

World Journal of *Diabetes*

World J Diabetes 2023 April 15; 14(4): 352-446



REVIEW

- 352 Role of antidiabetic agents in type 2 diabetes patients with chronic kidney disease
Lin WR, Liu KH, Ling TC, Wang MC, Lin WH
- 364 Therapeutic role of growth factors in treating diabetic wound
Zheng SY, Wan XX, Kambey PA, Luo Y, Hu XM, Liu YF, Shan JQ, Chen YW, Xiong K
- 396 Management of diabetes: Current concepts
Michaelidou M, Pappachan JM, Jeeyavudeen MS

MINIREVIEWS

- 412 Treatment on Nature's lap: Use of herbal products in the management of hyperglycemia
Giri S, Sahoo J, Roy A, Kamalanathan S, Naik D
- 424 Semaglutide-eye-catching results
Cigrovski Berkovic M, Strollo F

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Observational Study

- 435 Validity and reliability of the Polish version of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument
Sutkowska E, Marciniak D, Koszewicz M, Dziadkowiak E, Budrewicz S, Biernat K, Kuciel N, Mazurek J, Hap K

ABOUT COVER

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Role of antidiabetic agents in type 2 diabetes patients with chronic kidney disease

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Abstract

Insulin resistance is a condition in which the target tissues have a decreased response to insulin signaling, resulting in glucose uptake defect, and an increased blood sugar level. Pancreatic beta cells thus enhance insulin production to compensate. This situation may cause further beta cell dysfunction and failure, which can lead diabetes mellitus (DM). Insulin resistance is thus an important cause of the development of type 2 DM. Insulin resistance has also been found to have a strong relationship with cardiovascular disease and is common in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients. The mechanisms of insulin resistance in CKD are complex and multifactorial. They include physical inactivity, inflammation and oxidative stress, metabolic acidosis, vitamin D deficiency, adipose tissue dysfunction, uremic toxins, and renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system activation. Currently, available anti-diabetic agents, such as biguanides, sulfonylureas, thiazolidinediones, alfa-glucosidase inhibitors, glucagon-like peptide-1-based agents, and sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors, have different effects on insulin resistance. In this short review, we describe the potential mechanisms of insulin resistance in CKD patients. We also review the interaction of currently available anti-diabetic medications with insulin resistance.

Key Words: Insulin resistance; Chronic kidney disease; Cardiovascular events; Anti-diabetic agents

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Core Tip: Insulin resistance is the main cause of type 2 diabetes mellitus and is associated with cardiovascular events. It is also common in chronic kidney disease patients. We discuss the mechanisms of insulin resistance in such patients and the interaction of currently available anti-diabetic medications with insulin resistance.

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INTRODUCTION

Insulin resistance is a condition in which a tissue or organ has reduced sensitivity to insulin-initiated biological processes. To compensate for lower sensitivity, insulin secretion by pancreatic beta cells increases, causing hyperinsulinemia. Insulin resistance is thought to be an important contributor to beta cell dysfunction, which eventually leads to diabetes mellitus (DM). It is associated with risk factors for cardiovascular (CV) disease, such as inflammation, oxidative stress, and endothelial dysfunction[1]. Diabetes nephropathy is a common complication of DM. It causes albuminuria and renal function deterioration[2]. Insulin resistance is also common in chronic kidney disease (CKD) patients[3]. There are various anti-diabetes medications, including biguanides, sulfonylureas (SUs), thiazolidinediones (TZDs), alpha-glucosidase inhibitors (AGIs), glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1)-based agents, and sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors (SGLT2Is). In this article, we briefly summarize the mechanism of insulin resistance in CKD patients and the effect of currently available anti-diabetic medications on insulin resistance.

INSULIN RESISTANCE IN CKD PATIENTS

Insulin binds to its receptor and induces insulin receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1) tyrosine phosphorylation. IRS-1 then phosphorylates phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase and produces phosphatidylinositol-triphosphate (PIP3). PIP3 activates the protein kinase B/Akt pathway[1] (Figure 1). This effect can induce glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4) translocation to the cell membrane and cause glucose uptake. Insulin resistance presents when this signaling pathway dysfunction occurs. There are many different effects on the insulin signaling pathway in CKD patients, which subsequently cause insulin resistance.

Physical inactivity and insulin resistance

Insulin resistance may increase after several days of bed rest in a healthy population[4] and contributes to impaired microvascular function. Physical activity is decreased in CKD patients[1]. In the CKD mouse model, more physical activity can increase insulin sensitivity[5]. In patients with end-stage kidney disease (ESRD), moderate physical training can improve glucose tolerance and reduce the plasma insulin level[6].

Inflammation, oxidative stress, and insulin resistance

Serum proinflammatory cytokines, such as C-reactive protein, tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), and interleukin-6 (IL-6), are elevated in CKD patients, indicating systemic inflammation and increased oxidative stress[7]. TNF- α can directly inhibit IRS-1 function[8,9] and cause free fatty acid (FFA) accumulation by activating lipolysis, which indirectly inhibits IRS-1[10]. IL-6 can also, directly and indirectly, inhibit IRS-1 by stimulating the suppressor of cytokine signaling-3 pathway[11,12]. Reactive oxygen species (ROS), generated by inflammatory cytokines, FFA oxidation, or mitochondria, not only inhibit IRS-1 phosphorylation but also induce GLUT4 degradation by activating the casein kinase-2 pathway[13]. The expression and function of nuclear factor-erythroid-2-related factor-2 (Nrf2), which can enhance antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity genes, are reduced in CKD patients[14]. Nrf2 deficiency might be another cause of insulin resistance in CKD patients[1,15] (Figure 1).

Metabolic acidosis

Metabolic acidosis is a common metabolic abnormality due to an impairment of renal acid excretion in CKD patients. Metabolic acidosis is also a risk factor for insulin resistance due to impaired glucose metabolism and cellular insulin sensitivity[16]. Metabolic acidosis reduces insulin binding to its receptor IRS-1 and down-regulates the following intracellular signaling in adipocytes and myocytes[17,18]

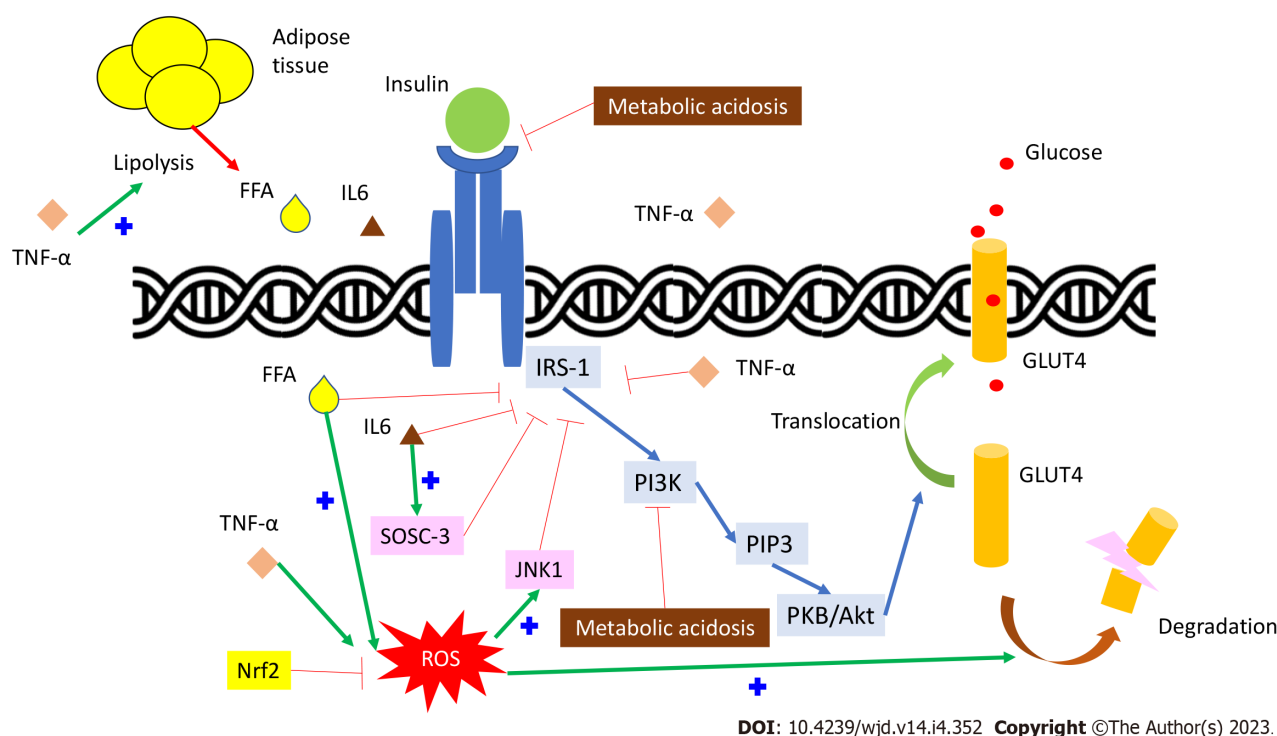


Figure 1 Insulin signaling pathway and inflammation and oxidative stress in insulin resistance. IRS-1: Insulin receptor substrate-1; PI3K: Phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI3K); PIP3: Phosphatidylinositol-triphosphate; PKB/Akt: Protein kinase B/Akt pathway; GLUT4: Glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4); FFA: Free fatty acids; TNF- α : Tumor necrosis factor α ; IL-6: Interleukin-6; SOSC-3: Suppressor of cytokine signaling-3 pathway; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; JNK1: C-Jun N-terminal kinase 1; Nrf2: Nuclear factor-erythroid-2-related factor-2.

(Figure 1). Furthermore, insulin resistance can be reduced by correcting metabolic acidosis in CKD patients[19].

Vitamin D deficiency

Vitamin D is a hormone that regulates calcium homeostasis. Vitamin D may have a role in insulin secretion because of the vitamin D receptor presenting in pancreatic beta cells[20]. Vitamin D can also reduce pancreatic islets apoptosis caused by systemic chronic inflammation[21]. Insulin secretion by pancreatic beta cells requires extracellular calcium infusion. The vitamin D level is important for the normal homeostasis of extracellular calcium levels[22]. Moreover, vitamin D can promote insulin-induced uptake from the liver, adipose tissue, and skeletal muscle tissue[23] (Figure 2). A large cross-sectional study revealed a strong association between the vitamin D levels and insulin resistance[24]. Some epidemiological studies also showed an association between vitamin D deficiency and risk for type 2 DM (T2DM)[25]. Therefore, many trials have tried to examine the therapeutic potential of vitamin D supplementation. However, a meta-analysis that included 28 randomized controlled trials in 2018 showed that vitamin D supplementation had no significant effect on controlling the fasting plasma glucose level, improving insulin resistance, or preventing T2DM[25]. In contrast, two recent studies showed that high-dose vitamin D supplementation could reduce insulin resistance and oxidative stress [26,27]. Further investigation is needed to clarify the effect of vitamin D on insulin resistance.

Adipose tissue dysfunction

Obesity enhances hepatic gluconeogenesis and increases circulating FFAs through lipolysis of adipose tissue. It has been hypothesized that hyperinsulinemia is the initial effect in obese patients[28]. Furthermore, adipose tissue can secrete adipokines and inflammatory markers[29]. These conditions can subsequently induce insulin resistance. CKD patients suffer from adipose reduction. However, many metabolic abnormalities present in CKD patients are similar to those in the obese condition, such as a high circulating FFA level and a high level of inflammatory cytokines[30]. Adipose disarrangement and adipokine dysregulation may be the cause[31].

Uremic toxin

Uremic toxin accumulation may induce insulin resistance in CKD patients. Water-soluble toxins, such as asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA)[32] and pseudouridine[33], have been proven to cause insulin resistance. ADMA, an endogenous nitric oxide synthase inhibitor, can cause endothelial dysfunction. It could reduce IRS-1 and GLUT4 expression and induce IRS-1 degradation[34]. Pseudouridine inhibits

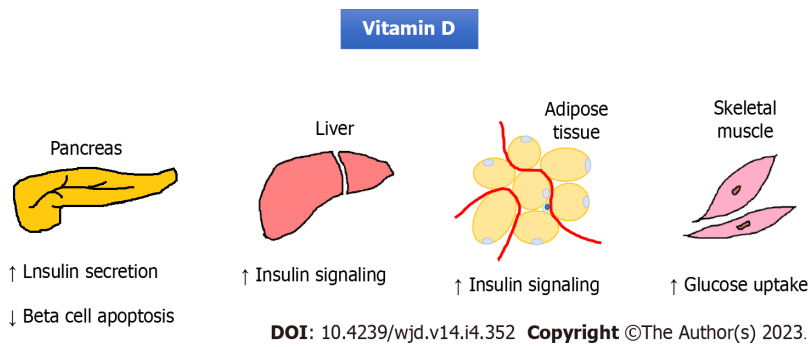


Figure 2 Effect of vitamin D on insulin secretion and signaling.

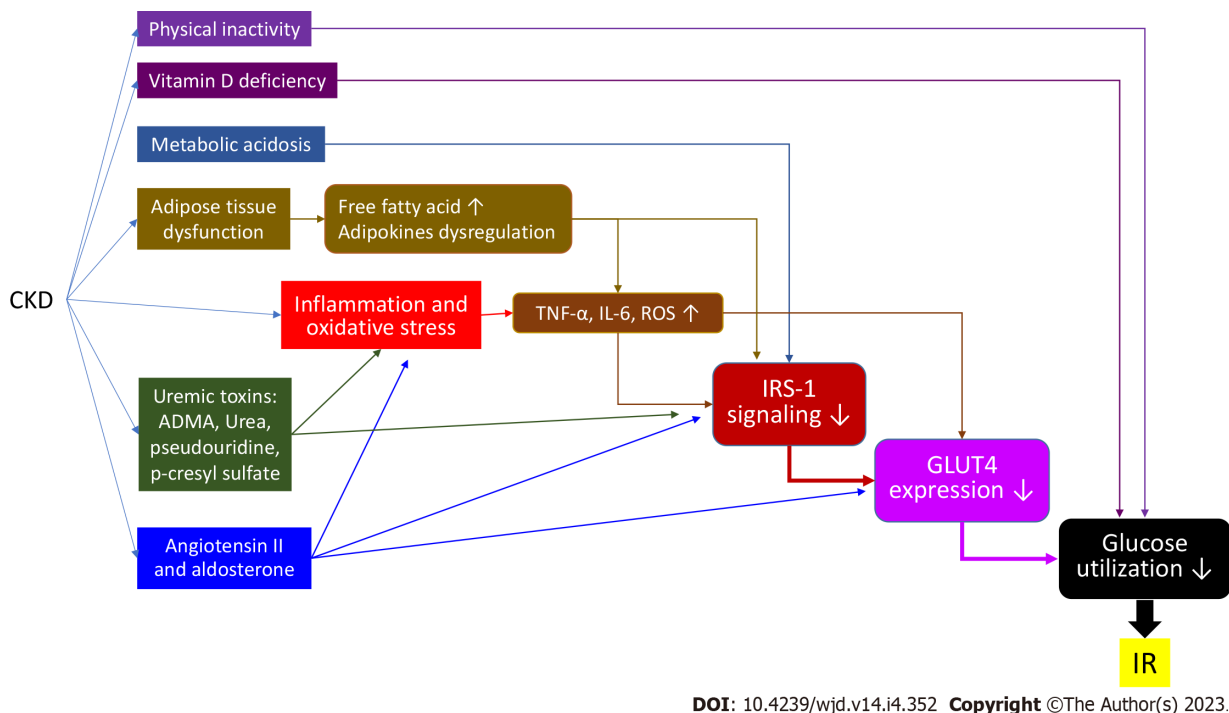


Figure 3 Summary of mechanisms of chronic kidney disease that induce insulin resistance. CKD: Chronic kidney disease; IRS-1: Insulin receptor substrate-1; GLUT4: Glucose transporter 4; TNF-α: Tumor necrosis factor alpha; IL-6: Interleukin-6; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; ADMA: Asymmetric dimethylarginine.

insulin signaling and glucose uptake in rat muscle cells. Urea can induce ROS generation and cause insulin resistance in the uremic mouse model[35]. Furthermore, a positive relationship between high blood urea nitrogen and incident DM has been reported[36]. The serum level of protein-bound toxins, such as p-cresyl sulfate, also increases in CKD patients. P-cresyl sulfate can cause an impaired insulin signaling pathway in animal models[37]. It also results in lipid redistribution to the liver and muscle, which increases ROS production and inflammation[37].

Renin angiotensin aldosterone system activation

A high level of angiotensin II (Ang II), which is a common condition in CKD patients, may cause insulin resistance. Ang II stimulates IL-6 production[38], which then causes insulin resistance. Aldosterone increases as renal function declines. Aldosterone can induce insulin resistance not only directly by impairing IRS-1 function and GLUT4 translocation, but also indirectly by affecting the production of other circulating factors such as inflammatory cytokines[39]. A small study showed that the administration of a mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist (MRA) such as spironolactone can ameliorate insulin resistance in CKD patients and rats[40]. However, the Candesartan in Heart Failure Assessment of Reduction in Mortality and Morbidity clinical study revealed that steroidal MRAs may increase the risk of new DM development[41]. A recent clinical study showed no improvement in insulin sensitivity in a T2DM patient after 8 wk of steroidal MRA eplerenone use[42]. The benefit of the use of steroidal MRAs in the management of insulin resistance is not clear. Moreover, for CKD patients, steroidal MRAs should

be used with caution because of the higher risks of hyperkalemia and gynecomastia (Figure 3).

EFFECT OF ANTI-DIABETIC AGENTS ON INSULIN RESISTANCE

It is well known that chronic high blood sugar itself can cause insulin resistance and pancreatic islet beta cell dysfunction, which is called glucotoxicity[43]. This effect is mainly through the activation of oxidative stress (as previously described). Therefore, lowering the blood sugar level can attenuate insulin resistance. All anti-diabetic medication decreases the blood sugar level and thus partially decreases insulin resistance. As previously described, high weight and obesity are other common causes of insulin resistance. Therefore, body weight loss is expected to decrease insulin resistance. Some anti-diabetic medications decrease body weight and thus could improve insulin resistance *via* this mechanism.

Biguanides: Metformin

Metformin is a first-line drug for treating T2DM[44]. Metformin reduces blood glucose mainly through the suppression of hepatic gluconeogenesis by activating liver AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) without causing hypoglycemia[45]. AMPK also reduces liver lipogenesis and increases FFA oxidation, thereby decreasing liver steatosis and increasing hepatic insulin sensitivity[45]. In addition to inhibiting hepatocyte glucose production, metformin enhances insulin-stimulated glucose utilization and FFA oxidation in peripheral tissue, including skeletal muscle and fat tissue[46]. Metformin also stimulates enterocytes to uptake and utilize glucose, which results in a net glucose absorption decrease[45], and induces GLP-1 secretion[45]. Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is a disease with insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia. The administration of metformin can improve dyslipidemia and inflammation[47]. However, administration for CKD patients should be done carefully due to its side effect of lactic acidosis. Despite the scarcity of data on the reduction of insulin resistance by metformin in CKD patients, metformin has been shown to slow the progression of DM in high-risk population[48].

TZDs

TZDs are nuclear transcription factor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) agonists. PPAR γ is essential for new insulin-sensitive adipocyte differentiation and promotes FFA uptake and storage in subcutaneous adipose rather than visceral adipose tissue[49,50]. A reduction in the FFA level is associated with insulin resistance reduction. TZDs also increases glucose uptake by hepatocytes and skeletal muscle cells by increasing GLUT4 expression and translocation[49,50]. These effects decrease serum glucose without elevating insulin, which improves insulin resistance. Some clinical research showed that TZDs could also improve insulin resistance in hemodialysis patients[51,52]. However, side effects associated with subcutaneous adipose deposition (*e.g.*, weight gain) and fluid retention, which can lead to heart failure, limit their clinical use[50]. TZDs may be a good option for sugar control because of the limited choice for T2DM in CKD patients. TZDs have a beneficial effect on reducing insulin resistance but the side effect of fluid retention is of concern.

SUs and meglitinides

SUs can increase insulin secretion by altering the resting potential of islet beta cells *via* the inhibition of the adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-sensitive potassium channel (K-ATP channel). SUs are mainly removed from the liver and kidney, so the effect may be enhanced in CKD patients[53,54]. SUs can enhance peripheral glucose utilization directly by increasing GLUT4 expression *in vitro* and indirectly due to a reduction of glucotoxicity[55]. The improvement in insulin resistance by SUs may be a short-term effect[56]. Meglitinides can also stimulate insulin secretion *via* a similar pathway with a shorter onset time and duration. The effect of meglitinides on insulin resistance is still unclear[57]. Meglitinides can reduce glucotoxicity like SUs and temporally improve insulin resistance. However, body weight gain is a common side effect of SUs and meglitinides, which may increase insulin resistance. A recent study examined the effect of meglitinides in hemodialysis patients. Compared to the placebo group (which used only voglibose, an AGI), add-on meglitinide significantly decreased insulin resistance, fasting glucose, hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c) and glycated albumin levels[58]. The decrease in insulin resistance caused by meglitinide may be *via* a decrease in glucotoxicity.

Alpha-glucosidase inhibitors

AGIs can reversibly depress intestinal alpha-glucosidase activity, which delays sugar absorption[59]. They can reduce postprandial hyperglycemia without increasing the insulin level. Acarbose, an alpha-glucosidase inhibitor, was found to improve insulin sensitivity in fructose-fed rats[60]. In the STOP-NIDDM trial, acarbose administration in impaired-glucose-tolerance patients significantly increased the reversion of impaired glucose tolerance to normal glucose tolerance[61] and significantly reduced the risk of CV events and hypertension[62]. Acarbose has a potential side effect of hepatotoxicity that is possibly dose-dependent[63]. Due to accumulation in CKD, acarbose should be avoided in these patients[63]. However, a recent study showed that there was no relationship between acarbose use and

Table 1 Effects of anti-diabetic medications on insulin resistance and cardiovascular outcome with precautions for patients with chronic kidney disease

	Insulin resistance	CV effects[44]		CKD group
		ASCVD	HF	
Metformin	Liver gluconeogenesis (increased). Peripheral tissue glucose utilizing (increased). Net glucose absorption (decreased). Insulin resistance (markedly decreased) may benefit PCOS	Potential benefit	Neutral	eGFR < 30: Lactic acidosis
TZDs	Insulin signaling (increased). FFA (increased). Insulin resistance (markedly decreased)	Potential benefit	Increase risk	No dose adjustment required. Fluid retention
SUs and meglitinides	Glucotoxicity (decreased). GLUT4 expression (increased). Insulin resistance, mainly by decreasing glucotoxicity (decreased)	Neutral	Neutral	Low dose initiation to prevent hypoglycemia
Alpha-glucosidase inhibitors	Glucotoxicity (decreased). Insulin resistance, mainly by decreasing glucotoxicity (decreased)	Potential benefit	Neutral	Contraindication in CrCl < 25 (lack of data). Liver injury?
DPP-4 inhibitors	Improved islet beta cell function. Inflammation (decreased)? Insulin resistance (decreased)	Neutral	Potential risk: Saxagliptin and alogliptin	Generally safe. They can be used in CKD group (no dose adjustment for linagliptin)
GLP-1RAs	Oxidative stress, inflammation (decreased). GLUT4 expression (increased). Insulin signaling (increased). Body weight (decreased): Insulin resistance (markedly decreased)	Benefit	Neutral	No dose adjustment required
SGLT2Is	Peripheral tissue glucose utilization (increased). Energy expenditure (increased). Induce M2 macrophage polarization: Insulin resistance (markedly decreased)	Benefit	Benefit	Decrease sugar lowering effect in CKD group. Do not initiate when eGFR < 20

CKD: Chronic kidney disease; CV: Cardiovascular; ASCVD: Atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease; HF: Heart failure; PCOS: Polycystic ovary syndrome; eGFR: Estimated glomerular filtration rate; FFA: Free fatty acid; TZDs: Thiazolidinediones; SUs: Sulfonylureas; GLUT4: Glucose transporter 4; DPP-4: Dipeptidyl peptidase-4; GLP-1RAs: Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists; SGLT2Is: Sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors.

liver injury in a severe renal insufficiency group[64]. So far, there is little evidence that acarbose improves the insulin signaling pathway. A study showed that voglibose monotherapy in hemodialysis patients could reduce HbA1c but not clinical insulin resistance[58].

Therapies based on GLP-1

GLP-1, which is secreted from the small intestine, can stimulate insulin secretion from pancreatic islet beta cells after food intake. It can also delay gastric emptying, inhibit inappropriate post-meal glucagon release, and decrease appetite *via* the central nervous system[65,66]. GLP-1 is rapidly switched to an inactive form by dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) enzyme[67]. Therefore, DPP-4 inhibitors and GLP-1 agonists can both decrease the post-prandial blood sugar level without obvious hypoglycemia.

DPP-4 inhibitors have a neutral effect on CV events, development or progression of renal function, and body weight[68-71]. Some studies showed that DPP-4 inhibitors, such as sitagliptin[72] and vildagliptin[73], can improve clinical insulin sensitivity. Some studies also revealed that DPP-4 inhibitors have an anti-inflammation effect[74,75]. A 2019 meta-analysis showed that DPP-4 inhibitors can improve both beta cell function and insulin resistance, although the effect was weak[76]. A new DPP-4 inhibitor omarigliptin was found to reduce insulin resistance and systemic inflammation in T2DM patients[77]. However, there is current no evidence that the use of DPP4-inhibitors reduces insulin resistance in the CKD group.

GLP-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1RAs) have been shown to have benefits for atherosclerotic CV disease (ASCVD) and have been suggested as a first-line therapy for patients with ASCVD or a high risk of ASCVD[44]. GLP-1RAs can attenuate oxidative stress, ameliorate inflammatory response, increase GLUT4 expression and translocation, amplify insulin signaling transduction, and improve the plasma lipid profile[78]. All of these effects can improve insulin sensitivity. GLP-1RAs also have an effect on body weight loss[79,80], which also decreases insulin resistance. The meta-analysis in 2019 also showed that GLP-1RAs significantly increase islet beta cell function and reduce insulin resistance and the fasting glucose level[76]. Furthermore, GLP-1RAs are a potential treatment choice for PCOS, which is highly correlated with insulin resistance[81]. GLP-1RAs such as liraglutide, dulaglutide and semaglutide, have been reported to have good efficacy and a good safety profile in the advanced CKD group, including hemodialysis patients[82]. Although there is currently no direct evidence of GLP-1RAs improving insulin resistance in the CKD group, it can be hypothesized theoretically.

Sodium-glucose cotransporter 2 inhibitors

SGLT2Is inhibit renal tubule glucose reabsorption, and thus increase urinary glucose excretion and improve hyperglycemia. SGLT2Is also have a diuretic effect by decreasing sodium reabsorption. SGLT2Is have favorable CV effects, especially in the heart failure group[44]. SGLT2Is can delay renal function deterioration with or without DM[83-85]. The effect may result from decreasing intra-glomerular pressure *via* tubuloglomerular feedback. Some studies have recently shown that SGLT2Is also have potential for improving insulin sensitivity. Tofogliflozin, a class of SGLT2I, was found to improve insulin resistance in skeletal muscle by stimulating glucose uptake in obese mice[86]. It also accelerated lipolysis in adipose tissue and reduced adipose tissue mass. The reduction of hyperinsulinemia as a result of decreasing blood sugar level after the administration of SGLT2Is may be the mechanism. Another SGLT2I, empagliflozin, can reduce fat mass by increasing energy expenditure, promoting fat browning, and enhancing fatty acid oxidation in skeletal muscle in high-fat-diet-induced obese mice[87]. It was also found to induce M2 macrophage polarization in fat and the liver, which had an anti-inflammation effect[87]. In humans, dapagliflozin can reduce body weight and body fat mass and improve muscle insulin sensitivity[88]. In summary, SGLT2Is can stimulate glucose uptake in skeletal muscle tissue, decrease fat mass, promote fat browning, and reduce inflammation. These effects can attenuate insulin resistance. However, these effects are decreased in CKD patients. The effect of SGLT2Is on insulin resistance in the CKD group is unclear (Table 1).

OTHER MEDICATIONS USED FOR CKD: POTENTIAL EFFECT ON INSULIN RESISTANCE

AST-120 (Kremezin)

As mentioned, protein-bound uremic toxins such as p-cresyl sulfate can induce insulin resistance. AST-120 (Kremezin) is an oral carbonaceous adsorbent. It can absorb toxins generated by intestinal microbiota and decrease the systemic and local uremic toxin levels. A study compared AST-120-fed diabetic CKD (underwent two-third nephrectomy) rats to control diabetic CKD rats[89]. The mean blood glucose level and the mean dose of exogenous insulin used in the AST-120-fed group were significantly reduced[89].

Renin-Ang system blockades

As previously described, Ang II can induce insulin resistance. The main pathway for producing Ang II is *via* the renin-Ang system (RAS). The use of RAS blockades, including Ang-converting-enzyme inhibitor and Ang II receptor blocker, are standard care for CKD and diabetes nephropathy because of their beneficial effects on CV and kidney outcomes. Some studies showed that RAS blockades improve insulin resistance compared to other anti-hypertensive agents[90,91]. A large study that recruited 5269 impaired-glucose-tolerance patients showed that the administration of ramipril significantly reduced the post-load serum glucose level[92]. Another large trial showed that the use of valsartan decreased serum fasting glucose, the post-load glucose level, and even 5-year diabetes development[93].

Finerenone

Aldosterone overproduction may induce insulin resistance. The current evidence for the benefit of using steroidal MRAs to manage insulin resistance is still unclear. Finerenone, a novel non-steroidal MRA, has a higher affinity to the mineralocorticoid receptor and fewer side effects compared to those of steroidal MRAs. Recent studies indicated that finerenone has a beneficial effect on the heart and kidneys in CKD and T2DM patients[94,95]. A recent animal study found that finerenone can increase brown adipose tissue and thus improve insulin resistance[96]. Finerenone may be an attractive therapy choice for treating insulin resistance in CKD patients.

Endothelin-1

Endothelin-1 (ET-1) is a peptide secreted by endothelium. ET-1 is thought to induce vasoconstriction, cell proliferation, and inflammation. There is a positive correlation between the serum ET-1 level and insulin resistance[97]. The administration of an endothelin receptor antagonist, such as atrasentan, can improve hepatic insulin sensitivity in insulin resistance rats. A recent study revealed that atrasentan can improve peripheral glucose homeostasis, dyslipidemia, and liver triglycerides in high-fat-diet mice[98]. Therefore, ET-1 antagonists may be a therapeutic choice for improving insulin resistance. The SONAR trial showed better kidney outcomes with long-term atrasentan use in selected T2DM patients with CKD. However, fluid overload and anemia were significantly higher in the atrasentan group[99].

CONCLUSION

CKD patients have a higher risk for CV events. Insulin resistance is common in CKD patients and may cause CV disease in this group. Therefore, knowing the pathogenesis of insulin resistance in CKD is

crucial. It can provide a way to manage potential CV comorbidities or ESRD. Several kinds of anti-diabetic medication can not only decrease the blood sugar level but also improve insulin resistance. Some of them may have a beneficial effect on CKD. Moreover, recent novel medications for managing CKD can also reduce insulin resistance. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs that can regulate target mRNA expression[100]. They have been found to have an effect on glucose metabolism. For example, a recent study showed that miR-126 single nucleotide polymorphism was associated with T2DM[101]. MiRNAs may be a target therapeutic strategy in the future. Small-molecule insulin mimetics, which can stimulate the insulin-signaling pathway, have been recently introduced[102,103]; however, this research is still in the early stages. Further research on halting insulin resistance in CKD patients is required.

FOOTNOTES

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Therapeutic role of growth factors in treating diabetic wound

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Abstract

Wounds in diabetic patients, especially diabetic foot ulcers, are more difficult to heal compared with normal wounds and can easily deteriorate, leading to amputation. Common treatments cannot heal diabetic wounds or control their many complications. Growth factors are found to play important roles in regulating complex diabetic wound healing. Different growth factors such as transforming growth factor beta 1, insulin-like growth factor, and vascular endothelial growth factor play different roles in diabetic wound healing. This implies that a therapeutic modality modulating different growth factors to suit wound healing can significantly improve the treatment of diabetic wounds. Further, some current treatments have been shown to promote the healing of diabetic wounds by modulating specific growth factors. The purpose of this study was to discuss the role played by each growth factor in therapeutic approaches so as to stimulate further therapeutic thinking.

Key Words: Growth factor; Skin; Diabetic wound; Therapy; Biomaterial; Delivery system

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Core Tip: This review summarizes the main causes of poor wound healing in diabetes and the role of various therapeutically available growth factors in wound healing. In terms of treatment, it summarizes the treatment methods and drug delivery systems of various growth factors, and discusses the therapeutic effects of different methods and the special properties of drug delivery systems. We hope these discussions will provide the basis for more effective treatments, advance growth factor research, and help more people with diabetes heal their wounds.

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INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of diabetes continues to increase at an alarming rate worldwide[1,2]. According to a recent analysis, the global prevalence of diabetes among adults aged 20-79 years is currently at 536.6 million and is projected to rise to 783.2 million by 2045[3]. As of 2015, diabetes was a direct cause of death for about 1.5 million people worldwide (WHO. Accessible at <http://www.who.int/diabetes/en>, accessed on 26 November 2022). Complications such as cardiovascular disease, nephropathy, retinopathy, neuropathy, and diabetic wounds occur in patients with diabetes. Diabetic wounds are one of the consequences having a lasting impact on patients with diabetes. Diabetic foot ulcer (DFU) is the most common type of diabetic wounds, which has a recurrence rate of 30%-50%[4,5]. Currently, no effective means of foreseeing the development of diabetic sores exist. Thus, the primary goals of treating diabetic wounds include identifying them early, performing a thorough examination, debriding and cleansing the wounds, and preventing or controlling the spread of infection.

One of the trickiest aspects of managing diabetes is dealing with wounds. Normal wound care is insufficient for diabetic wounds due to the differences in blood composition, vascular development, nerve survival, and inflammatory processes[6,7]. Many therapies have been developed for diabetic wounds in recent years[4,8], but those involving growth factors (GFs) have gained the maximum attention. GFs govern most of the processes involved in wound healing[9]. Although several GFs have been shown to be useful in treating diabetic wounds, only a few have been authorized for use in clinical practice. Among the three GF products available, only Regal Maltose has been approved by the Food and Drug Administration for treating neuropathic diabetic ulcers. The limitations in trial design, poor patient compliance, risk of immunogenicity, protein degradation, and variation in the responsiveness and healing support supplied by surrounding tissues are only a few of the many obstacles that stand in the way of the therapeutic application of GF products. It is essential, therefore, to have a firm grasp on the specifics of diabetic wounds, the healing effects of various GFs, and the provision of a dependable and efficient GF delivery system to propose a GF therapy.

In this review, we summarized the major factors contributing to impaired wound healing in patients with diabetes, and the significance of several GFs currently available for therapeutic use. We also conducted illustrative GF treatment experiments to explore various delivery mechanisms and facilitate an understanding about the therapeutic effects of various strategies.

WHY IS THE HEALING OF DIABETIC WOUNDS DIFFICULT?

Vascular complications

Intermittent claudication, ischemia-induced rest discomfort, skin ulcers, and avascular necrosis are all symptoms of peripheral arterial disease (PAD), a group of disorders caused by arterial stenosis distal to the aortic arch. A strong correlation exists between diabetes and PAD; however, determining the true frequency of PAD in patients with diabetes is challenging due to the many complicating factors[10]. One cross-sectional study indicated that 43.87% of patients with DFU also had peripheral artery disease[11]. The most immediate effect of PAD, whether it affects local micro or macro vessels, is a disruption in blood flow or even ischemia[12]. Further, a number of negative consequences occur due to microcirculatory dysfunction. The microcirculation of patients with diabetes differs from that of patients without

diabetes in several important ways, including increased vascular permeability, poor autoregulation, and unresponsiveness to vasodilatory stimuli[10,13]. The endothelial dysfunction due to hyperinsulinemia or hyperglycemia is the primary cause of these characteristics[14,15]. Capillary damage and oxidative stress are two complications of diabetes that can be exacerbated by microcirculatory perfusion problems [16].

Tissues surrounding diabetic wounds may suffer from hypoxia and anemia due to circulatory abnormalities triggered by PAD. The activity and gene expression in cells of injured tissues may be affected by hypoxia[17]. The combination of vascular damage and increased tissue oxygen consumption can lead to hypoxia in diabetic wounds, just as it does in regular wounds. However, hypoxia triggers hypoxia-inducible factor-1 (HIF-1) to enhance wound repair in healthy individuals, but hyperglycemia inhibits HIF-1 and hence slows wound healing in patients with diabetes[18-20]. Since hypoxia is detrimental to healing rather than serving as positive feedback that accelerates diabetic wound closure, it is no longer a factor in promoting wound closure. Lower oxygen levels in DFU were linked to slower wound healing in a study on flow-mediated skin fluorescence monitoring[21]. Furthermore, anemia can inhibit the healing process by inhibiting the metabolic pathways in injured tissues. Patients with diabetes often suffer from anemia, and those with severe foot ulcers are particularly at risk[22-24]. Patients with severe anemia have a higher likelihood of experiencing adverse malignant outcomes, according to a number of studies. These outcomes include a more severe disease-free interval, a more severe infection, and even death[23,25-27]. The impact of anemia on DFU is still debatable, as some studies have shown that it is not significantly linked to the severity or prognosis of DFU[28,29].

Moreover, diabetic wounds frequently exhibit impaired angiogenesis, which results in reduced vascularity and capillary density[30]. Inhibiting the death of important cells in damaged tissue, providing proliferative support activity, facilitating the remodeling phase of repair, and promoting healing growth are all facilitated by oxygen and nutrients provided by angiogenesis[31-33]. However, in diabetic wounds, many factors that promote angiogenesis are disrupted due to hyperglycemia and chronic inflammation, for example, the release of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)[34] and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)[35] and the composition ratio of Ang1/Ang2/Tie2 complex[36, 37]. Moreover, the unique internal environment of diabetes may also contribute to the effects of various anti-angiogenic factors, such as the anti-angiogenic factor pigment epithelium-derived factor[38]. These factors interfere with inflammation-mediated angiogenesis and delay the transition from inflammation to proliferative remodeling in wound healing.

Hyperglycemia

Hyperglycemia can delay the healing of diabetic wounds and even exacerbate DFU through the impaired function of various skin cells and peripheral neuropathy. In patients with diabetes, hyperglycemia is an important factor causing dysfunction or reduction of endothelial cells[39-44], which are essential for the healing of diabetic wounds[45,46]. Further, hyperglycemia affects protein synthesis and migration and proliferation of keratinocytes and fibroblasts, which disrupts important processes of re-epithelialization[47-49], for instance, the altered expression of cytoskeletal keratin proteins (K2/K6/K10) and a laminin-5 α 3 chain precursor protein (LM-3A32) in DFU keratinocytes[50]. Also, the fibroblasts from DFU exhibit morphological changes, GF energy, extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition, and reduced proliferation and migration of fibroblasts[51-54]. In the pathogenesis of neuropathy, hyperglycemia can damage nerves through the polyol pathway, hexosamine pathway, oxidative stress, advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) pathway, PARP pathway, NF- κ B pathway, and so forth[55].

Hyperglycemia can also induce a delay in diabetic wound healing *via* free radicals or reactive oxygen species (ROS). In patients with diabetes, hyperglycemia can induce excessive ROS production through several pathways[56]: (1) Reactions in mitochondria[57,58]; (2) impairment of intracellular antioxidative defense systems[59,60]; (3) glycosylation and subsequent signal transduction[61,62]; (4) lipid peroxidation[55,63]; (5) activation of free radical generator enzymes[64,65]; (6) polyol pathway[66]; (7) protein kinase C pathway[67,68]; and (8) hexosamine pathway[69]. These pathways have been verified in patients with diabetes and are abnormally active and hence disrupt the metabolism of ROS in hyperglycemia. Although the presence of ROS can, sometimes, promote wound healing (*e.g.*, bacterially infected wounds)[70,71], excessive release of ROS can lead to cell and tissue damage and delayed wound healing in DFU[72].

Neuropathy

More than 90% of patients with DFU also have diabetic neuropathy[73]. The most common types of neuropathy are sensory, motor, and autonomic neuropathies of the periphery[74]. Diabetes can cause neuropathy in numerous ways, the most common of which are: (1) Autoimmunity; (2) microvascular dysfunction; and (3) various humoral variables (hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia, and so on)[75-79].

An important risk factor for wound formation in neuropathy is the deterioration of subjective sensation[80-82]. The selective targeting of C and A δ fibers by neuropathy in diabetes can lead to neuropathic pain and/or sensory loss[83]. Studies have shown reduced cutaneous innervation in the biopsies of patients with diabetes based on reduced immunoreactivity of protein gene product 9.5 (PGP9.5) (detecting sensory neurons) and various neuropeptides, specifically calcitonin gene-related peptide, substance P (SP), and neuropeptide Y[84,85]. Reduced nerve density, a more fragmented distri-

bution across the dermis[86,87], and reduced nerve afferents in the epidermis[88-91] and dermal papillae[92] are found in the skin of patients with diabetes, even in the absence of clinically detectable sensory neuropathy[93]. Moreover, patients with diabetes may show a significant reduction in amplitude and nerve conduction velocity associated with nerve fiber loss[94]. Patients may have trouble deciphering the severity of their sores or ulcers in the limbs, especially if their pain threshold has been drastically lowered[95]. These variables increase the likelihood of diabetic wound development and may also contribute to the progression of existing wounds. The upper-body paralysis from autonomic neuropathy reduces perspiration production, leading to dry, cracked skin that can increase susceptibility to irritation and infection while slowing the healing process[72,78]. In dull pain, the increased pressure on the plantar surface of the foot caused by motor neuropathy can cause ischemia and possibly death of tissues in the affected area[78].

Skin innervation is important for normal wound healing and can impact wound healing processes such as keratinocyte proliferation[96], wound re-epithelialization[97], wound contraction[98], and production of granulation tissue[99]. However, in diabetic wounds, neuropathy can impede these steps, delaying the healing of wounds[100]. Further, SP stimulates leukocyte chemotaxis to promote wound healing during the inflammatory phase of a wound[101]. However, reduced SP levels in denervated tissues in patients with diabetes may lead to delayed wound healing[102,103]. Denervation leads to delayed protein extravasation and cell migration[104,105]. Animals exposed to capsaicin have no vasodilation and plasma protein extravasation at the time of injury[106]. A similar delay in inflammatory cell migration was observed in mice with diabetes[107-109]. Chemical and surgical denervation can reduce small nerve fibers in the skin by at least 70%, which leads to poor wound repair[110]. The reduction in skin sensory nerves by subcutaneous injection of capsaicin in mice and rats without diabetes delayed re-epithelialization, reduced epidermal stem cell migration, and inhibited angiogenesis and VEGF expression[111-113].

In fact, many types of neuropathy are complicated by diabetes, and not every neuropathy affects the efficiency of wound healing[78,114]. The neuropathy discussed in this study refers to the ubiquitous disorders of the cutaneous nerves and dysregulation of neuropeptide secretion.

Microbial infection

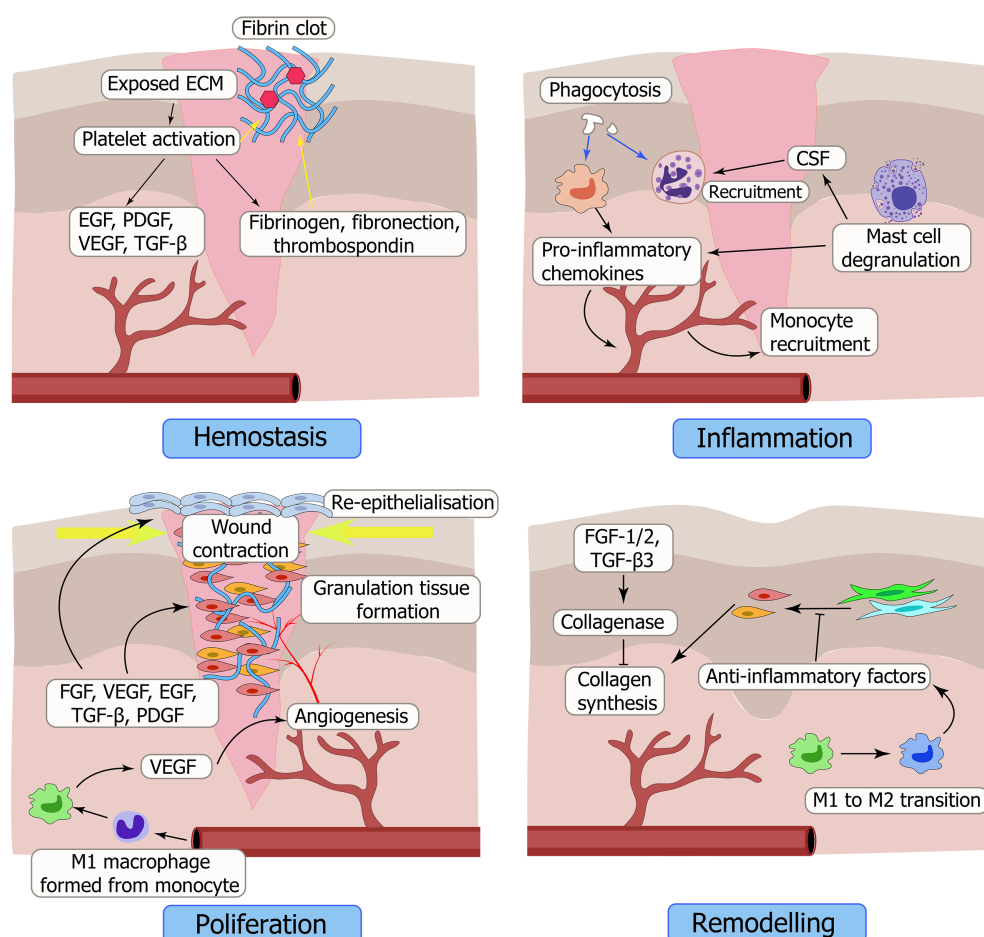
The wounds in patients with diabetes are highly susceptible to microbial invasion, often leading to life-threatening infections that delay wound closure. The damage of the skin barrier, such as increased trans epidermal water loss and decreased secretion of antimicrobial peptides[115,116], has been linked to an increased risk of infection. Neuropathy and chronic inflammation have been proposed as possible causes of this damage[72,117]. Furthermore, the microbial composition of patients with diabetes differs from that of healthy individuals[118-120]. *Staphylococcus aureus* and *S. epidermidis*, for example, are more likely to colonize the skin of patients with diabetes[119,120]. Diabetic wounds have a more restricted microbiome than healthy skin and are home to bacteria such as *Klebsiella* sp., *Abiotrophia* sp., *Escherichia coli*, and *Peptoniphilus* sp.[121-123]. Notably, *S. aureus* and *Streptococcus* genera predominate among the harmful microorganisms in infected wounds[124,125]. The increased release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and a prolonged inflammatory phase due to bacteria and endotoxins in an infected wound are two factors that prevent the wounds from healing[126]. Additionally, the pathogenic bacteria or their secretions continuously damage the wound's tissue and cells, slowing the healing process.

Inflammation

Unlike nondiabetic acute wounds, DFUs have a nonlytic inflammatory phase, with numerous neutrophils and macrophages identified in the wound[127-129] and persistent release of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as leukocyte interleukin (IL)-1, tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), plasma C-reactive protein, and others[128,130,131]. Poor phagocytic activity and dysfunctional leukocytes are also common in patients with diabetes[132-134]. However, in DFU, M1 macrophages continue to dominate the wound milieu and perpetuate inflammation, whereas, in normal wounds, M2 macrophages (promote tissue repair) progressively replace M1 macrophages (promote inflammation)[135-137]. Because of the ongoing inflammatory response, neutrophils remain activated and secrete proteases, which indiscriminately destroy the wound microenvironment[138]. However, inflammation can stifle angiogenesis by limiting VEGF production[139,140]. Diabetic wounds cannot heal properly because chronic inflammation continues to cause harm to tissue cells even after the remodeling phase has begun[109].

Diabetic wound healing requires specific treatment

Normal wound healing can be divided into four stages: hemostasis, inflammation, hyperplasia and remodeling (Figure 1). But for diabetic wounds, the injuries, infections, and other consequences can all be exacerbated by diabetes, which slows recovery time[141] (Figure 2). Excessive formation of AGEs, insufficient neovascularization, insufficient concentration of GFs, imbalance between metabolism and nutrient delivery, abnormal regulation of gene expression, and impaired vascularization are just some of the factors making the healing of diabetic wounds difficult[142]. Therefore, common treatment measures cannot effectively improve the condition of diabetic wounds. Currently, many treatments exist for diabetic wounds, such as oxygen therapy, negative-pressure wound therapy, platelet-rich



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Figure 1 The wound healing process is generally divided into four stages: Hemostasis, inflammation, hyperplasia and reconstruction.

During the hemostatic stage, platelets will come into contact with collagen, resulting in platelet activation and aggregation; central thrombin triggers the formation of a fibrin network; the fibrin network strengthens platelet aggregation into a stable clot, effectively preventing bleeding. During the inflammatory phase, neutrophils and macrophages enter the wound to destroy bacteria and remove debris, and secrete growth factors, inflammatory factors, and chemokines that attract immune system cells to the wound to promote tissue repair. During the hyperplastic phase, granulation tissue grows and fills the wound, new blood vessels form, the wound shrinks, and epithelial cells gradually cover the surface of the wound. Finally, it enters the reconstruction stage, the fibrin of the granulation tissue gradually arranges regularly under the action of the pulling force, the epidermis gradually matures, M1 macrophages gradually transform into M2 macrophages, and inflammation and collagen synthesis are gradually inhibited.

plasma, stem cells, and cell- and tissue-based products[4,143-150]. Among these, GF therapy has been regarded as an important means to treat diabetic wounds due to its ability to participate in promoting various stages of healing.

ROLE OF GFS IN THE HEALING OF DIABETIC WOUNDS

GFs execute an important role in impaired wound healing, especially in diabetic wounds. They affect many processes, such as the growth and movement of different types of cells, endothelial cell stimulation, angiogenesis, fibroblast chemotaxis, and changes in inflammatory cells. GFs that accelerate and promote wound healing through their physiological effects mainly include VEGF, PDGF, epidermal growth factor (EGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), transforming growth factor β (TGF-β), hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), and so forth (Table 1)[108,151-197].

VEGF

The VEGF family consists of a variety of GFs, among which VEGF-A and VEGF-C are mainly involved in wound healing[161]. VEGF-A is produced by endothelial cells, keratinocytes, fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells, platelets, neutrophils, and macrophages[198-200]. It binds to the tyrosine kinase surface receptors Flt-1 (VEGF receptor 1) and kinase insert region receptor (KDR) (VEGF receptor 2) located on the endothelial surface of blood vessels[201-203]. By acting on these receptors, VEGF-A can participate in the chemotaxis of endothelial cells and promote endothelial cell proliferation, differentiation, and

Table 1 Main growth factors in wound healing

Type of GF	Source cells	Target cells	Receptor/signaling protein	Involved wound healing process	Acute wound	Chronic wound	Ref.
VEGF	Keratinocytes, fibroblasts, macrophages, endothelial cells	Endothelial cells, macrophages	ICAM-1, VCAM-1, PLC γ /PKC/Ras/Raf/MEK/ERK	Inflammation, angiogenesis	Increased	Decreased	[151-158]
TGF- β	Fibroblasts, keratinocytes, macrophages, platelets	Fibroblasts, keratinocytes, macrophages, leukocytes, endothelial cells	TGF- β RI-II, Smad 2-4, α -SMA, MAPK, integrins	Inflammation, angiogenesis, granulation tissue formation, collagen synthesis, matrix formation and remodeling, leukocyte chemotactic function	Increased	Decreased	[157, 159-174]
PDGF	Platelets	Leukocytes, macrophages, fibroblasts	PDGFR, Ras/Erk1/2/MAPK, PI3K	Inflammation, re-epithelialization, collagen deposition, tissue remodelling	Increased	Decreased	[108, 157, 175, 176]
HGF	Fibroblasts	Endothelial cells, keratinocytes	c-Met, ERK1/2, Akt, PAK-1/2, Gab1	Suppression of inflammation, granulation tissue formation, angiogenesis, re-epithelialization	-	-	[155, 176-180]
bFGF	Keratinocytes, fibroblasts, endothelial cells	Keratinocytes, fibroblasts, endothelial cells	ERK2	Angiogenesis, granulation tissue formation	Increased	Decreased	[108, 175, 181-184]
FGF-7, FGF-10	Fibroblasts, keratinocytes	Keratinocytes	Peroxisome oxidoreductase-6, Nrf2, Nrf3	Re-epithelialization, detoxification of ROS	-	-	[185-188]
EGF, HB-EGF, TGF- α	Platelets, macrophages, keratinocytes	Fibroblasts, endothelial cells, keratinocytes	EGFR, STAT3, AP1, PI3K, ERK	Tissue formation, re-epithelialization	Increased	Decreased	[189-197]

ICAM-1: Intercellular adhesion molecule 1; VCAM-1: Vascular cell adhesion molecule 1; PLC: Phospholipase C; PKC: Protein kinase C; α -SMA: α smooth muscle actin; MAPK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase; PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase; VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor; PDGF: Platelet-derived growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; FGF: Fibroblast growth factor; HGF: Hepatocyte growth factor; HB-EGF: heparin-binding epidermal growth factor.

regulation of vascular permeability[204-206]. VEGF-A levels are elevated in nondiabetic wounds[152, 207]. Other GFs that can enhance VEGF-A expression include TGF- β 1, EGF, TGF- α , KGF, bFGF, and PDGF-BB[208,209]. VEGF can promote angiogenesis to restore tissue perfusion, re-establish microcirculation, and increase oxygen tension in the wound[153]. In diabetic wounds, VEGF-A can promote early angiogenesis, especially the migration of endothelial cells, and improve the re-epithelialization and granulation tissue formation of diabetic wounds[210,211]. *In vivo*, the wounds in mice with diabetes exhibited accelerated re-epithelialization and contraction of wound area after treatment with VEGF mRNA delivery[212,213]. Many drugs and stem cells promote diabetic wound healing through VEGF [214-216].

VEGF-C is released primarily by macrophages and acts through VEGF receptor 3, which is expressed on lymphatic endothelial cells, pore endothelial cells, and monocytes/macrophages[217-219]. The proteolytically processed mature form of VEGF-C can also bind to KDR in the vascular endothelium to increase vascular permeability[220]. The proteolytically processed mature form of VEGF-C can also bind to KDR in the vascular endothelium to increase vascular permeability[220,221]. The administration of VEGF-C *via* an adenoviral vector to diabetic wounds accelerated healing in animal models of diabetes [222].

PDGF

Many different homologous and heterodimeric GFs exist in the PDGF family. Platelets, macrophages, vascular endothelium, fibroblasts, and keratinocytes are the primary cell types responsible for PDGF production in wounds[223-225]. PDGF is required for the majority of wound healing processes. It is found in wound fluid and secreted from the degranulated plate following injury[176,226]. It promotes the proliferation and migration of inflammatory cells such as neutrophils, fibroblasts, macrophages, and smooth muscle cells[227-229]. Furthermore, it promotes tissue debridement and granulation tissue development *via* macrophages by increasing the production and secretion of GFs such as TGF- β [223]. Further, PDGF plays a crucial role in developing mature blood vessels[230]. It promotes myofibroblast differentiation to rescue delayed wound healing after a diabetic wound penetrates subcutaneously and causes muscle damage[231]. The combination of PDGF-BB, VEGF, and EGF has been shown to increase

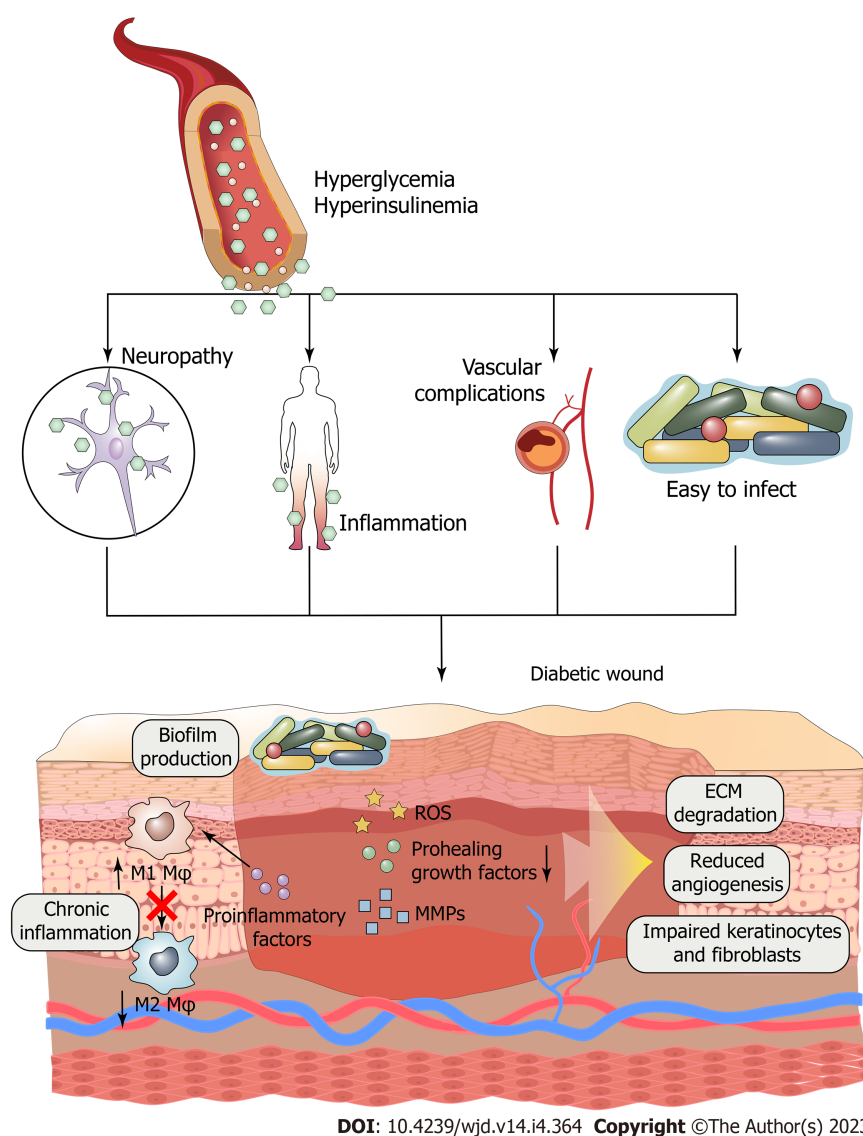


Figure 2 Hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia are often the core causes of numerous problems in diabetic individuals. These consequences add to the wound's aberrant features, like prolonged inflammation, poor tissue regeneration, slowed angiogenesis, etc. Moreover, the persistent breakdown of the skin barrier makes such wounds extremely susceptible to infection, which further hinders the healing process. Mφ: Macrophages; ECM: Extracellular matrix; ROS: Reactive oxygen species.

cell composition and promote wound healing in diabetic wounds, and the use of PDGF-BB alone has been approved for treating diabetic wounds[232]. PDGF-D was also found to be highly effective when applied to wounds in patients with diabetes and ischemia[233]. PDGF is often used in combination with VEGF, which has a significant positive effect on angiogenesis and recovery in diabetic wounds[234-236]. *In vivo*, PDGF-BB can improve the healing quality of full-thickness excision wounds in rats with diabetes; promote angiogenesis, cell proliferation, and epithelialization; and led to thicker and more organized collagen fiber deposition[237]. For clinical trials, the application of PDGF can significantly reduce the healing rate of diabetic wounds and improve the probability of complete healing[238-241].

EGF

Many members of the EGF family aid in wound healing, such as heparin-binding EGF (HB-EGF) and TGF- α [161]. The binding of these ligands to the EGF receptor (EGFR) causes the receptor to dimerize and autophosphorylate, which in turn triggers the tyrosine phosphorylation of downstream proteins inside the cell[191]. Studies *in vitro* demonstrated that EGFR activation facilitated re-epithelialization by increasing keratinocyte proliferation and migration in wounds[242-246].

The paracrine action of EGF on keratinocytes is primarily mediated by its secretion from platelets, macrophages, and fibroblasts[247]. Wound re-epithelialization and tensile strength were both remarkably improved by post-injury EGF upregulation in nondiabetic patients[195]. However, EGF levels were found to be lower in diabetic wounds, and a majority of EGFRs were found to be translocated to the cytoplasm rather than localized on the cell membrane[161,197]. The addition of topical

EGF to diabetic wounds has been shown in clinical trials to improve epithelialization and speed up healing[248,249]. Various attempts have been made to load EGF into various delivery systems for treating diabetic wounds[250,251]. *In vivo*, the application of EGF balances collagen distribution, increases granulation formation, and accelerates wound healing[251-253]. In a clinical trial of 68 patients treated with combined EGF and dressings, 52 had diabetic wounds, which healed completely within 2-14 wk with a low recurrence rate[254].

TGF- α is mainly secreted by platelets, keratinocytes, macrophages, fibroblasts, and lymphocytes[255-258]. It has been shown to increase keratinocyte migration and proliferation and induce the expression of K6 and K16[194,259,260]. In *in vivo* studies, TGF- α played a role in early stimulation and maintenance of wound epithelialization in partial-thickness wounds[261]. *In vivo*, TGF- α can be combined with PDGF-BB to make the wound healing speed in mice with diabetes close to that of nondiabetic mice [262]. However, TGF- α has not been applied to the clinical treatment of wounds so far.

HB-EGF is also upregulated in nondiabetic wounds and secreted by keratinocytes[199,263]. HB-EGF can promote re-epithelialization by binding to the EGFR subtypes HER1 and HER4/72[264,265]. *In vivo*, HB-EGF is thought to play a role in promoting keratinocyte migration, showing its importance in the early stages of re-epithelialization[189]. At present, HB-EGF has been widely regarded as one of the targets for treating skin wounds and carried in various delivery systems[266]. In a rodent diabetic wound model, HB-EGF improved re-epithelialization and increased collagen content and wound contraction *via* a heparin-based cohesive delivery system[267]. *In vivo*, HB-EGF can promote the proliferation and migration of epidermal keratinocytes in full-thickness excision wounds of mice with diabetes and accelerate epithelialization[267].

FGF

FGF family is a cell signaling protein family comprising 23 members. The members of this family mainly involved in skin wound healing are FGF2, FGF7 (or KGF1), and FGF10 (or KGF2). FGF2, the basic FGF, is mainly involved in granulation tissue formation, re-epithelialization, and matrix formation and remodeling in wounds[161,182]. FGF7 and FGF10 stimulate keratinocyte proliferation and migration, promote re-epithelialization, and increase the transcription of factors involved in ROS detoxification [268,269]. FGF2 is deficient in diabetic wounds, and wound closure is accelerated following the topical application of FGF2[183,184].

TGF- β

The TGF- β superfamily comprises many members playing essential roles in development and repair. TGF- β 1 and TGF- β 2 are significant players in wound repair, and can be potent stimulators of extracellular matrix protein and integrin expression[168,270,271]. TGF- β 1 is abundantly released from platelets immediately after injury[272]. Latent TGF- β s in the wound matrix also allow the sustained release of proteolytic enzymes. This combination of different cell sources ensures a continuous supply of TGF- β throughout the repair process[273]. Additionally, some researchers have reported the presence of TGF- β s in wound fluid[274,275]. At the cellular regulatory level, TGF- β has many cellular regulatory functions, such as attracting macrophages and fibroblasts to the wound area to improve healing[276, 277]. Also, TGF- β can promote re-epithelialization mainly by enhancing keratinocyte migration *via* regulatory factor forkhead box-1 after binding to receptors on the cell surface[277,278]. Moreover, studies show the involvement of TGF- β in scar formation, later wound repair, angiogenesis, and granulation tissue formation[163,169,172,273,279]. In diabetic wounds, TGF- β also promotes wound healing[162]. Compared with other reduced GFs, TGF- β showed a lack of upregulation in diabetic wounds, which might be a factor delaying the healing[279,280]. *In vivo*, the TGF- β /Small mothers against decapentaplegic (Smad) pathway is often activated as an important factor in promoting diabetic wound healing, for example, WDR74 and Baicalin[281,282].

HGF

HGF is a GF capable of regulating the growth, motility, and morphogenesis of various types of cells [283-285]. In wounds, HGF is mainly derived from fibroblasts, acts on epithelial cells, keratinocytes, and endothelial cells, and participates in healing processes such as suppression of inflammation, granulation tissue formation, angiogenesis, and re-epithelialization[155,177,179,180]. Although no changes in HGF levels have been reported in diabetic wounds, the delayed healing process appears to be associated with an imbalance in the activation and inactivation of the HGF/c-Met pathway[9,178,286]. Moreover, HGF can assist other GFs in promoting healing in diabetic wounds[287].

Nerve growth factor

Nerve growth factor (NGF) is a neurotrophic factor essential for the development and survival of some sympathetic and sensory neurons in the central and peripheral nervous systems[288]. NGF levels increase when wounds appear. NGF mRNA is detected in newly formed epithelial cells and granulation tissue fibroblasts at the wound edge[289], with exceptionally high expression in granulation tissue myofibroblasts[290]. Additionally, NGF in wounds can also originate from salivary gland secretion and be transported *via* serum[289]. In wound healing, NGF mainly involves keratinocyte proliferation;

proliferation, differentiation, and migration of epidermal stem cells; angiogenesis; fibroplasia; and peripheral nerve regeneration[291-297]. NGF levels are much lower in diabetic wounds and surrounding tissue than in normal skin wounds[298,299]. When NGF was applied explicitly to diabetic wounds, the healing and efficacy rate significantly improved[300,301].

Insulin-like growth factor

Insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) are anti-catabolic and anabolic drugs having two isoforms: IGF-1 and IGF-2[302]. They can regulate the growth and differentiation of cells throughout the body[303]. In normal skin, only a few cells express this protein. However, all epidermal cells and some inflammatory cells were found to produce IGF in the initial 1-3 d after injury[304]. IGF-1 may be involved in granulation formation in wounds, inhibit apoptotic pathways, and attenuate pro-inflammatory cytokine production[142]. In diabetic wounds, the expression of IGFs is markedly decreased and is absent in the basal layer of the epidermis and fibroblasts[305-307].

Connective tissue growth factor

The connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) is a member of the cellular communication network family [308], also known as CCN2. It can stimulate the proliferation and differentiation of fibroblasts in the skin [309]. Further, CTGF is involved in promoting cell adhesion, inflammatory cell chemotaxis, and cell differentiation[310,311]. The specific role of CTGF in nondiabetic wound healing has yet to be definitively concluded. However, the application of recombinant human CTGF in diabetic wounds did show better collagen IV accumulation and macrophage infiltration. Also, it increased α -smooth muscle actin level and healing rate in diabetic wounds compared with nontreated diabetic wounds[312]. In rats with diabetes, individuals treated with CTGF exhibited increased aggregation of type IV collagen, α -smooth muscle actin level, and macrophage infiltration; the rate of diabetic wound healing was also significantly accelerated in these individuals[312].

Colony-stimulating factor

Colony-stimulating factor (CSF) family has many isoforms, but the CSFs involved in wound healing are mainly granulocyte-macrophage CSF (GM-CSF) and granulocyte CSF (G-CSF). GM-CSF primarily stimulates cell proliferation and differentiation in wound healing and stimulates stem cells to produce granulocytes and monocytes[7]. However, the effectiveness of GM-CSF in promoting wound healing appears to be only somewhat recognized at present[313]. G-CSF is mainly involved in the inflammatory process of wounds and is related to the formation of neutrophils[314]. The ability of G-CSF to promote healing and resist infection has been verified in randomized clinical trials of diabetic wounds[315,316].

Prolonged healing results from GF deficiency in diabetic wounds

GFs are essential for healing diabetic wounds, as outlined earlier, because of their pro-healing effects. However, it is challenging to observe normal GF-regulated healing events in nontreated diabetic wounds due to the absence of GFs[157,161,192]. This prevents the healing process of hemostasis, inflammation, granulation tissue formation, wound contraction and re-epithelialization, and remodeling from functioning correctly. Moreover, it further leads to prolonged inflammation, tissue hypoxia, wound infection, and chronic healing[141]. Although this does not imply that the missing GF is the source of the lack of healing function, supplementing the wound with the required GFs has an excellent healing-promoting effect.

GF-RELATED THERAPY FOR DIABETIC WOUND HEALING

The application of exogenous GFs is considered a promising approach for treating diabetic wounds. The reason for using GFs is their ability to stimulate and regulate complex cellular and molecular events to alleviate the specific adverse effects of vascular complications, neuropathy, and inflammation in diabetic wounds, which are essential for good and rapid diabetic wound healing[142,317]. So far, a series of GFs, including PDGF, VEGF, EGF, FGF, TGF- β , KGF, and IGF, has shown the potential to accelerate diabetic wound healing[225,257]. Therefore, introducing appropriate GFs into diabetic wounds effectively promotes chronic healing (Table 2)[237,262,280,318-348].

The standard methods of introducing GFs can be divided into direct or biomaterial-based delivery (Figure 3). Direct delivery is achieved *via* topical application or intradermal injection but with only short-term bioactivity due to proteolysis and destabilizing support. For example, a large injection of multiple GFs is insufficient to maintain angiogenesis[349]. Biomaterial-based delivery is achieved by incorporating GFs into ECM-like hydrogels, scaffolds, or particles, which can provide proteolytic protection and structural support to maintain the bioactivity of GFs[141]. Furthermore, the increase in the levels of GFs in diabetic wounds can also be achieved by gene-mediated delivery methods, which can be divided into plasmid DNA delivery, transfection with nonintegrating viral vectors, chemical carrier delivery, and gene-eluting biomaterial constructs[317].

Table 2 Biomaterial systems applied for the delivery of growth factors in diabetic wounds

Therapeutic agents	Delivery system and route	Animal type	Wound size	Response on wound closure	Ref.
PDGF/TGF- α	Gel/topical spraying to wound bed	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mouse	Full-thickness wound measuring 1.5 cm \times 1.5 cm	Accelerated wound closure at 15-21 d	[262]
bFGF	Chitosan film/topical using	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	Full-thickness wound (1.6 cm diameter)	Reduced wound area and increased ECM formation	[318]
bFGF	Chitosan/hydrogels implant	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	Full-thickness wounds (about 100 mm ²)	80% wound closure by 12 d	[319]
pDNA TGF- β 1	PEG-PLGA-PEG/hydrogels implant	C57BKS.Cg-m +/+ Leprdb female mice	Full-thickness wounds (7 mm \times 7 mm)	Accelerated wound closure at 5 d	[280]
bFGF	Chitosan, hydrogel/topical using	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	Full-thickness circular wounds (about 100 mm ²)	Accelerated tissue filling rate of wounds and increased number of CD-34-positive vessels	[320]
PDGF-BB	Carboxymethyl cellulose hydrogel/topical using	C57/BL6 wild-type mice and lep/r db/db homozygous diabetic mice	Either a 0.6 cm ² , 1.0 cm ² , or 1.5 cm ² full-thickness area of skin	Accelerated healing by enhanced granulation tissue formation and angiogenesis	[321]
bFGF	Collagen, PGA/porous scaffolds implant	C57BLKS/J lar- + Leprdb/ + Leprdb	Full-thickness wounds (6 mm diameter)	NA	[322]
rhPDGF	Gel/topical spraying to wound bed	Wistar diabetic rats	Full-thickness dermal wounds of 2.54 cm ² (1.8 cm diameter)	Outstanding re-epithelialization within the first 7 d	[323]
bFGF	Chondroitin-6-sulfate, heparin/hydrogels implant	C57BLKS/J-m1/db, db/db mice, heterozygous (m1/db)	Full-thickness wounds (1.6 cm diameter)	89% wound closure by 2 wk	[324]
rhEGF	PCL, PCL-PEG/non-woven mesh (electrospun) implant		Full-thickness wounds (0.8 cm diameter)	Accelerated wound closure at 7 d	[325]
PDGF	5% polyethylene glycol gel/intradermal injection	Wistar rats	Full-thickness wounds (1.8 cm diameter)	Significant wound improvement within 14 d	[327]
aFGF	Collagen, chitosan/porous scaffolds implant	SD rats	Whole skin layer round wounds (1.8 cm diameter)	Complete healing at 14 d	[326]
rhEGF	PLGA microspheres	SD rats	Full-thickness dermal wounds (2.54 cm ² , 1.9 cm diameter)	90% healing rate on the 14 th day	[327]
Collagen-binding domain (CBD)-VEGF	Collagen domain/prayed onto the traumatic surface	SD rats	Full-thickness wounds (2 cm \times 2.5 cm)	95% healing rate basically reached after 21 d	[328]
rhEGF	PLGA nanoparticles/topical spraying to wound bed	SD rats	Full-thickness dermal wounds (1.8 cm in diameter)	Complete wound closure by 21 d	[329]
bFGF	PELA/non-woven mesh (electrospun) implant	SD rats	Full-thickness circular wounds (about 250 mm ² each)	Complete wound closure by 3 wk	[330]
rhEGF	Dextrin conjugated/topical using	BKS.Cg-m a/a +/+ Leprdb/J db/db mice	Full-thickness wounds (10 mm \times 10 mm)	Accelerated wound closure, neo-dermal tissue formation, increased granulation tissue deposition and angiogenesis	[331]
EGF	Collagen, hyaluronic acid/porous scaffolds implant	BKS.Cg- +Leprdb/+Leprdb (db/db) mice	Full-thickness wounds (15 mm \times 20 mm)	N/A	[332]
pDNA bFGF	PELA/electrospun mesh implant	Male SD rats	Full-thickness wounds (about 250 mm ²)	Complete wound closure by 3 wk	[333]
bFGF	Collagen, gelatine/porous scaffolds implant	BKS.Cg- + Leprdb/+Leprdb/Jcl	8 mm diameter and 3 mm thickness	NA	[334]
VEGF/bFGF	PLGA nps, fibrin/porous scaffolds implant	BKS.Cg-m +/+ Lepr, db/db	Full-thickness dermal wound (0.8 cm in diameter)	85% wound closure at 15 d	[335]
rhEGF	PLGA-alginate microspheres/intralesional	Wistar rats	Full-thickness dermal wound (1 cm in diameter)	90% wound closure at 11 d	[336]

	injection				
rhEGF	Lipid nanocarriers/topical application to wound bed	BKS.Cg-m+/+Lepr ²⁸⁶ db/J	Full-thickness wounds 0.8 cm in diameter	95% wound closure at 15 d	[337]
VEGF, bFGF, EGF, PDGF	Collagen, hyaluronic acid, gelatine nps/non-woven mesh (electrospun) implant	SD rats	Full thickness wound (diameter of 15 mm)	Complete wound closure by 4 wk	[338]
pDNA VEGF	Hyaluronic acid/hydrogels implant	db/db mice	Full-thickness wounds were then generated using a 6 mm biopsy punch (4 mm for wounds on smaller balb/c mice)	Induction of wound closure by day 8-10	[339]
VEGF	PLGA nanoparticles/intradermal injection	db/db mice	Full thickness excisional wounds, two (8 mm diameter) and four (6 mm diameter)	Complete wound closure by 19 d	[340]
VEGF, PDGF	Poly (β -amino esters), poly (acrylic acid), heparan sulfate/woven nylon mesh implant	db/db mice	Full-thickness skin wound	Accelerated wound closure at 14 d	[341]
rhEGF	NaCMCh-rhEGF/hydrogels implant	SD rats	Full-thickness wounds (2 cm diameter, 3.14 cm ² circular area)	Wound healed in day 15	[342]
rhEGF	PU/porous scaffolds implant	SD rats	Full-thickness wounds (dimensions of 2 cm \times 2 cm)	97% wound closure at 21 d	[343]
VEGF	PEG, heparin/hydrogels implant	Cg-m +/+ Lepr ^{db/J} (db/db) mice	Full-thickness punch biopsy wound	-	[344]
rhPDGF	PLGA/Non-woven mesh (electrospun) implant	SD rats	Full-thickness excision (8.0 mm in diameter)	Complete wound closure by 14 d	[345]
bFGF	Chitosan, hydrogel + heparin/topical using	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	-	Significant angiogenesis and collateral circulation construction	[346]
bFGF	Gelatin hydrogel microspheres/topical injection	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	Full-thickness wounds (10 mm in diameter)	Accelerated diabetic skin wound healing and reduced scarring	[347]
bFGF	Acidic gelatin sheet/topical coverage	C57BL/KsJ-db/db mice	Full-thickness wound (1.5 cm \times 1.5 cm)	Promoted neoepithelialization, granulation, neovascularization, and wound healing	[348]

VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor; PDGF: Platelet-derived growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; FGF: Fibroblast growth factor; rhEGF: Recombinant human epidermal growth factor.

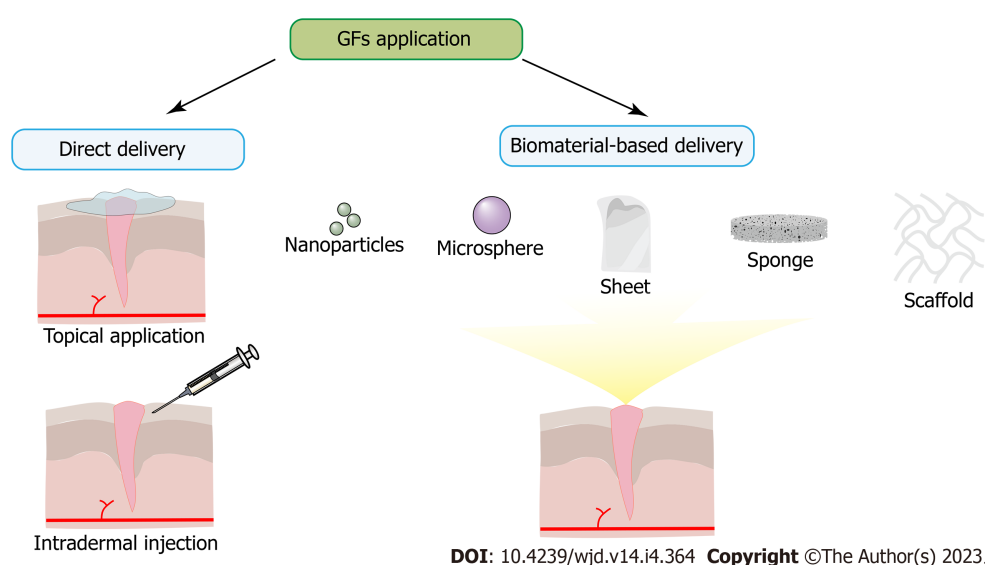


Figure 3 In the direct delivery system, growth factors are fully exposed to the wound environment and are easily proteolyzed. In the delivery system built by biomaterials, growth factors can persist in the wound to promote healing. GFs: Growth factors.

GF-loaded delivery therapy

This treatment method requires suitable biological materials that maintain the structure and biological activity of GFs, high encapsulation efficiency, and bioavailability, ensuring the complete release of GFs. Moreover, it is necessary to consider the biocompatibility, degradation, and absorption characteristics of the delivery system. Typically, synthetic polymers of the polyester family, such as polyglycolic acid, poly (lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA), polycaprolactone (PCL), or polymers of natural origins, such as collagen, gelatin, fibrin, hyaluronic acid, dextran, alginate, and chitosan, are common delivery materials [141] (Table 3)[318,342,346-348,350-370]. Attempts to improve the feasibility of clinical treatment through innovative delivery systems have attracted much attention (Table 4)[240,241,371-378].

Biodegradable polymer particles are site-specific controlled-release therapeutic systems. Chu *et al* [329] used a double-emulsion method to develop recombinant human EGF (rhEGF)-loaded PLGA nanoparticles and applied them to diabetic wound management. The results showed that the group treated with rhEGF PLGA nanoparticles had the best sustained GF release and the fastest wound healing compared with the group treated with rhEGF or PLGA alone[329]. Another study that used the intradermal route to deliver VEGF-loaded PLGA nanoparticles found that PLGA nanoparticles could sustain VEGF release for 30 d and showed a promoted healing response[340]. Further, another study pointed out that using PLGA-alginate microspheres as the GF carriers could significantly reduce the frequency of administration while maintaining the therapeutic effect[336].

Therapeutic polymer nanofiber mats are new carriers for GF-loaded dressings. This material has the characteristics of high porosity and large surface area to facilitate the penetration of GFs and the circulation of body fluids. rhPDGF-mixed PLGA nanofiber could release rhPDGF for 21 d and significantly induce the complete closure of diabetic wounds in rats with diabetes[345]. The PCL or PCL-polyethylene glycol (PEG) nanofibers implanted with rhEGF also exhibited effective promotion of wound re-epithelialization *via* increasing keratinocyte proliferation and phenotypic expression in diabetic wounds[325]. Hence, the production of carrier materials and loading of various GFs can be adjusted to achieve better wound healing ability[338]. Moreover, a research group experimented with a polymeric fiber mat different from electrospinning, namely a hydrolytically degradable four-layer structure consisting of polyacrylic acid, poly- β -amino acid ester, VEGF or PDGF, and heparan sulfate. In this structure, GFs could be stacked between each layer of materials to promote the complementary effects on wound healing[341].

The three-dimensional biomaterial is a typical structure used to make dressings with GFs. Both sponges and foams are used as standard wound dressings due to their high absorbency and permeability to moisture and oxygen[379]. Collagen is a new material that can be used to develop biomimetic scaffolds. The collagen base can act as a scaffold and bind other natural polymers, such as gelatin, hyaluronic acid, and chitosan, or other synthetic materials[322,36,332,334,380]. Collagen combined with other polymers to generate composite scaffolds can provide resistance to collagenase digestion and sustained slow release of GFs[326]. Further, a study showed that hydrophilic polyurethane (PU) formed by the copolymerization of polyethylene glycol can serve as a dressing material with good moisture conditions in the wound bed [water vapor transmission rate of approximately 3000 g/(m² × day)]. The PU dressing loaded with rhEGF sustained the release of rhEGF for 7 d and eventually promoted re-epithelialization and complete recovery of diabetic wounds in rats[343].

GF gene-targeted therapeutic delivery

Gene-mediated therapeutic delivery at diabetic wounds is primarily the local transfection of therapeutic transgenes or complementary DNA into cells to increase the transcription of GF messenger RNAs and maintain high concentrations of local GFs[381] (Table 5)[162,222,382-393].

Naked plasmids are the most basic vector form that can accommodate large amounts of genomic DNA. Early research on diabetic wound therapy focused on forcing pDNA into cells by intradermal injection, with higher pDNA infusions achievable with the aid of electroporation[162,382-384,394]. Furthermore, Yoon *et al*[385] used an ultrasonic microbubble agent (SonoVue) to assist in the ultrasonic puncture delivery of VEGF165-encoded microplastics in diabetic wounds of mice. Their results showed significantly increased cutaneous blood perfusion, accelerated wound closure, and complete recovery of normal wound tissue in mice undergoing ultrasonic portion[385].

Viral vector transfection has excellent freedom of improvement and can efficiently integrate GF genes into wound cells for expression, thus having significant advantages in delivering therapeutic genes. The most commonly used viral vectors during diabetic wound care include lentivirus (LV), adenovirus (AV), and adeno-associated virus (AAV). The transfection of the *VEGF*^{T65} gene with replication-defective AV has been reported to induce and accelerate early wound healing responses, including angiogenesis and granulation tissue formation, in mice with diabetes[387,386]. Furthermore, Galeano *et al*[390] found that viral transfection could release VEGF in diabetic wounds for 4 mo (even after wound healing). Furthermore, de Felipe proposed that a single viral vector capable of transfecting multiple genes could be used for treatment to address the issue that the transfection of a single GF or GF isoform gene only activated a single corresponding signaling pathway rather than promoting multiple stages of wound healing[395]. Jazwa *et al*[391] demonstrated the simultaneous delivery of *VEGF-A* and *FGF4* genes *via* bicistronic AAV, and the results showed that the therapeutic effect of multiple gene delivery was better

Table 3 Summary of evaluation of the effectiveness of some biomaterial delivery systems

Biomaterial	Forms	GFs	Effects	Ref.
Chitosan	Film	rhEGF	Sustained release <i>in vitro</i> for 24 h and extended therapeutic effect	[350]
Chitosan	Film	bFGF	The activity of bFGF remained stable for 21 d at 5 °C, and 86.2% of the activity was maintained at 25 °C	[318]
Chitosan	Hydrogel	EGF	97.3% release after 24 h in an <i>in vitro</i> study and sustained therapeutic effect	[351]
Chitosan	Hydrogel	bFGF	Significant angiogenesis and collateral circulation construction after addition of heparin in chitosan-bFGF system	[346]
CMC-Chitosan	Hydrogel (as the carrier of NaCMCh-rhEGF nanoparticle)	rhEGF	<i>In vitro</i> results indicated that the conjugated form exhibited greater stability to proteolysis and also retained EGF therapeutic activity	[342]
CNC-HA-chitosan	Nanoparticle + scaffold	GM-CSF	Proper mechanical properties, high swelling capacity (swelling ratio: 2622.1% ± 35.2%) and controlled release of GM-CSF up to 48 h	[352]
PVA-gelatin-chitosan	Hydrogel	bFGF	<i>In vitro</i> release-cumulative over 25 d, non-toxic to fibroblasts	[353]
Chitosan-nanodiamond	Hydrogel	VEGF	3-d sustained release, improved hydrogel mechanical properties and better biocompatibility	[354]
N-carboxymethyl chitosan-alginate	Hydrogel	EGF	12 h sustained release, non-toxic	[355]
CMCS-poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA)-alginate microspheres	Hydrogel	bFGF	48 h sustained release, high activity for two weeks	[356]
Hyaluronic acid-sulfated glycosaminoglycan-heparin	Hydrogel	bFGF	Remain highly active for 14 d	[357]
Heparin + PEGDA	Hydrogel	bFGF	Remain active over 35 d	[358]
Collagen-transglutaminase	Hydrogel	bFGF	Suitable mechanical properties and biocompatibility, sustained release up to 48 h	[359]
CBD	Collagen membrane	PDGF	Maintain a higher concentration and stronger biological activity of PDGF	[360]
Collagen	Scaffold	VEGF-A	Cross-linking slows the degradation rate of collagen scaffolds and improves the persistent activity of VEGF	[361]
Extracellular matrix protein (INSUREGRAF®)	Scaffold	EGF	8 h sustained release and active	[362]
GTA-collagen sponge	Sponge	rhEGF	Sustained release and activity for about 10 d, no cytotoxicity	[363]
TFA-denatured collagen	Sponge	bFGF	Sustained release for 18 d and remains largely active	[364]
PCL nanofibers (surface coating with collagen type I)	Hydrogel	G-CSF	Accumulative <i>in vitro</i> release for 15 d, no cytotoxicity	[365]
Gelatin	Microspheres	VEGF	Sustained release over 14 d	[347]
Gelatin	Sheet	bFGF	Sustained release for about 14 d	[348]
Gelatin	Sponge	EGF	Increased tensile strength	[366]
Gelatin	TEECM + Gelatin hydrogel microspheres	EGF	Cumulative <i>in vitro</i> release over 14 d	[367]
EUP polysaccharide, gelatin	Electrospun hydrogel sponge	PDGF-BB	<i>In vitro</i> release lasts 48 h	[368]
Fibrin	Hydrogel	VEGF	<i>In vitro</i> release lasts 7 d	[369]
Fibrin	Hydrogel	VEGF	Sustained release of VEGF for 15 d	[370]

CBD: Collagen-binding domain; CNC: Cellulose nanocrystal; CMC: Carboxymethyl cellulose; GTA: Glutaraldehyde; TFA: Trifluoroacetic acid; TEECM: Tissue-engineered extracellular matrix; CMCS: Carboxymethyl chitosan; PEGDA: Poly (ethylene glycol) diacrylate; PCL: Chitosan nanoparticles-Poly (ε-

caprolactone); NaCMCh-rhEGF: Sodium carboxymethyl chitosan-recombinant human epidermal growth factor conjugate; VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor; PDGF: Platelet-derived growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; FGF: Fibroblast growth factor; rhEGF: Recombinant human epidermal growth factor.

Table 4 Clinical trials of growth factors in diabetic wounds

Therapeutic agents	Delivery system and route	Response on wound closure	Ref.
EGF	Cream	Significantly improve wound healing rates and reduced the risk of amputation	[371]
bFGF	CGS/suture to surrounding skin	Significant wound improvement within 14 d	[372]
PDGF	Topical gel wound dressing	Reduce healing time by 30%	[373]
PDGF	Topical becaplermin gel	Improve wound healing by 35%	[240]
bFGF	0.0005% benzalkonium chloride in saline/spray on the wound	Significantly reduce wound area	[374]
rhVEGF	Methylcellulose gel/apply evenly to wounds and edges	Significantly increase incidence of complete wound healing	[375]
PDGF	Becaplermin gel/topical apply	The incidence of complete closure was significantly increased by 43%	[241]
EGF	Intralesional injection	Reduced wound area and increased re-epithelialization rate	[376]
EGF	Topical spray	Faster healing velocity and higher complete healing rate	[377]
EGF	Topical hydrogel	78% of wounds healed after 30 d	[378]

CGS: Collagen/gelatin sponge; rhVEGF: Recombinant human vascular endothelial growth factor; PDGF: Platelet-derived growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; FGF: Fibroblast growth factor.

Table 5 Gene delivery vectors applied for the growth factor treatment of diabetic wounds

Therapeutic agents	Delivery system and route	Response on wound closure	Ref.
Plasmid KGF-1	Intradermal injection	Enhanced wound closure at day 9	[382]
Plasmid TGF- β 1	Intradermal injection	Complete wound closure by 7 d	[162]
Plasmid TGF- β 1	Intradermal injection, Electroporation	Early induction of closure by day 5	[383]
Plasmid KGF-1	Intradermal injection, Electroporation	Enhanced wound closure at day 12	[384]
Minicircle-VEGF	Subcutaneous injection, Sonoporation	Complete wound closure by 12 d	[385]
Adenovirus encoding VEGF	Topical application to wound bed	Complete wound closure by 13 d	[386]
Adenovirus encoding VEGF	Intradermal injection	Complete wound closure by 27 d	[387]
Adenovirus encoding PDGF	Intralesional injection	Residual epithelial gap of 3 mm at day 7	[388]
Adenovirus encoding VEGF-C	Intradermal injection	Complete wound closure by 21 d	[222]
Lentivirus encoding PDGF	Injected into base and wound margin	No effect	[389]
Adeno-associated virus encoding VEGF	Intradermal injection	Complete re-epithelialization at 28 d	[390]
Bicistronic Adeno-associated virus encoding VEGF-A and FGF4	Intradermal injection	Complete wound closure by 17 d	[391]
RGDK-lipopeptide:rhPDGF-B lipoplex	Subcutaneous injection	Complete wound closure by 12 d	[392]
Minicircle VEGF	Subcutaneous injection	Complete wound closure by 12 d	[393]

VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor; PDGF: Platelet-derived growth factor; FGF: Fibroblast growth factor.

than that of single GF.

Substances such as cationic polymers and lipids are emerging chemical carriers due to their ability to form electrostatic complexes with anionic biomolecules such as pDNA[396]. The advantage of this type of chemical carrier is that it can avoid the use of potentially immunogenic viruses, improve the biosta-

bility of pDNA, and facilitate cellular uptake[397]. For example, a single subcutaneous injection of rhPDGF-B loaded with complexing integrin receptor ligand-conjugated lipopeptide or a complex consisting of arginine-grafted dendrimers loaded with minicyclic VEGF can accelerate the induction of complete wound closure in mice with diabetes[392,393].

Gene-eluting biomaterial scaffolds are similar to GF-loaded scaffolds and focus on improving the stability of the vector. Lee *et al*[280] developed a thermosensitive hydrogel synthesized from PEG, PLGA, and PEG that enabled the controlled release of encapsulated plasmids (containing the *TGF-β1* gene) and the acquisition of accelerated re-epithelialization. The customizable properties of hydrogels bridge the gap between conventional gel-based systems and solid scaffolds, and the porosity of hydrogels provides a large area for released polymers to come into contact with infiltrating cells. However, the contribution of angiogenesis in transfected cells to wound closure is insignificant as the release of polymers is thought to be extremely slow[339]. Nevertheless, this characteristic based on the electrostatic interaction of positively charged polymers in an anionic hyaluronic acid hydrogel matrix provides the basis for developing more controllable polymer delivery systems. For instance, Yang *et al* [333] showed in 2012 that the molecular weight and content of PEG in the copolymer matrix could be changed to regulate the release of polymers (plasmid bFGF/polyethyleneimine) from the core of core-sheath emulsion electrospun fibers. However, such an approach appears to be flawed in diabetic wounds. The problem of low cell availability at the wound edge and reduced cell migration may increase the difficulty of regulating transfection efficiency *in vivo* with this system[398-400].

CONCLUSION

Diabetic wounds are encompassed by various factors (*e.g.*, vascular system abnormalities, neuropathy, and inflammatory process stagnation) induced by the underlying disease and various concomitant diseases that impede normal wound healing. Furthermore, GFs that govern numerous healing processes are rarely detected in diabetic wounds compared with normal healing. The effects of GFs are particularly specific and have been shown to be beneficial in addressing the discussed diabetic wound features. As a result, GFs can be regarded as a direct and effective agent in managing and treating diabetic wounds. Nonetheless, it is disheartening that only a handful of products have entered clinical trials thus far[141]. We discussed the peculiarity of diabetic wounds and provided a theoretical basis and potential of GFs in treating diabetic wounds and optimizing therapeutic techniques. Combining GF with other therapies such as stem cell transplant, cytokine therapy, and anti-inflammatory drugs can be a promising treatment for diabetic wounds, albeit extensive studies are warranted to further examine the efficacy of this combination treatment strategy.

FOOTNOTES

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Management of diabetes: Current concepts

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Abstract

The global prevalence of obesity is increasing rapidly with an exponential rise in incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in recent years. 'Diabetes', the term coined to show the strong interlink between obesity and diabetes, is the direct consequence of the obesity pandemic, and poses significant challenges in the management of the disease. Without addressing the clinical and mechanistic complications of obesity such as metabolic-associated fatty liver disease and obstructive sleep apnoea, a rational management algorithm for diabetes cannot be developed. Several classes of anti-diabetic medications including insulins, sulphonylureas, thiazolidinediones and meglitinides are associated with the risk of weight gain and may potentially worsen diabetes. Therefore, appropriate selection of antidiabetic drug regimen is crucial in the medical management of diabetes. The role of non-pharmacological measures such as dietary adjustments, exercise interventions and bariatric procedures should also be emphasised. Unfortunately, the importance of appropriate and optimal management of diabetes is often overlooked by medical professionals when achieving adequate glycemic control which results in inappropriate management of the disease and its complications. This review provides a narrative clinical update on the evidence behind the management of diabetes.

Key Words: Obesity; Diabetes; Metabolic-associated fatty liver disease; Antidiabetic medications; Glycemic control; Metabolic surgery

Core Tip: The worldwide prevalence of diabetes is increasing exponentially because of the global obesity pandemic in the past few decades. This is also expected to increase the prevalence of other associated chronic disorders such as hypertension, dyslipidemia, metabolic-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD), obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA), and cardiovascular disease. Rational management of diabetes involves prompt control of diabetes while also optimally addressing other comorbidities such as obesity, hypertension, dyslipidemia, MAFLD, OSA and cardiovascular risk. Appropriate selection of the antidiabetic therapeutic agents and early planning of metabolic surgery when indicated are crucial to scientifically approach patients with diabetes. This evidence-based review addresses the key issues regarding management of diabetes.

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INTRODUCTION

Obesity has become a global pandemic over the past three decades because of the increase in prevalence of adverse lifestyle behaviours such as over-consumption of processed food and physical inactivity in the latter half of twentieth century. Consequently, a tsunami of more than fifty obesity-related problems has emerged which threatens human health and wellbeing on a global level. 800 million people around the world at present live with obesity, with an estimated health expenditure of one trillion United States dollars budgeted for managing obesity-related conditions in the year 2025[1]. There is also an expected increase in childhood obesity to 250 million by the year 2030. Unless there is a massive global action plan from health agencies and administrators to curtail the obesity pandemic, this is likely to continue to significantly impact individuals and healthcare systems.

The worst metabolic consequence of obesity is type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), which substantially increases cardiovascular disease-related morbidity and mortality. Other obesity associated comorbidities such as dyslipidemia, hypertension, metabolic-associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD), obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA), heart failure, ischaemic heart disease, cancers and osteoarthritis further increase the morbidity, mortality, and health-related quality of life, especially when these patients additionally have T2DM. The term “diabetes” was coined by Sims *et al*[2] to describe the very strong pathophysiological link between diabetes and excess body weight in 1970s. Visceral adiposity, which leads to insulin resistance, is the putative mechanism in the development of diabetes. Therefore, an ideal treatment strategy for the disease should also include optimal management of obesity[3-5]. The real-world approach to the management of diabetes often ignores these crucial issues by simply focusing on glycaemic control. This manuscript provides an up-to-date overview of diabetes, in terms of pathophysiology and management. Particularly, we have reviewed and summarised newly published data from clinical trials that have shown the significant impact of glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and sodium glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT-2) inhibitors on diabetes. Therefore, we elaborate the conceptual, pathobiological, mechanistic, and therapeutic aspects of diabetes in this comprehensive review.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF DIABESITY

The link between obesity and diabetes has been described in numerous studies to date. The key pathophysiological process is thought to be the development of insulin resistance, which, in turn, is associated with significant cardiovascular and metabolic morbidities, such as the development of T2DM [6]. Insulin resistance is described as inefficient glucose metabolism despite adequate insulin secretion [7]. In the presence of insulin resistance, a variety of insulin-sensitive tissues including the liver, skeletal muscle, as well as adipose tissue exhibit altered biochemical and cellular pathways[8].

There is a plethora of proposed pathophysiological processes for the development of diabetes in obesity. Perhaps the most described pathophysiological theory is that of chronic inflammation, with adipocytes shown to secrete a variety of pro-inflammatory substances including interleukin-6, tumor necrosis factor alpha and inflammatory cytokines, which, in turn, result in local and systemic inflammatory processes[9]. The resulting oxidative stress in adipocytes has been associated with lower adiponectin secretion, a protein that has been linked to improved glucose regulation and reduced

incidence of metabolic syndrome[10].

Another proposed mechanism is that of excess circulating lipid substrates, such as fatty acids, due to excessive consumption through a high fat diet, which also results in chronic inflammation and oxidative stress[11,12]. A long-term high fat diet may result in lipid deposition in tissues that would not normally be targeted by insulin. Triglyceride accumulation in the liver and skeletal muscle has also been shown to promote insulin resistance through impaired insulin signaling[13]. More recent literature describes the potential association between mitochondrial dysfunction, particularly in skeletal muscle, and diabetes. Mitochondrial dysfunction may be a consequence of pro-inflammatory stress and oxidation, affecting the organelle function leading to insulin resistance, at least in skeletal muscle tissues[14]. Further research is required to characterise the interplay between energy metabolism and the development of diabetes at mitochondrial level.

Recent publications highlight the impact of gut bacteria on obesity and insulin resistance. The gut microbiome has been shown to have a significant impact on nutrient metabolism. Individuals with reduced heterogeneity in their gut microbiome have been found to be at a greater risk of obesity and insulin resistance[15]. Linking to excess fat consumption, research suggests that excess lipid intake may result in bacterial production of short chain fatty acids, which in turn affect energy balance and metabolism[16,17] (Figure 1).

MAJOR COMORBIDITIES TO BE ADDRESSED IN MANAGING DIABESITY

MAFLD

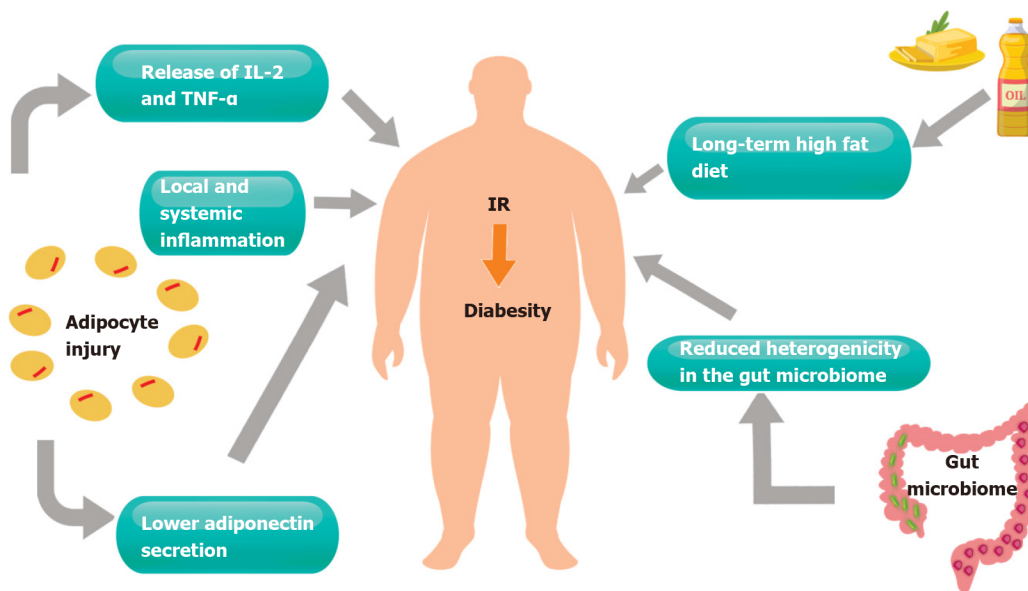
Metabolic dysfunction, and the inflammatory processes in obesity and T2DM, have been closely associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. This has prompted the use of the new term, MAFLD, given the significant link between fatty liver disease and insulin resistance[18,19]. A variety of pathophysiological processes, as described in the previous section, result in excess adipose tissue accumulation in the liver. As a result, hepatic cellular damage, oxidative stress, and insulin resistance develop in such cases. A study investigating the presence of fatty liver disease *vs* simple hepatic steatosis in patients with T2DM or metabolic syndrome, revealed that almost all diabetic patients showed evidence of steatohepatitis on liver biopsy, without necessarily showing derangement in their liver function (98.6% of patients with T2DM *vs* 58.5% of patients with metabolic syndrome, $P < 0.0001$). This suggests that MAFLD may be one of the early end-organ complications of T2DM and metabolic syndrome, with early occult onset and progression without any clinical signs[20]. Hence early identification and management may have a significant impact on mortality and morbidity. MAFLD has also been directly associated with increased cardiovascular morbidity and both micro- and macrovascular complications in diabetic patients, further solidifying the need for early identification and management [21].

OSA and sleep disturbances

OSA involves partial or complete obstruction of the airway during sleep, which results in transient hypoxaemia, sleep restriction and reduction in intrathoracic pressures[22]. These have been linked to the activation of the hypothalamic pituitary adrenal axis resulting in excess stress hormone release and increased cardiovascular morbidity. OSA and hypoxia have also been linked to alterations in adipokine levels as well as oxidative stress. All, in turn, lead to the accumulation of excess adipose tissue and the development insulin resistance[23]. The reverse has also been reported, *i.e.*, OSA could be aggravated by T2DM and obesity[23,24]. One could argue that a patient with both conditions would be at risk of significant morbidity, with diabetes that would be challenging to control without optimising their sleep apnoea. Sleep apnoea and T2DM have both been associated with increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality, hence a combination of the two may prove more detrimental[25]. Evidence suggests that the prolonged use of continuous positive airway pressure ventilation (CPAP), other than improving sleep quality and reducing hypoxaemia, may also improve glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity in obese individuals[26-28]. A study of 40 T2DM patients treated with CPAP for 3 mo, assessed the effect of CPAP therapy on insulin resistance using hyperinsulinaemic euglycaemic clamp. Results revealed significant improvement in insulin sensitivity, as early as 2 d after commencing treatment with CPAP (5.75 ± 4.20 *vs* 6.79 ± 4.91 micromol/kg/min at 2 d; $P = 0.003$). The improvement persisted after 3 mo of CPAP therapy[28]. Hence, early identification and treatment of OSA in diabetes patients with CPAP may help to reduce cardiovascular complications and improve glycaemic control.

Dyslipidemia and cardiovascular risk

It has been proposed that diabetes significantly contributes to endothelial damage and heart failure, which are both exacerbated by dyslipidaemia. Through the mechanism of altered mitochondrial energy expenditure as previously described, diabetes may have a direct effect on mitochondrial function in cardiac muscle. This may result in inefficient energy production and expenditure, causing cardiac stress [29]. Additionally, it has been reported that patients with diabetes exhibit cardiac oxidative stress and poor utilisation of energy substrates, in turn causing dysfunction in cardiac muscle contraction[29,30].



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Figure 1 Pathophysiology of diabetes as evidenced by recent literature. IL-2: Interleukin-2; TNF- α : Tumor necrosis alpha; IR: Insulin resistance.

Increased consumption of fats, which results in increased circulatory fatty acids, may also contribute to cardiac steatosis which will also impair cardiac function. Studies using cardiac magnetic resonance (MR) spectroscopy have demonstrated cardiac steatosis, both in patients with diabetes, as well as in those with obesity[31]. Hence diabetes may have a direct link to structural alterations and stress of cardiac muscle, leading to heart failure. This is further supported by the Framingham study, which also demonstrated that an elevated glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c) level was associated with more severe heart failure[32].

Hypertension and coronary artery disease

The association between diabetes, obesity and macrovascular disease has been well established through the years[33,34]. Burke *et al*[34] demonstrated that obese individuals without metabolic complications had a significantly higher coronary calcium score when compared to non-obese patients (17% increase in risk of higher coronary artery calcium scores). This suggests that obesity alone, even without the presence of diabetes, would result in increased coronary artery disease risk. Kronmal *et al*[35] investigated the association between coronary artery calcium progression and a multitude of risk factors which included T2DM in 5756 individuals. Results demonstrated that T2DM, particularly of longer duration, was associated with progression of coronary artery calcium. This suggests that patients with diabetes are at significantly increased risk of myocardial events[35]. Therefore, in the diabetes epidemic, it would be of paramount importance that the patient's cardiovascular risk is stratified and addressed early on, in order to prevent significant cardiovascular events, perhaps with coronary artery calcium assessment. Recent advances in cardiac imaging modalities, including cardiac MR and computed tomography coronary angiography, may allow for early identification and management of coronary artery disease in diabetes patients as shown in recent trials[29,36].

Diabetes-related chronic kidney disease

It has been suggested that the development of diabetes-related kidney disease may be mediated through insulin resistance. Insulin is essential for normal glomerular function and podocyte biology, and dysfunctional insulin signaling has been shown to dysregulate vascular endothelial growth factor A signaling pathway and affects glucose transport[37]. Studies demonstrated podocyte damage, glomerulosclerosis, and albuminuria occur in patients with insulin resistance[38]. In more recent years, studies have also suggested that proximal tubule cells have a role in nutrient regulation in the kidney. Excessive amounts of glucose, fatty acids, and amino acids present in the proximal tubule due to obesity or diabetes, will cause dysregulation in the relevant pathways normally protecting kidney, and consequently result in tubular injury, fibrosis, and inflammation[37-39]. Therefore, medications such as SGLT-2 inhibitors may help to prevent the presence of excessive nutrients in proximal tubule cells, due to induction of glycosuria, and therefore help to minimise tubular damage through this mechanism[40].

MANAGEMENT OF DIABESITY - LIFESTYLE MEASURES

Dietary modifications

As mentioned earlier, T2DM and obesity are inter-linked and share common pathophysiological mechanisms of disease origin, especially adverse lifestyle behaviours. Hence, the first step in the management of diabetes, prior to medical intervention would be to attempt weight loss *via* lifestyle modifications such as changes in diet and exercise. Multiple studies have shown that weight loss can induce remission of T2DM. It has been suggested that weight loss of 15 kg can induce remission of T2DM in around 70% of individuals[41,42]. Achieving weight loss through dietary restriction can be difficult and challenging, and ultimately, it aims to reverse the mechanisms induced by nutrient overconsumption. Therefore, setting realistic stepwise targets may aid patients in achieving sustained weight loss. Smaller degrees of weight loss such as 5 kg have been shown to decrease fasting blood glucose and improve the insulin sensing ability of adipose, skeletal muscle and liver tissues. Stepwise incremental weight loss has been shown to result in a gradual improvement in HbA1c[43].

Larger randomised controlled trials have been conducted in this field, such as the look-AHEAD trial, which demonstrated that remission of diabetes correlated with the degree of weight loss and was inversely correlated with the duration of T2DM[44]. A similar primary care study in the United Kingdom, DiRECT, randomised patients in a control group (standard diabetes care) or a structured weight management program. The weight management program group showed greater weight loss [10 kg *vs* 1 kg, adjusted difference -8.8 kg, 95% confidence interval (CI): -10.3 to -7.3; $P < 0.0001$], greater incidence of diabetes remission (46% *vs* 4%, odds ratio = 19.7, 95%CI: 7.8 to 49.8; $P < 0.0001$), with the degree of weight loss correlating to the improvement in diabetes management[45]. However, large scale trials mainly involved short-term high intensity weight loss programmes. We could argue that a long-term, permanent change in diet would be desired to achieve sustainable benefits in our patient cohort. Ajala *et al*[40] has reviewed the beneficial effects of possible dietary modifications in overweight patients with diabetes. Their study demonstrated that a lower carbohydrate, lower glycaemic index, Mediterranean style diet and high protein diet led to significant improvement in glycaemic control [HbA1c change of -0.12% ($P = 0.04$), -0.14% ($P = 0.008$), -0.47% ($P < 0.00001$), and -0.28% ($P < 0.00001$), respectively][46]. Mediterranean and high protein diets have also been shown to reduce cardiovascular risk in diabetes patients and should be considered[46,47]. More recent research (Ozsoy *et al*[48], 2022) investigated the possibility of modulating gut microbiota through diet, hence altering neurotransmitter pathways of satiety and insulin sensitivity. It was suggested that perhaps the Mediterranean diet would be successful in achieving a varied balance in the gut microbiome.

Physical activity

Regular physical activity, regardless of the associated weight loss, has been shown to improve HbA1c and insulin sensitivity. Exercise comes with a variety of benefits including reduction in visceral adipose tissue, improvement in lipids and blood pressure and hence a reduction in the cardiometabolic risk[49, 50]. Effects seem to be proportional to energy expenditure, *i.e.*, total calories burnt, rather than the type of exercise itself[50,51]. Therefore, exercise programmes should be personalised and tailored to patient preference and co-morbidities. Despite the improvement in biochemical parameters, exercise alone does not seem to lead to the remission of diabetes[49-52], therefore a combined diet and exercise programme is recommended in order to achieve the best possible outcome. Results from the Malmö study further support this, where patients on a combined diet and exercise modification programme demonstrated long-term sustainable benefits, with half the T2DM patients in remission at 5 years. Improvement in glycaemic control was proportional to the degree of weight loss ($r = 0.19$, $P < 0.02$) and also to change in fitness levels ($r = 0.22$, $P < 0.02$)[53].

DRUG THERAPY

Metformin

Metformin is one of the first-line medications for the management of T2DM and is known for its good safety profile and low cost. Metformin works by inhibiting hepatic gluconeogenesis, improving insulin sensitivity in skeletal muscle and reduction of appetite, although its mechanism of action is not yet fully understood[54,55]. It is one of the antidiabetic medications recommended globally as first-line therapy for T2DM[56]. Previous studies have demonstrated significant weight loss benefits, ranging between 0.6 to 2.9 kg[5]. Wu *et al*[57] has proposed that, in addition to the known mechanisms of action of metformin, this medication may also positively affect the composition of the gut microbiome and may potentially lead to improved glucose metabolism in the gut, resulting in weight loss. Day *et al*[58] has suggested that metformin also increases the expression of growth differentiating factor 15 (GDF-15), which results in appetite suppression and weight loss. However, more *in vivo* studies are required to further investigate this association. Multiple health benefits have been demonstrated with metformin use, which include reversibility of hepatic steatosis and a lipid lowering effect. It has been suggested

that these are indirect effects of weight loss associated with metformin, rather than a direct effect on hepatic lipid metabolism and storage[59]. A recent review by Lv *et al*[60] looking into the clinical benefits of metformin, demonstrated significant benefits in a variety of health issues including chronic kidney disease, cardiovascular disease and several cancers by preventing growth and metastasis of tumor cells and the effect on the gut microbiome[60-62].

Insulin

Insulin therapy is recommended in patients with significantly elevated HbA1c, where the aim is rapid and effective optimisation of glycaemic control. This may be the case in patients with significant diabetic complications or patients requiring urgent surgical procedures[5]. However, insulin therapy has been associated with significant weight gain, especially when compared to other hypoglycaemic agents. Weight gain ranging between 1.56-5.75 kg has been reported with insulin use, which may make clinicians reluctant to prescribe it in overweight/obese diabetic patients[63]. It has been previously demonstrated that the dose as well as the type of insulin may influence the degree of weight gain in diabetic patients. Greater doses of insulin have been associated with greater weight gain[64]. Basal insulin has been shown to have a lesser effect on weight than pre-mixed insulin[65]. Freemantle *et al*[66] suggested that the use of glargine insulin resulted in significantly less weight change when compared to pre-mixed insulin. Results when using glargine were comparable with detemir, degludec, and neutral protamine Hagedorn insulin. Therefore, careful consideration, with joint decision making between patients and specialists, is recommended when prescribing insulin in patients with diabetes, to minimise the risk of weight gain while achieving the benefits of rapid optimisation of glycaemic control.

Sulphonylureas

Sulphonylureas are generally not recommended in patients with obesity, due to significant risk of hypoglycaemia, weight gain, reduced efficacy, and the need for careful dose titration in patients with renal disease[67]. Hypoglycaemia risk has been reported to vary between sulphonylurea agents, with gliclazide having the lowest reported incidence among this class of medications[68]. Usually prescribed in combination with other agents, sulphonylureas have been reported to result in weight gain of approximately 2.01-2.3 kg[63,69]. Therefore, sulphonylureas appear to pose significant risk of hypoglycaemia, as well as weight gain, and poorer outcomes in patients with diabetes. Furthermore, recent large randomised controlled trials did not show any significant change in cardiovascular risk, in patients treated with sulphonylureas *vs* other oral antihyperglycaemic agents such as pioglitazone or linagliptin [70-72].

Thiazolidinediones

Thiazolidinediones are the only oral antihyperglycaemic agents that specifically target and improve the phenomenon of insulin resistance. Through the activation of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma system, they increase glucose utilisation, decrease hepatic steatosis, and decrease circulating free fatty acids[73]. These oral agents, despite having a low risk of hypoglycaemia, and relatively favourable efficacy in HbA1c reduction, have been also associated with significant weight gain between 2.3-4.25 kg[63]. Weight gain in patients on this class of medication is not entirely attributed to the deposition of adipose tissue, as patients may experience fluid retention as a side effect of thiazolidinedione use, which also leads to apparent weight gain[74]. A recent review (Lebovitz *et al* [73]) summarised the different trials looking into the effects of pioglitazone and rosiglitazone on cardiovascular risk. It has been suggested that both medications have been superior to sulphonylureas, with pioglitazone showing a more favourable efficacy and safety profile.

Hesitation to prescribe these agents has also risen from previously reported risk of bladder malignancy, osteoporosis, and heart failure. More recent literature (Lewis *et al*[75]) suggests that these risks may not be as grave as previously thought. Recent retrospective follow-up studies of patients diagnosed with bladder cancer, did not find a significant association between pioglitazone use and the development of bladder malignancy[75,76]. However, the literature relating to thiazolidinedione use and fracture risk confirms increased risk of fractures in female patients, regardless of menopausal status. The TOSCA-IT study did not find a significantly increased risk of fractures when comparing patients on pioglitazone *vs* sulphonylurea therapy[70]. Although it has been proven that thiazolidinediones increase the incidence of heart failure, there is no causal link to progression, severity, or death from heart failure in such patients[73]. Therefore, overall data may suggest superiority of this class of medication over sulphonylureas in patients diabetes especially when they have co-existing MAFLD.

Dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors

Dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) agents are considered as “weight neutral” agents, with minimal effect on overall body weight[63]. This class of medications works by inhibiting the breakdown of GLP-1 and glucose dependent insulinotropic peptide (GIP) in the gut, maximising the duration of action of these incretin hormones[5]. They have been reported to positively impact HbA1c control, with about an overall 0.75% reduction when prescribed alongside other antihyperglycaemics[77]. This class of medications is not generally used as monotherapy, rather than in combination with other oral

antihyperglycaemic agents. The addition of DPP-4 inhibitors to metformin therapy, showed favourable weight outcomes when compared to the addition of sulfonylureas or thiazolidinedione in recent trials [78]. However, caution needs to be exercised when prescribing this class of medications to patients with cardiovascular disease, as the use of DPP-4 inhibitors has been shown to increase the incidence of hospitalisation from heart failure. Saxagliptin, vildagliptin and alogliptin have all been associated with an increased incidence of hospitalisation for heart failure in diabetic patients [79]. It is thought that clinical deterioration is evident shortly after treatment is initiated, and this requires careful titration and clinical monitoring.

GLP-1 receptor agonists

GLP-1 receptor agonists work by the stimulation of insulin secretion and suppression of glucagon production. Furthermore, they modulate receptors in the gut to delay gastric emptying, as well as neurons involved in appetite regulation. These mechanisms lead to reduced appetite and improved feeling of satiety, hence contributing to weight loss [63]. Current preparations include subcutaneous injections and oral tablets. Injections vary in frequency, from daily (exenatide, lixisenatide, and liraglutide) to once weekly (exenatide-extended release, dulaglutide, albiglutide, and semaglutide). A recently approved oral form of semaglutide is also licensed for use, which has shown comparable effects to the subcutaneous semaglutide preparation [80].

There have been multiple research trials with significant data, surrounding the use of GLP-1 inhibitors in diabetes, as well as obesity alone, in the recent years, as summarised in Table 1. Data has shown an association with significant weight loss, ranging between 1.14-6.9 kg, and an improvement in HbA1c between 1%-2% [63]. High dose liraglutide has been approved for use in the management of obesity. Semaglutide, has also recently been shown to be beneficial in the management obese non-diabetic patients. A recent study (Wilding *et al* [81]) showed that the use of 2.4 mg semaglutide alongside lifestyle intervention, resulted in sustainable weight loss after 68 wk (-14.9% for semaglutide *vs* -2.4% for placebo). However, a significant percentage of patients in the semaglutide group had to discontinue therapy due to side effects (4.5% for semaglutide *vs* 0.8% for placebo). Research has also demonstrated that the improvement in glycaemic control achieved by GLP-1 agonists was comparable to that of insulin [82]. Therefore, GLP-1 agonists should be the first-line injectable therapy for consideration in diabetes patients, with remarkable benefits on body weight while also resulting in improved glycaemic control.

Additionally, GLP-1 agonists have been shown to have significant systemic benefits, including reduction in cardiovascular risk in high-risk patients [83], and reduction in urinary albumin excretion. The 2019 REWIND trial investigated the effect of dulaglutide on renal outcomes, and reported improved morbidity, particularly a reduction in the incidence of new macroalbuminuria, and slower renal function decline [84]. Another trial conducted by Mann *et al* [85], comparing liraglutide with placebo, showed reduced rates of development of renal disease (hazard ratio = 0.78; 95% CI: 0.67 to 0.92; $P = 0.003$), particularly macroalbuminuria (hazard ratio = 0.74; 95% CI: 0.60 to 0.91; $P = 0.004$).

Figure 2 shows the mechanisms of actions of GLP-1 agonists in improving diabetes. A concern with the use of GLP-1 agonists is the high rates of discontinuation by patients, often due to pronounced gastrointestinal side effects of nausea, diarrhoea or vomiting which are commonly reported. Mostly, these are self-limiting presentations that resolve with time [80]. Furthermore, the use of GLP-1 agonists was previously thought to be associated with pancreatitis, and the development of certain types of cancer, such as pancreatic and thyroid cancer [86]. However, a meta-analysis by Abd El Aziz *et al* [87] argues that there is no significant risk of developing pancreatitis or malignancy secondary to GLP-1 agonist therapy. It is also thought that GLP-1 agonists are expected to cause a modest rise in lipase and amylase, which occasionally led to the misdiagnosis of pancreatitis in the previously reported data.

SGLT-2 inhibitors

Use of SGLT-2 inhibitors have been an important area of research in the last few years in many clinical trials, with great developments and changes in diabetes, cardiovascular and renal guidelines recently (Table 2). Their main mechanism of action is the reduction of glucose reabsorption in the renal tubules, resulting in increased glucose excretion in the urine [88]. They have been associated with a reduction in HbA1c of about 0.69% and a weight loss between 0.9-2.5 kg [63]. Weight loss is thought to occur due to caloric deficit from impaired glucose reabsorption from the kidney. Studies have shown improvement in waist circumference, central obesity, and visceral adiposity, all of which are features of diabetes as well as metabolic syndrome [89].

There has been extensive research into the role of SGLT-2 inhibitors in improving diabetes, cardiovascular and renal morbidity. A recent meta-analysis by Giugliano *et al* [90] revealed a reduction in hospitalisation or death from heart failure by 23%, with significantly reduced risk in every trial included. Results were comparable in patients with and without diabetes, indicating that SGLT-2 inhibitors have significant cardiovascular benefits in both groups of patients. Therefore, significant cardiovascular risk may be observed in diabetes patients.

Another meta-analysis of 8 trials, demonstrated the benefits on renal mortality and morbidity through the use of SGLT-2 inhibitors, with an overall reduced risk by 35% [91]. Data was strongest for canagliflozin, with significantly positive results in every trial [90,91]. The EMPEROR-R trial further

Table 1 The benefits of different glucagon-like peptide-1 agonist molecules in the management of diabetes based on recent landmark clinical trials[103]

Drug molecule	Mean weight reduction in kg (95%CI)	Mean % HbA1c reduction (95%CI)	Follow-up period (yr)
Exenatide (weekly)	-1.27 (-1.4 to -1.13)	-0.53 (-0.57 to -0.50)	3.2
Liraglutide	-2.3 (-2.5 to -2.0)	-0.40 (-0.45 to -0.34)	3.8
Lixisenatide	-0.7 (-0.9 to -0.5)	-0.27 (-0.31 to -0.22)	2.1
Albiglutide	-0.83 (-1.06 to -0.60)	-0.52 (-0.58 to -0.45)	1.5
Dulaglutide	-1.46 (-1.67 to -1.25)	-0.61 (-0.65 to -0.58)	5.4
Semaglutide	-2.87 (-3.47 to -2.28) for 0.5 mg	-0.66 (-0.80 to -0.52) for 0.5 mg	2.0
	-4.5 (-4.94 to -3.75) for 1 mg	-1.05 (-1.19 to -0.91) for 1 mg	

HbA1C: Haemoglobin; CI: Confidence interval.

Table 2 The beneficial effects of different sodium glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitors in the management of diabetes based on recent landmark clinical trials[104-108]

Ref.	Drug molecule	Mean weight reduction in kg (SE/95%CI)	Mean % haemoglobin reduction (95%CI)	Follow-up
Neal <i>et al</i> [104], 2017 (CANVAS)	Canagliflozin	-1.60 (-1.70 to -1.51)	-0.58 (-0.61 to -0.56)	3.5 yr
Wiviott <i>et al</i> [105], 2019 (DECLARE)	Dapagliflozin	-1.80 (-2.00 to -1.70)	-0.42 (-0.45 to -0.40)	4.2 yr
Häring <i>et al</i> [106], 2014 (EMPA-REG)	Empagliflozin	-1.63 (-2.11 to -1.5) for 10 mg	-0.57 (-0.70 to -0.43) for 10 mg	24 wk
		-2.01 (-2.49 to -1.53) for 25 mg	-0.64 (-0.77 to -0.50) for 25 mg	
Rosenstock <i>et al</i> [107], 2018 (VERTIS-MET)	Ertugliflozin	-3.00 (-3.30 to -2.70) for 5 mg	-0.70 (-0.90 to -0.50) for 5 mg	24 wk
		-2.90 (-3.20 to -2.60) for 15 mg	-0.90 (-1.00 to -0.70) for 15 mg	
Dagogo-Jack <i>et al</i> [108], 2018 (VERTIS-SITA)	Ertugliflozin	-2.0 (-2.7 to -1.4) for 5 mg	-0.70 (-0.90 to -0.50) for 5 mg	26 wk
		-1.7 (-2.4 to -1.1) for 10 mg	-0.80 (-0.90 to -0.60) for 10 mg	

HbA1C: Haemoglobin; CI: Confidence interval.

demonstrated that empagliflozin improved renal outcomes in patients with reduced ejection fraction or other types of heart failure[92].

The main risks associated with the use of SGLT-2 inhibitors include increased incidence of urinary tract infections and genital thrush, due to glycosuria, as well as euglycaemic ketoacidosis. However, significant benefits have been reported in obesity, renal and cardiovascular health, making this class of medication one of the most important in the management of diabetes and obesity, whether they are in co-existence or not. Patient counselling will help to identify and manage side effects promptly and efficiently (Figure 3).

Amylin analogues

Amylin is a pancreatic hormone secreted in response to the presence of nutrients in the gut. It modulates calcitonin and amylin receptors, and thereby regulates energy utilisation as well as body weight. This is achieved through the enhancement of satiety and delay in gastric emptying. Treatment with amylin analogues is not currently licensed in England but licensed and used abroad. It involves mealtime injections, similar to insulin[93]. Pramlintide, a type of amylin analogue has been associated with a reduction in HbA1c and also a weight loss of 1.5-2.5 kg[63]. Several studies have shown a significant reduction in body weight, with or without the presence of diabetes. However, most of these trials are pre-clinical and further research is needed to further evaluate the beneficial effects and safety profile of amylin analogues in day-to-day clinical practice[93].

Other anti-obesity drugs

In recent years, diabetic medications have been used more and more in the management of obesity. As discussed above, metformin, GLP-1 analogues and SGLT-2 inhibitors show significant weight loss effects. Amylin analogues, although not globally licensed, also demonstrate a beneficial weight loss

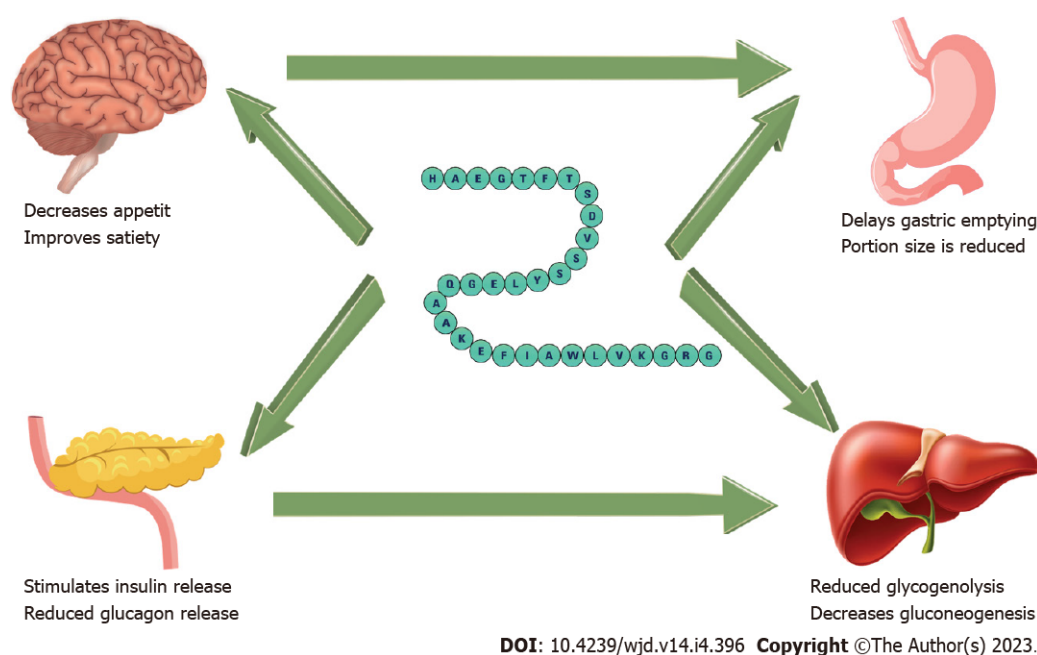


Figure 2 The mechanisms of actions of glucagon-like insulinotropic peptide-1 agonists in improving diabetes.

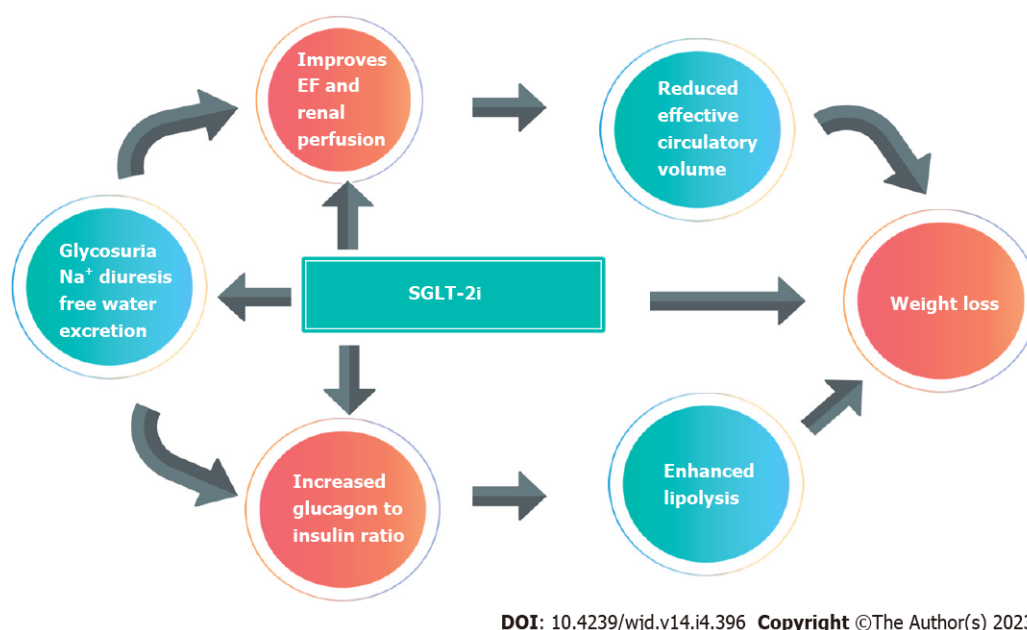


Figure 3 Mechanisms of actions of sodium glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitors in improving diabetes and their potential effects on organ protection such as kidney and heart. EF: Ejection fraction; SGLT-2i: Sodium glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitor.

effect. The recent literature mentions the discovery of GLP/GIP/glucagon receptor poly-agonists, with affinity to more than one receptor[94]. While most medications in this category are still in the experimental phase, a GLP1/GIP poly-agonist, Tirzepatide, demonstrated to have significant effects on weight loss in a recent phase 3 trial. This is a medication administered *via* weekly subcutaneous injection. This medication has recently been licensed for use in obese patients with T2DM[95].

Current developments in anti-obesity drugs seem to target leptin, ghrelin, GDF-15 pathways. Leptin sensitizers show promising results in patients with genetic obesity, although there is no significant weight reduction in obese patients without genetic cause, such as most diabetes patients[94]. Combination therapy with amylin analogues (pramlintide) has shown greater effects in weight reduction in obese rats (12.7%, $P < 0.01$)[96]. Hence the role of leptin sensitizers in managing diabetes is currently very limited and requires further investigation. Melanocortin 4 receptors (MC4R), stimulated by leptin to regulate energy expenditure, are other potential targets of novel anti-obesity medications. MC4R agonists, particularly setmelanotide, were licensed in the treatment of genetic obesity, but again,

their effect on polygenic obesity is not clear at this stage[94]. Treatments involving ghrelin modulation, a hormone that stimulates appetite, adipose tissue deposition and insulin secretion, are still under trials with no significant benefits demonstrated so far[94]. GDF-15 has been linked to metabolic disease, cardiovascular disease, and cancer. As mentioned earlier, metformin modulation of GDF-15 levels is a proposed mechanism of weight loss[58]. Exogenous administration of GDF15 has been shown to reduce body weight, however evidence comes from animal studies, therefore further research is required in this area[94].

BARIATRIC PROCEDURES

Bariatric endoscopy

Endoscopic bariatric surgery is a rapidly developing intervention that has revolutionised bariatric surgery. Endoscopic methods target the stomach, and through a variety of techniques aim to restrict gastric capacity, emptying or food absorption[97,98]. Intra-gastric balloon treatment (IGB) is the most widely used device since its introduction in 1982. IGB is generally recommended for patients with a body mass index (BMI) between 35-40 kg/m², or as an interim measure, with an aim for more definitive bariatric surgery, in patients with BMI > 40 kg/m². Studies have shown a BMI reduction of 5.7 kg/m² and improvement in diabetes and cardiovascular parameters with IGB[99]. Further techniques have been developed more recently, such as endoscopic sleeve surgery, where the capacity of the stomach is reduced. In this procedure, sutures are applied along the gastric wall, with the help of endoscopic equipment. Studies showed a 18% total body weight loss at 24 mo, with relatively low adverse effect profile[100].

Metabolic surgery

Bariatric surgery continues to be the most effective mode of definitive treatment for marked weight loss and diabetes. A recent review by Roth *et al*[101] reviewed the current literature around weight loss and the side effect profile depending on the type of metabolic surgery. Duodenal switch was associated with the most weight loss, of 70%-80% at 2 years, and resolution of obesity and diabetes related comorbidities. Roux-en-Y bypass and sleeve gastrectomy showed similar reduction in BMI, ranging between 60%-70%, with studies failing to demonstrate superiority of one over the other. Lower rates of diabetes remission were observed in insulin dependent diabetics following bariatric surgery compared to patients on oral agents, with rates of 16% *vs* 56% at 12 years. In terms of cardiovascular disease, metabolic surgery was shown to improve 5-year survival from coronary artery disease, in diabetic patients who are insulin treated[101]. Robotic assisted surgery is becoming increasingly more prominent, with data so far showing similar outcomes in robotic and laparoscopic bariatric procedures [102].

FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

The last few years have seen significant developments in the management of obesity and diabetes. Numerous trials revealed the benefits of SGLT-2 inhibitors and GLP-1 agonists in both achieving good glycaemic control as well as weight loss as summarised earlier. Ongoing research and developments in anti-obesity pharmacopeia show promising results, with anti-obesity medication targeting various hormones involved in the pathophysiological process of appetite, satiety, and adipose tissue deposition. This area of research is still in its infancy, with most trials still in the early stages. Studies in human subjects are yet to be developed. Modulation of leptin and ghrelin shows promising results in animal studies and shall be a future topic of research. The new concept of the gut microbiome and its effects on energy expenditure and metabolism is another area where further research is required, in order to further understand its contribution to obesity. With rapidly evolving technology, it is expected that less invasive endoscopic and robotic bariatric techniques will soon be developed for bariatric surgery. An algorithm for management of diabetes is shown in Figure 4.

CONCLUSION

With the obesity epidemic, diabetes, and the evident link between the two, the diabetes, is a widely recognised emerging public health issue. Understanding the pathophysiological mechanisms involved in the interplay between diabetes and obesity is paramount, both for primary as well as secondary care physicians, in order to guide the clinical management of such patients. Our paper offers a summary of the current concepts in the pathophysiology and management of diabetes. The emerging theories around the impact of the gut microbiome on diabetes and obesity are still in their infancy but show promising results so far. The potential role of metformin in modulating the gut microbiome is an area

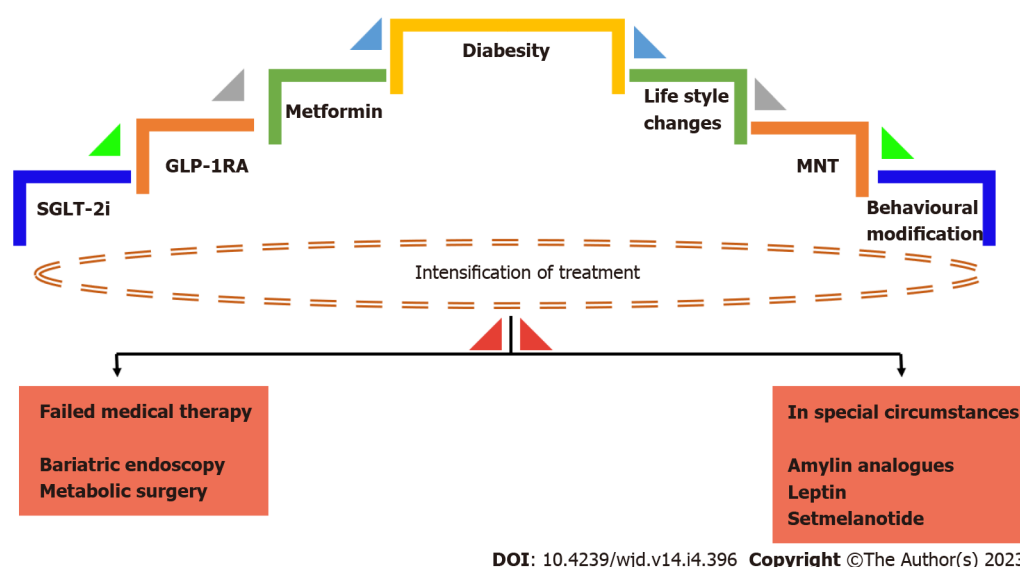


Figure 4 An evidence-based management algorithm for the management of diabetes. GLP-1RA: Glucagon-like insulinotropic peptide; MNT: Medical nutrition therapy; SGLT-2i: Sodium glucose cotransporter-2 inhibitor.

that requires further investigation. Future research and better understanding of the involvement of gut bacteria in energy expenditure and the development of diabetes may guide the development of modulatory treatments and reduce risk in affected individuals.

Diabetes is associated with a host of complications, including MAFLD. Our review of literature suggests that the majority of patients with T2DM exhibit hepatic steatosis in the initial stages of their diabetes, without derangement of liver function. Occult liver disease may be difficult to diagnose unless liver biopsy is carried out, and understandably this would not be indicated as a baseline investigation in all obese diabetic patients. Clinicians should be mindful of the likelihood of MAFLD in obese diabetics, and offer management to improve weight and glycaemic control, which will in turn aid to reduce the long-term consequences of hepatic steatosis. Early identification and management of OSA is also important, as intervention in the form of CPAP has been shown to improve insulin resistance. Therefore, early diagnosis and management of OSA may aid glycaemic control, whereas missing this diagnosis may make glycaemic management more challenging, leading to further complications. Additionally, monitoring for cardiovascular disease, potentially with coronary artery calcium score, as well as early cardiology referral where indicated, would be important in order to address and minimize cardiovascular mortality and morbidity.

Lifestyle modification remains paramount, but it is important to set realistic achievable targets which are agreed between the patient and the multi-disciplinary team. From our review, we could infer that exercise alone is not expected to result in significant improvement in diabetic control, unless accompanied by weight loss. On reviewing the recent literature, the common theme appears to be that a Mediterranean diet may be beneficial in achieving weight loss and better glycaemic control in diabetes patients. The Mediterranean diet has been shown to have a greater impact on overall HbA1c when compared to low carbohydrate, high protein, and low fat dietary modifications. When combined with exercise, dietary modification appears to be more effective, with a significant chance of inducing T2DM remission if the patient is motivated and adheres to the interventions offered.

Rapid advances in pharmacotherapy have revealed the dual action of medications such as GLP-1 agonists and SGLT-2 inhibitors in improving diabetes and achieving weight loss. The most recent relevant trials as summarised in our review show promising results, with improvement in both weight and HbA1c with these agents. GLP-1 agonists and SGLT-2 inhibitors are expected to play a pivotal role in the management of diabetes in the coming years, with an increasing number of patients being prescribed these medications.

Newly proposed mechanisms of action of metformin to improve weight and glycaemic control have been published, and these include a potential effect on the gut microbiome, and an association with increased GDF15 levels. Further research is required to confirm these modulatory effects, but metformin remains one of the first line medications for the treatment of diabetes. Rapid advances in technology show a promising future for bariatric surgery, which can be very effective in achieving weight loss and reversing diabetes. Therefore, an early referral to weight management services for patients that fulfil the relevant criteria, and timely intervention could lead to early resolution of the disease.

FOOTNOTES

Author contributions: Michaelidou M substantially contributed to literature search, interpretation of relevant literature, article drafting, and revision; Pappachan JM conceived the idea, contributed to the interpretation of relevant literature, and revision of the paper; Jeeyavudeen MS contributed to the conception and design of the article, literature search and revision of the article created the figures; and all authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Treatment on Nature's lap: Use of herbal products in the management of hyperglycemia

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Abstract

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is characterized by persistently elevated blood glucose concentration that lead to multisystem complications. There are about 400 medicinal plants cited to have a beneficial effect on DM. We must choose products wisely based on data derived from scientific studies. However, a major obstacle in the amalgamation of herbal medicine in modern medical practices is the lack of clinical data on its safety, efficacy and drug interaction. Trials of these herbal products often underreport the side effects and other crucial intervention steps deviating from the standards set by Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials. Due to a lack of knowledge of the active compounds present in most herbal medicines, product standardization is difficult. Cost-effectiveness is another issue that needs to be kept in mind. In this mini-review, we focus on the anti-hyperglycemic effect of herbal products that are commonly used, along with the concerns stated above.

Key Words: Herbal product; HbA1C; Diabetes mellitus; Active compound; Natural therapy; Cost-effectiveness

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Core Tip: Diabetes mellitus is an age-old disease. The journey for its remedy came down from nature's lap. Even in today's world, half of diabetes patients have used herbal medicines once in their lifetime. It is important to know the active molecule and its interaction with other drugs, which will help to predict therapeutic efficacy and also to standardize the products. A major hindrance is the lack of clinical data providing its safety and efficacy. This review focuses on the dose and efficacy of herbal products that are commonly used, along with the concerns stated above.

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INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is an age-old disease. It is characterized by persistently elevated blood glucose concentration that manifests as passing large quantities of sweet-tasting urine. Its existence was found in 1550 BC in an Egyptian papyrus. In India, Charak and Susruta also reported the sweet taste of urine in polyuric states, which attracted ants and other insects in 400-500 BC[1]. Before the advent of allopathic medicine, plants and plant products derived from nature were the only place of trust for people for years. Then modern medicine came in the realm. Interestingly, many allopathic drugs have an herbal background.

Most prescribed drug metformin's origin is linked to *Galega officinalis* which was used as herbal medicine in the 19th century in Europe[2]. This plant is rich in guanidine. In the 1930s, guanidine derivatives were in day to day practice, but because of toxicity, they were removed from the market. Metformin which is a dimethyl-biguanide, re-entered into the clinical practice as an antimalarial agent and presently, after 65 years of its discovery, this drug holds the first place in the management of DM. Similarly, alpha-glucosidase inhibitors like voglibose, acarbose and miglitol are derived from microbes [3]. Phlorizin is a compound found in the bark of the apple tree. In 1835, its glucosuric effect was documented. Many years later, from this observation, sodium-glucose cotransporter-2 (SGLT-2) inhibitors were invented[4]. So the study of natural products is expected to open the door for the development of novel drugs in the modern management of diabetes in the future.

Nevertheless, some areas of concern need to be addressed while using herbal products. These are the potential side effects, drug interactions, lack of product standardization and increasing cost. A major obstacle in the amalgamation of herbal medicine in modern medical practices is the lack of clinical data on its safety and efficacy. There is a need to conduct randomized control trials (RCTs) comparing herbal drugs with existing oral hypoglycemic drugs (OHAs). There are about 400 medicinal plants claimed to have beneficial effect in DM. Many of those products have overall health benefits but minimal effect on hyperglycemia. Here in this mini-review, we focus on the anti-hyperglycemic effect of herbal products that are commonly used, along with the concerns stated above.

SEARCH STRATEGY

Two authors (Giri S and Roy A) conducted the initial search in both 'PubMed database', and 'Google Scholar' for relevant articles. The references of these articles were also searched for additional relevant studies. The keywords used in the search were: 'Herbal Products'; 'HbA1C'; 'Natural treatment'; 'phytochemicals'; 'Fasting blood glucose'; 'HOMA-IR'. Only publications in English language were included. Kamalanathan S, Naik D and Sahoo J selected the relevant articles to be included.

COMMONLY USED HERBAL PRODUCTS

The prevalence of herbal medicine use among diabetes patients is reported to be as high as 58.5%[5]. Plant products have been used as herbal remedies individually or in formulations. GlycaCare-II is an herbal formulation supplement for subjects with DM that contains cinnamon, bitter melon, vijayasar, gurmur, jamun extract and a bioavailability enhancer piperine. Majeed *et al*[6] showed that this formulation has similar potential as metformin in the reduction of glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) and fasting blood sugar (FBS). Diabecon, diasulin, and pancreatic tonics are similar formulated herbal drugs commonly available in market. However, one of the fundamental issues with these herbal formulations is that active ingredients are not precisely defined. But it is essential to define the active compounds to

determine the therapeutic efficacy and standardization of a product.

Most commonly used plants in the formulated herbal drugs are cinnamon gurma, cumin, black cumin, psyllium, sesame, barberry, aloe, vijayasar, bael, fenugreek, jamun, ginger, little gourd, neem, sweet potato, amla, bitter melons, garlic, turmeric, guduchi. Dose, efficacy, active molecules, cost of these herbal products are described in Table 1.

MECHANISM OF ACTION

Active compound of great interest are quercetin, palmitin, berberin, gymnemic, gurma, phlorizin, kaempferol, rosmarinic acid, cyanidin, rutin, catechin and ellagic acid[7]. Various natural products of plant origin have been reported to target on multiple sites (Figure 1).

NATURAL PRODUCTS WITH STRONG EVIDENCE AS ANTI-HYPERGLYCEMIC REMEDY

These are discussed in a decreasing order of their efficacy.

Cinnamon (*cinnamomum*)

Cinnamon's dried bark is used as a spice for many recipes. Since time immemorial, it has been an essential traditional medicine against diabetes. Its bark powder is sold in the hard gelatine capsule formulation. Sharma *et al*[8] from India, in a double blind RCT, studied the effect of 3 g and 6 g of cinnamon powder in 150 newly diagnosed diabetes individuals who were OHA naïve. Over 3 mo, significant glycemic control status (mean FBS fall 111 mg/dL and mean HbA1c fall 1.2%) was achieved in the cinnamon group. Similarly, a study from Iran compared the effect of cinnamon powder with probiotics (*Lactobacillus acidophilus*) on blood glucose in 136 patients[9]. A significant drop in FBS (33 mg/dL) was observed in them who consumed both cinnamon powder and probiotics. It is possible that cinnamon brings out the effect by modification of gut microbiome because its active ingredient cinnamaldehyde has anti-microbial properties.

On the contrary, a significant effect on blood glucose (fall by 11 mg/dL) was not observed in another Iranian RCT where 3 g of cinnamon powder was used over a period of 2 mo[10]. Similarly, Hasanzade *et al*[11] concluded that 1 g of cinnamon had no effect compared to placebo on glycemic control over one month. The heterogeneity of these results might be due to the variable duration of follow-up or due to differences in ethnicity and body composition of study participants. A study was designed to evaluate the glucose lowering efficacy of cinnamon with different body mass index (BMI) where 140 diabetes patients were randomly assigned to 4 groups: Cinnamon (BMI ≥ 27 , BMI < 27) and placebo (BMI ≥ 27 , BMI < 27)[12]. At the end of 3 mo, glycemic outcomes were significantly more prominent (FBS fall by 20 mg/dL *vs* 6 mg/dL, $P < 0.001$) in patients with higher BMI in cinnamon group. When adjusted for BMI, visceral fat and homeostatic model assessment for insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) index by univariate model analysis, it was evident that glycemic outcomes were mediated through the decrement in insulin resistance. Therefore, it can be concluded that cinnamon has an antidiabetic effect. It acts through modification of gut microbiota and more of use in patients with higher BMI.

Gurma (*gymnema*)

It is a perennial climber found in India and Africa. Various studies used 0.4-10 g/d gymnema leaf powder. It is available in tablet or capsule form. Its active compound, gymnemic acid is believed to block glucose absorption in the small intestine[13]. Gurma, another molecule in this product, has anti-sweetener activity. Li *et al*[14] from Pakistan demonstrated the effect of 1g powder on 32 middle aged diabetic patients in a non-randomized trial. After one month, mean FBS decreased by 81 mg/dL. Fall in HbA1C ranges from 0.32% to 1.57% in different studies[15,16].

Cumin (*cuminum*)

The effect of 100-500 mg of cumin on FBS reduction ranges from 3 mg/dL to 56 mg/dL[17,18]. The formulation used are oil or powder form. On the other hand, 2-3 g of black cumin powder can reduce FBS by 17-23 mg/dL and HbA1C by 0.3%-0.6%[19,20]. Both types of cumin have thymoquinone as their active component which acts as an antioxidant.

Psyllium (*plantago*)

Psyllium husk 6.8-10.5 g/d consumption reduces FBS from 20-53 mg/dL and HbA1C from 1%-1.6% with a significant decrement of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR reduction of 5.5)[21,22]. In a meta-analysis by Xiao *et al*[23], there were no major side effects on psyllium consumption. Water soluble fiber makes a barrier in the intestine for the absorption of glucose and other reducing sugars. It also influences release of various gut peptide, especially ghrelin and peptide YY and insulin. Alteration of gut flora is another possible mechanism that helps to control hyperglycemia. As in most of the studies, psyllium is found to

Table 1 Description of plant products

Herbal product	Active molecule	Part of plant	Dose	FBS fall (mg/dL)	HbA1C fall (%)	Cost (Rs.)	Ref.
Cinnamon	Procyanidin type A polymer	Bark	0.5-6 g	2-111	0-1.2	811/400 g	[8,11]
Gurmar	Gymnemic acid	Leaf	0.4-10 g	6-81	0.3-1.5	799/60 cap	[15,16]
Cumin	Thymoquinone	Seed	0.1-0.5 g	3-56	1-1.8	99/100 g	[17,18]
Psyllium	NA	Husk	6.8-10.5 g	20-53	1-1.6	105/100 g	[21,22]
Sesame	Sesamine	Seed	0.2 g or 30 mL	34-52	0.7-1.1	399/1 kg	[24,25]
Barberry	Berberine	Root, stem, bark	0.9-1.5 g	57-68	1.4-1.9	810/60 cap	[28]
Aloe	Acemannan	Leaf	600-1000 g	13-44	0.4-0.7	121/100 g	[29]
Vijayasar	Epicatechin	Bark	1-4 g	32-43	0.4	365/1 kg	[30]
Fenugreek	4-OH isoleucin	Seed	1-100 g	15-41	0.2-1.5	199/200 g	[31,32]
Bael	Aegeline	Seed, leaf, fruit pulp	5-20 g	34-41	1.9	325/400 g	[34,35]
Jamun	Gallic acid	Seed	10 g	18-33	0.4-0.6	265/250 g	[37]
Ginger	Gingerol, shogaol	Rhizome	1.6-2 g	10-29	0.04-1.1	400/300 g	[38]
Little gourd	Pectin	Leaf, fruit	0.5-1 g	20-25	0.6-0.7	NA	[42]
Neem	Nimbidol	Root, bark	1 g	23	1.5	119/100 g	[44]
Sweet potato	Anthocyanins	Leaf, tuber	4 g	10-19	0.2-0.3	NA	[45]
Amla	Gallic acid	Fruit	0.5-10 g	13-15	0.4-0.5	209/200 g	[46,47]
Bitter melon	Momordin, charantin	Whole plant	0.8-4 g	5-15	0.3	399/500 g	[51]
Garlic	Allicin	Bulb	0.9-1.5 g	4-10	0.2-0.8	485/400 g	[54]
Turmeric	Curcumin	Rhizome	0.5-2.1 g	2-9	0.02-0.9	599/500 g	[55]
Guduchi	Palmitate	Stem	0.5-1.5 g	5-8	0.2-0.5	150/60 cap	[57]
Jack fruit	Proanthocyanidin, flavonoids	Leaf	30 g	29	0.25	266/400 g	[62]

FBS: Fasting blood sugar; NA: Not available.

have a consistent effect on glycemic control, which can be considered a good alternative for diabetes management.

Sesame (*sesamum*)

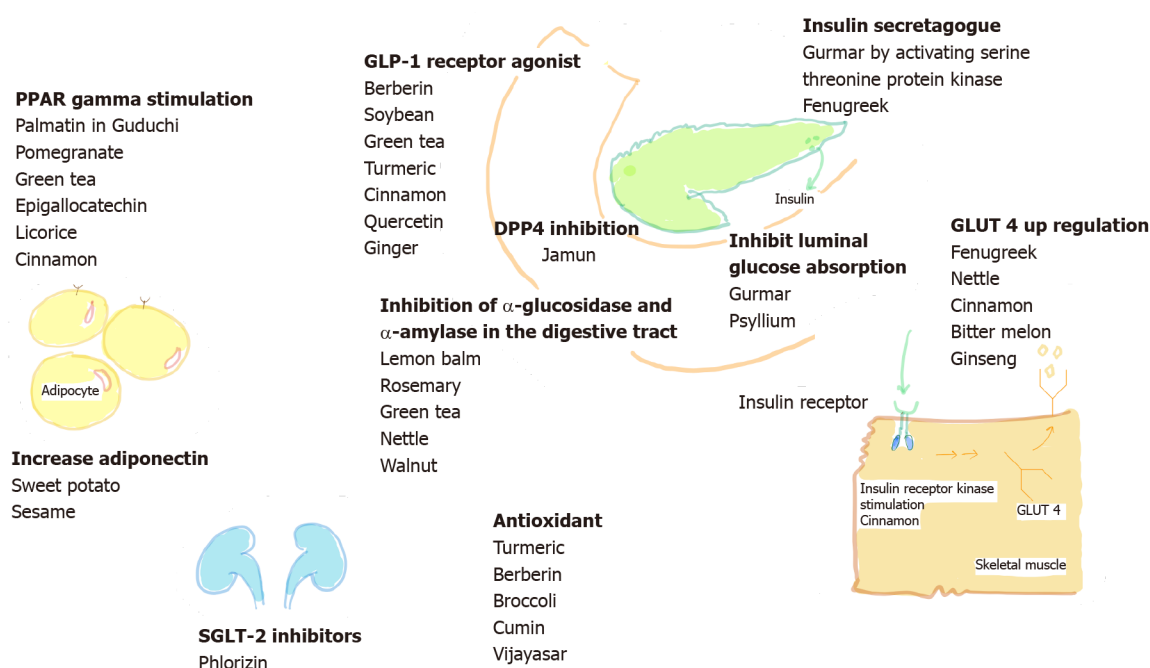
The active compound is sesamine. FBS reduction ranges from 34 mg/dL to 52 mg/dL[24]. HbA1C reduction ranges from 0.7%-1.1%[25]. Dose of sesame used in various studies is 200 mg/d. Sesame oil consumption favorably changes insulin resistance, despite its modest effect on FBS. Although canola oil consumption increases FBS, when both oils are mixed for cooking, the beneficial effects of sesame oil is retained[26]. A blend of 20% cold-pressed un-refined sesame oil and 80% physically refined rice bran oil as cooking oil also lowered hyperglycemia and improved the lipid profile in a study by Devarajan *et al* [27]. Moreover, the combination of sesame oil blend and glibenclamide treatment in these patients significantly improved hyperglycemia.

Barberry (*berberis*)

The hypoglycemic effect of berberine was reported in 1988 when it was used to treat diarrhoea in diabetes patients in China. It is found in the roots, rhizomes, stems and bark of berberis. In a study on 36 diabetes patients, Yin *et al*[28] showed that the hypoglycemic effect of berberine (HbA1C fall 1.4%, FBS fall 68 mg/dL, PPBS fall 158 mg/dL) was similar to that of metformin (HbA1C fall 1.9, FBS fall 57 mg/dL, PPBS fall 138 mg/dL) over 3 mo of treatment. Usual dose of berberine 500 mg TID sometimes causes abdominal discomfort but, 300 mg TID is a well-tolerated dose.

Aloe (*aloe vera*)

It is a houseplant. Aloe vera gel is prepared from the leaf pulp. Aloe juice is an exudate from the outer skin of the leaves. And 600 to 1000 g of gel powder brings about 6-44 mg/dL fall in FBS and 0.4% to 0.7% fall in HbA1C[29]. The active compound acemannan is a mucopolysaccharide.



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Figure 1 Potential mechanism of action of herbal products. PPAR: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors; GLP-1: Glucagon-like peptide 1; DPP4: Dipeptidyl-peptidase 4; SGLT-2: Sodium-glucose cotransporter-2; GLUT4: Glucose transporter type 4.

Vijayasar (*pterocarpus*)

It is found as a component of many herbal products. The dose is 1-4 g of bark powder. A flexible dose open trial by Indian Council of Medical Research[30], 2-4 g/d Vijayasar, brought down blood glucose to the target range in 67 (69%) of 97 patients by 3-mo treatment. FBS, PPBS and HbA1c were decreased by 32 mg/dL, 45 mg/dL and 0.4%, respectively. No side effects were reported. In an RCT by Maurya *et al* [29], efficacy of aloe vera, vijayasar and their combination was compared to 1 mg of glimepiride. It was found that aloe (FBS reduction by 43 mg/dL) and vijayasar (by 43 mg/dL) showed synergism (by 54 mg/dL) for blood glucose control, but they were inferior to glimepiride (by 72 mg/dL). Its active principle epicatechin augments insulin release by increasing the cyclic adenosine monophosphate level. Flatulence has been reported; otherwise it is safe. It can be concluded that supplementation of 4g powder can be considered for the treatment diabetes.

Fenugreek (*trigonella*)

It is a short lived plant and used for texture, flavor and color of food. Its health-promoting effect is outlined in Ayurvedic medicine. Usual dose is 1-100 g of seed extract powder. Its active compound amino acid 4-hydroxy isoleucine stimulates glucose induced insulin secretion from the perfused pancreas *in vitro*. The human trial showed a decrease in FBS range from 15 to 41 mg/dL, a decrease in HbA1C from 0.2% to 1.46% and HOMA-IR from 0.44 to 0.68. Singh *et al*[31] from India compared 500 mg fenugreek with 5 mg glipizide in 60 diabetes patients. The patients were randomized into three groups. They received either fenugreek seed extract 500 mg twice a day, glipizide 5 mg once daily, or a combination of glipizide 2.5 mg and fenugreek seed extract 500 mg once daily for 3 mo. It was found that both had significant effect on glycemic control. Glipizide monotherapy was more efficacious (mean FBS fall 58 mg/dL) in controlling hyperglycemia than fenugreek monotherapy (mean FBS fall 41 mg/dL). However, it is fenugreek which reduced glycemia and dyslipidemia simultaneously and so this plant deserves a place in the management of metabolic syndrome. Another RCT from China[32] showed that 2 g of fenugreek powder when added to patients with uncontrolled blood glucose who were already on sulfonylurea for more than one year can further reduce the mean FBS by 33 mg/dL and HbA1C by 1.46%. Similarly, when added to metformin, it can further reduce blood glucose by 10 mg/dL [33]. Indeed it can be an add-on remedy for DM.

Bael (*aegle*)

In an RCT by Yaheya and Ismail[34], fenugreek seed powder 20 g (FG) and dried bael leave powder 5 g (BL) were compared with OHA. Four groups were set up. Groups 1 to 4 received FG, BL, FG+BL and OHA, respectively. After 4 mo, PPBS was compared to baseline. The highest reduction in glucose was observed in those patients who received a combination of FG and BL, suggesting that these two products may have a synergistic effect. BL showed a comparable reduction in PPBS to standard OHA.

Similarly, an RCT from India showed that 20 g of bael leaf juice can reduce glucose by 34 mg/dL when added to OHA treatment over 2 mo[35]. Its active molecule, aegeline is proposed to upregulate the translocation of glucose transporter type 4 (GLUT 4). These results clearly indicate that bael is an inexpensive dietary supplement that has potential to improve glycemic control.

Jamun (*syzygium*)

In India, its kernel is used as household remedy for diabetes. Gallic acid and other phenolic compounds in Jamun are responsible for its anti-glycemic effect. Its seed, leaf, stem bark and fruit are used as herbal medicine. In an open labeled RCT by Acharya *et al*[36], 10 g of jamun seed powder was compared with 500 mg metformin in 30 newly diagnosed type 2 DM patients over 6 mo. Jamun reduced mean FBS by 18 mg/dL and HbA1C by 0.4%, whereas metformin reduced them by 41 mg/dL and 1.4%, respectively. Fall in PPBS was not significant. Another RCT from India showed that jamun, when added to the existing OHA, brought about a significant reduction in both FBS (33 mg/dL) and PPBS (43 mg/dL) over 3 mo[37]. In most of the trials, leaves and seeds of jamun were used for the treatment of diabetes. In contrast, tea extracts prepared from the leaves did not show a hypoglycaemic effect.

Ginger (*zingiber*)

Its active compound gingerol and shogaol is thought to have antidiabetic property. It is claimed to have three significant properties-immunomodulatory, anticancer, and anti-inflammatory. A number of RCTs were performed to show its effect on blood glucose, but most of them show a modest reduction in glycemic parameters. Carvalho *et al*[38] showed that consumption of ginger powder 1.2 g/d over 3 mo can reduce mean FBS by 29 mg/dL. Similarly, an RCT by Makhdoomi Arzati *et al*[39] showed mean FBS reduction by 26 mg/dL and HbA1C reduction by 0.4% by 2 g of ginger powder in 10 wk. When added to standard treatment, 3 g powder of ginger decreased FBS by a further 19 mg/dL and HbA1C by 0.7% over 3 mo[40]. Although these results are encouraging, Mahluji *et al*[41] found that 2 g of ginger did not produce any effect on FBS and HbA1C but reduced serum insulin resistance over 2 mo.

Little gourd (*coccinia*)

It is an edible perennial vegetable. It has been widely used as an ingredient in traditional herbal medicine for the treatment of several diseases, including DM. Its leaf and fruit extract is formulated as a natural therapy. Several trials have shown that 500 mg to 1000 mg of coccinia powder can have a moderate glucose lowering effect. Wasana *et al*[42] found a reduction in insulin resistance along with a reduction of glycemic parameters (mean FBS by 25 mg/dL, mean HbA1C by 0.6%). Active compound pectin, triterpenes are responsible for its effect on blood glucose.

Neem (*azadirachta*)

Neem is considered a miraculous tree for its medicinal effects. It is rich in alkaloids, flavonoids and terpenoids. Its root and stem bark contain nimbidol, which is a diterpenoid that causes intestinal disaccharidase and glucoamylase inhibition[43]. Pingali *et al*[44] included 80 diabetes patients who were on metformin. Neem extract was prepared from its leaves and twigs and patients were randomly assigned to take capsules of 250 mg, 500 mg and 1000 mg of this extract. After 3 mo, significant reduction in FBS (23 mg/dL), HbA1C (1.5%) and HOMA-IR (2.6%) was noticed in the 1000 mg group. It can certainly be a weapon to combat DM as a herbal product.

Sweet potato (*ipomoea*)

This plant is native to the tropical and subtropical belts. Apart from cooking, it is also used in traditional medicine for DM. Its active compounds are isolated from leaves and tuber. It is rich in anthocyanins, polyphenols and flavonoids. Ludvik *et al*[45] have shown that 4 g powder of sweet potato can reduce FBS from 10 to 19 mg/dL and reduce HbA1C by 0.21% - 0.3%.

Amla (*emblica*)

Various studies used 1-10 g of amla powder. The average fall in FBS is 13 mg/dL and fall in HbA1C is 0.5%[46,47]. Active compounds are gallic acid, ellagic acid, quercetin, and chebulinic acid[48]. Triphala, a combination of amla, haritaki and bibhitaki, is considered to have a pleiotropic effect in ayurvedic medicine. Nevertheless, a systematic review by Phimarn *et al*[49] fails to establish any effect on blood glucose.

Bitter melon (*momordica*)

It is commonly used as an alternative therapy for the treatment of diabetes. Different doses (from 800 mg to 6 g/d) and different parts of this plant such as leaves, fruit pulp, seeds and whole plant have been studied for antidiabetic effect. Momordin and charantin are active compounds. Kim *et al*[50] conducted an RCT with 2.3 g of bitter melon powder on 96 diabetic subjects. At the end of 3 mo, the mean FBS reduction was only 5 mg/dL without any significant impact on other glycemic parameters. An open-label, randomized, active-controlled, multicentric, phase III study from India[51] compared 800 mg bitter melon fruit extract with metformin. Eighty-three subjects received bitter melon and 40 subjects

received metformin. After 15 wk, mean fall in FBS and HbA1C in the bitter melon group was 14 mg/dL and 0.28% and in the metformin group 25 mg/dL and 0.62%, respectively. This study showed non-inferiority of bitter melon to metformin, although its effects were modest. Similarly, a weaker antidiabetic effect has been exhibited in comparison to glibenclamide 5 mg in a trial by Rahman *et al*[52].

Garlic (*allium sativum*)

Since antiquity, garlic has been part and parcel of many Indian dishes and herbal medicine. Garlic powder is formulated in capsule form. It has allicin, a sulfur-containing amino acid that can combine with cysteine and other sulphhydryl group containing amino acids and spares insulin from inactivation [53]. Kumar *et al*[54] demonstrated that garlic, when added to metformin treatment, helps in further blood glucose reduction, although the effect is insignificant. Reduction of glycemia is modest in various studies.

Turmeric (*curcumin*)

Turmeric is used in food preparation as a spice. It has versatile pharmacological effects described by both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies. Its bioactive molecule is curcumin which is present in the rhizome of this plant. Its active peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR- γ) is similar to thiazolidinedione. Despite its efficacy in *in vitro* studies, human trials fail to document any significant effect. Its bioavailability is a major hindrance to its efficacy. FBS reduction ranges from 2 to 9 mg/dL. The commonly used dose is 450-2100 mg/d[55].

Guduchi (*tinospora*)

A study on water extract or powder form of a mature stem of *tinospora* by Roy[56] and Mishra *et al*[57] demonstrated that 500-1500 mg capsule can reduce FBS by 5-8 mg/dL and HbA1C by 0.22%-0.54%. Its active compound, palmatine, is known to stimulate PPAR- γ .

Plant with SGLT-2 inhibitory effects

The discovery of novel SGLT-2 inhibitors dates back to 1835 when phlorizin was isolated for the first time from the barks of an apple tree by French chemists[58]. It is mainly found in the young shoots, roots, leaves and barks of the apple tree, while in fruit, it is most abundant in the seeds. Nevertheless, seeds of ripe fruit contain a toxic cyanogenic glycoside[59], so seeds of unripe fruit seeds are to be used. Apple, as an intact fruit, does not have glucose-lowering properties. Moreover, the bioavailability of natural phlorizin is less as it is hydrolyzed by lactase-phlorizin hydrolase in the brush border of the small intestine. Apart from the apple tree, quercetin, strawberry, rose hip and pear have phenolic components with SGLT-2 inhibitory effects. When consumed as food item, these may not bring about a reasonable effect due to the presence of carbohydrates within these fruits.

NATURAL PRODUCTS WITH WEAK EVIDENCE AS ANTI-HYPERGLYCEMIC REMEDY

Licorice

Its root extract has been used widely in Chinese medicine as antidiabetic therapy. However, evidence is not sound in human studies[60]. The active compound is glycyrrhizic acid. Due to its 11-beta hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase-2 enzyme inhibitory property, it can cause hypokalemia, hypertension and rhabdomyolysis[61].

Jack fruit

Rao *et al*[62] from India demonstrated the effect of jack fruit leaf flour on 40 diabetes patients in a RCT. They found that replacing an equal volume of wheat flour in daily meals with jackfruit flour could significantly lower the blood glucose level (mean FBS by 29 mg/dL, and mean HbA1C by 0.25%)[62]. However this finding needs confirmation by further RCTs.

Ayush-82

An ayurvedic hypoglycemic formulation consisting of seeds of mango, seeds of bitter melon, seeds of jamun, and leaves of gurmar were tried in fairly large sample size ($n = 350$), which revealed a statistically significant reduction in blood glucose levels in DM[63]. A polyherbal formulation named BGR-34 was developed by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, Government of India.

Similarly, nettle, pomegranate, shilajit, beans, tea, ginkgo biloba, saffron lack sufficient clinical data in diabetes management although these are cited as antihyperglycemic medicine in Ayurveda. Central Council for Research in Ayurvedic Sciences recommends certain fruits and vegetables for diabetes patients. Those are fenugreek, bitter melon, garlic, unripe banana, jamun, amla, pomegranate, bael, guava, apple, and orange.

SAFETY OF HERBAL MEDICINES

In common belief, herbal products are regarded to be very safe to consume. This is because most previous trials did not monitor side effects. This is a myth. We know about Chinese herb nephropathy due to aristolochia used for obesity. Among antidiabetic drugs, ginseng can cause insomnia, anxiety, and hypertension. Due to its estrogenic effects, it can cause breast tenderness and vaginal bleeding. Garlic, fenugreek, cinnamon and ginger can cause increased bleeding tendency due to the presence of a coumarin like compound. Aloe can also prolong bleeding time[64]. So these products must be stopped if the patient is on anticoagulants or patient plans an operation. Gastrointestinal side effects are quite common with ingestion of these natural products. Apart from these, fenugreek can also cause facial swelling and itching. As it contains mucilage, absorption of other drugs can be compromised. Both fenugreek and bitter melon are contraindicated in pregnancy. Alfa and beta momorcharin in bitter melon have abortifacient effect[65]. On the other hand, neem products have contraceptive property[66]. Bitter melon has been reported to cause hemolytic anemia in glucose 6 phosphate dehydrogenase deficient individuals (due to presence of vicine) and convulsion in children[65]. Side effects of amla are mild headache, fever, gastritis and increased bleeding tendency[67]. Aloe vera, turmeric, and ginseng have Cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzyme-inducing or inhibitory properties. Particularly, aloe vera can inhibit CYP3A4 and CYP2D6; thereby, it has the potential to alter levels of pioglitazone and repaglinide [68]. Similarly, consumption of neem can reduce the bioavailability of glipizide. Turmeric can inhibit P-glycoprotein 1, which is an efflux pump, and thereby increases glyburide concentration[69]. So intake of these products may lead to significant drug interaction.

Product standardization of these herbal formulations is not tightly regulated. Unlike allopathic medicines, herbal products are obtained from nature. The chemical composition of these herbs may alter based on the season and growing conditions. For example, ginsenoside, the active moiety in ginseng, varies from 36% to 112%[70]. Herbal medicine sold in India as antidiabetic remedy was found to contain glibenclamide as an adulterant[71]. Bioassays need to be developed for biological standardization and toxicological assessment. Many a time, heavy metals are found in various ayurvedic products much are above their acceptable range[72]. All these need to be considered before using those.

COST-EFFECTIVENESS OF HERBAL MEDICINES

Even though these products are readily available, processed plant products sold in the market in the proper formulation are costly. Cost of the products based on the price mentioned in Amazon online shopping app. at the time of writing of the article are mentioned in Table 1. The most popular drug metformin is a cheap drug. On head-to-head comparison studies with a low dose of metformin, it is evident that most of these products are inferior to metformin. Therefore cost-effectiveness has to be considered before consuming those.

CONCLUSION

Although many OHAs in modern medicine have a natural origin, consuming them in their original form may not bring out much benefit as we have discussed with the example of metformin. On the other hand, we have seen isolation of phlorizin paved the way to the discovery of modern SGLT 2 inhibitors. It is worth to find out the active molecule and their mechanisms of action not only for a better understanding of their effects but also for product standardization.

DM is a chronic disease and it is associated with multiple comorbidities. So, its remedies should be chosen wisely based on the data on their safety, efficacy and drug interactions. In this article, we have given an overview of herbal products with anti-hyperglycaemic effects based on various RCTs. We often use them as food items but in sub-optimal doses. We have also mentioned doses and proper formulation from the right part of the plant used in various clinical trials. Nonetheless, these trials of natural products often underreport the important steps of the interventions, thereby deviate from the standards set by Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials. These need to be brought under a regulatory framework which will eventually generate faith in these herbal medicines. Last but not the least, cost-effectiveness should also be kept in mind before using them.

FOOTNOTES

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Semaglutide-eye-catching results

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Abstract

Semaglutide is a glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonist used either orally every day or subcutaneously once a week for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus and, more recently, at higher doses, for the treatment of obesity. Both diseases are reaching epidemic proportions and often coexist, posing patients with a high risk for cardiovascular disease and death. Therefore, an agent such as semaglutide, which offers clinically significant weight loss and cardiovascular benefits, is essential and will be increasingly used in high-risk patients. However, during the SUSTAIN clinical trial program (Semaglutide Unabated Sustainability in treatment of type 2 diabetes), a safety issue concerning the progression and worsening of diabetic retinopathy emerged. The existing explanation so far mainly supports the role of the magnitude and speed of HbA1c reduction, a phenomenon also associated with insulin treatment and bariatric surgery. Whether and to which extent the effect is direct is still a matter of debate and an intriguing topic to investigate for suitable preventative and rehabilitative purposes. In this minireview, we will summarize the available data and suggest guidelines for a comprehensive semaglutide clinical utilization until new evidence becomes available.

Key Words: Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists; Semaglutide; Diabetic retinopathy; Microvascular complications; Cardiovascular benefit; Rehabilitation

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Core Tip: Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1RAs) benefit patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus in terms of glucose management, weight control, oxidative damage, and prevention of adverse renal and cardiovascular events without increasing the risk of hypoglycemia. After reviewing the literature to investigate upon such a clinically relevant issue, the authors found that: Semaglutide per se seems to cause no direct damage to the retina, and the reported adverse effects might even be ascribed to a bias in the trial design. Special attention to the retinopathy status should be paid at present when using semaglutide in older patients with longstanding diabetes.

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INTRODUCTION

Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonists (GLP-1RA) are a class of drugs increasingly used for the treatment of patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), enhancing glucose management while promoting weight loss and exposing patients to no significant hypoglycemic risk[1]. In addition to the abovementioned advantages, most agents within the class also provide cardiovascular benefits to diabetic patients, who are well known to be at high risk for cardiovascular atherosclerotic disease. Specifically, seven dedicated cardiovascular outcome trials (CVOTs), *i.e.*, LEADER, SUSTAIN-6, EXSCEL, HARMONY, REWIND, ELIXA, and PIONEER-6, included patients on liraglutide, once weekly sc semaglutide, exenatide, albiglutide, dulaglutide, lixisenatide, and daily oral semaglutide respectively. Data obtained from those CVOTs suggested benefits for T2DM patients with a longstanding history of diabetes, obesity, or overweight in terms of primary and secondary prevention of adverse cardiovascular (CV) events for liraglutide, semaglutide, albiglutide, and dulaglutide, while neutrality was proven in the ELIXA trial[2-8]. Other benefits were also noticed, including reduced albuminuria and improved kidney function in terms of hindered diabetic nephropathy progression and lower need for kidney replacement therapy[9]. However, conflicting data were reported concerning another relevant microvascular complication, *i.e.*, diabetic retinopathy (DR)[10].

DR-PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

DR is the main microvascular complication of diabetes, currently affecting approximately 100 million people worldwide. It increases the likelihood of visual impairment and blindness by 64% and 27%, respectively. Data from the US suggests that almost a third of patients with diabetes over 40 years of age have DR[11,12]. According to the meta-analysis performed for patients with type 1 diabetes, the long-term risk of developing DR can be reduced by intensive glucose control, granting the achievement of near-normal glucose levels[13]. Despite United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study results showing that each 1% reduction in HbA1c was associated with a 37% reduction in the development of retinopathy in patients with T2DM[14], conflicting results were also reported concerning the association of tight glucose control with the worsening of previously identified DR signs[15]. However, along with persistent hyperglycemia, risk factors for DR onset include the patient's age, diabetes duration, and high blood pressure, together with genetic predisposition, smoking habits, anemia, non-Caucasian ethnicity, and hyperlipidemia[16-19]. Indeed, pre-existing DR progression can also be related to the magnitude of HbA1c reduction, where data support the evidence of temporary, paradoxical DR worsening during the first three to 36 mo of initiation of intensive glucose lowering before the long-term benefits of glucose optimization become apparent[13,20,21]. The abovementioned deterioration in DR has been described in patients with T1DM and T2DM and during pregnancy. It was initially noticed in patients intensively treated with continuous subcutaneous insulin infusion, but afterward with various diabetic pharmacotherapy, as well as bariatric surgery and pancreatic transplantation[22].

The pathophysiology of DR includes persistent hyperglycemia-related retinal microvessel dilatation, abnormal permeability, and ischemic occlusion with subsequent neovascularization resulting from up-regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) expression[14,23-25]. The evidence available from *in vivo* and *in vitro* models suggests a significant role of longstanding and generalized low-grade chronic inflammation inducing neurodegeneration and oxidative stress at the retinal level[26-29]. Also, according to Zhou *et al*[30], visual function maintenance requires special attention to any available methods, including GLP-1 analogs, to protect retinal ganglion cells from their high intrinsic vulnerability to any sources of damage.

In addition, what is often forgotten is that the metabolic memory, widely recognized as a significant factor in diabetes complications onset and progression, involves the whole body, including the eye, where it acts by increasing the cytosolic protein Drp1 translocation inside the mitochondria with enhanced GTPase activity in response to various stimuli, including hyperglycemia[31,32]. Such changes consistently impair mitochondrial dynamics even after getting back to normoglycemia. Because of that, retinal capillary cells undergo accelerated apoptosis due to cytochrome C leakage into the cytosol due to functional and structural mitochondrial changes, including the DNA. This phenomenon impairs perfusion of acellular capillaries with subsequent neovascularization[33,34].

THEORIES EXPLAINING EARLY WORSENING OF DR

Although various theories exist trying to explain changes in retinal blood flow and hemodynamics associated with early worsening of DR, the mechanism has not been fully elucidated, while optimal *in vitro* conditions and animal models are still lacking[35]. For example, the osmotic theory suggests blood glucose changes to alter lens hydration through altered osmotic pressure, thus causing hyperopic/myopic changes[36,37]. Indeed, insulin has been mostly associated with early DR worsening so far. The mechanisms behind that phenomenon seem to be blood-retinal barrier disruption in the presence of hyperglycemia, consequent to microvascular changes induced by enhanced VEGF production and expression through increased endothelial cell reactive oxygen species (ROS) concentrations, and the often associated hypoglycemic events, which also trigger oxidative stress thus further building up ROS concentrations over time[35,38-40]. In addition, persistently increased IGF-1 levels accompanying fast-improved glucose control might also have a role in initiating or worsening DR[41]. The classification and reporting of this phenomenon are further complicated by the highly variable definition of “DR worsening” by different authors, including cotton-wool exudates, hemorrhages, microaneurysms, intraretinal microvascular abnormalities, and capillary-free areas[42]. Nonetheless, we feel reassured enough by some reports concerning improved DR in the follow-up of patients maintaining tight glucose control over time[43].

GLP-1RA EFFICACY IN GLUCOSE LOWERING AND VASCULAR EFFECTS

As already pointed out, among GLP-1RAs, semaglutide, dulaglutide, and liraglutide proved to prevent major cardiovascular events in the large CVOTs published so far[44]. However, the mechanism behind this observation is still unclear but might include the already mentioned antihyperglycemic and weight loss effects, the potential to decrease systolic and diastolic blood pressure, and more direct endothelial protective mechanisms[45]. In addition to that, GLP-1RAs offer benefits in terms of lowering unfavorable renal outcomes[9]. Such relevant effects also depend on their ability to rapidly and consistently grant quite good glycemic control with significant reductions in HbA1c levels[46]. Their effect on DR is poorly understood and somewhat conflicting, as experimental data even suggests for GLP-1RAs protective effects through hindered blood-retinal barrier disruption and retinal neuron apoptosis[47].

On the other hand, one of the published retrospective studies with exenatide showed a significant proportion of treated patients with fast-improved HbA1c to be at risk of development and progression of DR, in addition to other potentially identified risk factors such as duration of diabetes and presence of preexistent DR[48]. However, the follow-up study published by the same authors reported improved DR in 62% of patients, with no documented DR status changes in a further 18% of patients and DR progression in the remaining 20% ($n = 8$). Moreover, maculopathy verified in the initial study either regressed or kept stable. In the case of patients with new-onset DR occurring after exenatide initiation, there was evidence of some improvement in 71% ($n = 10$), and stabilization in three more patients (21%) [49]. An additional interventional case study with exenatide showed complete regression of diabetes-related macular edema and improved visual acuity within one month[50]. On the other hand, multivariate analysis in the AngioSafe study, which included a cohort of 3154 patients with T2DM, found no association between the exposure to GLP-1RAs (liraglutide and exendin-4) and severe DR ($P = 0.47$)[51]. Similarly, cohort studies from registries did not show any additional risk of DR complications with GLP-1RAs as compared to oral incretin therapy with dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) inhibitors [52], while the results of Brooks and Lissett's investigation suggested a dramatic deterioration of DR be associated with significantly improved HbA1c levels achieved within four months of exenatide treatment[53].

Further on, the LEADER, SUSTAIN-6, and REWIND CVOTs, including liraglutide, subcutaneous semaglutide, and dulaglutide and having retinopathy as a secondary outcome measure (quite broadly pre-specified as vitreous hemorrhage, diabetes-related blindness defined as Snellen visual acuity equal or less than 20/200 or a visual field lower than 20 degrees, or requirement for retinal photocoagulation, intra-vitreous anti-VEGF treatment, or vitrectomy) reported no decrease in DR rate[3,4,7]. Instead, DR complications tended to increase in LEADER and REWIND [hazard ratios 1.15 (95% CI: 0.87-1.52) and

1.24 (95%CI: 0.92-1.68), and significantly increased in the SUSTAIN-6 trial [50 events/1648 people in the semaglutide group *vs* 29 events/1649 people in the placebo group; hazard ratio 1.76 (95%CI: 1.11-2.78)]. In the meta-analysis by Bethel and coauthors[54] including patients treated with semaglutide (oral and subcutaneous), dulaglutide, exenatide, and albiglutide, with similar age (range 62-66 years), and BMI (32-33 kg/m²), 31%-46% were women, and the mean duration of diabetes ranged from 10 to 15 years. Mean HbA1c ranged from 7.3% to 8.7% (56.3-71.6 mmol/mol), and previous CVD was established in all patients included in the HARMONY trial (albiglutide), while 70% of patients in the REWIND trial (dulaglutide) only had CV risk factors. The prevalence of a differently defined among trials DR ranged from 9.0% to 28.2% at baseline in the REWIND, HARMONY, and PIONEER-6 trials. Moreover, PIONEER-6 excluded patients with already established DR, while only SUSTAIN-6 and PIONEER-6 evaluated retinopathy outcomes with fundus photography or fundoscopy as a scheduled study protocol. The authors did not report a significant association between DR risk and overall GLP-1RA use. However, the data suggested higher differences in the HbA1c levels during the first three months of GLP-1RA initiation in SUSTAIN-6 to represent the most significant risk for DR, while trials EXSCeL, HARMONY, and PIONEER-6, which were associated with negligible impact on HbA1c during the first three months of treatment initiation, did not point out any significant DR risk. Moreover, in line with other evidence, DR risk was not related to blood pressure or weight changes[55]. So, the most critical limitation in DR retinopathy data interpretation is the non-homogeneity of all GLP-1RAs CVOTs in the method of adjudication of DR events and the assessment of DR through widely used scores[10,56,57].

IS SEMAGLUTIDE TO BLAME?

Semaglutide had an extensive efficacy and safety program (SUSTAIN). In studies SUSTAIN 1-5 and SUSTAIN 7, the DR status was annotated within the medical history as not present, present, or unknown, and if present, designated as proliferative, nonproliferative, or unknown and considered an adverse event; patients with proliferative DR and maculopathy requiring acute treatment or HbA1c > 10% and > 10.5%, respectively, did not enter the study. In the SUSTAIN-6, instead, patient exclusion criteria did not take into consideration upper HbA1c limits or the presence of DR, which was indeed adjudicated as a composite endpoint as already described[58,59]. When compared to the overall SUSTAIN-6 study population, those patients developing eye complications had the more severe disease as defined by longer diabetes duration (17.5 years *vs* 13.9 years), higher initial HbA1c (9.4% *vs* 8.7%), and higher insulin-treatment rate (75.9% *vs* 58.0%). Moreover, those patients had a higher proportion of more advanced DR complications at baseline and achieved a more relevant HbA1c reduction during the first 16 wk of semaglutide treatment[58].

On the other hand, a recent meta-analysis of GLP-1RA CVOTs failed to find any association between the drug class with retinopathy. However, after stressing that the abovementioned trials had a median follow-up of 3.4 years (*i.e.*, much shorter than needed for retinopathy onset), used different diagnostic criteria, and were not even powered enough to assess the incidence of retinopathy, the authors reported on a significant association of such complication with HbA1c downward slope (*i.e.*, 0.77, $P < 0.01$), quantifiable as a 6%, 14%, or 8% increased Ln (OR) at 3-mo, 1-year, and overall follow-up, respectively, every 0.1% (1.09 mmol/mol) increase in HbA1c reduction[54].

On the whole, according to a post hoc analysis, the degree of HbA1c decrease and pre-existing retinopathy stood out as the main retinopathy worsening factors[58], yet SUSTAIN-7, *i.e.*, a head-to-head dulaglutide-semaglutide comparison study, showed DR onset or worsening in only two patients (1%) on semaglutide 0.5 mg, two (1%) on dulaglutide 0.75 mg, two (1%) on semaglutide 1.0 mg, and three (1%) on dulaglutide 1.5 mg[59]. Indeed, as no one expects any drugs to develop advanced DR signs in such a short period as the one provided by SUSTAIN-6, a randomization bias might have occurred regarding DR severity assessment at study entry due to the focus on cardiovascular disease monitoring. Once again, the above consideration and the dramatic drop in blood glucose levels might better explain DR results[60].

DATA FROM OBESITY TRIALS INVOLVING GLP-1RAS

Contrary to what we reported above, when turning to GLP1-RAs utilization in obesity, retinopathy was not reported as a complication in long-duration trials assessing weekly semaglutide 2.4 mg injection *vs* placebo for weight loss in obese patients[61-63], and based on a recent revision of the literature, no definite conclusions can be drawn on the role of semaglutide in the incidence or worsening of retinopathy[64], especially when taking into account a systematic review and meta-analysis of all trials, which ruled out any increased DR risk compared to placebo (RR: 1.14, 95%CI: 0.98-1.33), despite suggesting caution in the case of older patients with the long-standing disease (age ≥ 60 years and diabetes duration ≥ 10 years) due to a higher DR risk (RR: 1.27, 95%CI: 1.02-1.59; RR: 1.28, 95%CI: 1.04-1.58, respectively)[65].

EXPERIMENTAL DATA ON MECHANISMS UNDERLYING THE GLP-1RAS/RETINOPATHY ASSOCIATION

The Consortium for the Early Treatment of DR (EUROCONDOR) study failed to find any signs of neurodegeneration in a significant percentage of patients with microangiopathic retinal lesions[66,67]. However, as already mentioned before, neurodegeneration has been proposed as a hallmark of DR[68-70]. Indeed, the American Diabetes Association (ADA) has classified DR as a microvascular and neurovascular complication[29]. In Figure 1 we present the schematics of development of DR. So, at present, drugs like GLP-1RAs, expected to protect both neurons and microvessels, are suggested for the management of early DR stages[71,72].

In such a perspective, a protocol recently set up to rule out a direct role of the drug in retinal damage evaluated the effect of a semaglutide eye-drop solution on retinal neurodegeneration, neuroinflammation, and early vascular leakage in mice. Study results suggested that the drug prevents exactly those three features of diabetes-related retinal damage. The mechanism behind this phenomenon seemed to rely on the decisive anti-inflammatory action linked to decreased expression of NF- κ B, proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1, IL-6, and IL-18), and ICAM-1, as well as on the prevention of neuroretinal cell apoptosis promoted by the activation of Akt pathway, which is essential for neuron survival[70]. Moreover, as blood glucose levels were not affected by topical administration, no confounding factors were present due to eventually occurring drops in glucose concentrations. Interestingly, recent results from mice experiments also suggested that semaglutide is unable to cross the blood-brain barrier[73] and has beneficial rather than deleterious effects, as already reported with other GLP-1RAs in the experimental animals[71,72,74,75], possibly due to improved blood-retina barrier function and neuronal apoptosis [47], reduced glutamate levels obtained through upregulated glutamate-aspartate transporter (GLAST) [75], and decreased placental growth factor and intercellular adhesion molecule-1 expression[71,72].

THE FUTURE OF SEMAGLUTIDE REGARDING RETINOPATHY

The potential direct mechanism of action of GLP-1RA on the retinal cells is still elusive and debated. Although the GLP-1 receptor is present in the human eye, no GLP-1R expression was found in the eyes of people with long-standing proliferative DR[76].

However, the effects of a newly identified confounding factor, *i.e.*, subtle differences in individual gut microbiota composition, cannot be easily ruled out. Indeed, despite the relationship between intestinal microbiota and host still requiring complete elucidation, gut dysbiosis, *i.e.*, the chronic disequilibrium within the many different microbial colonies, seems associated with several inflammatory/metabolic diseases and central nervous system disorders, including retinopathy as an expression of the emerging concept of the so-called “microbiota-retina axis”. Indeed, as longstanding diabetes is associated not only with retinopathy but also with significant intestinal dysbiosis[77,78], relevant changes in the bacterial population might trigger the onset of retinopathy *via* their influence on the lipid content of both retinal and CNS tissues, eventually responsible for decreased intraocular succinate concentrations or increased trimethylamine-N-oxide (TMAO) plasma levels[79-86].

Retinopathy is a disabling disease, so rehabilitation should start as soon as possible when prevention fails. Based on the abovementioned neuroinflammatory mechanisms, several anti-inflammatory substances may help prevent DR progression, including nutritional supplements like resveratrol. However, the latter, despite looking promising enough, has a too low level of bioavailability and is contraindicated in the frequently occurring case of iron-deficiency-dependent anemia[87].

DETAILS CONCERNING SEMAGLUTIDE'S PHARMACOLOGIC PROPERTIES FAVORING DR SAFETY

Semaglutide has a 94% amino acid sequence homology to native GLP-1. However, structural modifications from endogenous GLP-1, *i.e.*, alanine residue substitution at the 8th position with Aib, make it less susceptible to degradation by DPP-4 while acylation of Lysine residue at the 26th position and attachment of a C18 fatty-diacid increase its binding affinity to albumin. The above changes result in a half-life of approximately one week, making it appropriate for once-weekly use in clinical practice. In the phase-3 SUSTAIN trials semaglutide showed superiority to different comparators and during different stages of diabetes in reducing HbA1c and body weight. In a SUSTAIN-6 trial investigating cardiovascular outcomes, semaglutide led to a 26% reduction in risk of the primary 3-point MACE (a composite of cardiovascular death, nonfatal myocardial infarction, or nonfatal stroke) when compared to placebo. The pharmacokinetic properties of semaglutide are not significantly affected by impaired hepatic or renal function. Therefore, no dose adjustments are required in that case. It achieves a steady state concentration in 4 wk to 5 wk (both subcutaneous and oral form). Indeed, in the case of subcutaneous semaglutide, 1 d to 3 d are needed to achieve the maximum concentration, and in the case

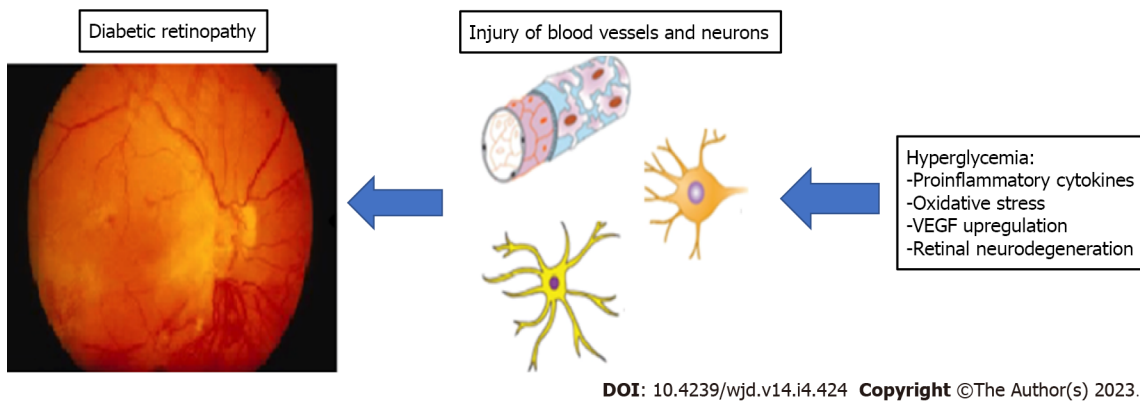


Figure 1 Main mechanisms involved in blood vessels injury and neuroinflammation in the diabetic retina. VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor.

of oral semaglutide, one hour is needed following intake. Moreover, during clinical pharmacology studies, no relevant impact of semaglutide on concomitant orally administered medications was observed, making its use safe in a broad population[88]. Semaglutide improves the efficiency of incretin function by activating GLP-1 receptors and enhancing GLP-1 to supraphysiological levels. It reduces fasting and postprandial glucose levels by promoting insulin secretion in a glucose-dependent manner and suppressing hepatic gluconeogenesis through blunted glucagon release. Moreover, it improves both proinsulin to insulin ratio, which suggests improved β -cell function and insulin sensitivity through body weight and fat loss consequent to reduced energy intake and gastric motility[89].

A cardiovascular risk (3-P MACE) reduction effect compared to placebo was shown for injectable and oral semaglutide in SUSTAIN-6 and PIONEER-6 trials, respectively. Animal studies have shown antiatherosclerotic effects mediated by regulating multiple inflammatory pathways and antiapoptotic effects in cardiac cells[90]. In addition, three ongoing trials, *i.e.*, SOUL (NCT03914326), SELECT (Semaglutide Effects on Heart Disease and Stroke in Patients with Overweight or Obesity; NCT03574597), and STRIDE (NCT04560998), will give further insight into different cardiovascular effects of both oral and subcutaneous semaglutide in patients with and without T2DM, and overweight/obesity[91-93].

The semaglutide mechanism of action is glucose-dependent and, therefore, associated per se with a shallow risk of hypoglycemia. Nevertheless, semaglutide cannot avoid the risk of hypoglycemia due to add-on sulfonylureas or insulin. Such drug association might initially cause acute glucose level drops and probably transient worsening of DR, as observed in the first four weeks of treatment[58].

CONCLUSION

Nowadays, the most robust relationship between semaglutide treatment and early worsening of DR might find its sizable initial impact on HbA1c as a suitable explanation. Indeed, both semaglutide formulations (subcutaneous and oral) have been investigated in two phase-3 clinical programs, *i.e.*, the SUSTAIN and PIONEER program. Combining all individual studies within these two programs, over 21500 patients participated in the studies with a treatment duration of at least 26 wk, giving a plethora of safety evidence[94]. Data insinuating a connection between semaglutide and DR emerged during the phase-3 trials. However, the answer to whether that phenomenon depended on the drug itself or the magnitude of fast-occurring glucose lowering will come from the presently underway FOCUS trial on approximately 1500 patients with T2DM, a bilateral 10 to 75 Early Treatment DR Study (ETDRS) score and no need for ophthalmologic therapy. Such a study will analyze once-weekly subcutaneous semaglutide 1.0 mg compared with placebo for up to 5 years, with the primary endpoint of at least three-digit ETDRS score progression[95]. Until FOCUS results become available, caution is mandatory in patients with DR. It may be wise to perform fundoscopy prior to semaglutide therapy, and existing DR should be treated concomitantly. In addition, given the strong effects of semaglutide on glucose levels, down-titrating basal insulin therapy or stopping sulphonylurea will prevent rapid decreases in glucose concentrations, thereby reducing the risk of acute DR worsening. Guidelines on DR management do not differ for patients receiving other antidiabetic agents. Therefore, the same treatment, including anti-VEGF agents, should be applied.

Both current and future research on GLP-1RA is quite exciting and targets different metabolic conditions and health aspects associated with both T2DM and obesity, such as cognitive health and dementia, PCO, and NAFLD.

However, the scientific community must shed light on the topic and draw definite conclusions concerning a direct mechanism of one (or more) GLP-1RA class drug(s) in retinopathy development and worsening.

Care required by T2DM patients initiating GLP-1RA treatment does not differ from that expected with other types of intensive glucose-lowering medication, *i.e.*, early detection of DR onset/progression and, eventually, specific treatment. Screening for DR is recommended for patients at the time of T2DM diagnosis and then annually while also taking into account individual metabolic control and baseline DR conditions[96]. In the case of severe, proliferative DR, treatment of retinopathy should start before or with intensive glucose-lowering therapy, expecting a typically transient worsening though[97]. While increasingly more overweight and obese T2DM patients at high CV risk start on GLP-1RAs, clinicians should consider their DR status upon initiation and adopt the best available treatment for DR when present.

When choosing semaglutide in the intensification of T2DM treatment, a cautious attitude is mandatory, at the moment, especially in the case of coexisting insulin treatment and advanced disease stages.

FOOTNOTES

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Observational Study

Validity and reliability of the Polish version of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument

Edyta Sutkowska, Dominik Marciniak, Magdalena Koszewicz, Edyta Dziadkowiak, Sławomir Budrewicz, Karolina Biernat, Natalia Kuciel, Justyna Mazurek, Katarzyna Hap

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Abstract**BACKGROUND**

Diabetic sensorimotor polyneuropathy is an important risk factor for foot ulceration and amputation. Thus, patients with diabetes should be screened for this disorder according to local guidelines. An obstacle to the diagnosis of this disease may be the lack of unified diagnostic criteria due to the lack of properly validated scales used for assessment.

AIM

To validate both sections (A and B) of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument (MNSI) in Polish (PL) patients with diabetes.

METHODS

A cross-sectional study using a test (A1, B1) and re-test (A2, B2) formula was performed in 80 patients with diabetes. The gold standard used for neuropathy detection was a nerve conduction study (NCS) which was performed in all participants. Reliability of the MNSI-PL was assessed using the Cronbach's alpha, Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (KR-20), split-half reliability, the Gottman split-half tests, and correlation between first and second half was accessed. Stability was assessed using an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). For external validation, we used simple linear correlation, binomial regression, and agreement between two different tools using a Bland-Altman plot analysis.

RESULTS

The scale was internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha for the full scale: 0.81 for A and 0.87 for B). MNSI-PL scores in test/retest showed high stability (ICC = 0.73 for A and ICC = 0.97 for B). The statistically important correlations between MNSI-PL and NCS were found for B1, B2, and A1 ($P < 0.005$). The cut-off points of ≥ 3 for section A (sensitivity of 90%-100%; specificity of 33%-40%) and ≥ 2 for section B (sensitivity of 81%-84%; specificity of 60%-70%) were obtained during neuropathy detection.

CONCLUSION

The MNSI-PL is a reliable and valid instrument in screening for diabetic neuropathy.

Key Words: Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument; Validity; Reliability; Diabetic neuropathy; Chronic complications

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Core Tip: The Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument (MNSI) is a collective tool for assessing the peripheral nervous system in patients with diabetes mellitus and is widely used to evaluate patients in many countries. In Poland, the MNSI has not yet been validated, thus is a problem when using it in daily practice and for research purposes. We concluded that the Polish MNSI is a reliable and accurate screening tool for peripheral neuropathy, and we hope that it can be used by our colleagues in their studies. We also proposed cutoff points of both scales for patients and for physicians, hoping that MNSI can be used by other authors from different countries

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INTRODUCTION

A peripheral, symmetric sensorimotor polyneuropathy is the most common type of neuropathy in patients with diabetes mellitus (DM)[1]. Epidemiological data show that it occurs in approximately 28%-50% of patients with DM[2,3] depending on the population studied. It may begin developing in prediabetes[4], as carbohydrate disturbances start a few years before the diagnosis of type 2 DM (T2DM). According to guidelines, patients with T2DM should be screened for complications at the time of diagnosis. An examination in patients with type 1 DM (T1DM) should be performed approximately 5 years after the beginning of the disease. To minimize the risk of severe complications and to monitor neuropathy severity, regular inspections and examinations are recommended to be performed at least annually according to the International Working Group on the Diabetic Foot (2019)[5] as well as many local guidelines including those from the Polish Diabetes Association[6].

Peripheral neuropathy can be bothersome and significantly reduce a patient's quality of life. It is difficult to effectively treat and up to 50% of diabetic peripheral neuropathies can be asymptomatic. As a result of the deformation and loss of protective sensation caused by peripheral neuropathy, ulceration and finally amputation can occur[7-9], leading to the patient's disability. Therefore, the early detection of this characteristic disorder of the peripheral nervous system is important using proven and readily available tools. The examiner should ask patients about their subjective feeling (symptoms) and perform tests to assess the function of small and large fibers[10]. All necessary tests are included in the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument (MNSI)[11], which is a collective tool used to assess the peripheral nervous system in patients with DM and has been validated for patients in many countries. So far, this tool has not been validated to assess neuropathy in Poland. The use of MNSI may improve the diagnostic process of peripheral neuropathy and could be helpful in future studies. The reliability and precision of this tool was validated in previous studies[11-13]. The first section of the MNSI is subjective and consists of 15 self-administered questions, while the second section is a physical assessment that should be completed by health professionals.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

According to the information from the dedicated website (<https://eprovide.mapi-trust.org/instruments/michigan-neuropathy-screening-instrument>), the MNSI has been translated into Chinese, Czech, Finnish, French, German, Hungarian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, and Turkish languages and validated. After confirming that the scale has not been validated in Polish (PL), the investigators obtained consent to validate the MNSI. The original English version is freely available for download from the Michigan Diabetes Research Center's (MDRC's) website. The project was financially supported by the Ministry of Health Subvention according to the number SUBZ.C310.22.075 from the IT Simple System of the Wroclaw Medical University.

Our cross-sectional study was conducted at the University Rehabilitation Centre at Wroclaw Medical University in collaboration with the Department of Neurology. The study was approved by the Wroclaw Medical University's ethics committee (approval no: 1007/2021). The patients were recruited from NZOZ Nowy Dwor in Wroclaw, Poland, and in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All patients included in the study provided written informed consent to participate in the study.

Between January and April 2022, 89 patients met the inclusion criteria and were eligible for participation in the study. However, 8 of them did not come to the clinic within the stipulated time frame. Thus, a total of 81 patients signed the consent and participated in the study. One of the patients recalled during the course of the project that she had received chemotherapy for cancer treatment and was excluded from the analysis, this left a population of 80 participants.

Translation and cross-cultural adaptation

For the patient's section of the MNSI, the only change proposed by both the patients and the committee was to replace the wording "legs" with "legs and feet". This is because for many people the word "legs" is commonly used to refer to the area from the groin to the ankles. For this reason, the question about feeling in the legs may not take into account problems with the feet. The same problem was reported by the team from Portugal[14]. Patients were also asked what exactly the authors meant in point number 13: "Are you able to sense your feet when you walk?" (original version). In PL, it is hard to translate this into a simple and short form. This was also identified in the retranslation because after retranslation the sentence was: "Do you feel the right sensation in your feet when walking?" and in the committee's opinion, it may be misleading. Thus, we suggested that even though this part of the scale is self-administered, the practitioner could help patients to understand the question. For the examiner's section, we stressed that each of the abnormalities should be recorded if present. This was not clear in the translated version according to the diabetologist.

In the instruction "How to Use the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument", the following elements were changed after translation into PL to better reflect what was done: (1) In the part entitled "vibration sensation": We stressed in PL the word "bilaterally"; and (2) In the part entitled "ankle reflexes": In "(...) foot dorsiflexed slightly" we also used the form dorsiflexed (in medical PL: "zgięcie grzbietowe") because the medical form is understandable, and there is no need to use the colloquial wording ("bend up") as proposed by the translator as this part of the MNSI is done by professionals.

The same layout as in the document from the University of Michigan was kept, which is similar in the original version but is enriched with a monofilament test. Despite the problem with question 13 in the self-administered part of the MNSI, the differences between the retranslation and original text were related to addressing the patient. For example, in question 1 of the original version, the question was stated as, "Are your legs and/or feet numb?", whereas the retranslation stated, "Do you experience numbness in your legs and/or feet?", these differences were deemed to be of little importance.

Population

A study population composed of patients with a diagnosis of DM, using the PL Diabetes Association criteria[6], who attended the NZOZ Nowy Dwor, where the principal researcher works as a diabetologist were identified. The inclusion criteria were: (1) DM diagnosis except gestational; (2) Age ≥ 18 ; and (3) Native language is PL. Exclusion criteria were: (1) Chronic renal failure requiring renal replacement therapy; (2) Liver cirrhosis; (3) Symptomatic cerebrovascular disease; (4) Active cancer; (5) History of chemotherapy or radiotherapy; (6) Autoimmune disease; (7) Chronic infectious disease; (8) Alcohol or drug abuse; (9) Clinical radicular neuropathy; and (10) Mental or physical conditions that could compromise the evaluation of clinical symptoms. Exclusion criteria were established with a neurologist and were based on prior Portuguese and Turkish validation.

The type of DM, DM duration, body mass, height, body mass index, and glycated hemoglobin no more than 3 mo before the study were collected to characterize the study population. The information necessary to confirm the above-mentioned inclusion and exclusion criteria was obtained from the patient's records or based on a short interview performed just before the study started if no records were available.

The MNSI with its 2 sections (A and B) was administered to all of the patients twice within an interval of 1-2 wk. A nerve conduction study (NCS) was performed on the same day as the first MNSI. Both specialists who performed the MNSI and NCS were blind to the NCS result and MNSI score for the

patient, respectively.

MNSI

The first part of the MNSI (part A) consists of 15 self-administered “yes/no” questions on foot sensation including pain, numbness, and temperature sensitivity. The scoring is awarded according to a special key. Because items 4 (a circulation measurement) and 10 (a general status measurement) were excluded from the original scale, the highest score for this part of the MNSI is 13 points. The patient should answer all of these questions by him/herself. The higher the points, the more severe the neuropathic symptoms[12].

The next part of the MNSI (part B) is a physical examination involving the assessment of the foot's appearance (deformities, dry skin, nail abnormalities, callous, infection), a semi-quantitative assessment of vibration sensation at the dorsum of the great toe using a 128-Hz tuning fork, ankle reflexes, and monofilament testing using a 10-g Semmes-Weinstein monofilament. In the original version of the MNSI[11], testing with a monofilament was not included but since cross-sectional studies found it to be highly sensitive for predicting the risk of foot ulceration, it was incorporated into the scale from the University of Michigan[15]. In part B, the results were scored with points assigned separately to positive tests of the right/left foot. The maximum possible score in the second section after adding the monofilament test was 10 points. The information on how to perform tests was incorporated as part of instruction for practitioners and was translated into PL to standardize the examination in **Supplementary material** (No 1 “Instruction of MNSI-PL for practitioners”).

After permission to validate, we used the English version which is freely available on the MDRC's website. This MNSI document was translated into PL independently by a diabetologist (being aware of the concept, T1) and a professional translator (not informed of the concept, T2) from GROJ in **Supplementary material** (No 2 “MNSI-PL”). These translations were then compared by a panel of four investigators to identify potential questions about the meaning of items in both sections. Additionally, four randomly selected patients assessed whether the text from the first section was understandable and helped select the more understandable wording among the versions from the translator and the diabetologist where the translation differed. Finally, the translated document was improved (final version – T1/2) and was given to a different professional translator from GROJ (BT1) and one professional (BT2) to translate back into English. These individuals were blinded to the original version of the MNSI. Both English versions (retranslated and T1/2) were then compared and discrepancies were identified, reviewed, and confirmed to be acceptable (no conceptual errors were found) by the investigators.

NCS

The Viking Quest version 10.0 device connected to a Thermal Sensory Analyzer II 2001 (TSA II), a VSA – 3000 Vibratory Sensory Analyzer (Medoc, Israel), Viking Select version 7.1.1c., and a Nicolet Biomedical device with the Multi-Mode Program (MMP Plus) software were used during the electrophysiological studies. The standard electrophysiological examination consisted of sensory and motor conduction velocity tests with the F-wave estimation. The tests were performed in the left peroneal and tibial nerves and both sural nerves. We assessed distal latency or the shortest latency of F-wave (in milliseconds – ms), potential amplitude (in microvolts – μ V for sensory testing, and in millivolts – mV for motor testing), and conduction velocity (in meters per second – m/s). A standard distance between electrodes and distal points of stimulations was preserved for all tests. We used an antidromic technique for sensory conduction velocity estimations. The same conditions were kept during the studies including a room temperature between 21–23 °C and a foot temperature not less than 32 °C[16,17]. Additionally, a conduction velocity distribution test using the collision technique was performed on the peroneal nerve [18]. Vibratory, temperature, and warm- and cold-induced pain thresholds were assessed over the S1 dermatome using quantitative sensory testing[18].

A qualified neurologist obtained the results, if there was an abnormality in any evaluated parameter (latency, amplitude, conduction velocity) in individual nerves in the test, the patient received 1 point. Points 4 meant severe polyneuropathy, 0 normal, 1 minimal, 2 mild, and 3 moderate polyneuropathy.

The scoring for the detection of neuropathy based on NCS for statistical analysis (dichotomous data) was defined as follows: (1) No neuropathy – if no disturbances in nerve conduction were found; and (2) neuropathy – if pathology was found within at least one test. We did not score the severity of neuropathy for statistical analysis.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were carried out using the computer program Statistics version 14.0 and R version 4.0.3. To statistically evaluate the degree of correspondence between the MNSI and NCS (gold standard) scores, summed values obtained from MNSI parts A and B at both time points, the summed NCS and NCS presented in dichotomous form were used (vide Methodology, NCS). The basis for the estimation of the minimum sample size was the analysis of the reliability of the test with Cronbach's alpha coefficient[19]. The basis for its estimation was the following accepted assumptions: Minimum acceptable Cronbach's alpha (H_0) = 0.64, expected Cronbach's alpha (H_1) = 0.77, significance level (α) = 0.05; power ($1 - \beta$) = 0.8, number of items (k) = 15–20. Based on the accepted assumptions and literature

information, the minimum sample size was set at 80.

The continuous data were expressed as means with minimum-maximum values and standard deviations. The qualitative data were expressed as percentages. Reliability was measured by Cronbach's alpha using Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) coefficient. The consistency values for KR-20 were considered enough when 0.6-0.7; good when 0.7-0.8, and very good when > 0.8 . KR-20 values over 0.6 indicated that items had integrity and the test was homogenous[20-22]. Also, the split-half reliability, the Gottman split-half and the correlation between the first and second half were assessed. Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) values for consistency (ICC consistency) and agreement (ICC agreement) were calculated for a two-way random effects model to evaluate the stability[20]. An ICC above 0.60 was considered a good fit[21].

To evaluate the statistical significance of the correlation between the summary results obtained using the compared tools (MNSI *vs* NCS), we used a simple linear correlation, multinomial regression, and a Bland-Altman plot to evaluate the agreement between the two different instruments. The next step was to assess the correlation between the results of the NCS (expressed on a dichotomous scale) and the sum values obtained from parts A and B of the MNSI at the two time points. For this purpose, a multinomial logistic regression model was used. The area under the receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curves were estimated to measure the discriminatory power of the test. The area under the ROC curve (AUC) represented the performance of a test in predicting the outcome.

RESULTS

Patients

A total of 80 patients participated in our validation study (39 women and 41 men; 48.75% and 51.25%, respectively). The sample characteristics are presented in [Table 1](#). Most of the patients were diagnosed with T2DM ($n = 77$; 96.25%), and only 3 (3.75%) of them had T1DM. The weight and height were the only parameters that differentiated women and men in the studied population. All the patients were tested using the MNSI scale twice (A1B1 and A2B2) and agreed for NCS.

Reliability and stability results

The consistency values for KR-20 were considered enough when 0.6-0.7; good when 0.7-0.8, and very good when > 0.8 . In our study, the reliability was measured for both parts (A and B) of the MNSI together and separately for A and B. These results showed very good consistency with a Cronbach's alpha for the full scale of 0.81 for part A and 0.87 for part B ([Table 2](#)). The analyses of separated items (A and B) are presented in the [Supplementary materials](#) ([Supplementary Tables 1 and 2](#) for items from parts A and B, respectively). KR-20 values over 0.6 indicated that items had integrity, and the test was homogenous which was achieved in all the analyses performed in our study[21,22] ([Table 2](#)).

Regarding stability, all patients were retested within 7-14 d, and the MNSI scores between the test and re-test showed an ICC 0.73 for part A and an ICC 0.97 for part B. For both agreement and consistency, a high level of statistical significance was seen ([Table 3](#)). An ICC above 0.60 was considered a good fit[21]. Detailed factor analysis is shown in the [Supplementary Tables 3 and 4](#).

External validation

The simple linear correlation between the sum of the NCS scores and B scores on the MNSI was statistically significant when comparing the test and re-test ($P < 0.001$; $P < 0.001$ respectively). For part A of the MNSI, a statistically significant correlation was confirmed for part A1 ($P < 0.001$) but not A2 ($P > 0.001$). Statistically significant bivariate regression models were established for the two time points, confirming a statistically significant correlation of part B and no statistically significant correlation for part A of the MNSI ([Supplementary Table 5](#)).

The model of multinomial logistic regression of both parameters (A and B) at time point one [odds ratio (OR) = 2.4, $P = 0.022$ and OR = 2.3, $P = 0.009$ for A1 and B1, respectively] and statistical significance for B2 (OR = 1.8, $P = 0.009$) and its absence for A2 (OR = 1, $P = 1$) ([Supplementary Table 6](#)) were confirmed, thereby also underlining the greater influence of the B-MNSI variable on the occurrence of an event (here neuropathy) assessed using the gold standard NCS. Analysis of the Bland-Altman plots showed high mutual compatibility between the results of the compared tools (MNSI *vs* NCS, [Figure 1](#)).

The ROC area between the NCS and MNSI (section A and/or B) scores helped to validate the scale. A value of 0.70-0.79 indicated reasonable test performance, 0.80-0.89 indicated good performance, and ≥ 0.9 indicated very good performance. The results of AUC for the NCS and both parts of the MNSI ([Table 4](#)) reached statistical significance for B1, B2, and A1 ($P < 0.001$) but not for A2. We determined the cut-off points for the patient's and practitioner's part regarding the sensitivity and specificity of each item to predict neuropathy as confirmed by NCS.

We obtained the same values for optimal cut-off points during both time points for the MNSI's patient version (part A) as well as the practitioner version (part B), which could be found as 3 and 2 respectively ([Table 5](#)). The sensitivity and specificity cut-off points for A were 33%-40% and 90%-100%, respectively. The sensitivity and specificity cut-off points for B were 81%-84% and 60%-70%, res-

Table 1 General sample characteristics

Variable, <i>n</i> = 80	Sex	Descriptive statistics				Mann-Whitney <i>U</i> test	
		Valid (<i>n</i>)	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD	<i>P</i> value
Age (yr)	Female	39	69.00	45.00	80.00	6.27	0.151516
	Male	41	65.32	37.00	76.00	9.56	
Weight (kg)	Female	39	77.36	54.00	108.00	12.24	2.55E-03
	Male	41	88.66	63.00	150.00	16.52	
Height (cm)	Female	39	161.38	150.00	174.00	5.97	1.78E-11
	Male	41	175.15	164.00	190.00	6.90	
BMI (kg/m ²)	Female	39	29.68	21.90	40.20	4.52	2.64E-01
	Male	41	28.84	21.50	44.30	4.90	
HbA1c (%)	Female	38	6.42	5.20	8.50	0.79	4.87E-01
	Male	40	6.58	5.00	8.80	0.97	
DM ¹ duration (yr)	Female	39	12.10	0.00	37.00	8.13	2.90E-01

¹Diabetes mellitus duration for less than 6 mo = 0, between 6-12 mo = 1 year.

BMI: Body mass index; DM: Diabetes mellitus; HbA1c: Glycated hemoglobin; SD: Standard deviation.

Table 2 Reliability results for the patient and practitioner sections of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument-Polish version

Part A of MNSI		Part B of MNSI	
<i>n</i> = 80	Cronbach alpha, full scale: 0.81790	Cronbach alpha, full scale: 0.87095	
	Corr 1 st & 2 nd half: 0.745791	Corr 1 st & 2 nd half: 0.972206	
	Split-half reliability: 0.854388	Split-half reliability: 0.985907	
	Guttman split-half: 0.840785	Guttman split-half: 0.985838	
	Summary for A1	Summary for A2	Summary for B1
Mean	4.250000	4.150000	6.212500
Sum	340.0000	332.0000	497.0000
SD	3.403275	4.313946	3.925553
Variance	11.58228	18.61013	15.40997
Cronbach alpha	0.6499672	0.7060083	0.7337023

A1: Patient version; A2: Patient version (after 1-2 wk); B1: Patient examination; B2: Patient examination (after 1-2 wk); MNSI-PL: Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument-Polish version; SD: Standard deviation.

pectively.

DISCUSSION

Dedicated to different populations (language, culture differences), the existing instruments in medicine should not only be simply translated but also validated[23]. The validation process should be completed using a representative sample to demonstrate adequate reliability and validity. Peripheral neuropathy is the most common form of diabetic neuropathy, affecting the nerves of the limbs, particularly those of the feet. The MNSI is a low-cost, rapid tool with a user-friendly format that helps detect pathology of the peripheral nervous system in patients with DM and has been validated using NCS (gold standard) for neuropathy detection[15]. After publication, the MNSI has been translated into several languages. A list of available translations that have been validated is available for distribution on the Mapi Research Trust website. However, a PL version has not been added to this list as it has not been validated. Therefore, in our study, we evaluated both the reliability and validity of a PL version of the MNSI

Table 3 Stability of the patient and practitioner sections of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument-Polish version

Part of MNSI	Mean (SD)		ICC for agreement		ICC for consistency	
	Test score	Re-test score	ICC _{agreement}	P value	ICC _{consistency}	P value
A	2.125 (1.70)	2.075 (2.16)	0.728	9.05E-15	0.725	9.47E-15
B	3.106 (1.96)	3.088 (1.93)	0.972	6.19E-52	0.972	8.53E-52

Part A: Patient version of Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument; Part B: Patient examination. ICC: Intraclass correlation coefficient; MNSI-PL: Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument-Polish version.

Table 4 The area under the curve values for Nerve Conduction Study and Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument Polish version (version A and B) at both time points

Variable	AUC	P value
A1	0.749	0.0003
B1	0.796	0.0000
A2	0.617	0.2296
B2	0.770	0.0001

A1: Patient version; A2: Patient version (after 1-2 wk); AUC: Area under the curve; B1: Patient examination; B2: Patient examination (after 1-2 wk).

Table 5 The cut-off points for Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument Polish version at the two time points and their sensitivity and specificity, and their positive and negative predictive values based on receiver operating characteristic curves

Variable	True positives, n, %	False positives, n, %	False negatives, n, %	True negatives, n, %	Sensitivity	Specificity	Optimal cut-off point
A1	28/35	0/0	42/52.5	10/12.5	0.400	1.000	3
B1	57/71.25	3/3.75	13/16.25	7/8.75	0.814	0.700	2
A2	23/28.75	1/1.25	47/58.75	9/11.25	0.329	0.900	3
B2	59/73.75	4/5	11/13.75	6/7.5	0.843	0.600	2

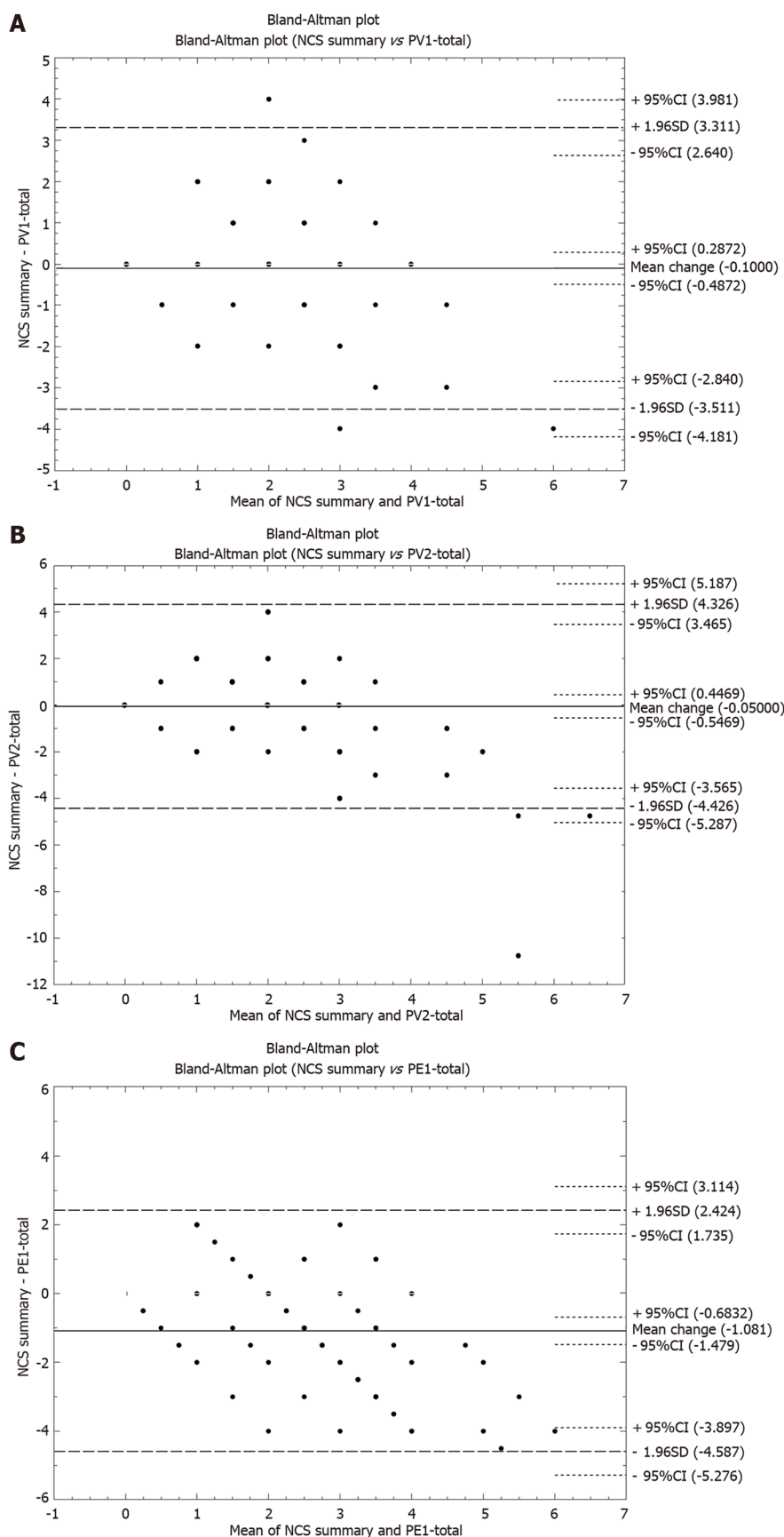
A1: Patient version; A2: Patient version (after 1-2 wk); B1: Patient examination; B2: Patient examination (after 1-2 wk).

following the principles of proper validation[23].

Based on the KR-20, split-half analysis, and ICC, we found that the MNSI-PL is a reliable and stable tool with high internal consistency using a cut-off value of 3 for the questionnaire (part A) and 2 for the examination (part B). The models of multinomial regression and multinomial logistic regression confirmed the greater influence of the B-MNSI variable on the diagnosis of an event (neuropathy) when NCS was used as the gold standard for this diagnosis. The ability to predict neuropathy based on section B was found to be high in other studies[15,24] and even higher compared to section A alone if this part was used together with B[24]. This is understandable as the MNSI consists of two parts, section A which is rather subjective because it is self-administered by the patient, and section B which includes tests to be performed by professionals.

The evaluation of a patient's peripheral nerve function can be done directly, without subjective bias, by electromyography or biopsy[25-27]. However, because of their invasiveness, persistent discomfort, sensory loss, risk of non-healing, and need to be completed by a specialist, these tools are not first-line diagnostic procedures. The analysis of the Bland-Altman plots in our study unequivocally demonstrates the high concordance between MNSI and NCS test results. This makes the MNSI-PL a reliable screening tool for the diagnosis of peripheral neuropathy in diabetic patients.

For each of the MNSI parts, the cutoff point to confirm neuropathy has been discussed in the literature. However, a cut-off point of 7 for the first section (A in our study) has been previously accepted to be abnormal[11]. Later studies have proposed a cut-off point of ≥ 4 to improve the performance of the MNSI and achieve acceptable levels of sensitivity and specificity. The study that revised the previously existed threshold of ≥ 7 for part A of the MNSI by setting it at ≥ 4 achieved a sensitivity of 40% and specificity of 92%[28]. In our study, a threshold of 3 for part A was found to be



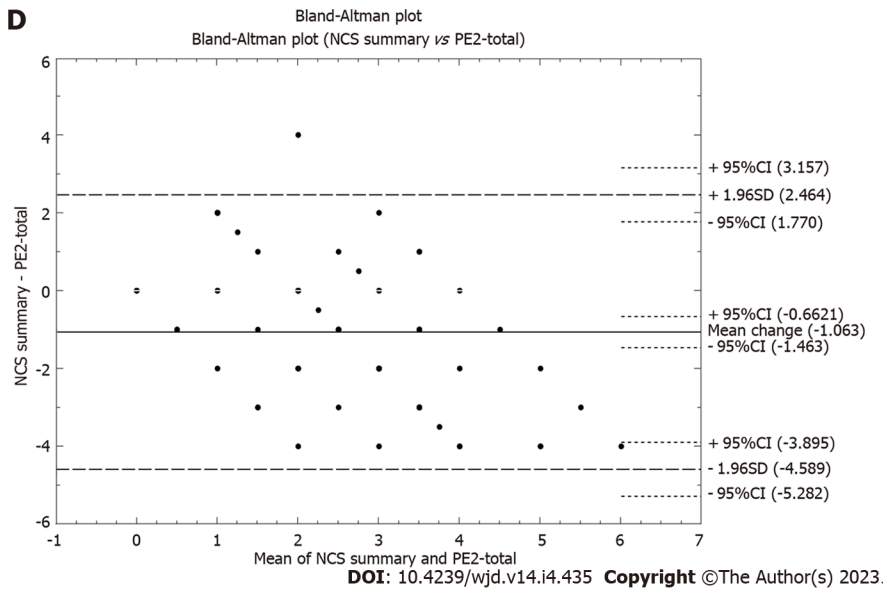


Figure 1 Bland-Altman plots: evaluation of the agreement between the two different instruments (nerve conduction study and Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument). A: Agreement between nerve conduction study (NCS) and patient's version (PV)1; B: Agreement between NCS and PV2; C: Agreement between NCS and patient examination (PE)1; D: Agreement between NCS and PE2. CI: Confidence interval; MNSI: Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument; NCS: Nerve conduction study; PE1 or 2: Patient examination 1 or 2 (part B1 or B2 of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument); PV1 or 2: Patient's version 1 or 2 (part A1 or A2 of the Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument); SD: Standard deviation.

the optimal cut-off point and had a specificity of 33%-40%, which shows the probability of having a normal MNSI result in the absence of confirmed neuropathy. The sensitivity reached 90%-100%, which shows the probability of having a positive result in the presence of confirmed neuropathy. Compared to the study by Herman *et al*[28], we achieved a lower specificity but higher sensitivity and the sensitivity and specificity from our validation study were closer to the results found in the Portuguese[14], Arabic [29] and Turkish[24] analyses. We also proposed a similar cut-off point for A as used in these two studies[14,24]. A high sensitivity gives the test a high ability to correctly identify patients with the disease. Based on our observations during the application of the test to patients, the self-administered part should be filled out with an accompanied professional (doctor, nurse, physiotherapist) to explain any doubts if necessary. It would also be useful when illiterate individuals are completing the questionnaire[24].

For part B (examination) of the MNSI, a score greater than 2 was considered abnormal according to the original scoring algorithm[11]. A threshold of ≥ 2.5 was shown to be 61% sensitive and 79% specific in confirming clinical neuropathy in Diabetes Control and Complications Trial/Epidemiology of Diabetes Interventions and Complications[27]. However, in the study by Moghtaderi *et al*[15], the sensitivity and specificity of the examination with a cut-off point of 2 was found to be 65% and 83%. In our study, we found the optimal cut-off point of 2 for section B with a sensitivity of 81%-84% and specificity of 60%-70%, which was similar to the Portuguese study (86% sensitivity and 61% specificity using the same cut-off point)[14].

To summarize both parts of the MNSI, the same cut-off points used in our study for sections A and B were proposed by the authors of the Portuguese version[14] with similar levels of sensitivity and specificity and in one of the Turkish validation studies[30]. As we mentioned, the results from our validation process stressed the importance of part B in detecting neuropathy compared to part A, which was similar to the results of the Turkish validation study[24].

The strengths of our study include a sufficient number of individuals based on the described calculation model, the completion of NCS on the whole group of studied patients, a wide panel of statistical analysis to confirm good reliability and stability of the tool, and confirming the cut-off points for parts A and B seen in previous studies with similar sensitivities and specificities[15,21,28,30,31].

There are limitations to our study. The questionnaire and examination process were limited in which items could not rule out subclinical neuropathy and an autonomic component[32]. Although a small percentage of patients with T1DM (less than 4%) can be considered a limitation because it does not reflect the proportion of different DM types in the population[33], this does not affect the usefulness of the MNSI. Patients with T1DM are usually younger, so we expect that it is easier for them to understand and answer the questions in part A. Additionally, the type of DM has no impact on part B of the MNSI as this is done by a professional.

The recommendations of the PL Diabetes Association do not propose the use of appropriate scales for assessing peripheral neuropathy[6]. This is due to the lack of adaptation of scales such as the MNSI to the PL system, which contributes to a lack of uniformity in assessing a patient's condition. As a result,

some centers create informal evaluation criteria and rules (even though they use the same tools and tests). Similar problems also arise during the design of clinical trials, for which only the English-language scale can be used. Therefore, the introduction of a validated scale would help to standardize screening for neuropathy in diabetic patients.

CONCLUSION

The MNSI-PL is a reliable screening tool for diabetic peripheral sensorimotor neuropathy when using a cut-off of ≥ 3 for section A and ≥ 2 for section B. Part B is stronger in detecting neuropathy as it is more objective. Additionally, the whole test is useful in clinical practice as well as in our country.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

The Michigan Neuropathy Screening Instrument (MNSI) is a collective tool for assessing the peripheral nervous system in patients with diabetes mellitus and is widely used to evaluate patients in many countries.

Research motivation

In Poland, the MNSI has not yet been validated, thus this is a problem when using it in daily practice and for research purposes.

Research objectives

This study aimed to validate both sections (A and B) of the MNSI in Polish (PL) patients with diabetes.

Research methods

A cross-sectional study using a test (A1, B1) and re-test (A2, B2) formula was performed in 80 patients with diabetes. The gold standard used for neuropathy detection was a nerve conduction study (NCS) which was performed on all participants. Reliability of the MNSI-PL was assessed using the Cronbach's alpha, Kuder-Richardson formula 20, split-half reliability, the Gottman split-half tests and correlation between first and second half was accessed. Stability was assessed using an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC). For external validation, we used simple linear correlation, binomial regression, and agreement between two different tools using a Bland-Altman plot analysis.

Research results

The scale was internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha for the full scale: 0.81 for A and 0.87 for B). MNSI-PL scores between test/retest showed high stability (ICC = 0.73 for A and ICC = 0.97 for B). The statistically important correlations between MNSI-PL and NCS were found for B1, B2, and A1 ($P < 0.005$). The cut-off points of ≥ 3 for section A (sensitivity of 90%-100%; specificity of 33%-40%) and ≥ 2 for section B (sensitivity of 81%-84%; specificity of 60%-70%) were obtained during neuropathy detection.

Research conclusions

The MNSI-PL is a reliable and valid instrument in screening for diabetic neuropathy.

Research perspectives

PL MNSI is a reliable and accurate screening tool for peripheral neuropathy. We also proposed cutoff points for both scales (for patients and for physicians), and hope that this can also be used by other authors from different countries.

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FOOTNOTES

Author contributions: Sutkowska E designed the study, prepared the article and was major in substantial contributions to conception and design of the work; Sutkowska E, Marciniak D, and Hap K contributed to the data analysis and interpretation; Sutkowska E, Koszewicz M, Dziadkowiak E, Budrewicz S, Biernat K, Kuciel N, and

Mazurek J were involved in the acquisition and analysis of data for the work investigation; Koszewicz M and Dziadkowiak E participated in the interpretation of data for the work investigation; Marciniak D, Koszewicz M, Dziadkowiak E, Budrewicz S, Biernat K, Kuciel N, and Mazurek J revised the work critically for important intellectual content; Sutkowska E and Hap K drafted the work; and all authors approved the final version to be published and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

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Informed consent statement: All patients included in the study were provided written informed consent to participate in the study.

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