with reduced ejection fraction), while in the absence of ischaemia, diastolic dysfunction (heart failure with preserved ejection fraction) prevails through a combination of sarcomere stiffness and fibrosis



# Diabetes exerts distinct effects on myocardial remodeling in HFpEF and HFrEF



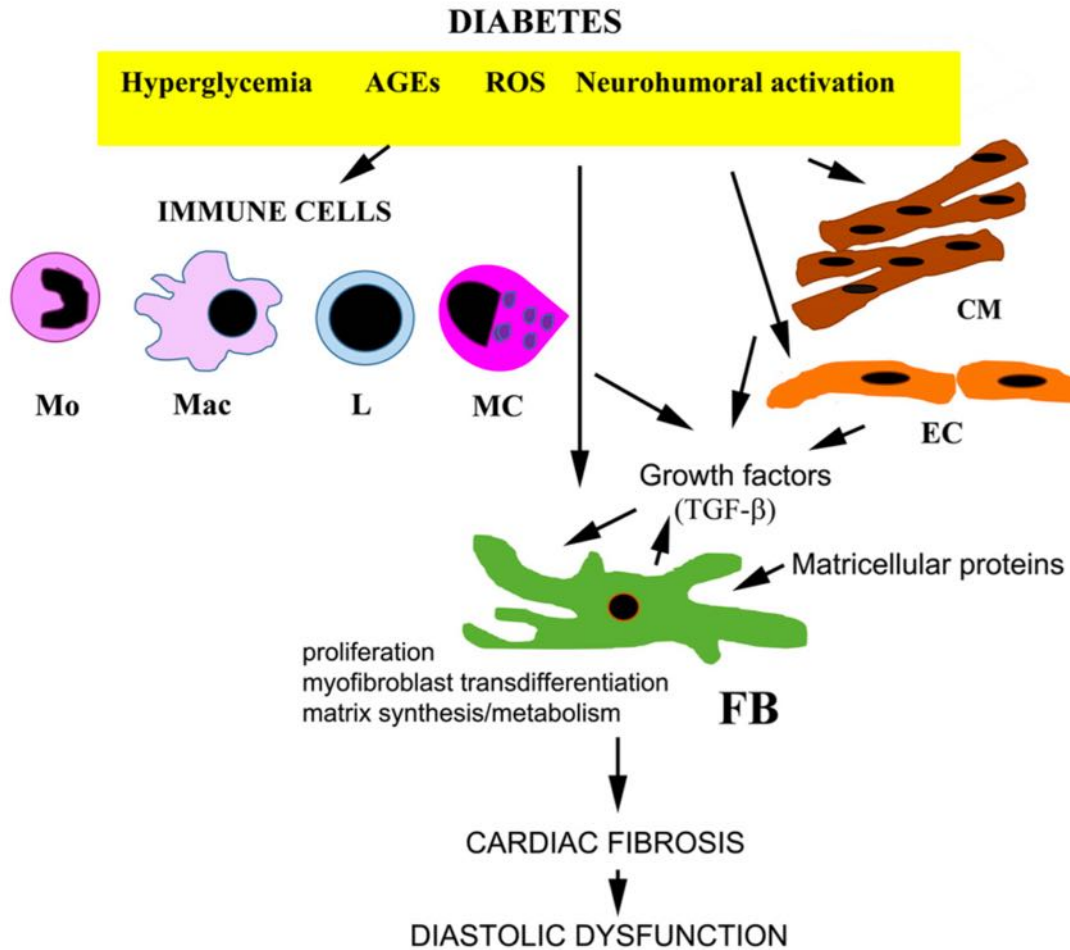
Diabetes leads to worse clinical outcomes in HFpEF than in HFrEF

Myocardial remodeling is driven by microvascular endothelial inflammation in HFpEF and by cardiomyocyte cell death in HFrEF.

In HFpEF, DM mainly increases cardiomyocyte hypertrophy and stiffness, probably because of hyperinsulinemia and microvascular endothelial inflammation.

In HFrEF, DM augments replacement fibrosis because of cardiomyocyte cell death induced by lipotoxicity or advanced glycation end products.

# IV- Diabetes and the extracellular matrix compartment



✓ Pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines: TNF $\alpha$ , IL1 $\beta$ , CCL2

✓ Endothelin-1

✓ Oxidative stress

✓ VAGE/RAGE: MEC degradation, ROS, TGF $\beta$ , AT1 activation, Inflammation

✓ Adipokine

✓ Matrixcellular proteins: TSP1/Ang2

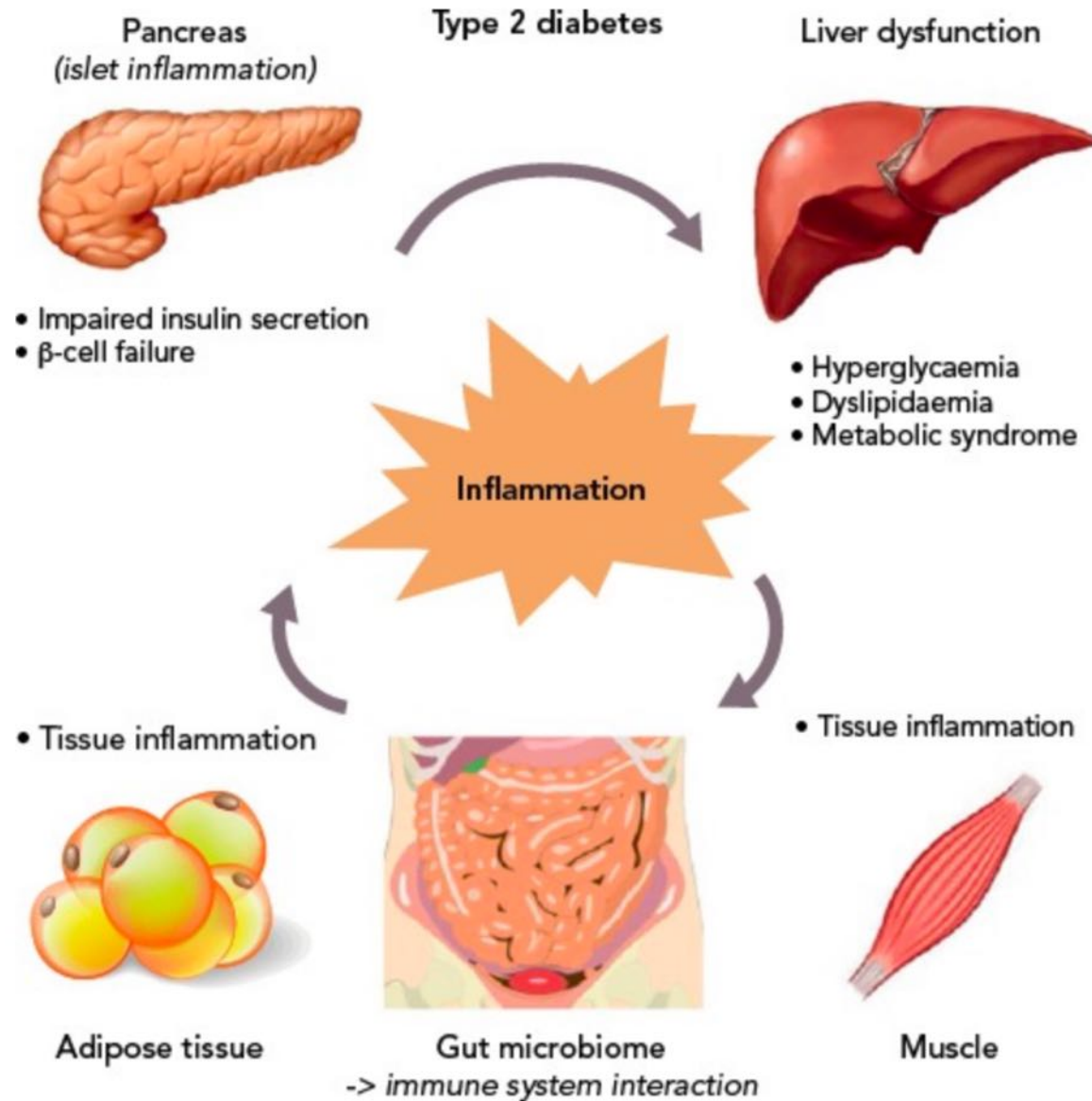
✓ MicroRNAs:

+ miR125b, miR199a

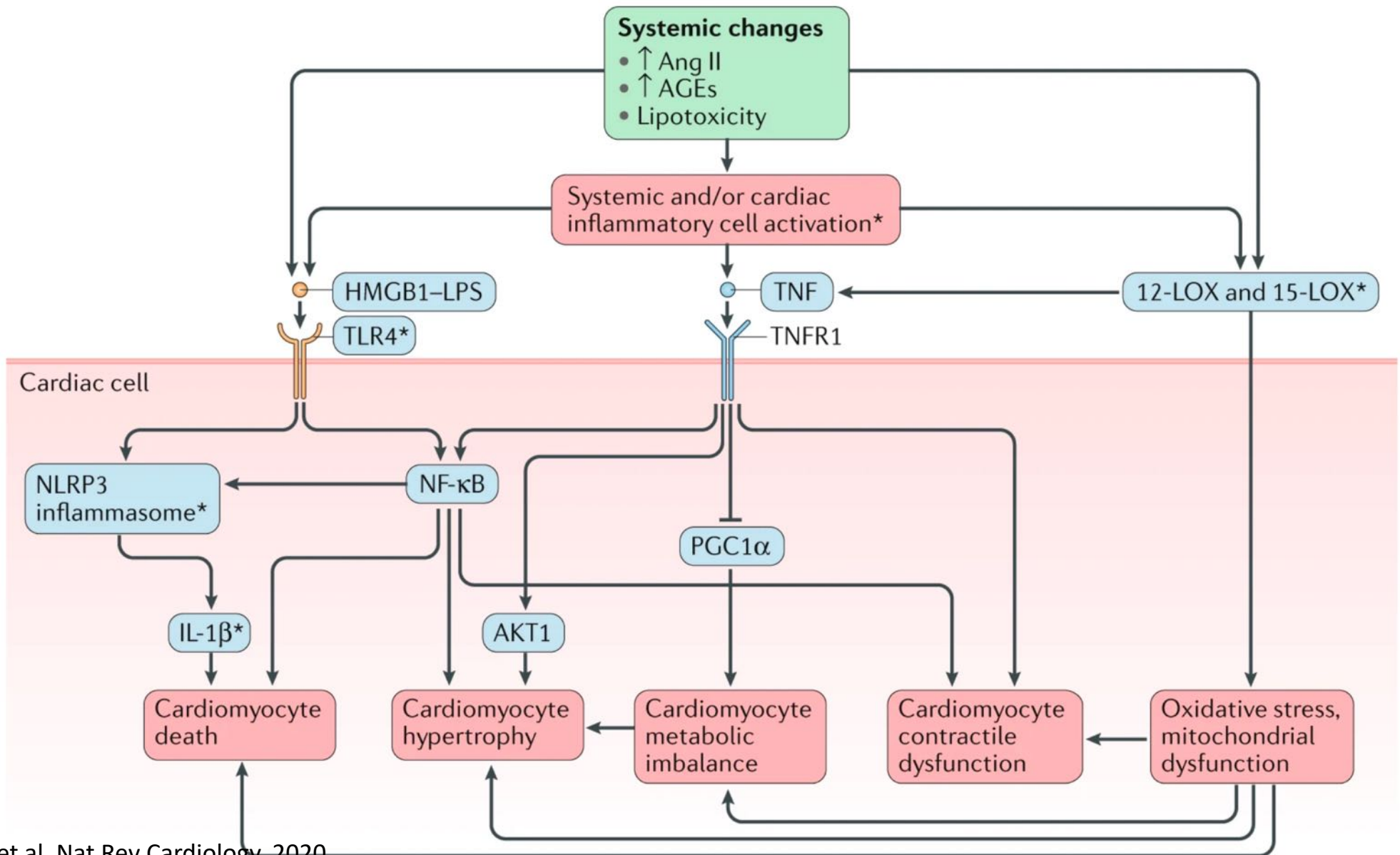
-miR150, miR29b, miR30a

miR133 overexpression attenuated the fibrotic response

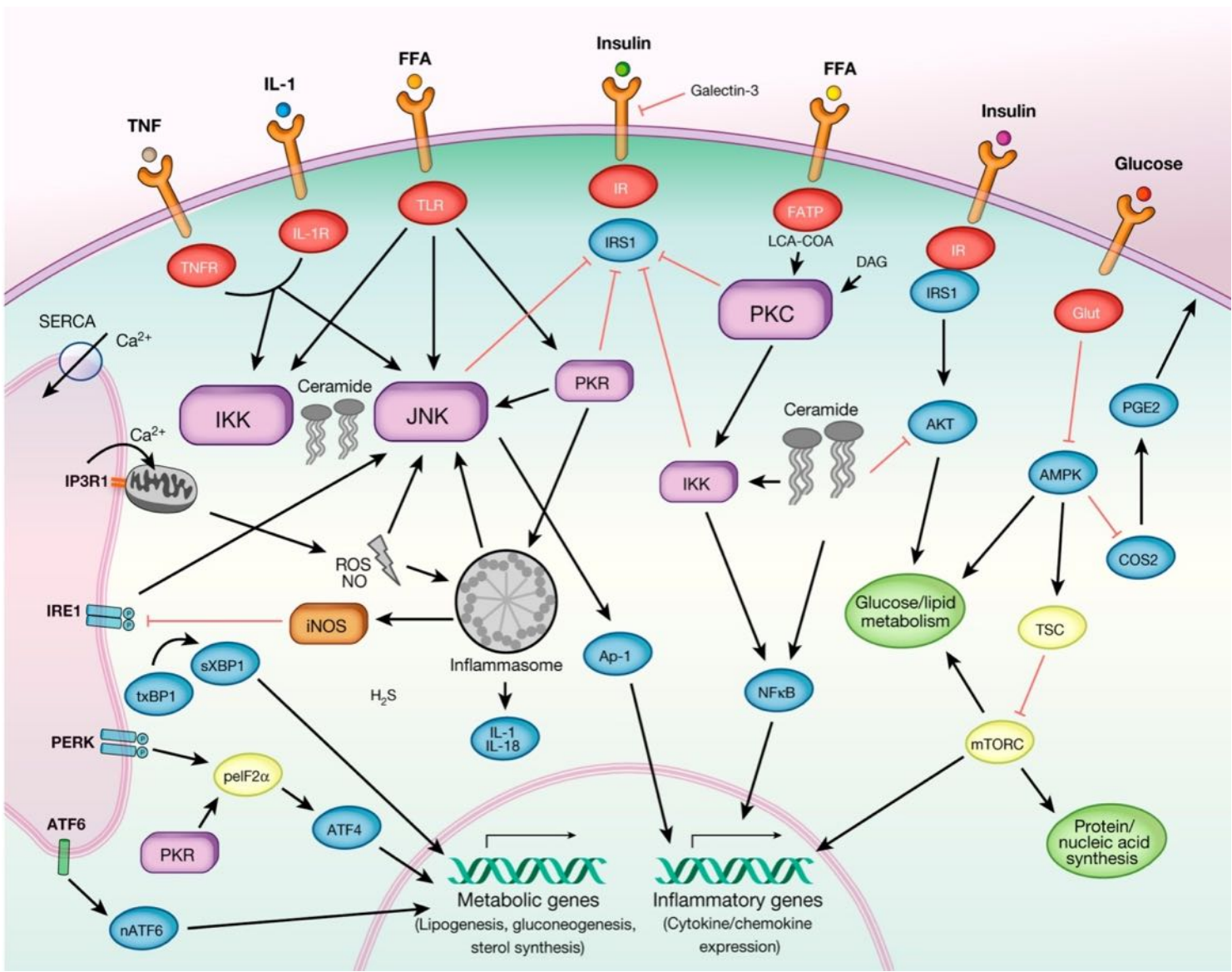
# V- Diabetes and the inflammatory compartment

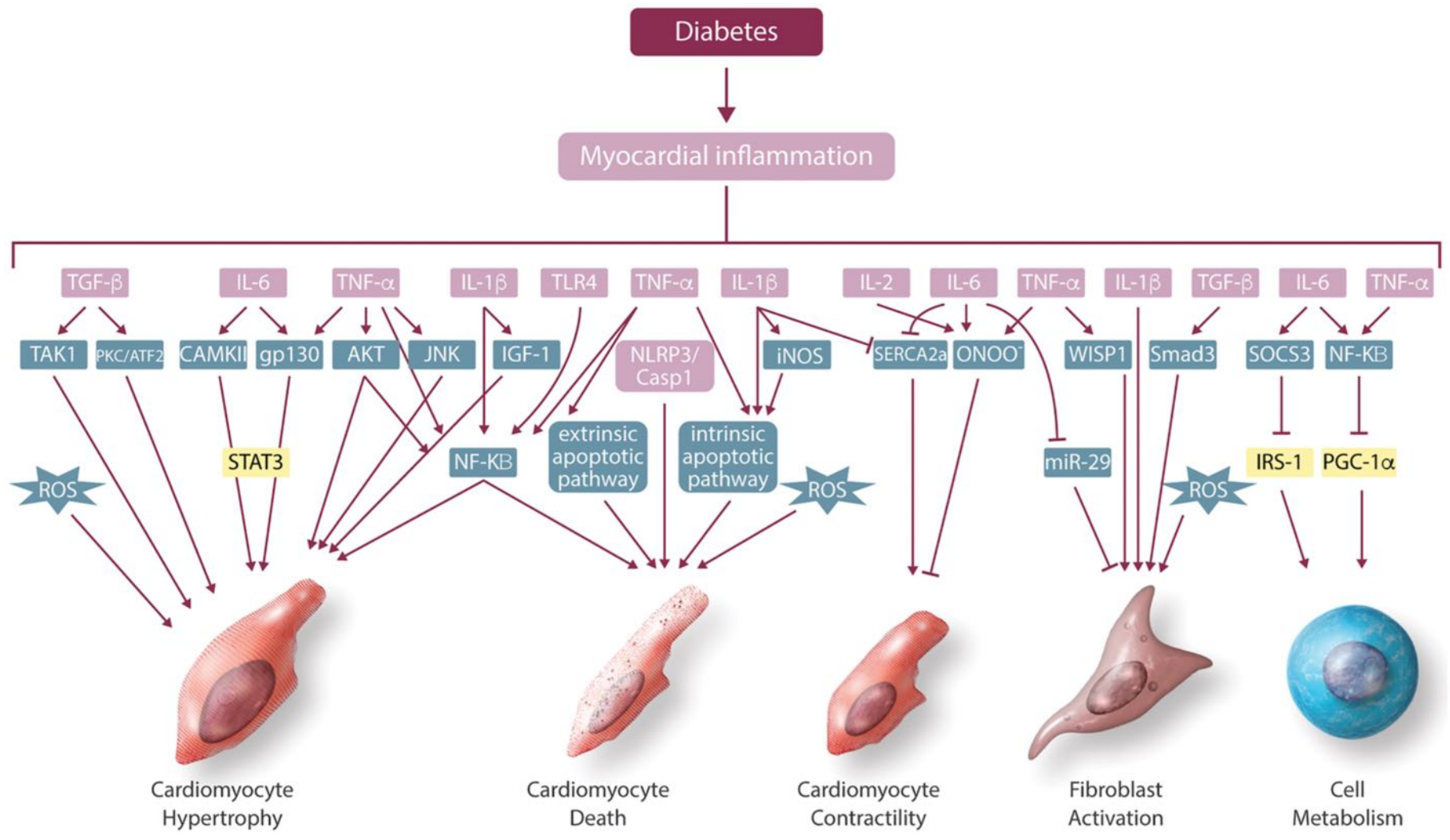


# Pro-inflammatory pathways that regulate the development of diabetic cardiomyopathy

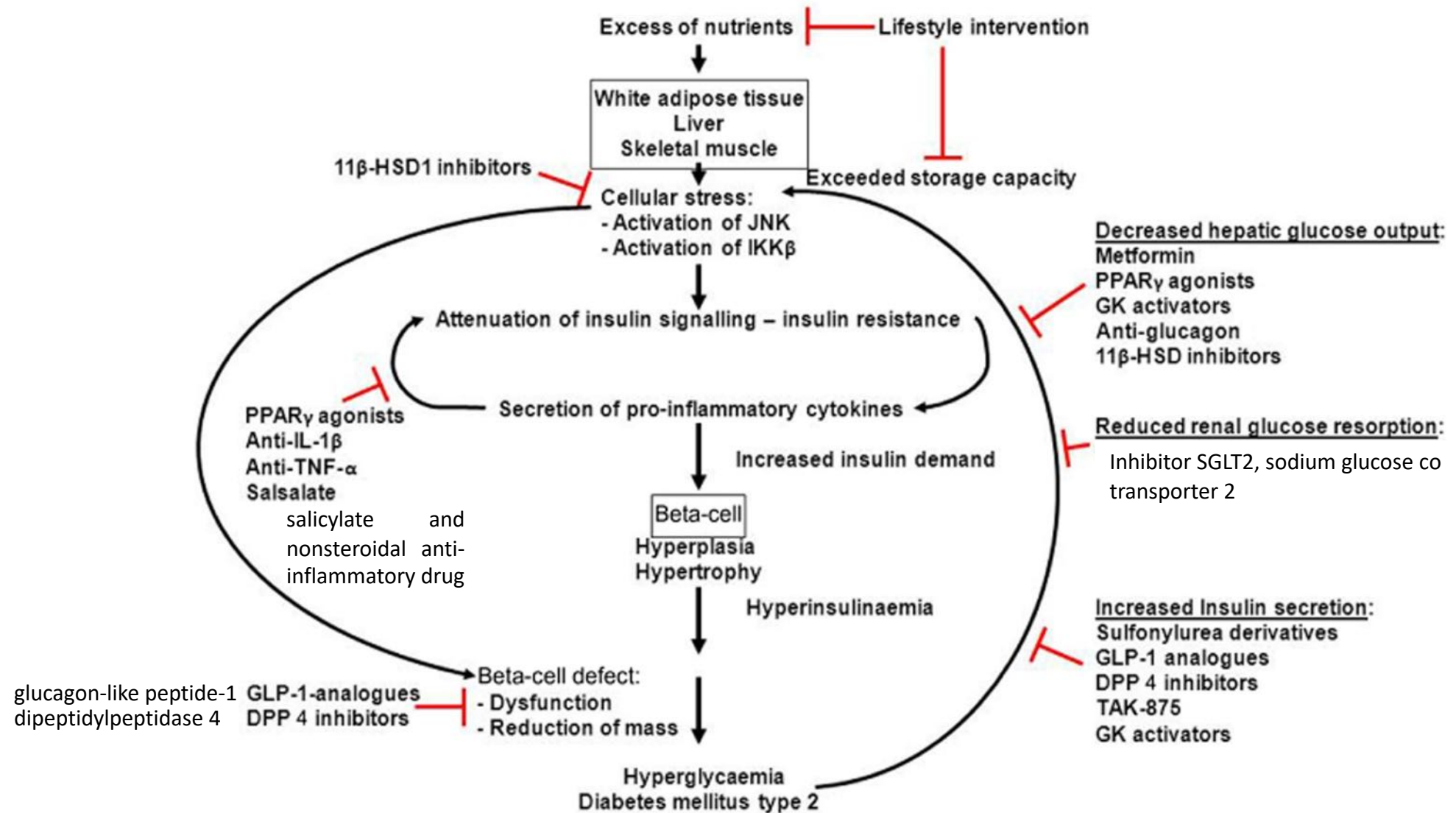








# VI- Treatment of type 2 diabetes



Basic concepts concerning the use of anti-diabetic drugs in patients with heart failure.

An important and yet under-investigated issue is the differential efficacy of anti-diabetic drugs in men and women. In two meta-analyses, diabetes was associated with a less favourable CV risk profile and a higher risk of death from CAD in females compared with males

## Safety

- Should a diabetic patient with heart failure (HF) be treated differently from a diabetic patient without HF for safety reasons?

## Efficacy

- Should a HF patient with diabetes be treated with a specific anti-diabetic agent that provides a favorable HF outcome in addition to being safe and effective in glycemic control?

## Repurposing

- Should a HF patient without diabetes be treated with a specific anti-diabetic agent that provides a favorable HF outcome in the absence of diabetes?

# COVID-19 in people with diabetes: understanding the reasons for worse outcomes

