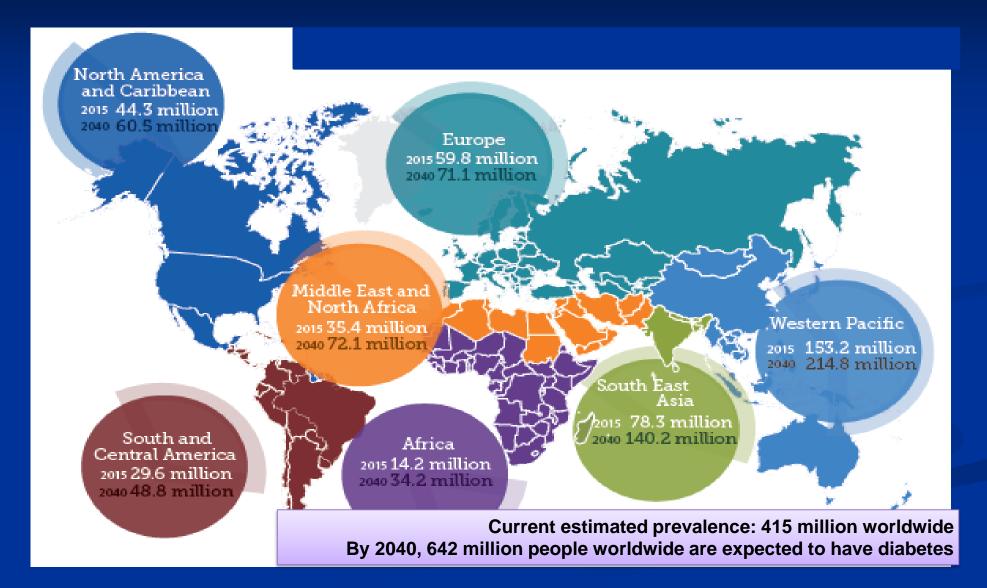
Pathophysiology and Epidemiology of Type 2 Diabetes



Robin Goland MD

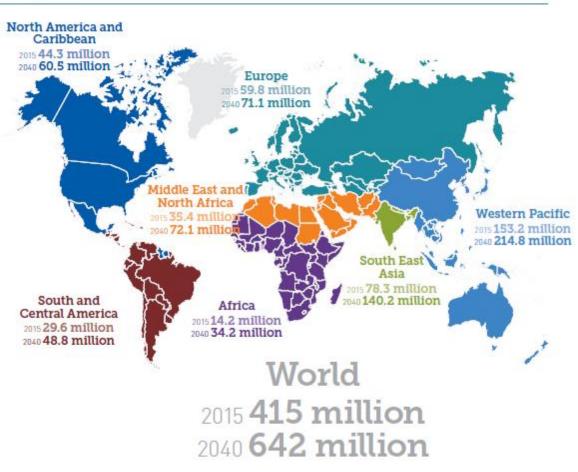
J. Merrill Eastman Professor of Medicine and Pediatrics Naomi Berrie Diabetes Center Columbia University Medical Center New York, NY rsg2@columbia.edu

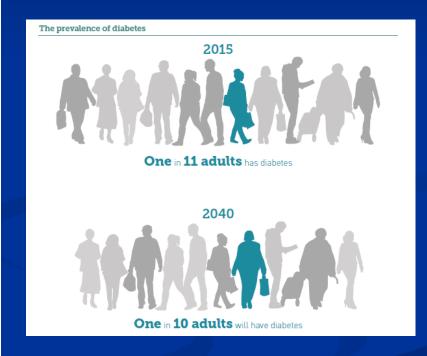
Worldwide Prevalence of Diabetes



Global Impact: Update

Estimated number of people with diabetes worldwide and per region in 2015 and 2040 (20-79 years)

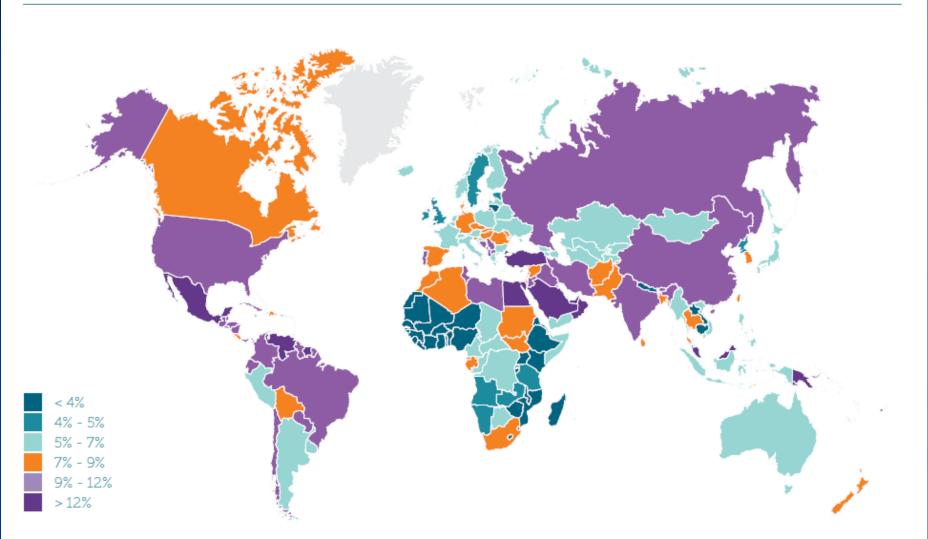




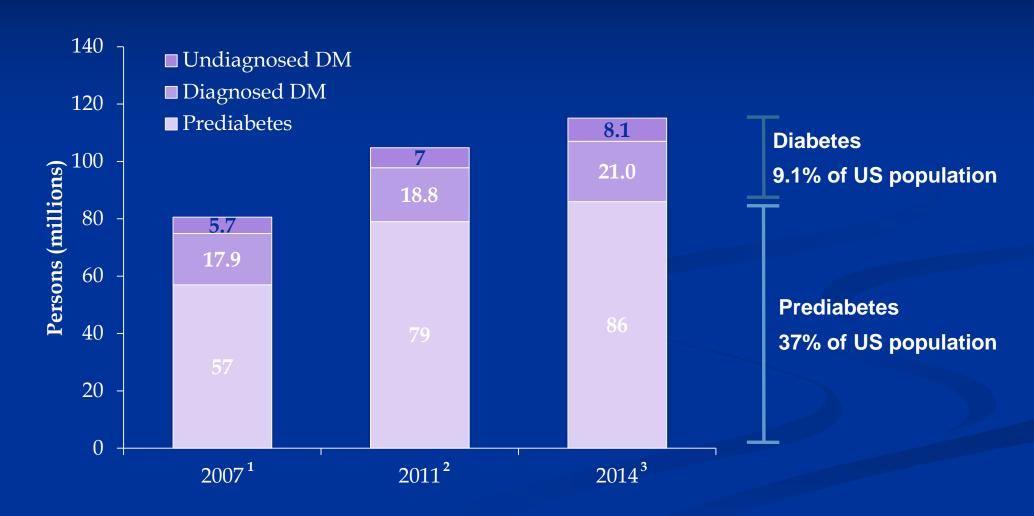


Prevalence of Diabetes in Adults

Map 3.1 Estimated age-adjusted prevalence of diabetes in adults (20-79), 2015



Prevalence of Diabetes and Prediabetes in the United States

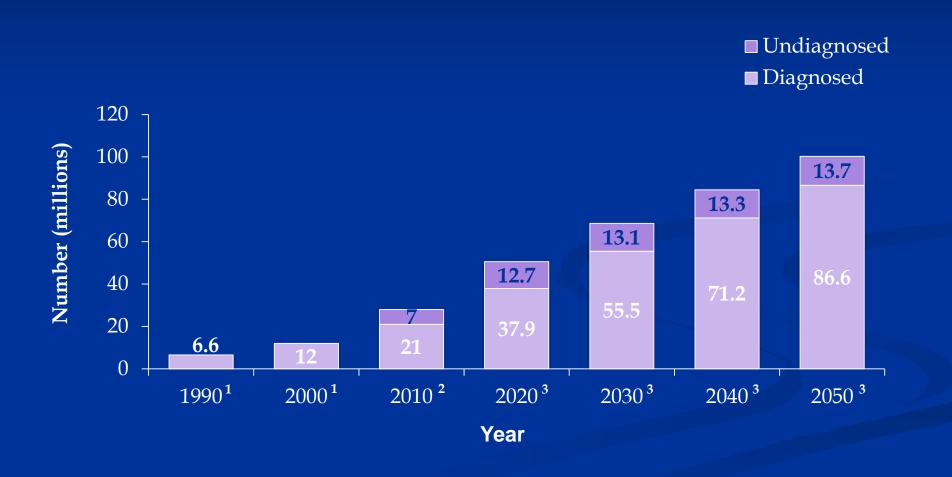


^{1.} CDC. National diabetes fact sheet, 2008. http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pubs/pdf/ndfs_2008.pdf.

^{2.} CDC. National diabetes fact sheet, 2011. http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pubs/pdf/ndfs_2011.pdf.

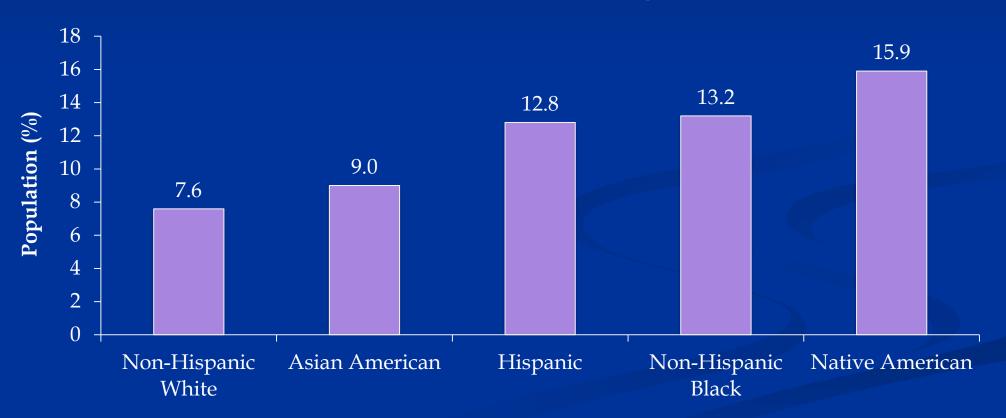
^{3.} CDC. National diabetes statistics report, 2014. http://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/pubs/statsreport14/national-diabetes-report-web.pdf

Projected Prevalence of Diabetes in the United States: 1990 to 2050

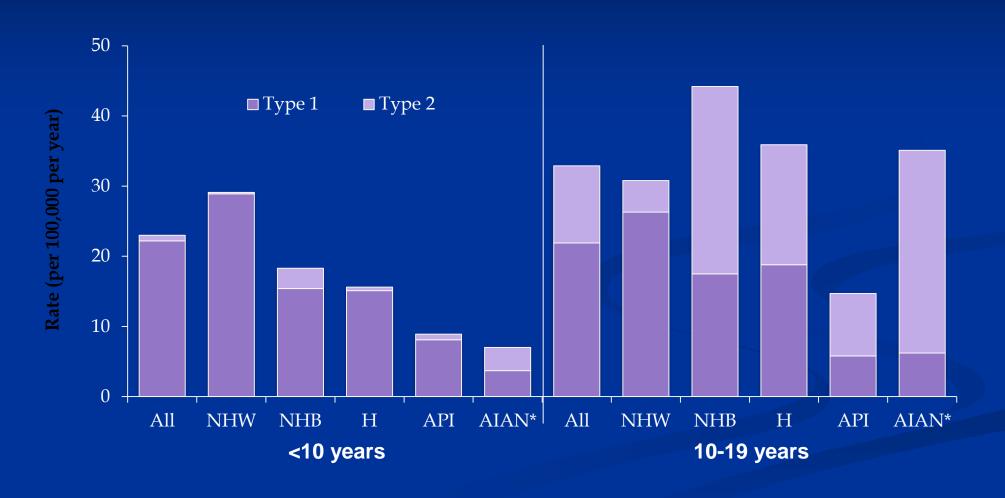


Prevalence of Diagnosed Diabetes in Different US Ethnic and Racial Groups

US Adults ≥20 Years of Age

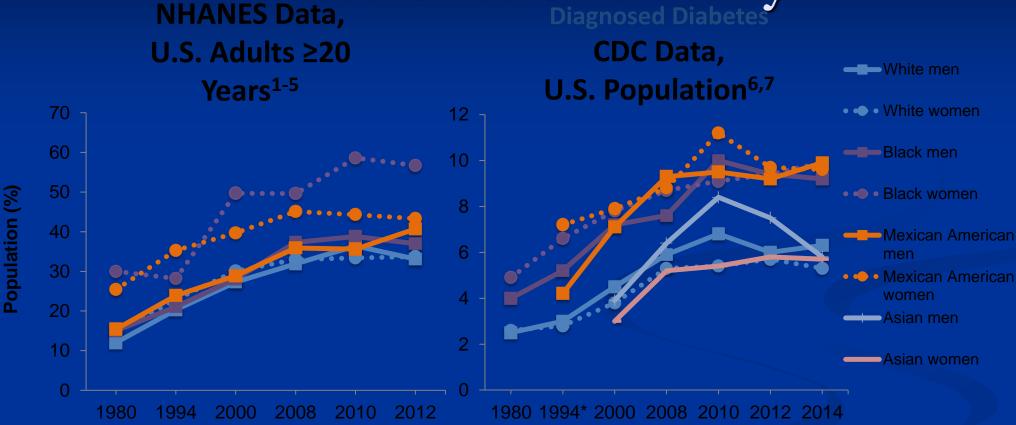


Annual Incidence of Diabetes in US Children and Adolescents



T2D Prevalence Parallels

Prevalence of Obesity NHANES Data, Diagnosed Diabetes

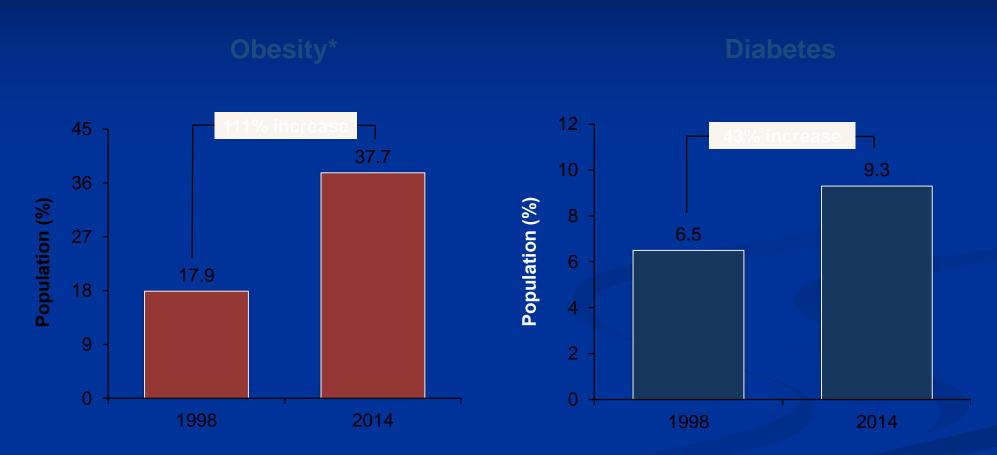


BMI, body mass index (in kg/m²); CDC, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention; NHANES, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (x-axis lists last year of each survey).

^{*}NHANES 1994 data.

^{1.} Flegal KM, et al. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 1998;22:39-47. 2. Flegal KM, et al. *JAMA*. 2002 ;288:1723-1727. 3. Flegal KM, et al. *JAMA*. 2010;303:235-241. 4. Flegal KM, et al. *JAMA*. 2012;307:491-497. 5. Ogden CL, et al. *JAMA*. 2014;311:806-814. 6. Harris MI, et al. *Diabetes Care*. 1998;21:518-524. 7. CDC. Diabetes data & trends. Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/diabetes/statistics/prev/national/fighispanicthsex.htm.

Increase in Diabetes Parallels the Increase in Obesity in the United States



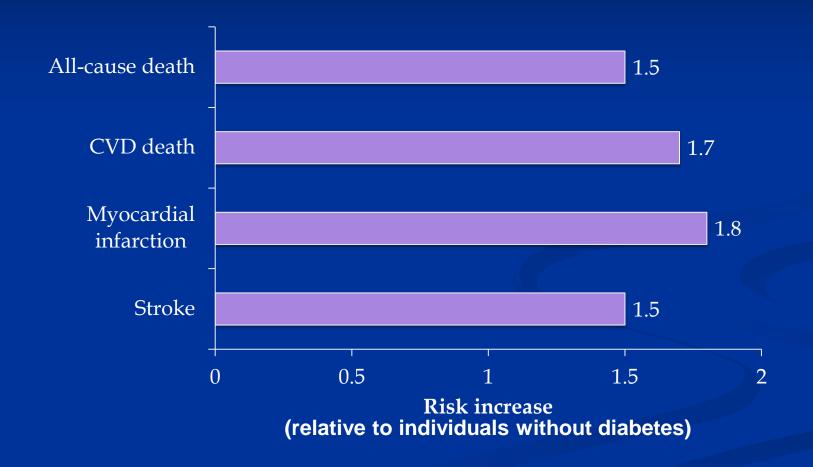
^{*}BMI ≥30 kg/m².

Diabetes Morbidity and Mortality

- 7th leading cause of death in US
- Leading cause of blindness
- Most frequent cause of kidney failure
- ~60% of nontraumatic lower limb amputations occur in people with diabetes

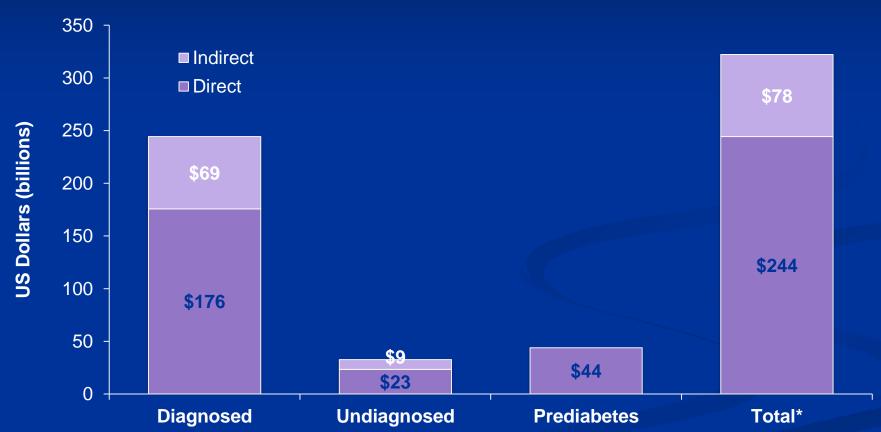
- Diabetes also
 - Doubles the risk of periodontal disease
 - Doubles the risk of developing depression
 - Depression increases T2D risk by 60%
 - Increases patients' susceptibility to acute illness (eg, pneumonia and influenza)
 - Worsens the prognosis of patients with acute illnesses

Diabetes and Morbidity and Mortality



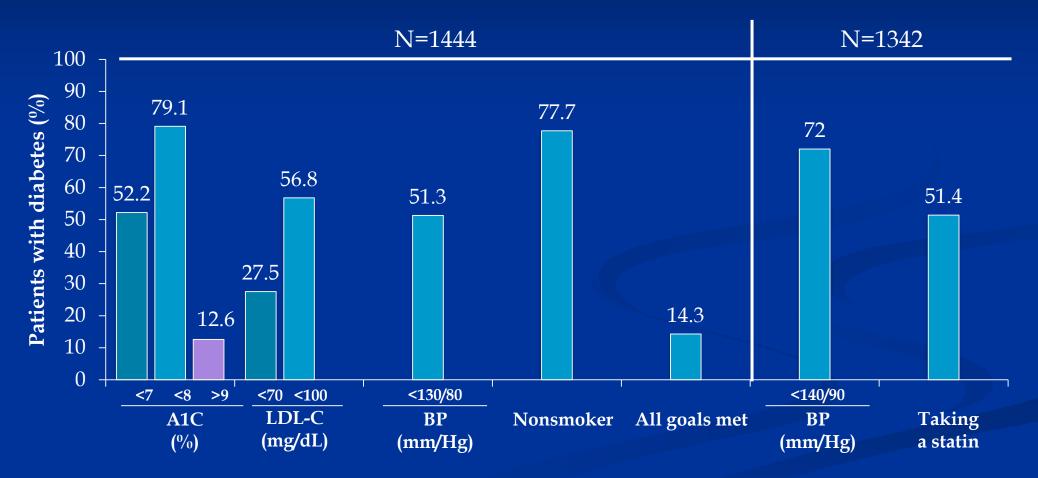
Costs of Diabetes

2012 Burden Estimate



Goal Achievement in Diabetes

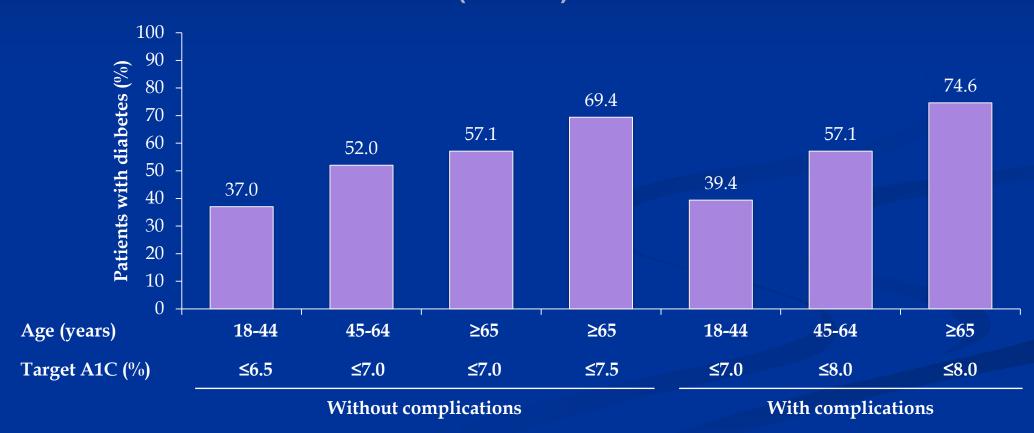
NHANES 2007-2010*



^{*}Data from separate studies.

A1C Achievement by Individualized Target

NHANES 2007-2010 (N=1444)

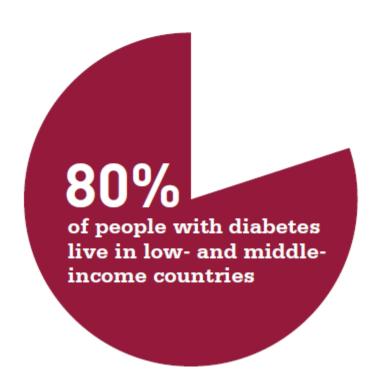


Prevalence by Age and Income

Prevalence (%) of diabetes (20-79 years) by income group and age



All nations – **rich and poor** – are suffering
the impact of the
diabetes epidemic.





Prevalence of Diabetes in Adults

Table 3.2 IDF regions ranked by age-adjusted prevalence (%) of diabetes (20-79 years), 2015 and 2040

		2015		2040	
		Age-adjusted comparative diabetes prevalence	Raw diabetes prevalence	Age-adjusted comparative diabetes prevalence	Raw diabetes prevalence
1	North America and Caribbean	11.5% (9.5-13.0%)	12.9% (10.8-14.5%)	12.0% (9.5-13.7%)	14.7% (11.8-16.7%)
2	Middle East and North Africa	10.7% (7.4-14.2%)	9.1% (6.3-12.2%)	11.1% (7.7-14.9%)	11.4% (7.8-15.1%)
3	South and Central America	9.6% (8.2-11.5%)	9.4% (8.0-11.3%)	9.7% (8.2-11.7%)	11.9% (10.1-14.3%)
4	Western Pacific	8.8% (7.7-10.8%)	9.3% (8.2-11.4%)	9.0% (8.0-11.2%)	11.9% (10.6-14.3%)
5	South-East Asia	8.8% (7.3-10.8%)	8.5% (6.8-10.8%)	9.1% (7.3-11.6%)	10.7% (8.5-13.7%)
6	Europe	7.3% (5.5-10.9%)	9.1% (6.8-13.0%)	7.6% (5.7-11.2%)	10.7% (8.2-14.9%)
7	Africa	3.8% (2.6-7.9%)	3.2% (2.1-6.7%)	4.2% (2.9-8.4%)	3.7% (2.6-7.3%)

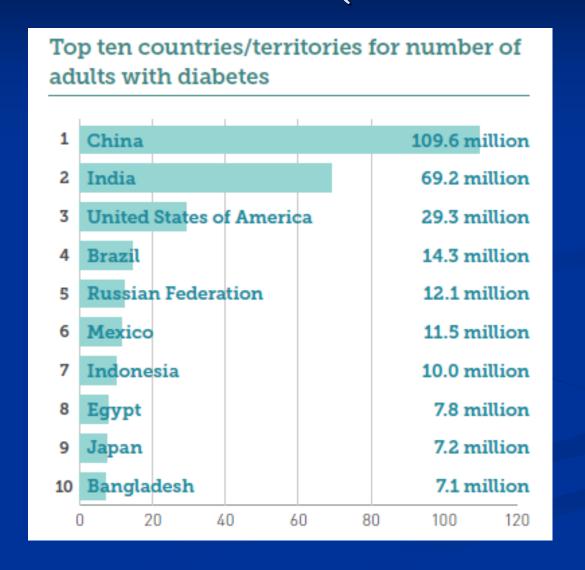
Table 3.1 IDF Diabetes Atlas global estimates, 2015 and 2040

	2015	2040
Total world population	7.3 billion	9.0 billion
Adult population (20-79 years)	4.72 billion	6.16 billion
Child population (0-14 years)	1.92 billion	-
Diabetes (20-79 years)		
Global prevalence	8.8% (7.2-11.4%)	10.4% (8.5-13.5%)
Number of people with diabetes	415 million (340-536 million)	642 million (521-829 million)
Number of deaths due to diabetes	5.0 million	-
Health expenditure due to diabetes (20-79 years)		
Total health expenditure, R=2* 2015 USD	673 billion	802 billion
Hyperglycaemia in pregnancy (20-49 years)		
Proportion of live births affected	16.2%	-
Number of live births affected	20.9 million	-
Impaired glucose tolerance (20-79 years)		
Global prevalence	6.7% (4.5-12.1%)	7.8% (5.2-13.9%)
Number of people with impaired glucose tolerance	318 million (212.2-571.6 million)	481 million (317.1-855.7 million)
Type 1 diabetes (0-14 years)		
Number of children with type 1 diabetes	542,000	-
Number of newly diagnosed cases each year	86,000	-

Regional Statistics

- **Africa:** More than 2/3 of people with diabetes are undiagnosed; 52% of deaths due to diabetes are <60 years old
- In the Middle East and North Africa, 4/10 adults with diabetes are undiagnosed
- About 1/8 adults in **North America and the Caribbean** has diabetes
- In Southeast Asia, 25% of all births are affected by hyperglycemia
- 37% of all adults with diabetes live in the Western Pacific
- Europe has the highest prevalence of children with T1DM

The Top 10 Countries: Numbers of People with Diabetes (in Millions)





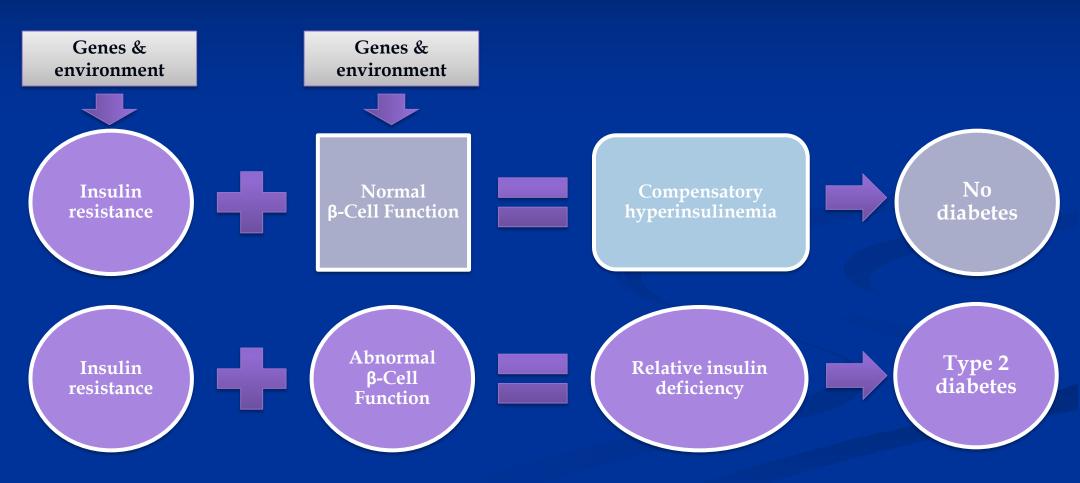
Clinical Presentation of Type 2 Diabetes

Risk Factors for Prediabetes and Type 2 Diabetes

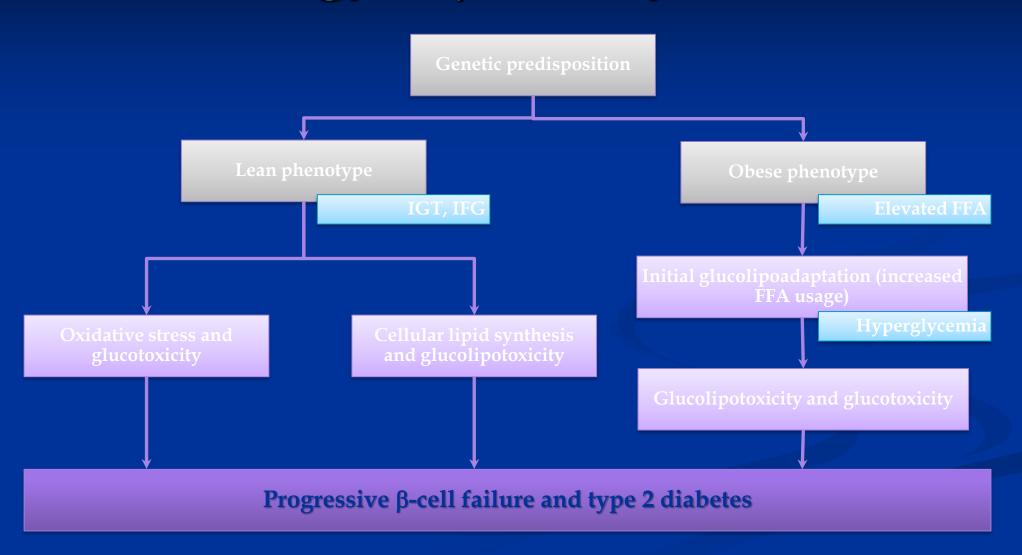
- Age ≥45 years
- Family history of T2D or cardiovascular disease
- Overweight or obese
- Sedentary lifestyle
- Non-Caucasian ancestry
- Previously identified IGT, IFG, and/or metabolic syndrome
- PCOS, acanthosis nigricans, or NAFLD
- Hypertension (BP >140/90 mmHg)
- Dyslipidemia (HDL-C <35 mg/dL and/or triglycerides >250 mg/dL)

- History of gestational diabetes
- Delivery of baby weighing>4 kg (>9 lb)
- Antipsychotic therapy for schizophrenia or severe bipolar disease
- Chronic glucocorticoid exposure
- Sleep disorders
 - Obstructive sleep apnea
 - Chronic sleep deprivation
 - Night shift work

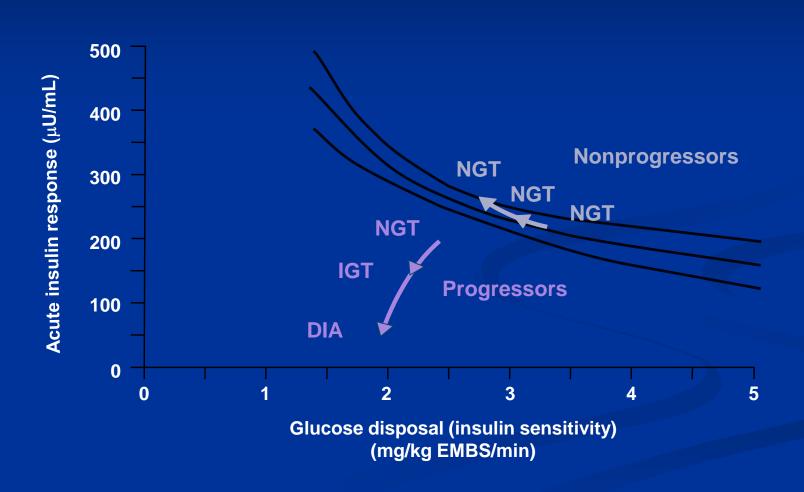
Development of Type 2 Diabetes Depends on Interplay Between Insulin Resistance and β-Cell Dysfunction



Etiology of β-cell Dysfunction



Progression to Type 2 Diabetes: "Falling Off the Curve"



Pathophysiology of Type 2 Diabetes

Organ System	Defect	
Major Role		
Pancreatic beta cells	Decreased insulin secretion	
Muscle	Inefficient glucose uptake	
Liver	Increased endogenous glucose secretion	
Contributing Role		
Adipose tissue	Increased FFA production	
Digestive tract	Decreased incretin effect	
Pancreatic alpha cells	Increased glucagon secretion	
Kidney	Increased glucose reabsorption	
Nervous system	Neurotransmitter dysfunction	

Tissues Involved in T2D Pathophysiology

Organ System	Normal Metabolic Function	Defect in T2D
Major Role		
Pancreatic beta cells	Secrete insulin	Decreased insulin secretion
Muscle	Metabolizes glucose for energy	Inefficient glucose uptake
Secretes glucose during fasting periods to maintain brain function; main site of gluconeogenesis (glucose production in the body)		Increased endogenous glucose secretion
Contributing Role		
Adipose tissue (fat)	Stores small amounts of glucose for its own use. When fat is broken down, glycerol is released, which is used by the liver to produce glucose	Increased FFA production
Digestive tract	Digests and absorbs carbohydrates and secretes incretin hormones	Decreased incretin effect
Pancreatic alpha cells	Secrete glucagon, which stimulates hepatic glucose production between meals and also helps suppress insulin secretion during fasting periods	Increased glucagon secretion
Kidney	Reabsorbs glucose from renal filtrate to maintain glucose at steady-state levels; also an important site for gluconeogenesis (glucose production)	Increased glucose reabsorption
Brain	Utilizes glucose for brain and nerve function Regulates appetite	Neurotransmitter dysfunction

Natural History of Type 2 Diabetes

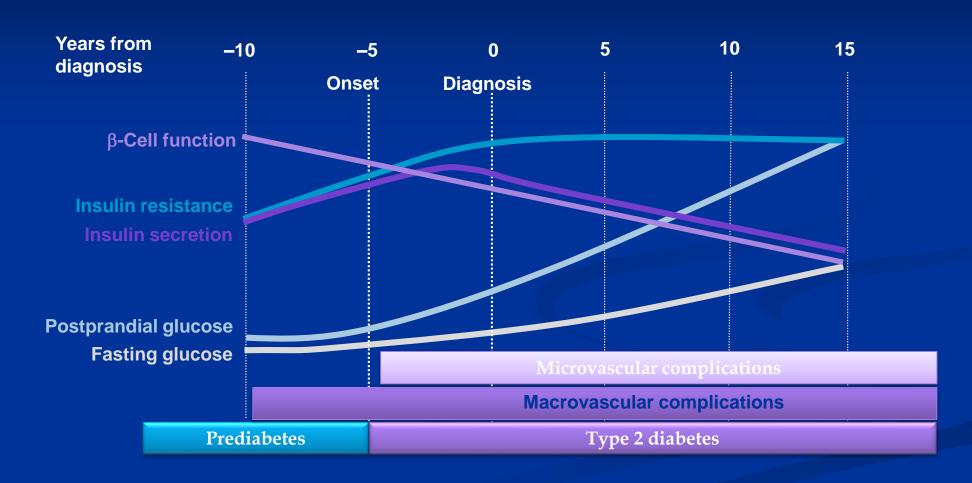
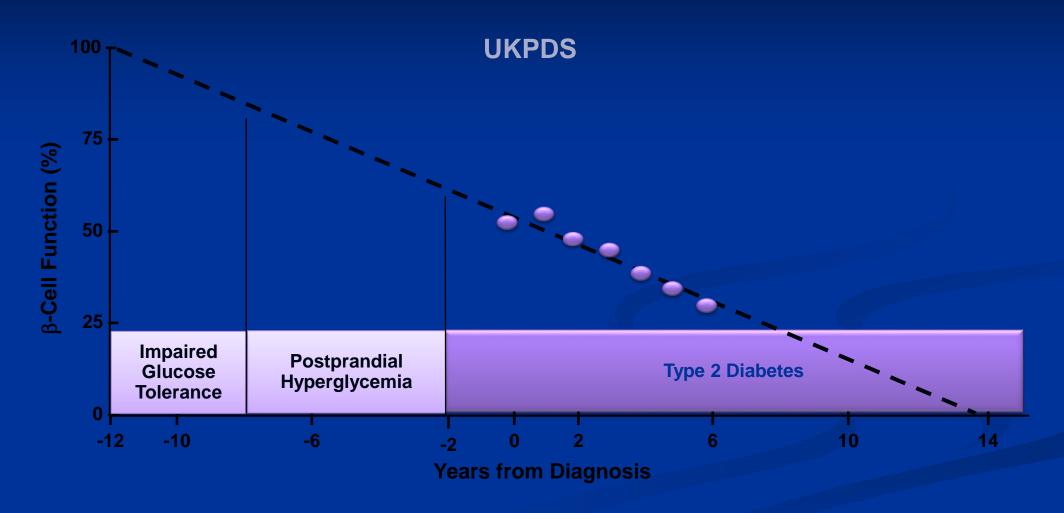


Figure courtesy of CADRE.

β-cell Loss Over Time

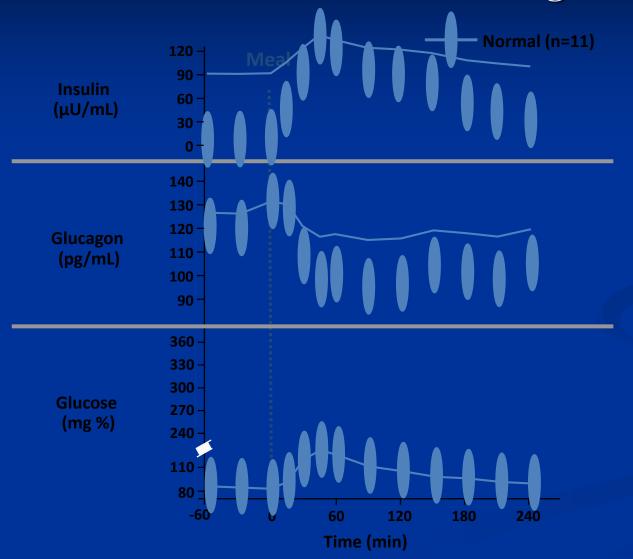


Dashed line = extrapolation based on Homeostasis Model Assessment (HOMA) data.

Data points from obese UKPDS population, determined by HOMA model.

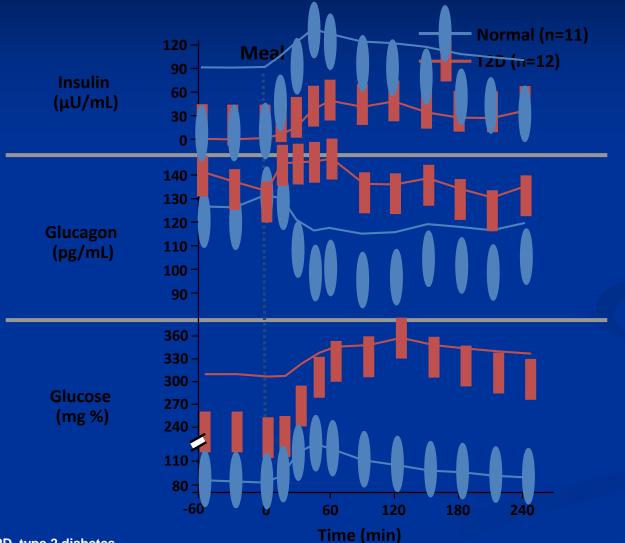
Holman RR. Diabetes Res Clin Pract. 1998;40(suppl):S21-S25.

Normal Glucose Homeostasis and Pre- and Postmeal Insulin and Glucagon Dynamics



Premeal	Postmeal	
↓ Insulin	↑ Insulin	
↑ Glucagon ↑ HGP	↓ Glucagon ↓ HGP	
Just enough glucose to meet metabolic needs between meals	Modest postprandial increase with prompt return to fasting levels	

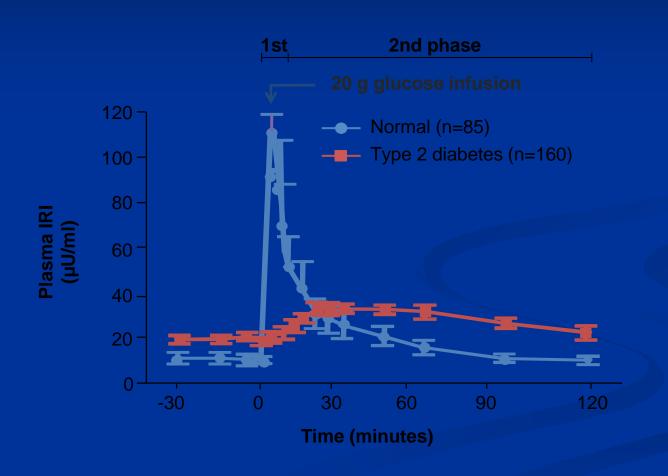
Hyperglycemia in Type 2 Diabetes Results from Abnormal Insulin and Glucagon Dynamics



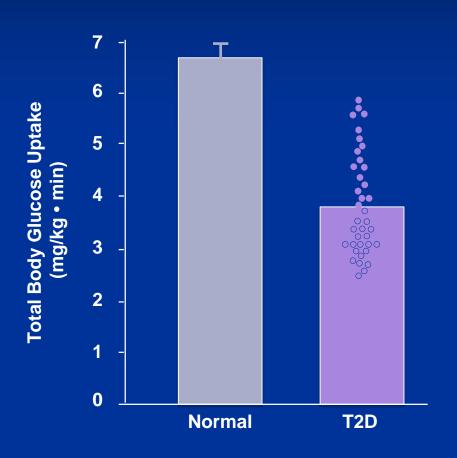
Premeal	Postmeal	
↓ Insulin	↓ Insulin	
↑ Glucagon ↑ HGP	↑ Glucagon ↑ HGP	
↑ FPG	↑↑ PPG	

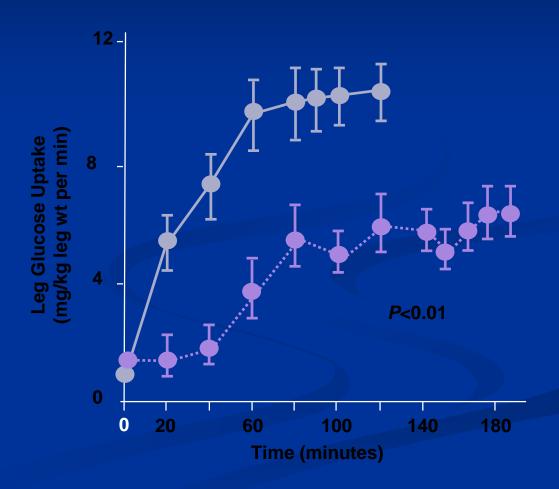
T2D, type 2 diabetes.

Acute Insulin Response Is Reduced in Type 2 Diabetes

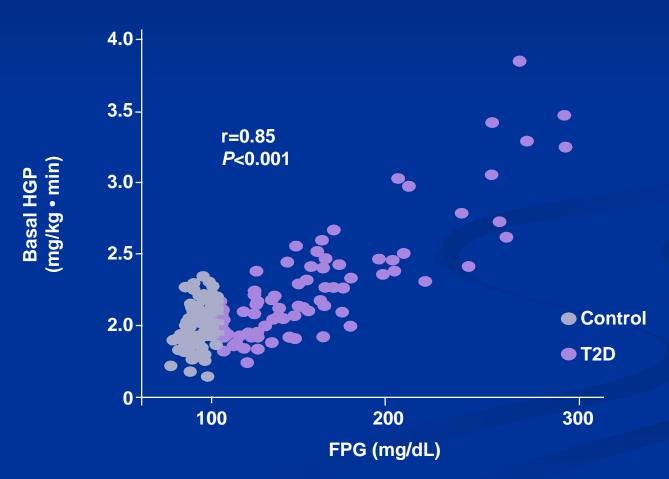


Defective Insulin Action in Type 2 Diabetes



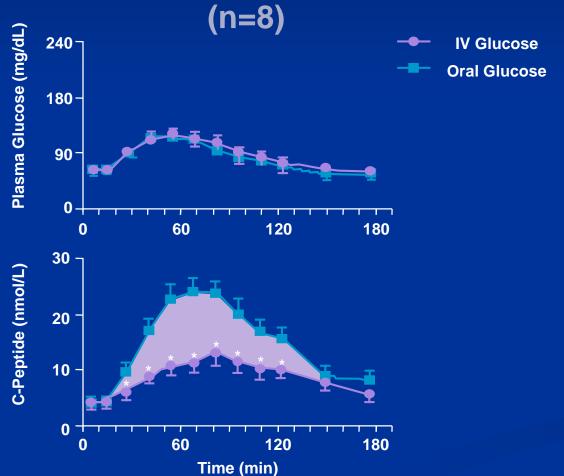


Elevated Fasting Glucose in Type 2 Diabetes Results From Increased HGP

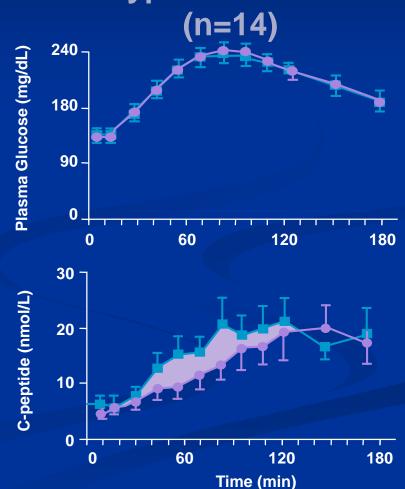


The Incretin Effect Is Diminished in Type 2 Diabetes





Type 2 Diabetes



**P*≤.05.

Actions of GLP-1 and GIP

GLP-1

- Released from L cells in ileum and colon
- # Stimulates insulin release from β-cell in a glucose-dependent manner
- Potent inhibition of gastric emptying
- Potent inhibition of glucagon secretion
- Reduction of food intake and body weight
- Significant effects on β-cell growth and survival

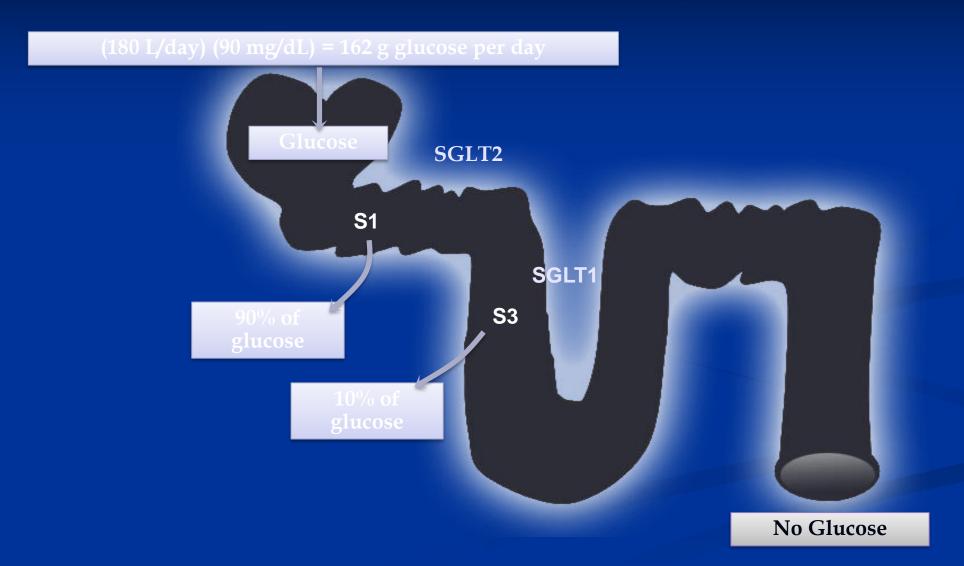
GIP

- Released from K cells in duodenum
- Stimulates insulin release from β-cell in a glucose dependent manner
- Minimal effects on gastric emptying
- No significant inhibition of glucagon secretion
- No significant effects on satiety or body weight
- Potential effects on β-cell growth and survival

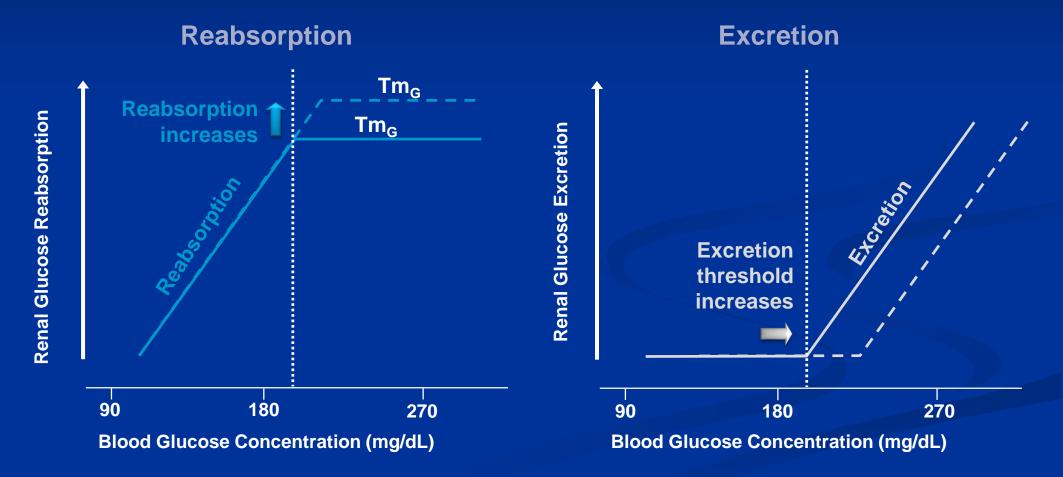
Renal Glucose Reabsorption in Type 2 Diabetes

- Sodium-glucose cotransporters 1 and 2 (SGLT1 and SGLT2) reabsorb glucose in the proximal tubule of kidney
 - **Ensures** glucose availability during fasting periods
- Renal glucose reabsorption is increased in type 2 diabetes
 - Contributes to fasting and postprandial hyperglycemia
 - Hyperglycemia leads to increased SGLT2 levels, which raises the blood glucose threshold for urinary glucose excretion

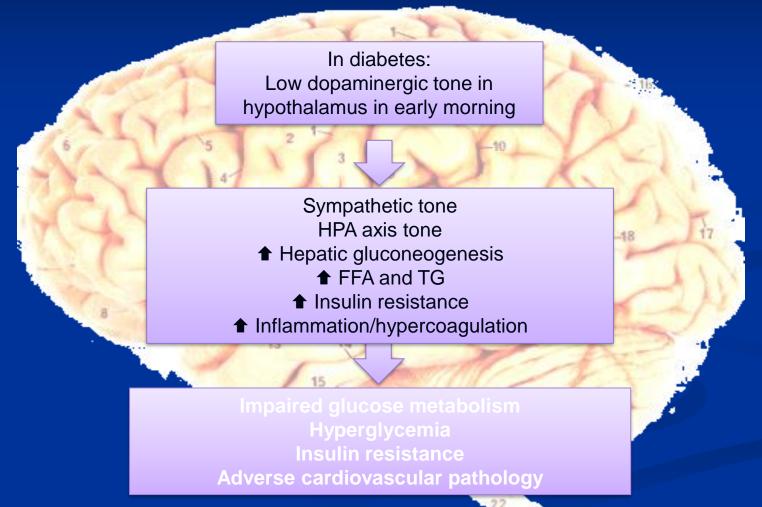
Normal Renal Handling of Glucose



Increased SGLT2 Protein Levels Change Glucose Reabsorption and Excretion Thresholds



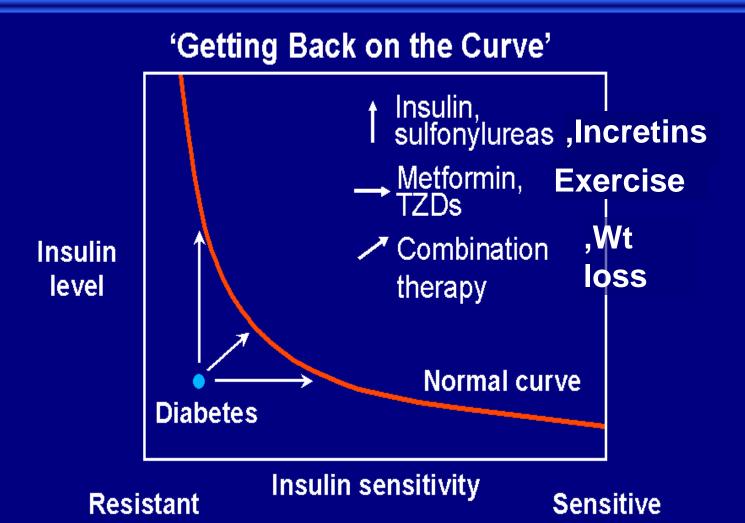
Hypothalamic Dopaminergic Tone and Autonomic Imbalance





Treating Type 2 Diabetes: General Principles





Diagnosis of Type 2 Diabetes

Diagnostic Criteria for Prediabetes and Diabetes in Nonpregnant Adults

Normal	High Risk for Diabetes	Diabetes
FPG <100 mg/dL	IFG FPG ≥100-125 mg/dL	FPG ≥126 mg/dL
2-h PG <140 mg/dL	2-h PG >140-199 mg/dI	2-h PG ≥200 mg/dL Random PG ≥200 mg/dL + symptoms*
A1C <5.5%		≥6.5% Secondary‡

^{*}Polydipsia (frequent thirst), polyuria (frequent urination), polyphagia (extreme hunger), blurred vision, weakness, unexplained weight loss.

[†]A1C should be used only for screening prediabetes. The diagnosis of prediabetes, which may manifest as either IFG or IGT, should be confirmed with glucose testing.

[‡]Glucose criteria are preferred for the diagnosis of DM. In all cases, the diagnosis should be confirmed on a separate day by repeating the glucose or A1C testing. When A1C is used for diagnosis, follow-up glucose testing should be done when possible to help manage DM.

AACE Recommendations for A1C Testing

- A1C should be considered an additional optional diagnostic criterion, not the primary criterion for diagnosis of diabetes
- When feasible, AACE/ACE suggest using traditional glucose criteria for diagnosis of diabetes
- A1C is not recommended for diagnosing type 1 diabetes
- A1C is not recommended for diagnosing gestational diabetes

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AACE Recommendations for A1C Testing

- A1C levels may be misleading in several ethnic populations (for example, African Americans)
- A1C may be misleading in some clinical settings
 - Hemoglobinopathies
 - **■** Iron deficiency
 - Hemolytic anemias
 - **■** Thalassemias
 - Spherocytosis
 - Severe hepatic or renal disease
- AACE/ACE endorse the use of only standardized, validated assays for A1C testing

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Glycemic Management of Type 2 Diabetes

THERAPEUTIC LIFESTYLE CHANGE



LIFESTYLE THERAPY



RISK STRATIFICATION FOR DIABETES COMPLICATIONS

INTENSITY STRATIFIED BY BURDEN OF OBESITY AND RELATED COMPLICATIONS

Nutrition	 Maintain optimal weight Calorie restriction (if BMI is increased) Plant-based diet; high polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fatty acids Avoid trans fatty acids; limit saturated fatty acids Meal replacement Meal replacement
Physical Activity	 150 min/week moderate exertion (eg. walking, stair climbing) Strength training Increase as tolerated Structured program Wearable technologies Medical evaluation/clearance Medical supervision
Sleep	 About 7 hours per night Basic sleep hygiene Screen OSA Home sleep study
Behavioral Support	 Community engagement Alcohol moderation Discuss mood with HCP Formal behavioral therapy
Smoking Cessation	No tobacco products Nicotine replacement therapy Referral to structured program

Components of Therapeutic Lifestyle Change

- Healthful eating
- Sufficient physical activity
- Sufficient sleep
- Avoidance of tobacco products
- Limited alcohol consumption
- Stress reduction

AACE Recommendations: Therapeutic Lifestyle Changes

Parameter	Treatment Goal	
Weight loss (for overweight and obese patients)	Reduce by 5% to 10%	
Physical activity	150 min/week of moderate-intensity exercise (eg, brisk walking) plus flexibility and strength training	
Diet	 Eat regular meals and snacks; avoid fasting to lose weight Consume plant-based diet (high in fiber, low calories/glycemic index, and high in phytochemicals/antioxidants) Understand Nutrition Facts Label information Incorporate beliefs and culture into discussions Use mild cooking techniques instead of high-heat cooking Keep physician-patient discussions informal 	

AACE Recommendations: Healthful Eating

Carbohydrate	Specify healthful carbohydrates (fresh fruits and vegetables, legumes, whole grains); target 7-10 servings per day Preferentially consume lower-glycemic index foods (glycemic index score <55 out of 100: multigrain bread, pumpernickel bread, whole oats, legumes, apple, lentils, chickpeas, mango, yams, brown rice)
Fat	Specify healthful fats (low mercury/contaminant-containing nuts, avocado, certain plant oils, fish) Limit saturated fats (butter, fatty red meats, tropical plant oils, fast foods) and trans fat; choose fat-free or low-fat dairy products
Protein	Consume protein in foods with low saturated fats (fish, egg whites, beans); there is no need to avoid animal protein Avoid or limit processed meats
Micronutrients	Routine supplementation is not necessary; a healthful eating meal plan can generally provide sufficient micronutrients Chromium; vanadium; magnesium; vitamins A, C, and E; and CoQ10 are not recommended for glycemic control Vitamin supplements should be recommended to patients at risk of insufficiency or deficiency

AACE Recommendations: Medical Nutritional Therapy

- Consistency in day-to-day carbohydrate intake
- Adjusting insulin doses to match carbohydrate intake (eg, use of carbohydrate counting)
- Limitation of sucrose-containing or high-glycemic index foods
- Adequate protein intake
- "Heart-healthy" diets
- Weight management
- Exercise
- Increased glucose monitoring