## The Pancreas/Diabetes

#### Diabetes around the world in 2021



In developed countries, 10% or more of the total health budget is spent on the management of diabetes and its complications.

https://diabetesatlas.org/

#### Diabetes around the world in 2021:





537 million adults (20-79 years) are living with diabetes - 1 in 10. This number is predicted to rise to 643 million by 2030 and 783 million by 2045.



Over 3 in 4 adults with diabetes live in low- and middle-income countries.



Diabetes is responsible for **6.7 million** deaths in 2021 - 1 every 5 seconds.



Diabetes caused at least **USD 966 billion** dollars in health expenditure – a 316% increase over the last 15 years.



541 million adults have Impaired Glucose Tolerance (IGT), which places them at high risk of type 2 diabetes..

#### Diabetes Mellitus

#### • <u>Diabetes</u>

• Greek for "siphon", named for the excessive urination

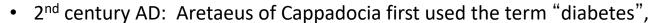
#### mellitus

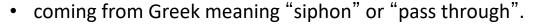
- Latin for "sweetened with honey"
- Refers to the presence of sugar in the urine of patients having the disease
- Remember: diabetes insipidus
- caused by impaired renal reabsorption



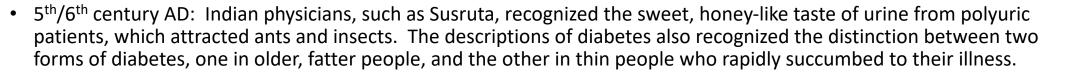
## A brief history of diabetes-1

• 1550 BC: The oldest description of diabetes as a polyuric state in ancient Egypt.

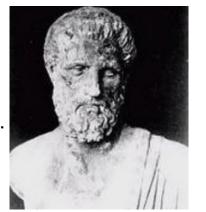


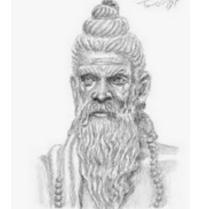


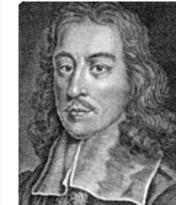
He characterized diabetes as "being a melting down of flesh and limbs into urine".



- 17<sup>th</sup> century AD: Thomas Willis, physician to King Charles II, rediscovered sweetness in urine. He noted the importance of life style when he remarked that the prevalence of diabetes was increasing because of "good fellowship and gulling down chiefly of unalloyed wine".
- 1776: Matthew Dobson showed that urinary sweetness "glycosuria" was caused by sugar and was associated with a rise in blood sugar.
- End of 18<sup>th</sup> century: John Rollo, Scottish military surgeon, first used the term "diabetes mellitus" (honey) to distinguish the condition from "diabetes insipidus" (tasteless) and suggested to modify diet: low carbohydrates.







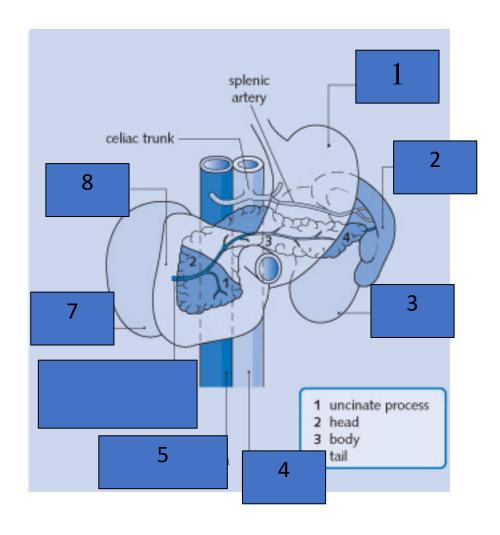


- 19<sup>th</sup> century: Claude Bernard, a French physiologist, discovered that: sugar was stored as glycogen in the liver
- 1869: Paul Langerhans discovered the pancreatic islets.
- 1889: Oskar Minkowski removed the pancreas from a dog and discovered that the animal developed severe and fatal diabetes.
- 1893: Edouard Laguesse showed islets were the endocrine tissue of the pancreas. It had long been thought of as a kidney disease.
- 1921: Frederick Banting, Charles Best, James Collip and J.J.R. Macleod, in Toronto, discovered insulin.
- 1922: First patients treated with improve pancreatic extract by physicians such as Elliot P. Joslin, who introduced systematic education in the US and Robin D. Lawrence who has diabetes himself and founded the British Diabetic Association (now Diabetes UK).
- 1955: Primary structure of insulin elucidated by Frederick Sanger: 51 aa Nobelprize in Chemistry 1958 (1980)
- 1969: Dorothy Hodgkin described the three dimensional structure of insulin using X-ray crystallography. also: Vitamin B12 and penicillin; Nobelprize in Chemistry 1964

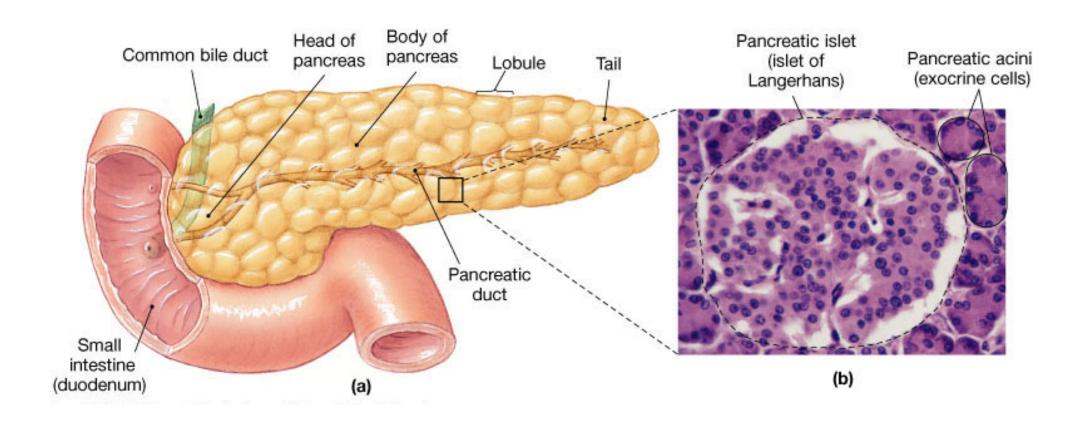


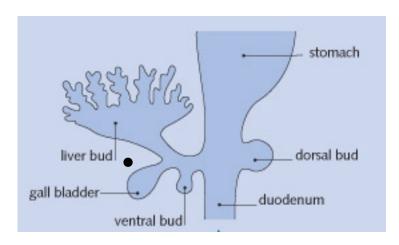
• 2000: James Shapiro and colleagues establish the "Edmonton protocol" revitalizing efforts to cure type 1 diabetes by transplantation.

## The Pancreas-anatomy



#### The Endocrine Pancreas

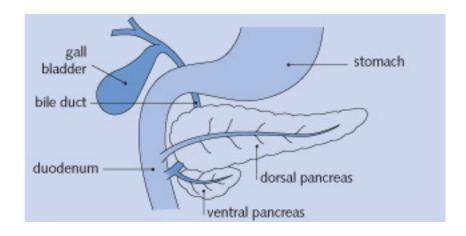




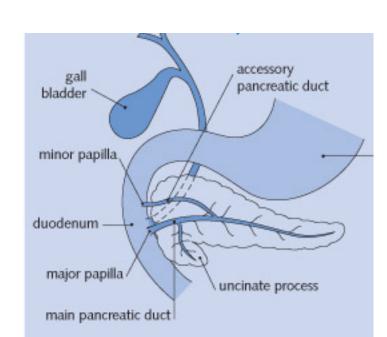
## Embryological Development of the pancreas

30 days gestation

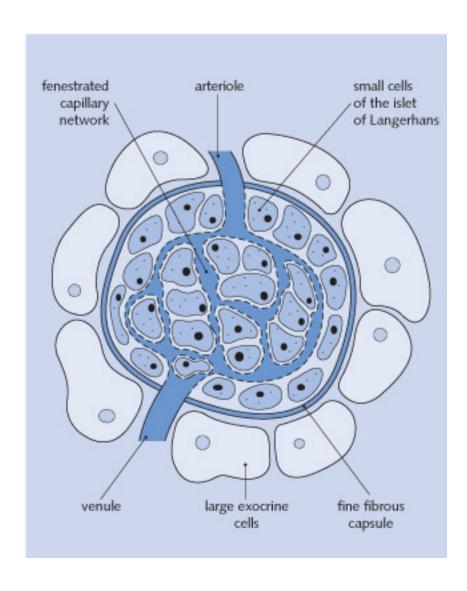
6 weeks gestation



7 weeks gestation



#### The pancreatic islets



 Clusters of endocrine cells within the pancreas called Islets of Langerhans or pancreatic islets

 $\alpha$  cells secrete glucagons

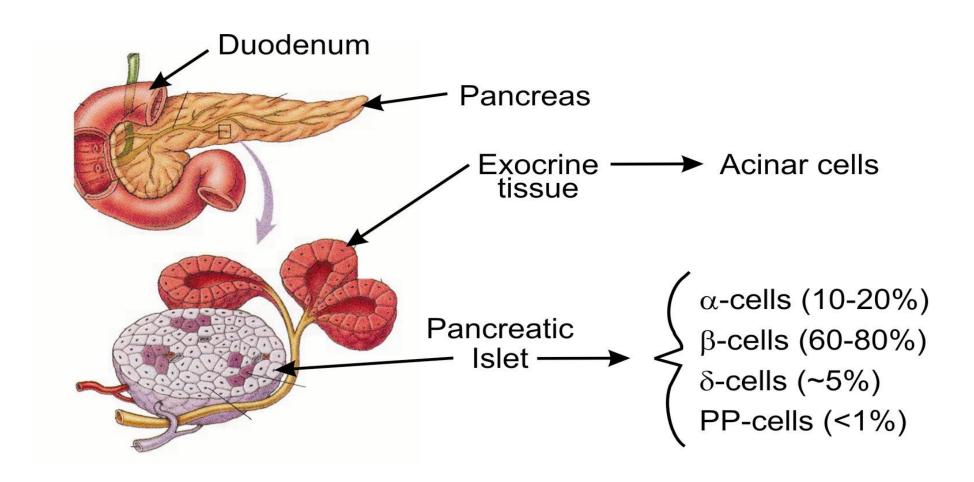
 $\beta$  cells secrete insulin

 $\delta$  cells secrete somatostatin

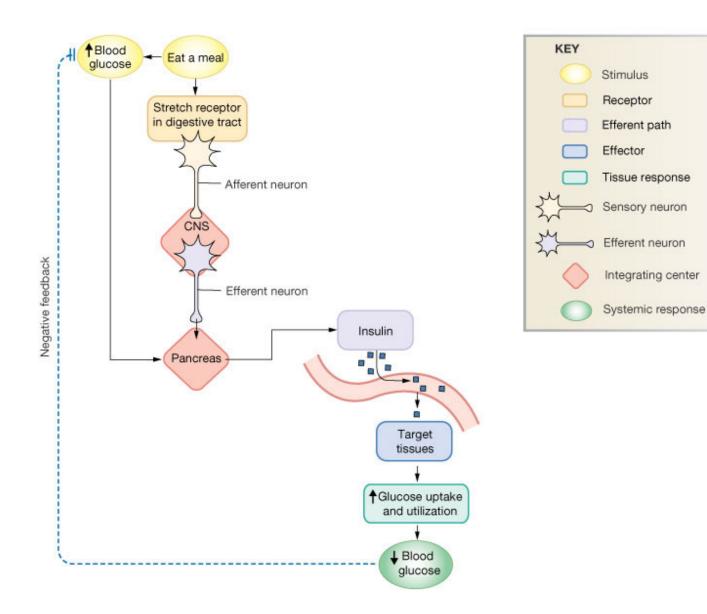
PP cells secrete pancreatic polypeptide

 $\beta$  cells are the most numerous and located at the center of the islet while the other cells are located around the periphery

#### Pancreatic Islets within Pancreas



## Endocrine Reflex Pathways: Overview





#### Glucose: Insulin and glucagon

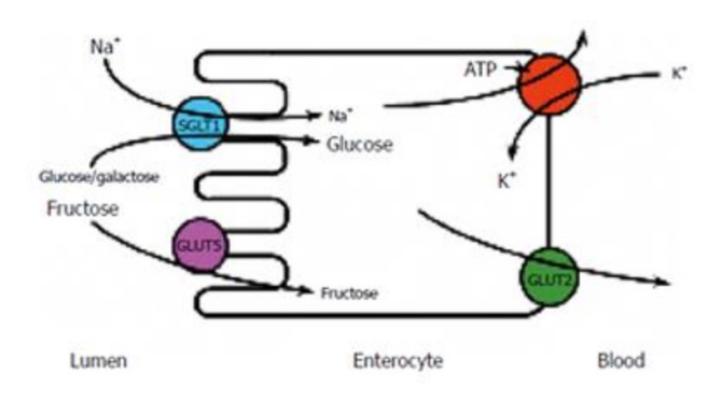
- Insulin lowers blood glucose by increasing the rate of glucose uptake and utilization
- Glucagon raises blood glucose by increasing the rates of glycogen breakdown and glucose manufacture by the liver

#### Glucose: sources

- 1. food
- 2. Storage: glycogen
- 3. De novo synthesis: gluconeogenesis

#### Glucose uptake from food:

sodium-glucose-transporter 1: SGLT1

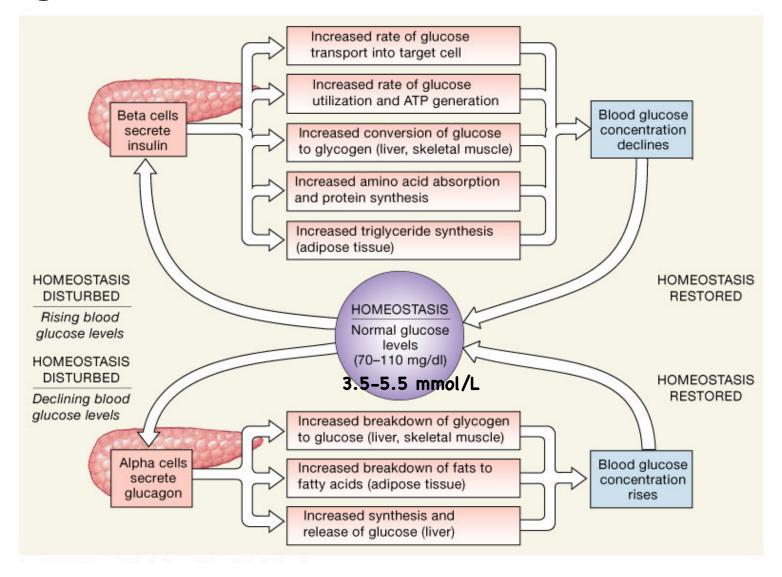


**Figure 1 Classical model of intestinal sugar transport (from Wright, 1998).** SGLT1 is the sodium dependent glucose/galactose transporter on the brush border membrane (BBM). The Na+K+-ATPase on the basolateral membrane (BLM) maintains the gradient necessary for the functioning of SGLT1. GLUT5 is a facilitative transporter on the BBM which transports fructose into the cell. GLUT2 on the BLM transports glucose, galactose and fructose out of the cell.

#### The Regulation of Blood Glucose Concentration

Hypoglycemic:

insulin



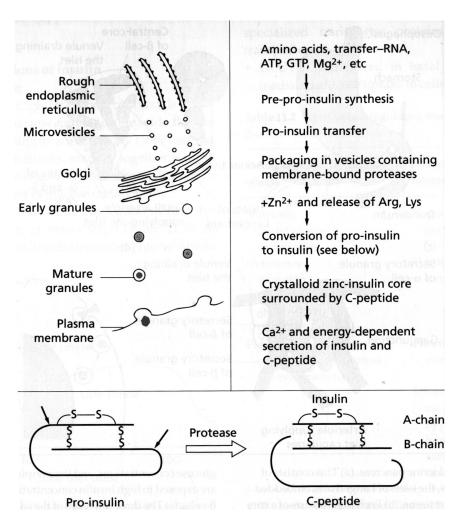
Hyperglycemic:

Glucagon
Growth hormone
Adrenalin
cortisol

- Hyperglycemia: Fasting glucose concentrations > 7.8 mmol/L
- Hypoglycemia: Fasting glucose concentrations < 2.5 mmol/L</li>

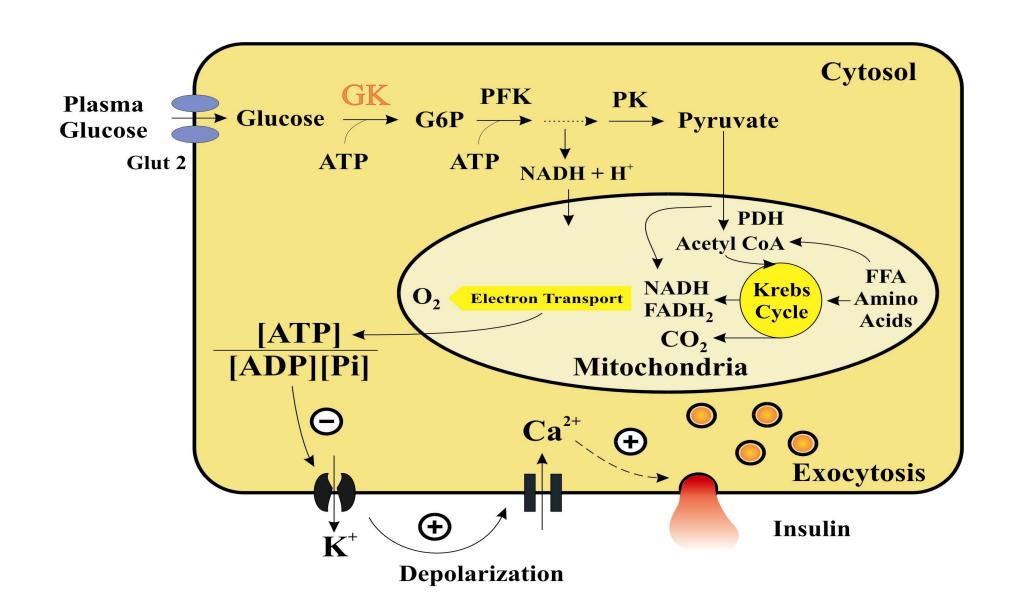
#### Insulin secretion

#### Subcellular site sequence of reactions



- protein synthesis in the rER yields preproinsulin which is transferred into the lumen of the ER
- hydrolysis yields proinsulin which is transferred to the Golgi about 20 min after initiation of protein synthesis
- in the Golgi soluble zinc-containing proinsulin hexamers are found
- proinsulin is enclosed in vesicles that carry specific proteases bound to the membrane
- within 0.5-2 hours, the specific proteases act on proinsulin to release the C-peptide and insulin within the granule
- when the cells are stimulated release occurs
- proinsulin: 86 amino acids
- insulin: 51 amino acids, 21  $\alpha$  chain, 30  $\beta$  chain

## Stimulus-secretion coupling



## Factors regulating insulin release

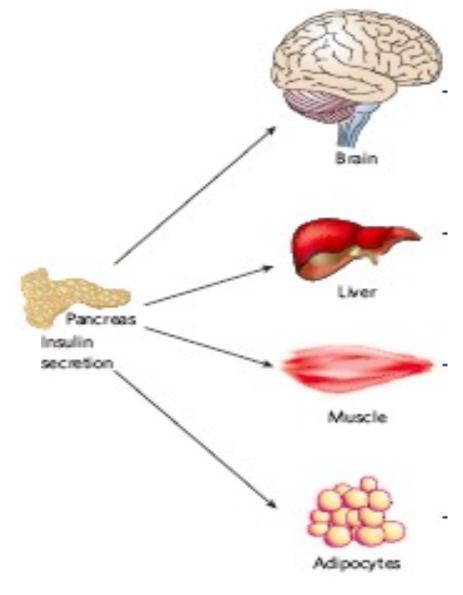
| Factors increasing insulin release | Factors decreasing insulin release |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Nutrients:                         | Nutrients:                         |
| raised glucose                     | low glucose                        |
| amino acids, fatty acids, ketones  |                                    |
| Hormones:                          | Hormones:                          |
| glucagon                           | somatostatin                       |
| ACTH, TSH                          |                                    |
| gastrin, secretin, cholecystokinin |                                    |
| GIP, GLP-1                         |                                    |
| Pancreatic innervation:            | Pancreatic innervation:            |
| sympathetic $lpha$ receptors       | sympathetic β receptors            |
| parasympathetic                    | Stress                             |
|                                    | exercise, hypoxia, hypothermia,    |
|                                    | surgery, severe burns              |

## Insulin signals the "fed" state

 Has major anabolic actions on intermediate metabolism affecting glucose, lipid, and protein metabolism.

- 60% of the secreted insulin is removed by the liver
- => insulin concentrations reaching the liver are almost 3x higher than in the peripheral circulation

#### Metabolic effects of insulin on target cells



- may stimulate satiety (fullness)
- + glycogenesis (glucose to glycogen)
- -glycogenolysis (glycogen to glucose)
- -gluconeogenesis (amino acids to glucose)
- + glucose uptake
- + glycogenesis (glucose to glycogen)
- + glycolysis (glucose to energy)
- +amino acid uptake and protein synthesis
- -glycogenolysis (glycogen to glucose)
- -proteolysis
- + glucose uptake
- + lipogenesis (glucose to fatty acids)
- -lipolysis (fatty acids to energy)

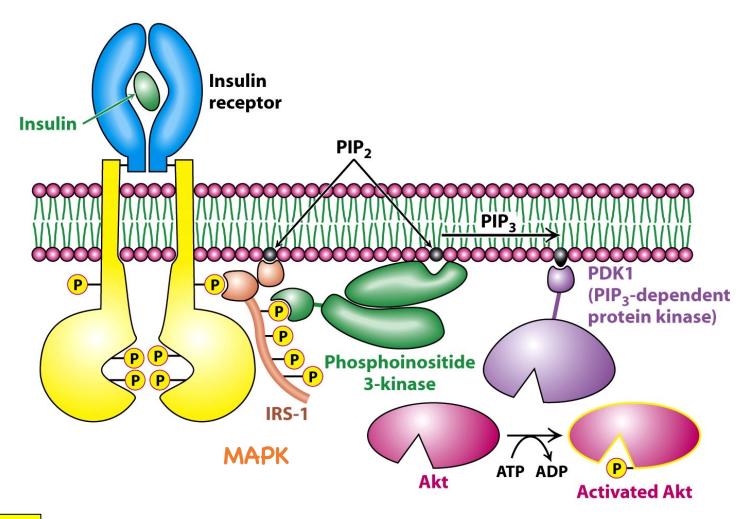
## Metabolic effects of glucagon on target cells

| Target cells                      | Action of glucagon                                   |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Muscle cells and many other cells | Stimulates glycogenolysis (glycogen → glucose)       |
|                                   | Inhibits glucose uptake                              |
|                                   | Inhibits glycolysis (glucose → energy)               |
|                                   | Inhibits amino acid uptake and protein synthesis     |
| Adipose cells                     | Stimulates lipolysis (fatty acids → energy)          |
| Liver cells                       | Stimulates glycogenolysis (glycogen → glucose)       |
|                                   | Stimulates gluconeogenesis (amino acids → glucose)   |
|                                   | Stimulates ketogenesis (fatty acids → ketone bodies) |

- Primary site of glucagon action is the liver.
- Glucagon binds to its receptors that are linked to adenylate cyclase.

#### Regulation of blood glucose concentration

- insulin facilitates absorption of food from the gut
- 90% of glucose is stored as lipids
- fatty acids, mobilized from adipose tissues under the control of a number of hormones (epinephrine, glucocorticoids, glucagon, growth hormone), provide a substrate for liver and muscle metabolism.
- Ketone bodies produced in the liver provide an energy source for muscle and brain during long periods of fasting.



Glucose transport

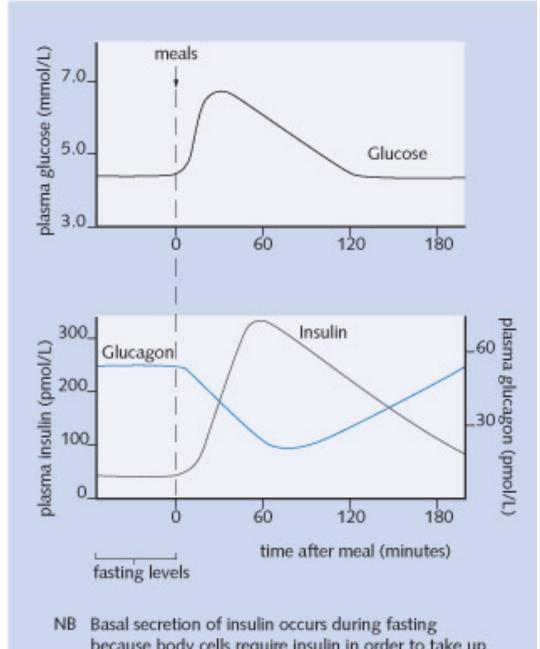
Glycogen synthesis

Lipogenesis+ Lipolysis -

protein synthesis gene expression cellular growth

## Responses that alter blood glucose levels

| Responses that raise blood glucose   | Responses that lower blood glucose                                 |
|--|--|
| Ingestion of glucose in the diet   | Increased uptake in cells  |
| Gluconeogenesis (liver): irreversible conversion of amino acids to glucose       | Metabolism to produce energy                                       |
| Glycogenolysis (liver)-the irreversible breakdown of glycogen to release glucose | Glycogenesis-the reversible conversion of glucose to glycogen      |
|  | Lipogenesis, the irreversible conversion of glucose to fatty acids |



because body cells require insulin in order to take up and utilize blood glucose

#### 2 Types of Diabetes Mellitus

• Insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM), Type I

• Non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), Type II

## Type I Diabetes

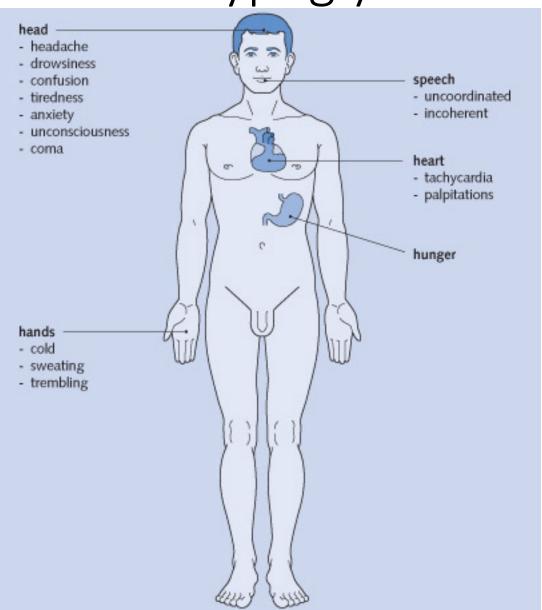


#### Presenting features of type I Diabetes

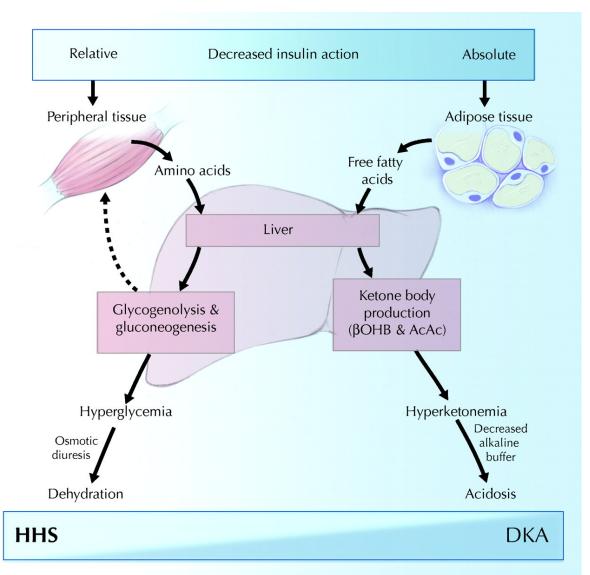
- Symptoms relating to osmotic effect of the hyperglycemia
  - Increased thirst and polydipsia
  - Polyuria and nocturia
  - Blurred vision
  - Drowsiness and dehydration
- Cutaneous candidal infections
  - Vulva (pruritus vulva)
  - Foreskin (balanitis)
- Symptoms relating to the inability to transport fuel substrates
  - Extreme fatigue
  - Muscle wasting through protein breakdown
  - Weight loss

<u>Diabetic ketoacidosis</u>

Symptoms of hypoglycemia



## Ketoacidosis (Type I)



 ketone bodies metabolic acidosis-lipolysis

#### Therapy:

- IV insulin 12-20 u bolus
- .05 to 0.1 u/kg/hr
- Intravenous fluid 0.9% normal saline
- glucose approx. 200 add dextrose
- potassium electrolytes as needed

## Symptoms of ketoacidosis



#### Type I Diabetes (Juvenile diabetes)

Autoimmune destruction of the insulin producing b-cells

The body cells fail to take up glucose.

Plasma glucose rises, overflows into the urine taking with it water, and increasing the urine volume.

The liver then produces ketones, which eventually acidify the blood.

The brain cannot function in an acid medium.

Therapy:

1920 Insulin

#### Pathogenesis

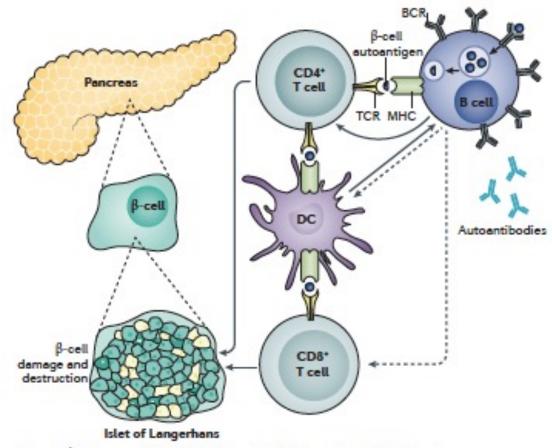


Figure 4 | Pathogenesis of T1DM. Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) is an immune-mediated disease. Activated B cells interact with CD4\* and CD8\* T cells, as well as dendritio cells (DCs). Antigen presentation by B cells and DCs drives the activation of  $\beta$ -cell-specific T cells. In addition, the exposure of B cells to  $\beta$ -cell autoantigens leads to the production of islet-targeting autoantibodies, which serve as biomarkers of asymptomatic disease. Dashed arrows indicate the potential interactions between B cells and CD8\* T cells and between B cells and DCs. BCR, B cell receptor; TCR, T cell receptor.

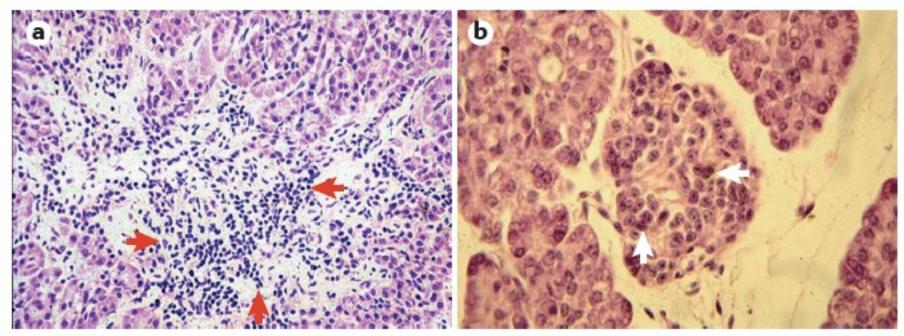
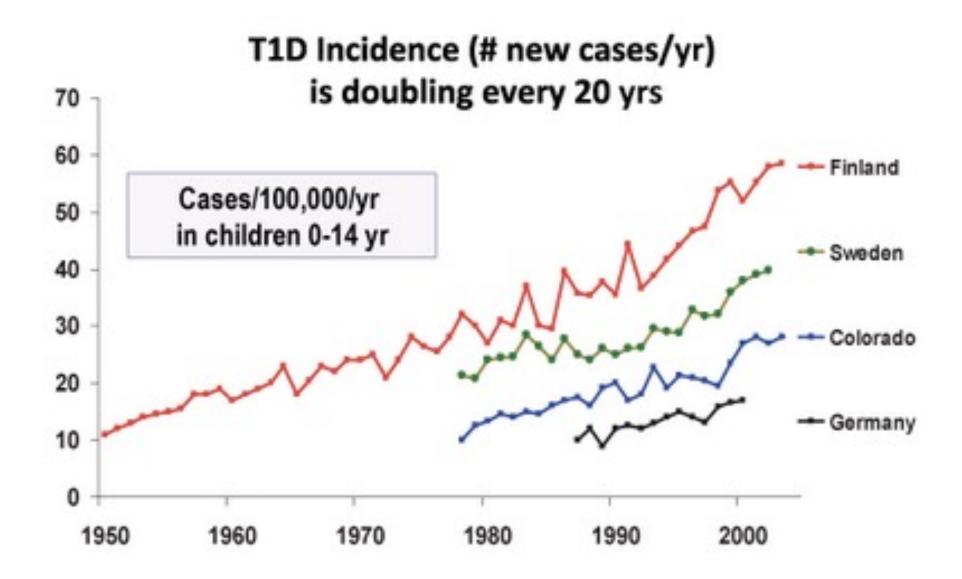


Figure 5 | Pancreatic inflammation and insulitis in T1DM. Histological examination of pancreas tissue after symptom onset (diabetic ketoacidosis) shows very severe insulitis with massive mononuclear cell infiltration in and around the pancreatic islets in one patient (part  $\mathbf{a}$ ; red arrows; magnification ×125) and less-severe insulitis only involving dendritic cells in another patient (part  $\mathbf{b}$ ; white arrows; magnification ×250). Biopsies were obtained from individuals who carried the *HLA-DR3/4* genotype and succumbed to brain eachem <1 week after symptom onset. Adapted with permission from REF. 108, Springer.



#### Aetiology of Type I diabetes

• An environmental factor triggers a selective autoimmune destruction of the  $\beta$ -cells of the pancreas in a genetically predisposed individual

- Genetic risk
  - HLA region allele combinations important to T cell tolerance
  - Class II HLA region in MHC: HLA-DR, HLA-DQ
  - Other loci: modify the vulnerability of b-cell to inflammatory mediators
- Putative environmental triggers:
  - Chemicals: N-nitro compounds
  - Viruses: mumps, rubella, cytomegalovirus, enteroviruses
  - Increased hygiene
  - Vaccination
  - Stress
  - Perinatal factors: maternal rubella, blood group incompatibility, maternal age, birth weight, gestational age, birth order
  - Food components: milk and wheat protein, Vitamin D deficiency

# The 'Hygiene hypothesis' and the sharp gradient in the incidence of autoimmune and allergic diseases between Russian Karelia and Finland

ANITA KONDRASHOVA, TAPIO SEISKARI, 1,2 JORMA ILONEN, 3,4 MIKAEL KNIP, 5,6,7,8 and HEIKKI HYÖTY 1,2



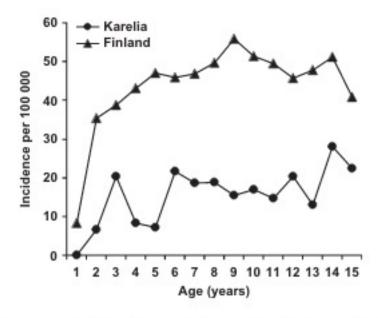
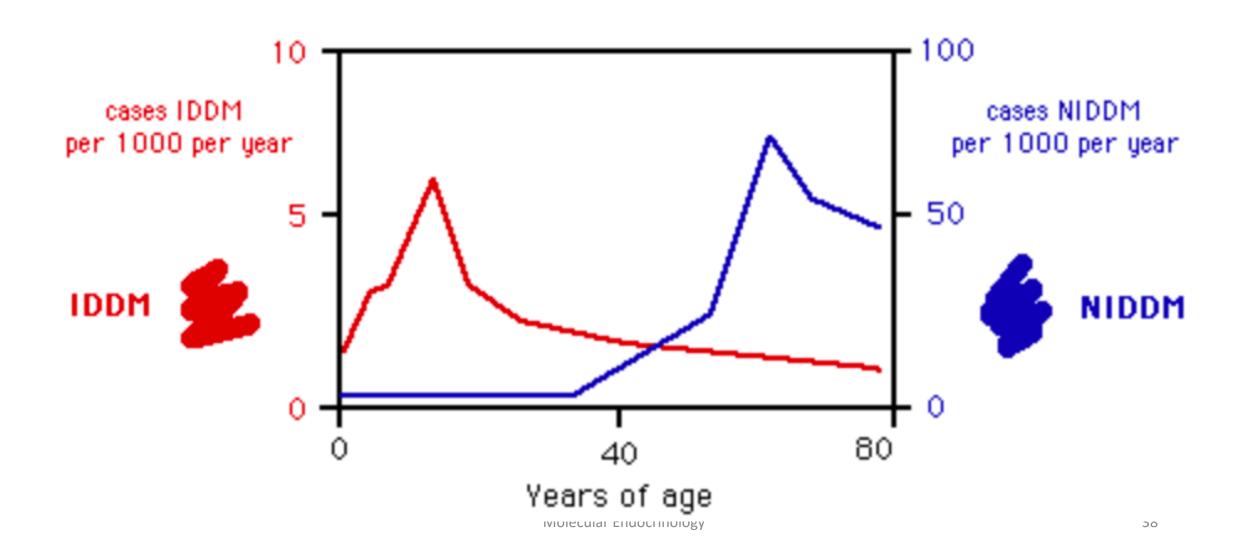
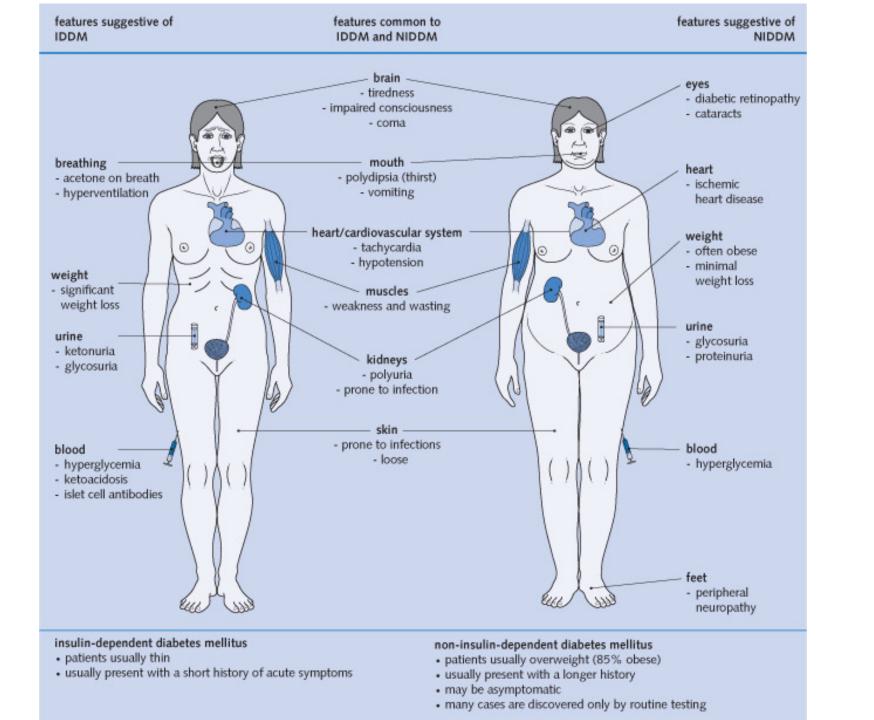


Fig. 2. Annual incidence of type 1 diabetes by age in 0–14-year-old children in Russian Karelia (circles) and Finland (triangles) during the years 1990–99.

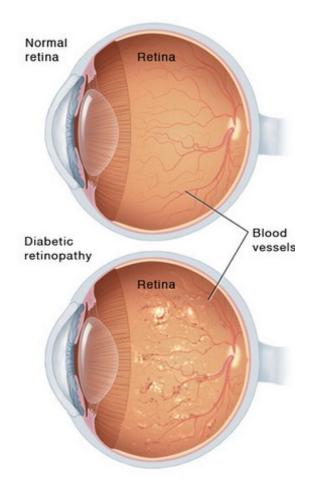
#### Incidence of IDDM and NIDDM with age





#### Complications of Diabetes

- Chronic microvascular complications
  - Eyes: retinopathy
  - Kidney
  - Nerves
- Macrovascular complications
  - Myocardial infarction
  - Stroke
  - Peripheral vascular disease



## Chronic complications of Diabetes

- Retinopathy: most common cause of blindness in people of working age
- Nephropathy: 16% of all patients needing renal replacement therapy have diabetes
- <u>Erectile dysfunction:</u> may affect up to 50% of men with long-standing diabetes
- Macrovascular disease: 2-3 fold increased risk of coronary heart disease and stroke
- <u>Foot problems</u>: 15% of people with diabetes develop foot ulcers; 5-15% of people with diabetic foot ulcers need amputations

